

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**SIGNALLING AND PREVENTING MISUNDERSTANDING IN THE
ESL CLASSROOM: A CASE STUDY OF GHANA INSTITUTE OF
LANGUAGES**

LILIAN AMGHORTSO GLOVER-QUARTEY



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(2021213425)**



**A thesis in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Foreign
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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Lilian Amghortso Glover-Quartey, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature:

Date:



Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Name of Supervisor: PROF. CHARLOTTE FOFO LOMOTY

Signature:

Date:

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my children, Kimberly, Neil-Alexander, Sasha-Marie and my husband, Mr. Laud-Alexander Glover-Quartey.



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Utmost and sincere gratitude is to God Almighty who has brought me this far, “through all the changing scenes of life.” My ability to come this far in my education was made possible by some individuals who have shown in many ways great support and understanding through this phase of my education. For this reason, I will like to show my profound and sincere gratitude.

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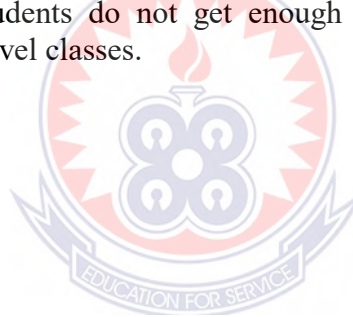
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ABSTRACT

This thesis seeks to investigate signals that cause misunderstandings are repaired and who initiates them, describe the-factors that contribute to these misunderstandings and explore how to prevent misinterpretation of signalling and misunderstanding in the classroom. The theoretical framework for this study is drawn to describe the occurrence, type, frequency, and causes of misunderstanding. Through the framework, communications accommodation theory assists in explaining the wide range of accommodative behaviours; this framework was then implemented through a case study to describe the case under study with a relevant focus on extensively exploring and understanding rather than confirming and quantifying through purposive sampling technique using observation and multimedia to collect data. The data gathered was analysed using the principles of the qualitative data analysis method the results noted five significant signals, facial movement, and asking questions, code-switching, gestures, and silence/no expression. Secondly, the results also identified under-accommodation as a cause of misunderstanding in the classroom, and Teachers mainly initiate repair in the class. The study showed that students used different methods to indicate misunderstandings in the classroom, and the type of accommodation strategy the teacher employs in the classroom can help control the number of misunderstandings that occur. The teachers' quick response to repair on the student's behalf could be a setback to their gaining English language independence as the students do not get enough time to reflect and self-correct, especially in the lower level classes.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Learning a foreign language is not easy, especially English. This is partly because English rules differ from the learners' first languages. It has long been known that learners from very diverse linguistic backgrounds almost universally have difficulty with certain aspects, whether they exist in their mother tongue or not in their mother tongue (Gamlo, 2019). When students learn a new language, they often do not know how to express what they want to say. So they make a guess based on the knowledge of their mother tongue and what they know of the foreign language (Björkman, 2018). They will learn to develop their competence in the language from their daily interactions. They move from ignorance to mastery of the language through transitional stages of not recognizing their errors; then they try to avoid them totally and signal to show they do not understand and employ the use of repair to prevent misunderstanding from their interlocutors (Wang et al., 2010).

English is the predominant language of learning and teaching (LoLT) (Probyn, 2004) and is still the most powerful language for education, diplomacy, and economics. It serves as Ghana's lingua franca and is seen as the language of elitism, power, and privilege. Many people view English as a means to achieve unlimited vertical social mobility. It is also the dominant language of trade and industry (Beukes, 2009; Van Der Walt & Klapwijk, 2015). Therefore, knowledge of English is perceived to be essential for economic empowerment. English has become the world's leading global language because it is used for business, science, and politics (Kim, 2007). African languages are often spoken as mother tongues, making the linguistic and instructional context complex. This is mainly because the teachers, who are often

non-native speakers, shift from not only the home language to English but also from home values and cultural norms to a Western ideology with typical individualist norms and values (Evans & Cleghorn, 2010). The result is a rich source of understanding in the classroom. It is proposed that the need for English to be regarded as an asset and an empowering literacy has never been more critical than today, where millions of people across borders, not only between countries but between languages, and where more and more people of many different cultural backgrounds have to live together in multi-ethnic and multi-cultural societies. Kendall et al. (2006) emphasize that second language speakers must develop knowledge of pragmatic and sociolinguistic rules to avoid communication failure and misunderstanding. Pragmatic rules are necessary for many second language speakers to develop proficiency in the target language (to read and write) and to understand cognitively demanding text such as novels, plays, science laboratory reports, historical accounts, and mathematical word problems. In addition to developing the four communicative skills, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing, speakers need to go one step further to gain communicative competence.

