



Article

Negotiating Meaning in Classroom Interaction: A Case Study of Teacher Talk in Manado Elementary Schools, Indonesia

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A B S T R A C T

This research examines teacher talk in elementary classes in Manado, Indonesia, focusing on how this verbal practice affects meaning negotiation and classroom interactions. Despite the reform of the latest curriculum driving a more interactive pedagogical approach, empirical research at the elementary school level, particularly in multilingual environments where the foundations of basic communication are formed, remains limited. Data were collected through classroom observations at three schools in Manado over one semester, yielding 1,248 speech acts. These were then analyzed using the frameworks of interactional sociolinguistics, Second Language Acquisition (SLA), dialogic pedagogy, and the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) model. The analysis showed that teacher talk was dominated by commands, questions, and explanations, which ensured control of the learning process. However, this limited students' participation and autonomy. Negotiation strategies such as checking for confirmations, asking for clarification, and providing feedback appeared sporadically, while students' turns to respond rarely occurred. Examples of code-switching to Melayu Manado served to facilitate comprehension and bridge cultural meaning, while also highlighting the mediating role of teacher talk in a multilingual class. These findings show that communicative practices today, despite their effectiveness in class management, limit participation and inclusivity in dialogue. This study suggests that educational programs further emphasize dialogic pedagogy, feedback that centers on material comprehension, and the use of local language in the learning process to increase comprehension, participation, and equity. By centering attention on teacher talk, this study contributes to research on teacher talk and the global discussion regarding dialogic pedagogy, drawing on empirical evidence from the content of a multilingual elementary school that has yet to be fully explored.

I. INTRODUCTION

Classroom interaction has long been acknowledged as the baseline of an effective studying process. This creates a way of learning together and a means for students to forge their cognitive and social identities (Sedova et al., 2016; Wells & Arauz, 2006). In elementary education, the practice of teacher talk plays a very important

role; as the key player in creating comprehension, participation, and identity (Mercer & Dawes, 2014; Walsh, 2011). In this case, teacher talk forms the ecosystem for communication within the classroom, which opens meaning formation, collaboration, and high-level thinking.

Recent studies highlight how dialogic interaction is important in transforming classroom

educational practices to foster critical skills, student autonomy, and deep comprehension (Cui & Teo, 2023). Through dialogic exchange, the construction of knowledge becomes a collective and reflective process, rather than just lectures from the teacher to the students. Nystrand et al. (2003) show that dialogic expansion, especially in follow-up questions and student statements, is closely connected to the development of reasoning and study autonomy. Tao and Chen (2024) also state that a class dominated by monologic learning leads to limited comprehension, whereas dialogic learning and substantial feedback can improve comprehension. Collectively, these studies highlight the need to push comprehension, investigation, and the building of collaborative knowledge. This change is very important, especially in multilingual classes, where interactional negotiation is necessary both linguistically and pedagogically.

A substantial body of research suggests that teacher talk with participation and student performance (Jiang et al., 2025; Ng et al., 2025; Tao & Chen, 2024), positioning classroom interaction as a dynamic space for cognitive and linguistic growth (Walsh, 2011; Mercer & Howe, 2012). In this context, certain spoken strategies, such as open questions (Soysal & Soysal, 2022; Svanes & Andersson-Bakken, 2023), scaffolding (Shao et al., 2023; Doo et al., 2020; Zuo et al., 2023; Thomann & Deutscher, 2025), and dialogic learning (Jay et al., 2017), have consistently been paired with higher and more critical participation. For example, open-ended questions tend to trigger a varied train of reasoning and a more detailed response (Soysal & Soysal, 2022), while scaffolding and metacognitive instruction push autonomy and self regulation within students in the context of learning (Shao et al., 2023; Doo et al., 2020; Zuo et al., 2023; Thomann & Deutscher, 2025). Experimental research on dialogic learning also reports increased student work ethic in literature, science, and maths (Jay et al., 2017).

From the perspective of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), the Interaction Hypothesis by Long (1996) states that meaning negotiation through clarification, confirmation, or repair facilitates access to producing understandable input and output. Kasper (2012) expands on this, stating that such negotiation can improve pragmatic competence because students are involved in repairing and clarifying authentic communication.

These statements are in line with the principles of interactional sociolinguistics, in which Gumperz (2019) states that contextualizing gestures, such as body gestures and discourse markers, is a resource for creating comprehension. In the context of the Indonesian language, Sari et al. (2017) find that frequent use of meaning negotiation can increase comprehension by prompting students to process input thoroughly and produce meaningful output, thereby strengthening the bond among interaction, cognition, and language development.

The Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) model, developed by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) and refined by Wells (1999), remains one of the longstanding frameworks for analyzing classroom discourse. Even with how it is sometimes criticized because of its rigid triadic structure, a critique substantiated by Molinari et al. (2013), Waring (2009), and Mariam et al. (2024), all of whom document that the model's triadic closure obscures the more varied and sometimes contested sequences that actually occur in classrooms, newer studies have combined the IRF framework with dialogic pedagogy to capture how traditional interaction patterns can grow into a more collaborative and open exchange (Alexander, 2017, 2020, and Walsh, 2011). This analytical approach offers a newly useful lens for identifying either the persistence of authoritative discourse or the emergence of dialogic practice in multilingual classroom interaction. Meanwhile, SLA and interactional sociolinguistics focus more on micro-level discourse mechanisms, dialogic pedagogy, and IRF analysis, revealing pedagogical patterns at the macro level that facilitate participation.

This dynamic is uniquely complex as a result of the linguistic heterogeneity of Indonesia. The Indonesian language lives side by side with more than 700 local languages (James, 2003). Teachers often operate in a hybrid linguistic ecosystem where they balance local language norms, variety, and institutional expectations (Goebel, 2010). Previous studies show that Indonesian classrooms are still influenced by standard language ideology, which prioritizes teacher-centered discourse and serves a corrective function (Zacharias, 2012; Zein et al., 2020; Nasir et al., 2019). Ramli and Yohana (2017) also observe that teacher talk still dominates class interaction, leaving little space for student contributions or meaningful negotiation. Despite ongoing curriculum reform pushing for

interactive, student-centered pedagogy, many elementary classes still rely heavily on monologic teaching patterns, especially in places where students' fluency in standard Indonesian remains low (Molinari et al., 2013).

Despite international studies producing much literature regarding teacher conversation, dialogic pedagogy, and meaning negotiation, research in the Indonesian context is still not as adequate, especially in the level of elementary school education; the place where communicative norms and base cognition are established (Zacharias, 2012; Zein et al., 2020; Ramli & Yohana, 2017), making the context of basic education not yet explored. Other than that, there is only a small amount of research on how teachers use practical spoken language and negotiation strategies to build collective comprehension in a hybrid linguistic environment, such as the city of Manado in North Sulawesi province. This lack asks for an explanation of how teachers talk, mediating learning and participation in a multilingual elementary classroom.

Thus, this study investigates how teachers talk in class in a multilingual elementary school in Mandatory, Indonesia, focusing on how verbal language practice forms meaning negotiation and interaction in class. Specifically, this research aims (1) to identify the dominant forms and functions of verbal teacher discourse, (2) to analyze strategic negotiation that facilitates comprehension and participation, and (3) to explore how these practices contribute to the dialogic involvement in a multilingual class environment.

This study contributes theoretically and pedagogically. Theoretically, this study integrates dialogic pedagogy, SLA theory, and interactional sociolinguistics with IRF analysis to get a more comprehensive understanding of how meaning negotiation occurs in a multilingual context. Pedagogically, this study offers insights into teacher education and professional development by emphasizing how dialogic scaffolding, feedback, and strategic code feedback can improve comprehension, participation, and inclusivity. In situating this investigation within multilingual elementary classrooms in Manado, this study aims to contribute to addressing the empirical gap in evidence regarding how teacher talk mediates meaning negotiation and interactional participation in early education.

This gap is not merely local. Recent large-

scale data on Sulawesi's education sector document persistent disparities in teacher deployment and instructional quality between urban and rural areas (Abduh et al., 2026), yet almost no classroom-level discourse research has been conducted in this province specifically. At the same time, evidence on whether dialogic pedagogy actually takes hold in Indonesian primary classrooms remains mixed: Irayanti (2025) found that dialogic and critical pedagogy largely failed to take root in Indonesian primary schools despite curriculum reform, while Purwaningrum (2024) reported that dialogic discussion did enhance children's argumentation skills in an Indonesian reading context. The Manado data reported here speak directly to this unresolved tension, offering fine-grained evidence of discourse from a multilingual, under-researched region rather than another confirmatory case for either position.

II. METHOD

Research Design

This study used a naturalistic qualitative approach with an exploratory case study design, drawing on Yin's (2018) framework for its multiple-case logic, in which each of the three schools was treated as a bounded case situated in a distinct regional and sociolinguistic context, and on Merriam and Tisdell's (2015) qualitative case study tradition for its naturalistic, interpretive stance toward classroom data, consistent with the study's aim of understanding meaning negotiation as it unfolds in real classroom talk rather than testing predetermined propositions. Data were collected in real, live classroom environments through audio and video recordings, participant observations, and semi-structured interviews to capture teachers' verbal language practices and meaning negotiation strategies as they occurred naturally. The resulting corpus was analyzed using the procedures detailed in the Data Analysis section below, producing a thorough report about how teachers in elementary schools in Manado manage classroom discourse in multilingual contexts. This study draws on four complementary theoretical perspectives, interactional sociolinguistics, second language acquisition (SLA), dialogic pedagogy, and the IRF framework, for analyzing teacher verbal practices and meaning negotiation in multilingual classrooms.

As illustrated in the previous figure, the interactional sociolinguistic perspective emphasizes

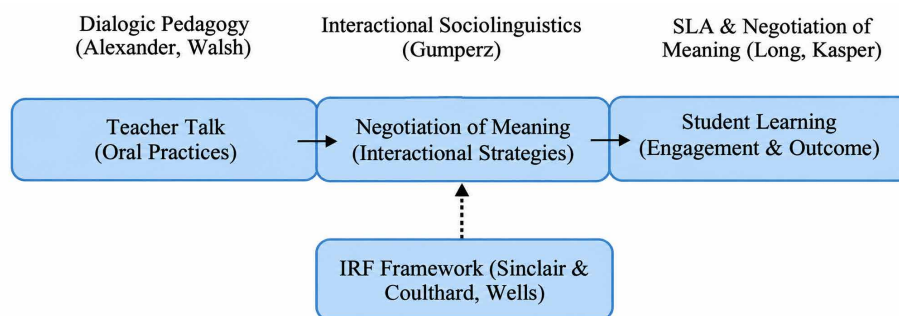


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

that participants rely on contextualization cues, such as intonation, gestures, and discourse markers, to construct and interpret meaning during interaction (Gumperz, 2019). In second language acquisition (SLA), theories including the Interaction Hypothesis of Long (1996) and the discussion of Kasper (2012) about pragmatic competence highlight the importance of meaning negotiation through clarification requests, confirmation checks, and repair strategies in supporting comprehensible input and

The Initiation–Response–Feedback (IRF) framework, proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and later expanded by Wells (1999), offers a structural approach to examining classroom interaction patterns and their dialogic development. Together, these perspectives provide a comprehensive framework for understanding how teacher discourse organizes classroom interaction, supports comprehension, and encourages participation in multilingual elementary school classrooms in Manado.

Operationally, these four perspectives are applied as sequential layers within a single analytical procedure rather than as parallel, independent lenses. The IRF framework first segments each classroom exchange into its structural units (Initiation, Response, Feedback, and, where present, Follow-up), which serve as the basic units for coding. Within these units, interactional sociolinguistics and the SLA Interaction Hypothesis are then used to identify and classify meaning-negotiation moves occurring in the Response and Follow-up slots, such as clarification requests, confirmation checks, and repair. Dialogic pedagogy is applied last, at the level of the sequence as a whole, to interpret whether a given IRF cycle remains closed and evaluative or opens into an extended, dialogic exchange. This layered procedure links the four perspectives into a single protocol for the micro-linguistic classroom

analysis reported in the Results section, rather than treating them as a broad conceptual list.

Participants and Background

This study involved six teachers as participants from three schools in the northern, central, and southern areas of Manado to represent the area's sociolinguistic diversity. These schools were chosen using purposive sampling to capture linguistic and cultural variation, which usually influence the classroom atmosphere, because each region reflected distinct language contact patterns and community compositions. The participants met specific criteria: they employed interactive strategies such as questioning, giving feedback, and conducting discussions in the classroom.

Data were collected across 13 teaching and learning sessions: seven in the Northern area and three each in the Central and Southern areas (table 1). The uneven distribution primarily resulted from differences in school timetables and the allocation of instructional time across the participating schools. Variations in subject schedules and available classroom periods determined the opportunities for conducting naturalistic observations without disrupting ongoing instruction. Thus, the 7–3–3 distribution reflects field conditions rather than regional weighting. The three locations were included to provide contextual variation in classroom practices across Manado, while the unit of analysis remained focused on speech acts and classroom interaction rather than quantitative comparison across regions.

The researchers conducted classroom observations to examine Initiation–Response–Feedback (IRF) patterns, meaning negotiation, and teacher–student interaction. Six focal teachers were selected based on predefined participation and site criteria. Referral-based informant identification was subsequently used to identify supplementary

Table 1. Participant Characteristics and Speech Acts Analyzed

Participant	School	Gender	Experience	Qualification	Grade	Language Background	Sessions	Speech Acts
A	SDN 12 Manado	Female	<10 years	S1	IV	Indonesian / Manado Malay	4	298
B	SDN 12 Manado	Female	10–19 years	S1	VI	Indonesian / Manado Malay	3	208
C	SDN 11 Manado	Female	<10 years	S1	IV	Indonesian / Manado Malay	1	74
D	SDN 11 Manado	Female	20–29 years	S1	VI	Indonesian / Manado Malay	2	204
E	SDN 126 Manado	Female	10–19 years	S1	IV	Indonesian / Manado Malay	2	315
F	SDN 126 Manado	Female	<10 years	S1	VI	Indonesian / Manado Malay	1	149
Total	3 schools	—	—	—	—	—	13	1,248

informants recommended by initial participants and relevant school personnel to clarify local language practices, interactional norms, and selected classroom events. Their information served to contextualize and cross-check the observational findings rather than constitute the primary speech-act dataset. This approach provided contextual depth for examining classroom interaction in a local language context where Indonesian was the primary instructional language, alongside Manado Malay and limited English.

For clarity, this study operationalizes “multilingual classroom” as a classroom in which teachers and students routinely draw on more than one named language variety, namely Indonesian, English, and the local Manado Malay, within the same lesson, rather than a classroom in which several languages are formally co-taught as separate subjects. This working definition follows Cenoz and Gorter’s (2022) usage-based framing of multilingualism in education and is consistent with the treatment of translanguaging and code-switching in recent Indonesian EFL classroom studies (Liando et al., 2023; Miftakh, 2025).

English enters this repertoire not as a subject taught in isolation but as an occasional resource alongside Indonesian- and Manado Malay-medium instruction. This reflects a broader regional pattern in North Sulawesi, where some schools, including bilingual programs such as MAN Model Manado, formally incorporate English alongside Indonesian; the present study’s three public elementary schools are not themselves bilingual-program schools, and English use in the observed classroom data was limited and non-systematic compared to the Indonesian–Manado Malay alternation that dominated the corpus.

Data Collection Techniques

Data were collected through three complementary techniques: audio-video recording, classroom observation, and semi-structured

interviews. The audio-video recordings constituted the primary dataset for analyzing speech acts, Initiation–Response–Feedback (IRF) patterns, and meaning negotiation. The recordings were transcribed and systematically coded, resulting in a corpus of 1,248 speech acts for the analysis. The duration of individual audio-video recordings was not systematically documented during the original data collection, which limits the reporting of the total recording time. Accordingly, the study reports the number of recorded classroom sessions and the size of the analyzed speech-act corpus, rather than estimating the total recording duration retrospectively. Classroom observations provided additional contextual information on teacher–student interaction, non-verbal cues, and classroom dynamics. Semi-structured interviews with teachers and students were used as supplementary contextual data to clarify pedagogical reasoning, interactional choices, and perceptions of classroom language practices. The interview data were not subjected to independent thematic analysis and did not constitute the primary dataset for speech-act analysis.

To capture different but complementary aspects of classroom discourse, this study used three major techniques: audio-video recordings, participant observation, and semi-structured interviews. Each technique provides different insights, as shown in Table 2.