Communicative competence means acquiring both linguistic and pragmatic competence in situations where learners have little knowledge of the language of learning and teaching. When they lack communicative competence, they tend to be invisible, passive, and inaudible in the classroom (Cummins, 2001; Hugo & Nieman, 2011). The lack of confidence, in turn, may hamper their proficiency in speaking the target language or becoming communicatively competent, leading to pragmatic failure. The only way to avoid pragmatic failure is to develop pragmatic competence, which Samaty (2005, p. 341) describes as “the ability to use language effectively in order to understand language in context”.

In communication, misunderstandings may occur, and the speakers naturally tend to identify and resolve the signals. Some misunderstandings in lingua franca communication and the strategies developed to resolve and prevent misunderstandings are unknown (Mauranen, 2006). We might assume that lingua franca communication is particularly susceptible to misunderstanding because the speakers' command of the language is not perfect; there is little intersubjectivity or certainty about this (Mauranen, 2006). The speakers' linguistic imperfections are likely to diverge from each other, but this cannot cause misunderstanding (Munro & Derwing, 2011). Second language learners also tend to maximize simplicity in their expression because their command of the vehicular language is far from perfect and because they can expect the same from their interlocutors (Siegel, 2018)

There is a school of thought that non-native speakers' English language productions deviate from native speaker standards and hamper interactions. This assumption is evident in linguistic publications that suggest that there will be more comprehension problems in communication where at least one of the parties is not speaking their mother tongue (Mauranen, 2006). The assumption is that due to the different cultural backgrounds of speakers, and with this knowledge in mind, L2 learners try very hard to prevent instances of misunderstanding in their speech. Misunderstandings generally happen when there is a communication breakdown because the speaker's expression is not very accurate or the receiver did not get the message the speaker intended to send, or there was a misinterpretation of what the message ought to be, which is also referred to as pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983). According to Thomas (1983), pragmatic failure is when the illocutionary force of an utterance is not considered, causing a mismatch between the speaker's intention and

interpretation of the listener, many factors may cause misunderstanding, including context, environment, stress, and interest.

Also, misunderstandings can arise from a not-so-developed communicative competence in any language or at a lower competence level. Misunderstanding is inevitable even in native speakers' conversations, and they regard it as "all-pervasive and ubiquitous in all kinds of contacts" (Hinnenkamp, 1999 p. 9). Even though misunderstandings in any other setting may not necessarily be problematic, such occurrences may negatively affect the learning and teaching experience in the classroom setting. The issues surrounding misunderstanding in the classroom, how second language learners deal with it, and the anticipation of how it can be prevented are still an open question. Much research has gone into how to subvert misunderstandings between native/non-native interactions (Jenkins, 2000; Mauranen, 2006) but there is still more research to be conducted on second language learners' and teachers' interaction.

English as a foreign language has been identified as a lingua franca. It can be said to have gone through most of the changes recognized in other English varieties, as Wang et al. (2010) put it, as a negotiation where the speakers adopt the language patterns to reflect their dialect. Research that focuses on conversation indicates that signalling includes checks, requests for repairs, and clarification, which most often is a form of self-regulation (Long, 1983; Mauranen, 2006). Since learners' goal is to be mutually intelligible and get their intended messages across to their listeners, more research is needed in the field to understand how other varieties are learned and what influences the learning pattern of the language.

Most language teachers do not stress practical knowledge in their classrooms but instead focus on linguistic knowledge (Al Falasi, 2007). Learners do not have

sufficient opportunities to communicate in the target language, resulting in inadequate oral proficiency. Communicative competence is the ability to process social and linguistic knowledge Yano (2009) implying the appropriate use of language in social context. A misunderstanding is a potential breakdown point in a conversation or a kind of communicative turbulence (Mauranen, 2006). For example, Pitzl (2015) notes that on occasions when a misunderstanding occurs, ELF interlocutors are shown to exhibit a high degree of interplay and pragmatic competence in the way they signal non-understanding. This is done so as not to disorganize the flow of the exchange and yet give enough insight to the interactant for the problem to be resolved. This thesis seeks to explore misunderstanding in the ESL/EFL classroom in a country where English is a second language surrounded by Francophones who have come to learn English for international discourse around the globe. The level of discourse in these instances maybe complicated since the teacher and learners have different first languages. Therefore, the primary focus of this study is to identify the various ways in which misunderstanding is signalled and the noticeable efforts that are put in to mitigate or prevent it.

The Ghana Institute of Languages has its core mandate to teach foreign languages, and English is one such language. The Institute's student nationalities for the English classes are mainly Francophone from all over Africa. It has two campuses in Accra and three others in Ghana's Ashanti, Western and Northern regions. In the lower-level class of the Ghana Institute of Languages, more than 80% comprises French-speaking nationals from other African countries who have moved to Ghana to learn to speak and write in English. Some of these students have little or no exposure to the language but have excellent command over the French language, which may be their mother tongue or second language. Most of them are good with written English

but have problems with speaking. Their main aim is to speak the language to get jobs in better paying bilingual companies in their home countries or Ghana, further their education in Ghana, or travel abroad. This makes their principal objective speaking English quickly and easily. Teaching this category of students requires an additional skill that may not be required in the traditional classroom. Also, English education in an ESL/EFL classroom, in which an explicit focus on the form of the language is the predominant approach to teaching, may prolong achieving the primary purpose of language learning.

English is the main medium of instruction in high schools and universities as a second language, with the vast majority of students taking it as a required subject. In other words, English is mainly taught as formal instruction in classrooms. A big part of the study of second language acquisition and arguably the first crucial stage in the learning process is a question of how language learners understand language input and how misunderstanding is prevented. Therefore, it is essential to consider the approach used in dealing with misunderstanding signals, which plays an essential role in the language process. The views on competence stem from criticisms from L2 education, bordering on the issues of communication focusing mainly on oral and transactional language uses (Matsumoto, 2018; Vernier et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2010). Students are encouraged to pay attention to forms in their home countries when introduced to the language learning process. They learn the linguistic features more directly because linguistic accuracy is focused on more than any other aspect of the language.

In other words, classroom fluency is not as encouraged as accuracy. Teaching should be targeted to what the learner needs and wants to know. They want to be able to apply whatever knowledge they gain today to communicate more effectively afterwards. The students being performance-centred in their orientation to learning,

their learning activities should be organized around competency development. This calls for a more thorough strategy in their teaching. With the bit of competence they have in the language, they tend to second guess their abilities in expressing them, which affects their confidence in seeking clarity on issues of misunderstanding. A misunderstanding may not only be limited to teacher-learner discussions but also occur between learners with similar levels of competence. In this sense, the teacher has to find a way to combine their core writing skills to speaking and reading and raise their belief in their ability to be comprehensible and intelligible in their expressions. More recently, language pedagogy has emphasized the need to provide learners with real communicative experiences. The provision of real communicative experiences may require a combination of teaching approaches in the classroom that may differ from regular second language teaching (Ellis, 2001).

Over several decades, there has been an increasing interest in teachers, and many educational studies show that engaging in teacher interaction and research contributes to teachers' professional development. However, even though there has been a lot of teacher motivational research, there are not many types of research in teaching EFL learners in Africa that are tailor-made for this part of the world. This thesis deals with real-life situations in the ESL/EFL classroom, interactions between learners with the same first language, and interactions between learners with different first and second languages and how they handle misunderstandings and work very hard to prevent them. Recently, scholars have turned their attention to competencies that go beyond learners being able to use language to perform social functions or to manage social interactions to consider how learners use language to negotiate social identities, claim social capital Bourdieu (1991) and assert agency over the context in which they are learning a language. Ghana uses English as its second language and

therefore trains its teachers in that manner. Teaching English to foreign language learners in an academic institution has specific responsibilities for its learners. Teachers' methods to signal or respond to misunderstanding signals must interest the academic and research community. One will have to consider the learner's environment to design the syllabus and classroom activities to enhance the teaching and learning methods adopted.