Ethical Considerations

At the time this research was conducted, the authors’ affiliated institutions did not have a formal research ethics committee for educational research. Due to the absence of an institutional ethics committee, ethical approval for this study was obtained through an independent review process conducted by the Regional Office of National Unity and Political Agency (Badan Kesatuan Bangsa dan Politik Daerah) of North Sulawesi Province on 8 January 2025, with approval reference number

Table 2. Data Collection Techniques, Focus, and Contribution

Technique	Focus of Data	Rationale/Contribution
Audio–Video Recording	Teachers’ oral language practices; meaning negotiation strategies during lessons	Primary data source; allows for verbatim transcription, coding, and IRF/thematic analysis
Participant Observation	Non-verbal cues (gestures, facial expressions, intonation, turn-taking); classroom dynamics	Provides contextual depth beyond recordings; captures situational and interactional nuances
Semi-Structured Interviews	Teachers (pedagogical reasoning, interactional choices); Students (perceptions, experiences of meaning negotiation)	Ensures triangulation; validates findings; adds participants’ perspectives on classroom interaction

070/36/Kesbangpolda/I/2025.

Independent approval was sought because none of the researchers’ affiliated institutions, Institut Agama Islam Negeri Manado, Universitas Widya Gama Mahakam, and University of Southern Mindanao, had established a research ethics committee for educational research when the study started. This study was conducted in accordance with established ethical principles for educational research, including voluntary participation, informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity. All procedures involving human participants were carried out in accordance with the ethical principles of the Declaration of Helsinki (1964) and its later amendments.

Verbal consent was obtained orally from teacher participants and school administrators, in accordance with standard institutional procedures for classroom-based observational research in elementary schools in Manado. Verbal consent was chosen rather than written consent because of several reasons: (1) this study involved non invasive classroom observation of naturally occurring teaching practices, (2) verbal consent was the established protocol for educational research in local elementary schools, (3) this study posed minimal risks for participants because it did not involve sensitive personal information outside regular classroom activities, and (4) verbal consent was considered culturally appropriate and more accessible for participants in local contexts.

For underage participants (elementary school students), a two-stage consent process was applied to ensure ethical protection. First, written parental permission was obtained through official letters distributed by school administrators, which explained the research purpose, procedures, voluntary nature, and the right to withdraw without consequences. Second, verbal consent was directly obtained from all student participants at the

beginning of each observation session, confirming their willingness to participate. Students were informed that they could refuse participation or withdraw at any time without affecting their academic achievement. Data collection was conducted from 9 January 2025 until 9 June 2025.

Data Analysis

Data analysis integrated systematic speech-act coding with classroom discourse frameworks. The analysis was informed by the thematic analysis principles of Braun and Clarke (2006), particularly systematic familiarization with the transcripts, coding of recurring communicative patterns, and review and interpretation of emerging patterns. The primary analytical procedure involved segmenting the transcribed classroom interactions into 1,248 speech-act units according to identifiable communicative functions and interactional purposes. These units were subsequently classified and mapped onto Initiation–Response–Feedback (IRF) sequences (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Wells, 1999) to examine the sequential organization of classroom interaction. The coded patterns were then interpreted using dialogic teaching principles (Alexander, 2017, 2020; Walsh, 2011) to examine how teacher talk constrained or facilitated dialogic engagement. Braun and Clarke’s framework, therefore, served as a guiding principle for organizing and interpreting recurring patterns rather than as a rigid, stand-alone thematic analysis procedure.

The basic unit of analysis was the speech act. A speech act was operationally defined as a segment of talk, by either the teacher or a student, that performed an identifiable communicative function within classroom interaction. The 1,248 speech-act units were segmented from the transcribed classroom recordings according to changes in communicative function and interactional purpose, rather than simply by grammatical sentence or

speaker turn. A speaker's turn that performed one identifiable communicative function was coded as a single speech-act unit. When a single turn contained distinct communicative functions, it was segmented into separate speech-act units. Each unit was then classified according to its communicative function, interactional role, and speaker (teacher or student) within the coding framework.

Speech acts and IRF moves were treated as related but distinct analytical levels. Speech acts served as the basic coding units for identifying and classifying participants' communicative practices, whereas Initiation–Response–Feedback (IRF) moves represented the broader sequential organization of classroom interaction. Accordingly, the 1,248 speech acts were subsequently mapped onto IRF sequences to examine how individual utterances functioned within larger patterns of classroom interaction.

Data Trustworthiness

For ensuring trustworthiness, this study used triangulation across sources (teachers, students, and classroom contexts) and methods (recordings, observations, and interviews), following the framework of Norman Denzin (2012). Member checking with selected teachers was conducted for validating interpretations (Birt et al., 2016), while audit trails systematically documented data collection and analysis procedures. Researcher reflexivity was also maintained throughout the process to reduce potential bias through reflective journals, discussions with colleagues, and continuous comparison between emerging interpretations and raw data. These strategies collectively improve credibility, dependability, and confirmability, in line with recommendations from Creswell and Poth (1998) and Nowell et al. (2017) for rigor and transparency in qualitative research.

III. RESULTS

Dominant Forms and Functions of Verbal Teacher Discourse

Overview of Teacher Discourse Moves in the Data Corpus

Following Krussel's (2004) and Bansal et al.'s (2018) framework of teacher discursive moves, the data comprise 1,248 speech acts drawn from all classroom interactions involving six teachers and their students in three public elementary schools in Manado. Among them, 792 speech acts (63.5%)

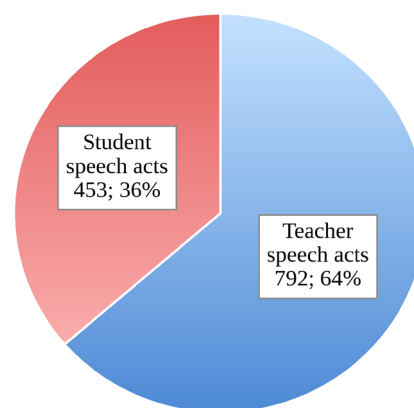


Figure 2. Overview of Speech Acts in the Data Corpus

were spoken by teachers, while 456 (36.5%) were spoken by students. These numbers show a glaring imbalance in participation, with teachers contributing almost twice as much as the students. Figure 2 shows an overview of the total and the proportional distribution of said speech acts.

The speech acts were then filtered into three domains: spoken language practices, meaning negotiation strategies, and IRF model interaction patterns. Figure 3 shows the result that 49.0% of the data represents spoken practices, 15.9% represents negotiation strategies, and 35.1% responds to IRF sequences. These proportions show that a good chunk of the interactions in class are centered on routine instructional exchange, while speech surrounding negotiation is only one-fifth of the total. This thorough mapping provides the structural basis for analyzing the characteristics of teacher talk and classroom interaction across various multilingual classes in Manado.

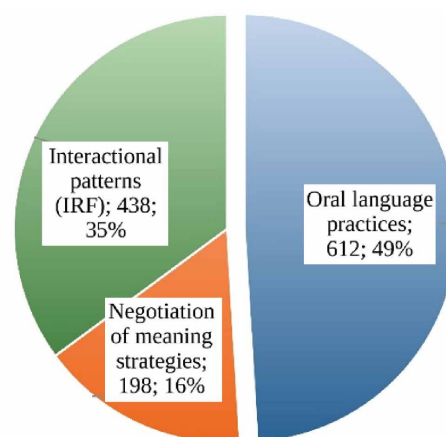


Figure 3. Distribution of Speech Acts by Analytical Focus
Forms of Oral Language Practices

The analysis of 792 teacher speech acts shows that classroom talk was dominated with instruction

Table 3. Distribution of Teacher Discourse Moves (n = 792)

Discourse Move	Frequency (%)
Instruction giving	25.0%
Question asking	19.7%
Explanation / clarification	16.7%
Accepting / using student ideas	7.2%
Praise / motivation	7.2%
Accepting feelings	3.0%

Table 4. Comparison of Instructional vs. Dialogic Oral Language Practices in Manado Classrooms

Orientation	Example Speech Acts	Communicative Function	Implications for Learning
Instructional	Excerpt 1	Directive: managing classroom flow	Ensures order but limits elaboration; positions students as passive
Dialogic	Excerpt 2	Uptake: validating student contribution	Encourages reasoning, validates student voice, opens space for co-construction

giving (25.0%), followed by question asking (19.7%), and explanation/clarification (16.7%), while actions more oriented towards dialogue such as accepting or using student ideas (7.2%), praises/motivation (7.2), and accepting feelings (3.0%) appear far less frequently. This distribution shows that teachers very much act as classroom managers and harbingers of knowledge, making their role clear as controllers of interaction rather than facilitators. (Arbain et al., 2024; Kebede & Endalamaw, 2025; Stubbs, 1983; Tao & Chen, 2024).