1.2 Statement of the problem

When two people communicate, they “interact with and through symbols to create and interpret meanings” (Wood, 2015p.28). By interpreting the meanings of these entities or symbols, people understand each other's intentions. This means that the words we speak as well as our gestures in communication by themselves have no inherent meanings. Rather, people gain their significance from an agreed-upon set of possible meanings. Thus, when we use symbols to communicate, we assume the other person shares our symbol system. Unfortunately, symbols are abstract, arbitrary, and ambiguous representations of other things (Wood, 2015). Some words can have the exact meaning in interpreting intonational contours. Conveyed with different symbols, we might symbolize love by giving a ring, saying *I love you* or embracing the other person closely. Also, because of the diverse nature of people's backgrounds and the dissimilarities in their first languages, symbols and non-verbal languages are understood differently. For example, EFL learners in the Ghana Institute of Languages mainly share a common African heritage but are influenced by very different cultures and languages, affecting how they express themselves.

During the language learning process, students go through the language correction process as some form of failure, a blemish or flaw on their part, and this may be because of the language structuralist approach, which observes correction as

preventable and still influences language teaching even today (Hoxha, 2015) in most Francophone countries. They are shy to express their misunderstanding to the teacher and respond in the affirmative when asked questions but find it difficult to expand on their understanding. Speakers unintentionally convey meanings from their non-verbal language that can cause misinterpretation by interlocutors from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Neff et al., 2010) Although these non-verbal cues may be signals the student uses to communicate some form of misunderstanding in the classroom, the instructor's response can lead to clarity or further misunderstanding.

Usually, students in beginner classes have minimal vocabulary, making it difficult to express themselves. Irrespective of this, students need a way to indicate or express their misunderstanding in enhancing learning, and the teachers must understand and encourage understanding in the classroom. If misunderstandings that occur in the classroom are taken for granted, problems may arise with language learning. It is therefore expected that teachers would develop language teaching methods suitable for ELF situations in their countries to control such problems from developing (Daoud, 1996; Phillipson, 1997). There has been several studies carried out to find the cause and preventive action to help teachers find lasting methods to control misunderstandings that prevent or limits learning in the classroom, but most of the research on misunderstanding is based on Western settings. Observations on the few studies are also based on native and non-native interactions. Furthermore, most works on misunderstanding and how they are signalled are on English as a Lingua Franca. With the growing number of second and third language learners in Africa, there is a need for increased research in the areas that helps to clarify and explain how misunderstandings are signalled in the English language classroom and also to reveal how they are prevented.

Irrespective of the teaching method, understanding classroom activities is expected and therefore needs no indicators or signalling. The smooth comprehension of the interaction in the class leads to comprehension or an expected end. A misunderstanding is a breakdown in interaction or perhaps a gap in the reception of the message and therefore needs further investigation to find the bridge between these gaps. Therefore, this study seeks to find the best or most appropriate classroom management that will suit the needs of the students. There is much research on English as a lingua franca and signalling in conversational discourse, with literature from studies conducted in western or Asian countries where the language may be used. The problem in the classroom is that students understand only the theoretical concepts, not the actual practices (Livingstone, 2015). Examining different topics from global or local contexts is helpful as it provides the research interest with broad yet highly contextualized understandings of contemporary issues in different socio-educational settings (Bailey & Duff, 2001).

1.3 Research objectives

This research seeks to:

1. investigate the signals that are used to cue misunderstandings in the classroom.
2. examine the factors that contribute to these misunderstanding.
3. Explore the strategies adopted to prevent misunderstandings in the classroom.

1.4 Research questions

The following questions guided the research:

1. How are misunderstandings signalled in the classroom?
2. What are the factors that contribute to these misunderstandings?
3. What strategies are adopted to prevent misunderstandings in the classroom?

1.5 Significance of the study

The researcher aims for the study's findings to be very valuable to both lay readers and professional educators. It will serve as a source of knowledge and information and a guide to prospective readers. The researcher is looking forward to a situation where the work, apart from adding to the volume of literature on the subject matter, will also contribute to shaping the teacher's pedagogical skills in the ESL classroom.

1.6 Limitations of the study

The research targeted four campuses of the Ghana Institute of Languages but was able to gather data in only three of them. This would have given a broader view of the study, but it was not carried out due to time constraints and the students' vacation.

1.7 Organisation of the study

The rest of the study is organized as follows: Chapter 2 presents a review of related literature, how it impacts the study, and the theoretical framework upon which it is conducted. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology adopted for the study. This encompasses the research design, population and sampling, and data collection instruments and procedures. The rests are validity and reliability, data analysis, and ethical considerations. Chapter 4 discusses the results of the study. Chapter 5 provides the summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations, as well as suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The need for English to be valued as a resource and an empowering literacy has never been more pressing than it is today when millions of people must coexist in multi-ethnic and multi-cultural societies while crossing borders not only between countries but also between languages. In order to prevent communication breakdowns, second language speakers must become familiar with pragmatic and sociolinguistic rules, according to Lenchuk and Ahmed, (2014) many second-language speakers still struggle with pragmatic rule understanding because reading, writing, and understanding cognitively challenging texts like novels, plays, and science lab reports require proficiency in the target language. To become competent communicators, speakers must go beyond simply mastering the four communication skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

When learners are unfamiliar with the language of instruction and communication, they must develop both linguistic and pragmatic competence, because, they frequently become silent, passive, and unheard in the classroom when this occurs (Cummins, 2001; Hugo & Nieman, 2011). In turn, this can prevent them from becoming fluent in the target language or from developing effective communication skills, which might result in pragmatic failure. Developing pragmatic competence, which Samaty (2005, p. 341) defines as “the ability to use language effectively”, is the only method to avoid pragmatic failure. Research shows that ELF interlocutors exhibit a high degree of interplay and pragmatic competence by signaling their lack of understanding to maintain conversation flow and provide enough information for issue resolution. This chapter reviews other research works

relevant to this study. The theoretical framework that underpins this study is also not left out of this chapter. The literature reviews the occurrence, type, frequency, and causes of misunderstanding and misinterpretation in the ESL/EFL classroom at the Ghana Institute of Languages. The chapter reviews the literature on classroom discourse, interaction in the ESL/EFL classroom, the concept of misunderstanding, misunderstanding, non-understanding, misunderstanding and miscommunication, and the types and causes of misunderstanding. It further discusses the study's theoretical framework in detail, emphasizing the main aspects of the framework relevant to the study, related studies and the conclusion.

2.1 Classroom discourse

According to Walsh (2006), classroom discourse is an essential component of learning that includes teacher–student interactions and student–student interactions. Shamil et al.,(2022) also imply that classroom discourse includes the interactions between all the participants that occur throughout a lesson (p. 20). Walsh (2013) focuses on understanding classroom interactions to improve teaching and learning. He explains different approaches that can be used to take a closer look at the specific language features and interactional techniques to help teachers develop their practices. Investigating classroom discourse is essential for enhancing the learning experience and developing teaching practices. It can be argued that analysing teachers' and learners' talk and how they interact in the classroom can reveal important information, such as signals when there is a misunderstanding and the factors that create these misunderstandings. Walsh(2011) states that “detailed examinations of classroom discourse reveal how interactants collectively co-construct meanings, how errors arise and are repaired, how turns begin, end and are passed or seized” (p.189).

However, Musumeci (1996) notes that in classroom interactions, teachers rarely ask for modifications to learners' speech, relying instead on imposing their interpretation on the students. This observation explains why some teachers persist in *filling in the gaps and glazing over* learner contributions to maintain the flow of a lesson or create a flawless discourse. Seeking clarification, requesting confirmation, and getting learners to reiterate their contributions foster language development. Teachers seek clarification by negotiating meaning, which helps the learners express themselves more thoroughly and clearly. This study is based on a classroom conversation analysis approach, and it seeks to provide valuable findings that can be used to enhance EFL/ESL classroom teaching and learning practices.