Table 3 highlights the primary pedagogical discourse categories; remaining moves (21.2%) comprised administrative management, greetings, and transitional utterances. The data show that directions and instructions account for more than half of teacher talk, while dialogic or affective practices are less prevalent. For comparison, Table 4 summarizes the relative proportions and communicative orientations of instructional and dialogic teacher talk, as observed in the data.

Two representative excerpts illustrate typical patterns of instructional and dialogic talk.

Excerpt 1 (Teacher – Giving Directions):

- Teacher : “You are sixth-grade students... so, you must use textbook language for learning”. (D2-183)
- Teacher : “Listen! Everyone who is standing... tomorrow you are not allowed to enter... stay outside!” (E1-75)

Excerpt 1 exhibits high directness marked by unmitigated imperative syntax (“Listen!”) and deontic modal necessity (“you must use textbook language”). The teacher employs high-authority

modal operators that construct learning as strict compliance with official linguistic registers and spatial discipline (“stay outside!”). By omitting epistemic hedging or mitigated politeness markers (e.g., “please” or “let’s try”), the teacher asserts unambiguous control over both classroom management and language register, positioning elementary students as passive recipients of authoritative instruction

Excerpt 2 (Teacher – Accepting Ideas):

- Teacher : “That’s correct.” (A1-77)
- Teacher : “That’s the most correct one.” (D1-62)
- Teacher : “That’s good... but...” (D2-100)

In contrast, Excerpt 2 illustrates teacher moves aimed at accepting student contributions, yet these moves remain structurally constrained. The teacher uses minimal evaluative tokens (“That’s correct”, “That’s the most correct one”) or conditional praise (“That’s good... but...”). The insertion of the adversative conjunction “but” acts as a conversational gatekeeper: rather than project an uptake slot where the student can explain or defend their logic, the teacher immediately reclaims the floor to steer the response back toward the pre-determined curriculum target.

Linguistically, the directive excerpts above are marked by imperative mood and bare command forms (“Listen!”, “you must use textbook language for learning”) rather than mitigated requests, and by deontic obligation rather than epistemic hedging, consistent with the normative and probability modality patterns Kosko and Herbst (2012) identify in teacher talk. This unmitigated, high-directness pattern mirrors what Halil et al.

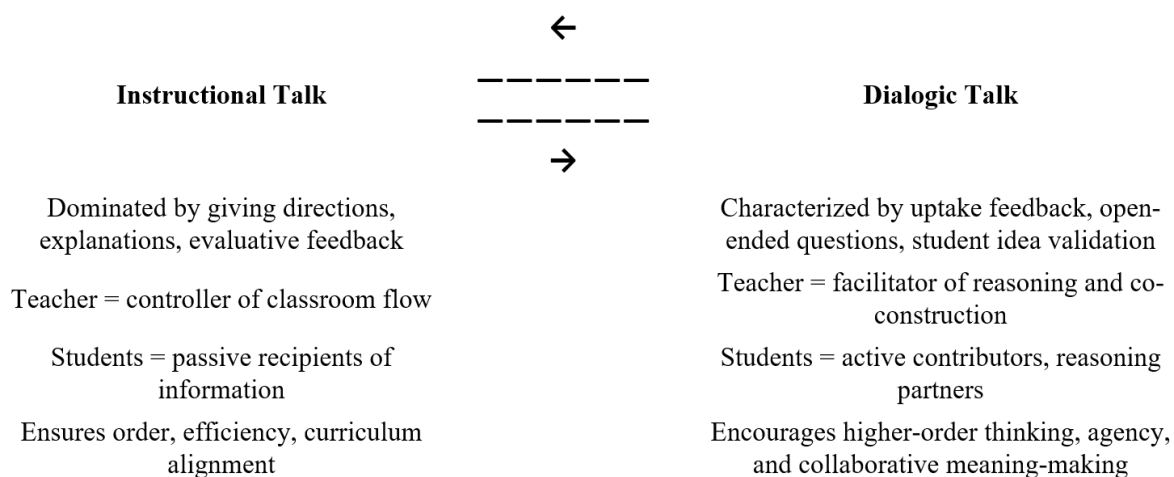


Figure 4. Continuum of Teacher Talk: From Instructional to Dialogic Orientation

(2023) and Kamariah et al. (2023) describe as the dominant directive form in Indonesian classroom and lecture discourse, where commands and closed questions carry the interactional weight rather than softened, negotiated requests.

Figure 4 shows these tendencies across a spectrum from instructional to dialogic orientation, emphasizing the proportional domain of the direction format relative to forms of exploration centered on students.

The instructional-to-dialogic continuum above is not adopted from a single external source; it is a descriptive synthesis constructed for this study by mapping the coded discourse-move categories from the Data Analysis procedure (thematic coding cross-checked against the IRF and dialogic-pedagogy frameworks described in Methods) onto Alexander's (2017, 2020) instructional-versus-dialogic distinction, so that each pole reflects an aggregate of the Manado corpus rather than a pre-existing published scale.

As seen in Figure 4, Manado classrooms still largely lean toward the instructional end, with directives, explanations, and evaluative feedback.

Strategic Negotiation Facilitating Comprehension and Participation

Distribution of Meaning Negotiation Strategies

A total of 198 speech acts were identified as meaning-negotiation strategies in the dataset. These included confirmation checks, clarification requests, repair sequences, elaborations, and explanation requests. The most frequently observed were confirmation checks (30.3%) and clarification requests (21.2%), followed by repair (15.2%),

elaboration or expansion (12.1%), explanation requests (9.1%), student clarification (6.1%), student confirmation (3.0%), and short reactive responses (3.0%).

Table 5. Distribution of Meaning Negotiation Strategies (n = 198)

Negotiation Strategy	Frequency (%)
Confirmation checks	30.3%
Clarification requests	21.2%
Repair	15.2%
Elaboration / expansion	12.1%
Explanation requests	9.1%
Student-initiated clarification	6.1%
Student-initiated confirmation	3.0%
Short reactive responses	3.0%

In Figure 5, the majority of negotiations were initiated by the teacher. Student-led negotiations account for less than 10% of all negotiation acts. Excerpts 3 and 4 illustrate negotiation steps by the teacher and students.

Excerpt 3 (Teacher – Confirmation Check):

Teacher : "Group Dahlia!" (D2-70)
 Student : "Print media."
 Teacher : "Agree?" (D2-72)
 Student : "Agree."

Excerpt 3 exemplifies a minimal, teacher-driven confirmation check. The teacher's turn ("Agree?") functions as a single-word tag prompt that Fraser (1999) classifies as an interactional discourse marker. This marker projects a simple binary confirmation slot rather than conceptual elaboration. The student's one-word response ("Agree") fills the expected second-pair part of the adjacency pair, immediately closing the sequence without expanding student reasoning or vocabulary.

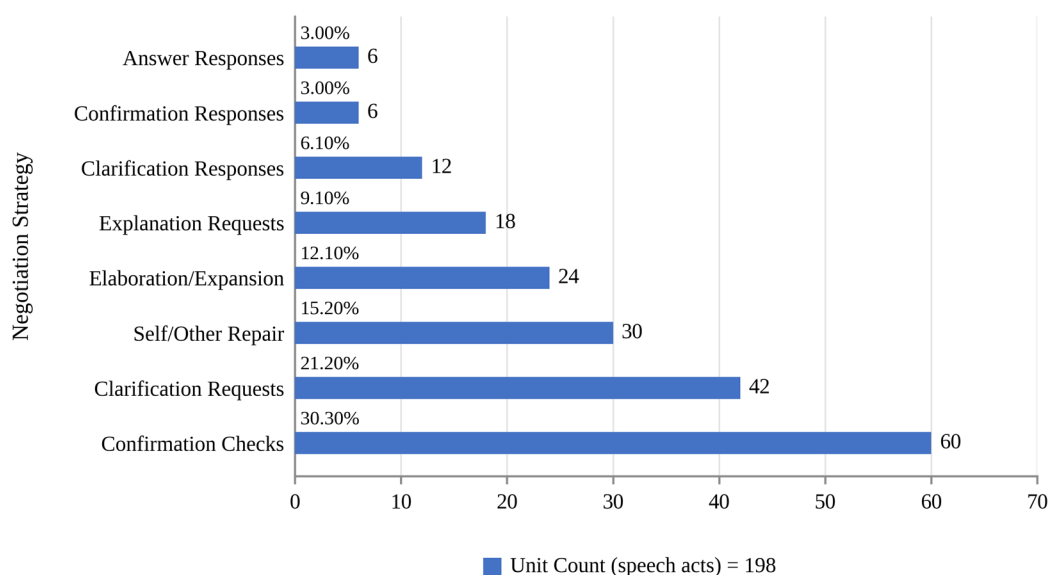


Figure 5. Distribution of Meaning Negotiation Strategies

Excerpt 4 (Student – Clarification Request):

Teacher : “Is there anyone with a question about population?” (A2-29)
 Student : “What does ‘population’ mean, Miss?”
 Teacher : “I will give another task.” (A2-51)

Excerpt 4 shows a different mechanism: the student’s question “What does ‘population’ mean, Miss?” is a self-initiated other-repair request targeting a lexical trouble-source in the prior turn (Kasper, 1985; Macbeth, 2004); however, the teacher’s reply (“I will give another task”) bypasses rather than resolves that repair slot, a pattern that helps explain why student-initiated negotiation remained below 10% even when students actively signaled comprehension gaps.

Feedback Patterns

The feedback analysis reveals the dominance of evaluative and corrective forms. Most of the feedback is delivered as short affirmations (for example, “Yes,” “Correct,” “Good job”) or direct rejection. Examples of uptake feedback, in which teachers incorporate student responses into subsequent turns, are rare.

Excerpt 5 (Evaluative Feedback)

Teacher (Initiation) : “Who can explain what installment payment means?” (E2-58)
 Teacher (Follow up of the initiation) : “Have you never heard of installment payments?” (E2-59)
 Students (Answer) : “It means paying something little by little”
 Teacher (Feedback) : “Yes, correct. Good job” (E2-60)
 ...

Students (Answer) : “It means paying everything at once.”
 Teacher (Feedback) : “No, that is incorrect. Installment payment means paying in several parts.” (E2-61)

...

Teacher (Initiation/ further elicitation) : “Does anyone have another answer?” (E2-62)
 Students (Answer) : “It means paying in several parts.”
 Teacher (Feedback) : “Correct.” (E2-63)

Excerpt 5 highlights the operational mechanics of traditional evaluative feedback. Correct student answers receive immediate positive reinforcement (“Yes, correct. Good job”), whereas incorrect responses elicit explicit negative evaluation (“No, that is incorrect”) followed by direct teacher repair (“Installment payment means paying in several parts”). This pattern establishes an accuracy-oriented assessment atmosphere in which errors are corrected rather than used as springboards for dialogic inquiry among peers.

In another instance, the student’s response is left with no feedback:

Excerpt 6 (No Feedback Given)

Teacher (Initiation) : “Any questions?” (F-73)
 Students (Answer) : “No.”
 (No feedback)

Excerpt 7 (Accepting feedback)

Teacher : “Interesting answer. Can you compare it with other methods that might be used?” (B2-40)

Excerpt 6 shows a missed scaffolding opportunity in which a student chorus response (“No”) is met with the teacher’s silence and an

immediate task transition. Conversely, Excerpt 7 provides a rare demonstration of genuine uptake feedback: the teacher validates the student's initial idea ("Interesting answer") and immediately projects a high-level comparative prompt ("Can you compare it with other methods that might be used?"). This uptake move opens dialogic space, compelling the student to evaluate multiple problem-solving pathways

Table 6 shows that almost two-thirds of the feedback examples are evaluative, with only small portions involving uptake or elaboration. This overall distribution shows the limited variation of follow-up strategies and the focus on accuracy-oriented assessment in classroom discourse. It indicates that monologic, control-oriented instruction is driven by broad institutional structures (national curriculum demands, standardized teacher training, large class sizes) rather than localized neighborhood differences.

Contribution to Dialogic Involvement in the Multilingual Classroom Environment

Teacher Dominance and Student Participation

Analysis of $n=438$ total IRF sequences revealed that the standard IRF pattern is the most common

structure. As illustrated in Figure 6, classroom interactional flow is heavily dominated by the Standard (Traditional) IRF pattern, which accounts for 308 incidents (70.3%) of all analyzed exchange cycles. In these standard triadic sequences, the teacher initiates with a closed display question or directive prompt, the student provides a brief response, and the teacher immediately closes the sequence with a terminal evaluative remark. The extended IRF pattern accounts for 15.3%, while the Open/Chained exchanges account for 10.0%. Student-initiated turns account for only 4.4% of total interactions.

As demonstrated by this distribution, over two-thirds of classroom exchanges reinforce a monologic structure where the teacher maintains strict control over the interactional floor, turn-taking, and epistemic evaluation. The stark disparity between Standard IRF (70.3%) and Student-Initiated turns (4.4%) highlights that students rarely act as conversational agents or questioners, remaining primarily in a responsive, compliance-oriented role. Descriptive comparison across the three participating school sites (SDN 12, SDN 11, and SDN 126) further revealed that this 70.3% dominance remains consistent

Table 6. Comparison of types of feedback in Manado classrooms

Feedback Type	Frequency	Typical Form	Example from Data	Pedagogical Implications
Evaluative/ Corrective	High (dominant)	Short affirmations or corrections	"Yes, correct", "correct", "No, that is incorrect", "correct", "No"	Ensures accuracy but closes interaction; reflects monologic stance.
No Feedback / Silence	Occasional	Absence of response	Teacher: "Any questions?" – Student: "No" – (<i>no feedback</i>)	Signals closure; missed opportunity to scaffold interaction.
Uptake Feedback	Rare	Prompts elaboration or comparison	"Interesting answer. Can you compare it with other methods that might be used?"	Opens dialogic space; fosters reasoning, agency, and shared understanding.

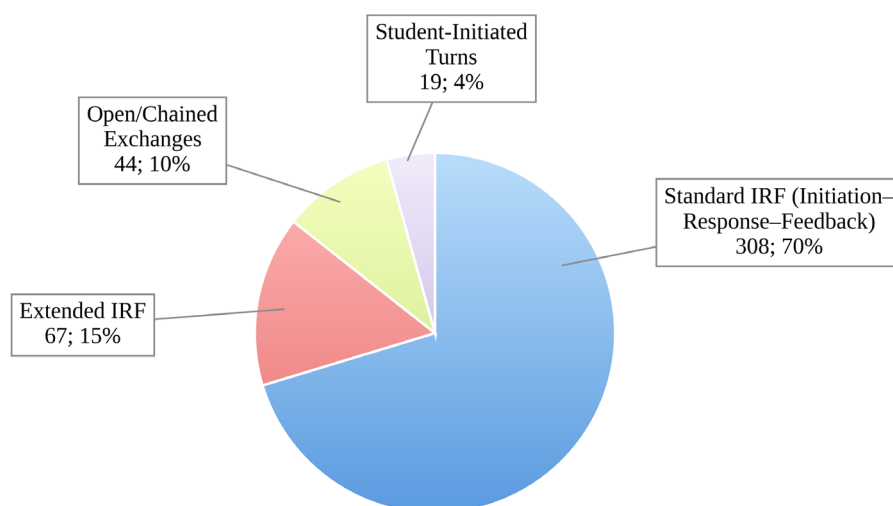


Figure 6. Interaction Pattern Distribution (IRF Pattern)

across Northern, Central, and Southern Manado, indicating an entrenched institutional norm rather than a localized anomaly.

Because the six participating teachers were purposively sampled from schools in the northern, central, and southern areas of Manado to capture sociolinguistic diversity across the city (see Participants and Background), the coded transcripts were also compared descriptively across these three sites. No systematic divergence in IRF configuration, feedback type, or negotiation frequency emerged between regions; teacher-dominant, evaluative patterns recurred across all three locations, suggesting that classroom-level pedagogical norms, rather than regional linguistic variation alone, primarily shaped teacher talk in this study (compare with McNaught, 2014; Solak et al., 2024). This cross-site consistency is itself a finding worth flagging to readers, since it indicates the dominance of monologic, control-oriented talk is not confined to one part of Manado but appears to be a broader pattern across the city's public elementary schools.