2.2 Interaction in the ESL/EFL classroom

According to Ellis (2008), like any other language learning process, a foreign language can be adequately acquired in both a natural setting and formal environment; therefore, learners can advance their language skills through acquisition and learning. Language acquisition researchers have also claimed that linguistic environment, linguistic input, and linguistic output are the significant factors that promote language learners' competency and performance (Ellis, 2008). Rivers (1987) asserted that to advance effective interaction in the classroom; teachers should attach importance to two-way interaction based on learners' mutual effort and encourage learners to join the communication activities in class. Similarly, Ninio and Snow (1996) highlight that only when the learners actively participate in language interaction in class can they acquire the language successfully. They suggest that teachers' main task is creating a learning environment and organizing classroom activities to promote learners' active communication, which focuses on negotiating information and sharing.

According to Walsh (2013) teachers should be essential in managing classroom activities. The teacher's role determines the success or otherwise of the lessons and what the ESL/EFL student learns in the classroom. These management techniques control communication patterns, repair strategies, and elicit and alter learners' speech. The communication behaviours in language classrooms are unique and different from those in content-based subject classrooms. Communication is unique in these classrooms because the aim of a lesson, the means of achieving those aims, and the linguistic forms used are often simultaneously the same. Language is both the central objective of the lesson, the focus of the activity, and the instrument for achieving it (Willis, 1992).

The characteristics of second language classroom discourse are easy to identify and present an apparent form where teachers manage both the motive of conversation and turn-taking. Students take their signals from the teacher through whom they direct most of their responses in the classroom. Teachers control both the content and the learning procedure- a process in which teachers influence learner participation by how they use language and what they bring to the classroom, which adds further weight to the argument that misunderstandings can occur in learners. Most ESL/EFL learners consider correction and repair outside the classroom as an embarrassment, which should not be the case since it is a place for learning.

Lynch (1996) suggests three reasons for teachers' interest in language modification for learners. First, this is important because of the link between comprehension and progress in L2. If students do not understand the input they receive, it is unlikely that they will progress (cf. Krashen, 1985) Second is the issue of the influence of teacher language on learner language. One of the most important activities performed by L2 teachers is to model the target language for their learners;

in many cases, this may be the only exposure to the language that learners receive. Third is the need for teachers to modify their speech owing to the difficulties experienced by learners in understanding their teachers. Without some simplification or reduction in the speed of delivery, it is improbable that students would understand what is going on in the classroom.

Chaudron (1988) found that language teachers typically modify four aspects of their speech: simplifying vocabulary, avoiding idioms, and simplifying grammar by using shorter, more straightforward utterances and increased use of present-tense; Also, pronunciation modification by slower, more explicit speech and more widespread use of standard forms. Finally, he found that teachers use more gestures and facial expressions similar to how parents behave when they teach their younger ones their first language. Al-Ghamdi & Al-Bargi (2017) identified five modification strategies, starting with self-repetition, moving on to linguistic modelling, providing information, expanding an utterance, and using extensive elicitation, where questions are graded and adjusted. Each of these has its role in the discourse and is used strategically according to desired outcomes.

Rea-Dickins(2001)identify several ways teachers modify their interaction in the classroom. These modifications include confirmation checks (where teachers make sure they understand the learner), comprehension checks (which ensure that learners understand the teacher), repetition, clarification requests, reformulation (rephrasing a learner's utterance); completion (finishing a learner's contribution) and backtracking, (returning to an earlier part of a dialogue). These observed learning values can be appreciated in ESL/EFL classrooms.

2.3 The concept of misunderstanding

Talk among speakers of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is generally cooperative and aims for mutual understanding (Cogo, 2009; de Jager & Evans, 2013; Mauranen, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2005). However, cooperation is not always positively tinted, showing agreement and comradeship. It is a prerequisite for communication, leading to agreements and disagreements (Mauranen, 2012). A misunderstanding is a potential breakdown point in a conversation or a kind of communicative turbulence (Mauranen, 2006). Weigand (1999) defines misunderstanding as a form of understanding that is partial or deviant from what the speaker intended to communicate. For Members (n.d.), misunderstanding occurs when a participant (in the interaction) obtains an interpretation that he believes is complete and correct but not the one the other speaker intended him to obtain. It is a way of understanding a speaker's utterance - not the polar opposite of comprehension (Bazzanella & Damianol, 1999). Misunderstandings can take place on various levels of significance concerning the content, frame, intention, and mode of the utterance and be caused by a mix of reasons, including mispronunciations and mishearing, ambiguity, knowledge problems, topic organization, and focus difficulties (Bazzanella & Damianol, 1999, p. 818), to name a few. Furthermore, misunderstandings are always circumstantial triggers that obstruct comprehension, and one's situation may ease understanding in others (Mustajoki, 2012, p. 217).