Excerpt 8 (Traditional IRF)

Teacher (Initiation) : “Who is taking the goods?” (E2-180)
 Student (Response) : “The shop.”
 Teacher (Feedback) : “Yes, ... the shop takes the goods with interest.” (E2-182)

Excerpt 8 illustrates the classic triadic closure

of Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) IRF model. In Turn 1, the teacher poses a closed display question (“Who is taking the goods?”). The student provides a minimal one-phrase answer in Turn 2 (“The shop”). In Turn 3, the teacher delivers feedback that opens with a minimal affirmative token (“Yes”) and immediately completes the proposition (“...the shop takes the goods with interest”). Under Walsh's (2006) framework, this feedback turn confirms accuracy while terminating the interactional floor, leaving zero space for student elaboration.

Excerpt 9 (Extended IRF)

Teacher : “Why is the result five? Explain your way!” (A1-77)
 Student : “Because 10 divided by 2 equals five... I used the method of grouping objects, Miss.”
 Teacher : “Smart, so you used concrete division, right?” (A1-78)

In sharp contrast, Excerpt 9 models an extended IRF sequence that fosters higher-order reasoning. In Turn 1, the teacher poses an open-ended prompt requiring procedural justification (“Why is the result five? Explain your way!”). The student responds in Turn 2 with an articulated mathematical explanation (“Because 10 divided by 2 equals five... I used the method of grouping objects, Miss”). Crucially, in Turn 3, the teacher delivers positive validation (“Smart”) combined with a revoicing question (“so you used concrete division, right?”). Following Fung and Carter (2007), this revoicing move validates the student's

Table 7. Comparison between Traditional IRF and Extended IRF in Classroom Discourse

Feature	Traditional IRF (Initiation–Response–Feedback)	Extended IRF (Initiation–Response–Feedback–Follow-up)	Pedagogical Implications	Supporting Literature
Structure	Short, closed-ended exchanges (Q–A–Eval)	Longer sequences with elaboration prompts	Provides order but limits dialogic opportunities	Sinclair & Coulthard (1975); Nystrand (1997), Nystrand et al. (2003)
Function of Feedback	Mainly evaluative/corrective (“Ya, benar” / “Tidak, salah”)	Uptake prompts inviting reasoning (“Mengapa? Bisa jelaskan caranya?”)	Encourages reasoning, scaffolds understanding	Alexander (2017, 2020); Resnick et al. (2015)
Student Role	Passive answer-providers; limited agency	Active co-constructors of meaning; reasoning expanded	Enhances student agency and participation	Mercer & Howe (2012); Tao & Chen (2024)
Learning Opportunities	Recall and surface-level comprehension	Critical thinking, problem-solving, and deeper engagement	Fosters higher-order thinking and metacognitive growth	Wells (1999); Resnick et al. (2015)
Effect on Participation	Predictable but monologic; student-initiated turns are minimal	More dialogic; encourages diverse voices and perspectives	Promotes equity in multilingual classrooms	Jay et al. (2017); Cenoz & Gorter (2022)
Observed in Data (Manado, Indonesia)	70.3% (dominant pattern)	15.3% (minor but present)	Indicates reliance on monologic teaching; highlights potential for dialogic shift	Current study

cognitive agency and projects a secondary conversational loop, converting feedback into metacognitive scaffolding.

To explicitly address RQ3 on how exchange structures mediate dialogic involvement, Table 7 presents a comparative synthesis of Traditional IRF and Extended IRF patterns across six key pedagogical dimensions observed in the Manado corpus. This comparison illustrates how the same foundational triadic exchange structure can either enforce monologic closure or open up collaborative dialogic space, depending on the communicative orientation of the teacher's feedback turn.

Traditional IRF operates as a compact, three-turn cycle (Initiation–Response–Evaluation) that terminates immediately upon teacher feedback. In contrast, Extended IRF inserts a follow-up turn (Initiation–Response–Feedback–Follow-up) that projects a secondary response turn from the student, sustaining the interactional sequence across multiple turns. While Traditional IRF uses the third slot primarily for evaluative scoring (“Yes, correct” / “No, incorrect”), Extended IRF converts feedback into uptake prompts (“Why do you think so?”, “Can you explain your method?”). Following Alexander (2017, 2020) and Resnick et al. (2018), this shift from terminal evaluation to uptake is the precise mechanism that transforms teacher talk from an authoritative filter into a scaffold for student reasoning. This empirical contrast demonstrates that while monologic, accuracy-

oriented instruction dominates daily classroom routines, the presence of Extended IRF sequences (15.3%) confirms that primary teachers in Manado already possess latent dialogic capabilities. Operationalizing a shift toward dialogic teaching, therefore, does not require abandoning the familiar IRF framework entirely, but rather expanding the feedback slot into an uptake-driven follow-up turn.

To visually model the structural divergence between monologic and dialogic exchange pathways, Figure 7 illustrates the sequential flow and interactional mechanics of Traditional IRF versus Extended IRF. This visual synthesis contrasts the closed triadic cycle established by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) with the open, uptake-driven framework conceptualized by Wells (1999) and Alexander (2017, 2020).

As depicted in Figure 7, the two pathways diverge fundamentally at Turn 3 (Teacher Feedback). In the Traditional IRF loop, the teacher initiates with a closed display question in Turn 1, the student delivers a brief factual answer in Turn 2, and the teacher issues a terminal evaluative mark in Turn 3. This evaluative closure acts as an interactional bottleneck that closes the floor, reinforces teacher authority, and restricts student agency, accounting for 70.3% of all exchanges in the corpus.

In contrast, the Extended IRF pathway transforms Turn 3 into a catalyst for dialogic expansion. When an open or exploratory prompt in

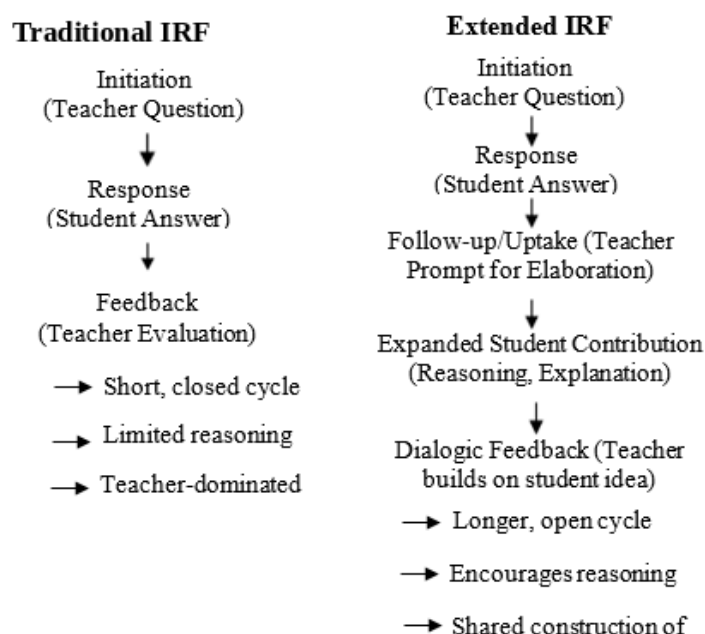


Figure 7. Comparison between traditional IRF and extended IRF

Turn 1 yields initial student reasoning in Turn 2, the teacher uses Turn 3 to deliver an uptake prompt that revoices or questions the student's logic. This uptake moves projects a secondary response slot in Turn 4, compelling the student to elaborate, justify, or compare their reasoning before the teacher offers synthesis and scaffolding in Turn 5. By extending the triadic structure into a multi-turn conversational loop, the Extended IRF pathway transforms teacher feedback from a terminal score into a bridge for higher-order reasoning, peer negotiation, and collective knowledge co-construction.

Meaning Negotiation as Resource

Although relatively small (15.9%), this still means negotiation strategies play important roles, underscoring their pedagogical value in multilingual ecology. Teachers sometimes use confirmation checks and clarification requests, such as:

Excerpt 10 (Feedback – Uptake)

Teacher : “Do you mean buying or borrowing?” (E2-62)

Student : “Borrowing, ma’am”

Excerpt 10 illustrates a targeted teacher clarification check (“Do you mean buying or borrowing?”) that successfully narrows semantic ambiguity during a classroom discussion, allowing the student to specify their intended meaning (“Borrowing, ma’am”). The Interaction Hypothesis, as outlined by Long (1996), provides opportunities for comprehensible input and output. Kasper (2012) further highlights its role in developing pragmatic competence, because learners must clarify, confirm, and repair meaning

Gunawan and Wirza (2025) broadened this perspective by demonstrating how teachers' strategies used in middle school classrooms support students' knowledge construction when composing hortatory exposition texts. Their research explained that questions that triggered clarification and elaboration not only served as a medium to examine students' memory skills but also as scaffolding for developing higher-order thinking skills and building a collaborative meaning-making process. The learning context in Manado, particularly at the elementary school level, showed that the negotiation of meaning should be understood as an important source of dialogue to improve understanding and logical reasoning ability, and to sharpen students' agency as well.

Classroom observation revealed that the potential simple forms of negotiation were not yet being employed optimally. When the teachers changed the directive questioning form to an exploratory one and gave students the opportunity to clarify, they could create a learning environment in which students practiced repair strategies, enhanced critical thinking, and developed a shared understanding.

Code Switching as Framework and Cultural Bridge

The multilingual ecology in Manado also shapes interaction, with teachers sometimes switching codes into local varieties such as Manado Malay language for clarification. For example:

Excerpt 11

Teacher : What is the meaning of ‘community’?
Community, ‘torang’ (we) also call it society.
So it is the same, right? (A2-07)

Linguistically, Excerpt 11 switch is a single-word lexical insertion (Poplack, 1980) rather than an inter-sentential switch: the teacher embeds the Manado Malay pronoun ‘torang’ inside an otherwise Indonesian-medium question, using it to gloss the more formal Indonesian term for ‘community’. Functionally, this matches what Jismulatif et al. (2026) and Pauzan et al. (2026) identify as the ‘clarifying information’ and ‘explaining concepts’ functions of teacher code-switching in Indonesian EFL classrooms: the switch is deployed not because the teacher lacks the Indonesian term, but because ‘torang’ carries a shared, in-group connotation that the more formal register does not, narrowing the distance between the textbook concept and students' everyday sense of belonging (Eldridge, 1996).

IV. DISCUSSION

Synthesis of Dominant Discourse Moves, Negotiation Strategies, and Dialogic Involvement

The findings show that teacher talk accounts for around 63.5% of the whole lesson, indicating a clear asymmetry in participation between teachers and students. Instructional speech, specifically in directions and explanations, dominated the class discourse, while dialogic practice and affective language rarely appeared. Meaning negotiation strategies account for only 15.9% of the total speech acts, with a large share spearheaded by the teacher rather than the students. The standard IRF pattern

represents the dominant classroom interactional structure, while the extended IRF sequence led by students rarely occurred. Other than that, evaluative feedback is the most common type of feedback, while accepting feedback, which usually requires elaboration and high comprehension, was observed only once. Overall, these findings show a classroom discourse pattern characterized by teacher-centered participation, limited negotiation of meaning, and few feedback strategies.

This pattern is not simply a local anomaly. Waring (2009) and Mariam et al. (2024) both argue that the persistence of the classic IRF sequence, long after Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) original formulation, exposes a structural blind spot in how classroom discourse research treats teacher control as a fixed rather than a negotiable feature of interaction. Read against this critique, the Manado data do not merely confirm the IRF model; they illustrate one of the specific institutional conditions, namely, large multilingual classes taught with limited scaffolding resources, under which the model's evaluative closure becomes especially resistant to change (compare with Asterhan, 2020; Cui, 2021). This reframes the dominance figures above as evidence of a mechanism rather than just a description of frequency.

Teacher talk dominated classroom interaction, fulfilling Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) model, in which teachers act as the initiator and evaluator while students act as the respondents. This asymmetrical structure, despite its effectiveness in maintaining classroom peace and order and ensuring curriculum delivery, limits students' opportunities to take initiative, reduces comprehension, and hinders the negotiation of collective meaning (Stubbs, 1983; Tao & Chen, 2024). The quantitative distribution of the speech acts shows a strong prevalence in direction, explanation, and evaluative feedback. This is in line with what Alexander (2017; 2020) claimed as a monologic attitude. This finding is in line with observations by Alexander, Hardman, and Hardman (2017) that factual and evaluative statements, which dominate teacher talk, often limit dialogic interaction. Despite this, the data also revealed brief yet meaningful dialogic moments: when the teacher extends the IRF sequence or builds on student contributions, making deeper learning possible collectively. These moments highlight the latent potential in dialogic pedagogy in multilingual classrooms (Mercer & Dawes,

2014; Sedova et al., 2016).

In this dynamic situation, teachers' talk lies on a continuum from instructional to dialogic orientation. Instructional utterances provide structure, efficiency, and harmony with the curriculum through evaluative directions and feedback. On the other hand, dialogic utterances encourage exploratory discussion through open questions, supportive feedback, and validation of students' arguments. In Manado classroom context, most classroom discourses reflected an instructional orientation, but dialogues appeared when the teachers encouraged the students to elaborate and make contextual comparisons during discussions. This shift revealed that teachers' talk can adapt and potentially transform into more participative practices in learning.

This pattern may plausibly reflect a broader orientation toward hierarchical, respect-based teacher–student relations that has been documented in Indonesian classroom culture more generally (Zacharias, 2012; Zein et al., 2020), in which explicit evaluative correction is treated as an expected marker of teacher authority rather than as face-threatening. Within this hierarchy, the Manado context in particular also exhibits a comparatively fluid, code-switching linguistic culture (Goebel, 2010), which may explain why brief dialogic openings recur, code-switching into Manado Malay rather than through sustained exploratory questioning in standard Indonesian. This cultural interpretation remains tentative on the basis of observation data alone and would be strengthened by direct confirmation through the teacher interviews referenced in the Data Collection Techniques.

These patterns of feedback and meaning negotiation, together with the code-switching practices discussed below, recur across the dataset as a single interactional tendency: teachers initiate and close most exchanges, leaving students with limited independent opportunity to negotiate meaning or extend feedback into elaboration. The pedagogical and theoretical significance of this tendency, specifically for feedback, meaning negotiation, and code-switching, is developed in the subsections that follow.

Feedback as a Dialogue Tool

The feedback patterns in the data show an imbalance: evaluative and corrective feedback

dominate, while uptake-oriented feedback appears rarely. As Excerpt 5 illustrates (see Results), evaluative feedback that merely confirms correctness closes the interaction. In contrast, uptake-oriented feedback that instead invites students to compare methods or elaborate further opens a dialogic space where reasoning and alternative perspectives can emerge. As noted by Alexander (2017, 2020), evaluative feedback tends to limit dialogue, while uptake-oriented feedback expands student contribution. Similarly, Mercer and Howe (2012) argue that elaborative responses allow learners to explain their reasoning, negotiate perspectives, and jointly build shared meaning.

From an SLA perspective, the Interaction Hypothesis of Long (1996) and Kasper's (2012) explanation of pragmatic competence show that such feedback provides interactional modifications that make input comprehensible and create opportunities for output. Further studies also confirm that clarification requests and uptake moves stimulate output production and interlanguage development (Walsh, 2011; Gass & Mackey, 2014).

Table 6 summarizes this imbalance, showing the dominance of evaluative/corrective feedback, the lack of occasional responses, and the limited use of uptake feedback. This imbalance is consistent with patterns in other multilingual classrooms, where corrective feedback ensures surface accuracy but limits reasoning (Walsh, 2011; Mercer & Howe, 2012). In the classrooms of Manado, evaluative feedback dominates, leaving beneficial feedback underutilized and most of its dialogic potential unrealized.

Figure 8 below illustrates this dynamic, showing how evaluative/corrective feedback tends to reinforce teacher dominance and narrow the interactional space, while uptake-supportive

feedback opens dialogic spaces that strengthen reasoning and student autonomy. As shown in the figure, feedback acts as a connector between teacher talk, interactional space, and student autonomy. The model in Figure 8 is not adopted from a single prior source; it is an original integrative synthesis constructed for this study by mapping the feedback-participation relationship observed in the Manado data onto three established frameworks (dialogic pedagogy, interactional sociolinguistics, and the IRF model), and it should be read as a proposed heuristic rather than a previously validated model.

Building on the negotiation and code-switching patterns reported in the Results section, code-switching functions not only as a linguistic framework but also as a cultural bridge, complementing the feedback patterns and meaning negotiation observed in Manado classrooms. Goebel (2010) identifies code switching as a contextualization cue that supports meaning-making in culturally embedded interaction. Research on dialogic pedagogy also emphasizes that valuing students' linguistic repertoires increases participation and reasoning (Alexander, 2017, 2020; Walsh, 2011), while Nystrand (1997) and Nystrand et al. (2003) show that dialogic moments emerge when teachers extend students' contributions through open questions and uptake of feedback. In line with this, the concept of pedagogical translanguaging in Cenoz and Gorter (2022) highlights the value of systematically mobilizing learners' full repertoires to foster comprehension, inclusivity, and ownership of learning.

Expanding these insights, Gunawan and Wirza (2025) show that teacher questioning strategies can support knowledge construction by encouraging clarification and elaboration. Applied

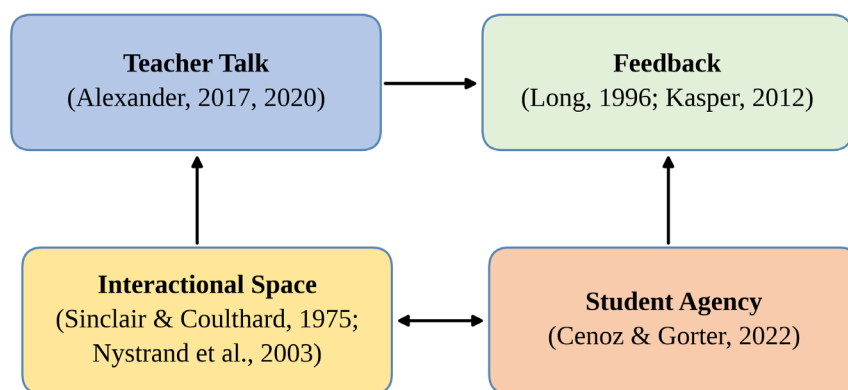


Figure 8. Theoretical model of feedback, participation, and collective understanding

to code switching, this suggests that intentional and strategic use, rather than spontaneous or reactive switching, can serve as a dialogic framework that strengthens reasoning and collaborative meaning-making. However, in Manado classrooms, code-switching was mostly observed as spontaneous responses rather than as purposeful pedagogical strategies; most of its dialogic potential remained underutilized. More systematic integration of code switching with exploratory questioning and uptake feedback can transform it into a dialogic practice that bridges linguistic diversity while also encouraging comprehension, reasoning, and student autonomy.

By integrating all the findings above, three pedagogical implications can be identified. First, the teachers need to combine giving instructions with explorative talks so that classroom management runs effectively without limiting the students' involvement. Second, it needs more space for students to initiate negotiation strategies themselves, thereby supporting the development of pragmatic competence and deeper comprehension. Third, multilingual sources, such as local languages, need to be used strategically as scaffolding and cultural bridges to respect students' identities and broaden their engagement in learning.

These implications are aligned with recent calls for multilingual education, which treat linguistic hybridity as a resource rather than a barrier (García & Wei, 2014; Cenoz & Gorter, 2022). In this perspective, dialogic pedagogy emerges as an ecology of interdependent practices, feedback, negotiation, and code-switching that collectively encourage shared meaning-making, reasoning, and inclusivity. These findings collectively indicate that teacher speaking practices, negotiation, and

feedback-giving, although currently dominated by monologic tendencies, still have strong potential to encourage dialogic engagement when reoriented toward uptake feedback, exploratory questioning, and strategic code-switching.

To synthesize how classroom discourse mechanisms operate as an integrated system, Table 8 outlines a conceptual framework connecting the three core pedagogical dimensions observed in the Manado corpus, feedback, meaning negotiation, and code-switching, with their underlying theoretical foundations and practical implications for multilingual primary education. In the feedback dimension, the empirical dominance of evaluative and corrective moves highlights the need to transition toward uptake-based feedback.

Grounded in the classic discourse framework of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and the dialogic principles of Alexander (2017, 2020), this shift requires teachers to move beyond terminal-accuracy judgments and to deploy follow-up prompts that extend students' reasoning, enhance engagement, and cultivate epistemic agency. Regarding the negotiation of meaning, the framework addresses the prevalence of teacher-driven confirmation checks and clarification requests by drawing on Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, Kasper's (2012) pragmatic competence model, and Sari et al.'s (2017) classroom research. Rather than viewing comprehension breakdowns as communicative failures or instructional disruptions, this dimension reframes negotiation as a crucial epistemic resource for interlanguage development, self-repair, and collaborative knowledge co-construction. Finally, in the code-switching dimension, the framework draws on Goebel (2010) and Cenoz and Gorter's (2022) pedagogical translanguaging

Table 8. Conceptual Framework: Dialogic Pedagogy in Multilingual Class

Pedagogical Dimension	Key Practices Observed	Relevant Theories & Research	Implications for Multilingual Classrooms
Feedback	Predominantly evaluative/corrective; limited uptake feedback	Sinclair & Coulthard (1975); Alexander (2017, 2020)	Move beyond corrective-only feedback toward uptake-based feedback that fosters reasoning, engagement, and epistemic agency.
Negotiation of Meaning	Confirmation checks, clarification requests; teacher-driven	Long (1996); Kasper (2012); Sari et al. (2017)	Frame negotiation is not a "failure" but a resource for comprehension, pragmatic competence, and collaborative meaning-making.
Code-switching	Teachers occasionally switch to local/Indonesian languages	Goebel (2010); Cenoz & Gorter, (2022)	Recognize code-switching as both a linguistic scaffold and cultural bridge that validates multilingual repertoires and enhances inclusivity.

to conceptualize teachers' alternation between standard Indonesian and local Manado Malay as both a cognitive scaffold and a sociocultural bridge. By recognizing strategic code-switching as a legitimate interactional asset rather than a linguistic deficit, this integrated model demonstrates how primary educators can leverage students' full linguistic repertoires to build inclusive, highly participatory dialogic learning environments.

This study is limited by its scope: six teachers across three schools provide analytic depth but not statistical generalizability to Manado's wider elementary school population, and the reliance on classroom observation as the primary data source, with interviews serving only a contextual role, means the pedagogical reasoning behind specific discourse choices could not be independently verified from the teachers' own perspective. In addition, the transcripts were prepared for speech-act and discourse-structure coding and do not include prosodic or intonational annotation (e.g., pitch, stress, pause length); claims in this study about meaning conveyed through wording and sequence are therefore not extended to claims about meaning conveyed through intonation. Future research could extend this design to a larger and more balanced sample across regions, incorporate systematically transcribed interview data to triangulate teachers' stated intentions against their observed practice, examine whether targeted professional development in uptake-based feedback produces measurable shifts in student participation over time, and adopt a finer-grained transcription protocol that captures prosodic and intonational detail alongside speech-act coding.

V. CONCLUSION

This study examined teacher talk, meaning negotiation, and interactional structures in multilingual elementary classrooms in Manado, Indonesia. The findings demonstrate that classroom discourse remains heavily teacher-centered and control-oriented, with teachers accounting for 63.5% of total speech acts, standard Initiation–Response–Feedback (IRF) sequences dominating 70.3% of exchanges, and evaluative feedback far outweighing uptake-oriented responses. Although meaning negotiation strategies comprised only 15.9% of speech acts, strategic code-switching into Manado Malay functioned as both an interactional

scaffold and a cultural bridge during comprehension breakdowns. Theoretically, these results extend Alexander's (2017, 2020) dialogic framework and Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis to Eastern Indonesian primary education, revealing how informal dialogic openings can persist alongside traditional authoritative exchange cycles. Pedagogically, advancing communicative equity in multilingual classrooms requires reorienting teacher professional development toward uptake-based feedback, learner-initiated negotiation, and planned pedagogical translanguaging.

CREDIT AUTHOR STATEMENT

Ardianto: Conceptualization, Observation, Project administration, Writing – Proofreading and Editing, Resources, Formal analysis.

Arbain: Formal Analysis, Writing – Proofreading and Editing.

Sambay Pagabangan Mla: Writing – Editing and Proofreading.

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DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could be construed as influencing the work reported in this paper.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. Due to ethical considerations and the involvement of minor participants, the data are not publicly available. However, limited data/metadata are accessible at the following repository: <https://repository.iain-manado.ac.id/id/eprint/2480>

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