In Grimshaw's (1990) definition, a misunderstanding is a two-stage process. The hearer experiences understanding in the first stage and then deliberately fails to do (or give evidence of believing) in the second stage. Members, n.d. describes misunderstanding as the disparity between the speaker's and the hearer's semantic analysis of a given utterance. On those occasions when it occurs, EFL interlocutors

exhibit a high degree of communicational and pragmatic awareness in the way they signal to maintain the conversation's flow while yet giving the other party enough information to solve the issue; they communicate their lack of understanding in a certain way (Peng, 2012).

2.3.1 Misunderstanding and non-understanding

Allwood and Abelar (1984) define non-understanding, or lack of understanding, as an instance during the conversation when a receiver cannot connect incoming information with stored information. Young's (1999) definition of non-understanding seems to align with Allwood and Abelar when he points out that non-understanding exists when observers realize that they do not understand the action of others. Non-understanding, or lack of understanding, as Allwood and Abelar call it, can be attributed to missing relevant information and missing strategies for relevant connection. Non-understanding, according to Weigand (1999), cannot be regarded as a form of understanding – as it refers to difficulties in understanding. In Bazanella and Damiano (1999), non-understanding is not aligned with misunderstanding since the former implies no apprehension during the conversation. At the same time, Hirst et al. (1994) equate 'not understanding' with the participant's failure to find any complete and unique interpretation of an utterance. The difference between Misunderstanding and non-understanding is that with non-understanding, someone experiencing it during the conversation is aware that he has difficulty understanding (Hirst et al., 1994; Weigand, 1999).

2.3.2 Misunderstanding and miscommunication

According to Weigand (1999), miscommunication occurs when the speaker and interlocutors are unaware of a misunderstanding in their interaction. Therefore, communication continues irrespective of the misunderstanding. In the ESL

classroom, miscommunication can occur when the students misunderstand the teacher's intention toward a different teaching style as a deviation. If the teacher does not explain his intention to the class and assumes that they will understand his approach and the students also see it as the teacher taking a rugged stand, misunderstanding as a result of miscommunication has occurred. Communication in the classroom is not a new topic in the field. It has been examined in several ways, providing exciting and rich research. Topics have included teacher self-disclosure, social identity, communication willingness, 'cool' classroom communication, carnival lives and communication, and verbally aggressive communication. Each study explained the classroom communication forms between teachers and students. This research focuses on the role of communication accommodation, specifically in the ESL classroom.

2.3 Types of misunderstanding

According to Bazzanella and Damiano (1999), the various types of misunderstanding identified are structural misunderstandings (such as ambiguity - often the leading cause of misunderstandings), misunderstandings related to the speaker, misunderstandings related to the hearer, and misunderstandings related to the interaction between the two speakers (such as cultural differences for example, between male and female communicative styles (Tannen, 1991). The former (speaker-related sources) have to do with ambiguity. The speaker either holds information necessary for the listener to interpret the message, or the speaker may think that the cues he/she provides are sufficient for the listener to interpret the given message. The latter (listener-related sources) may be phonological (e.g. mishearing, intonational contours), lexical (e.g. misrecognizing the meanings of some words), syntactic (e.g. misparsing part of the utterance), or pragmatic (e.g. the context, lack of cultural

background). When people from different worlds meet, and because speakers and hearers are different people and because each communicative episode is different, our level of communicative competence explains some incidences where misunderstanding may occur. This is particularly true of the instructional context where a diverse mix of learners and teachers meet daily. It is, perhaps, prudent to also clarify the notion of misunderstandings.

2.3.1 Structural misunderstandings

The listener must “break up incoming sentences into their constituent clauses” in order to build a syntactic representation” (Wingfield & Lindfield, 1995. p. 209). This calls for defining the bounds of sentence constituents, and this defining largely depends on processing the prosodic elements that are present in sentences (Wingfield & Lindfield, 1995. p. 215). It is not always possible to successfully identify the borders of linguistic structures, nevertheless. Under certain conditions, listeners misidentify these boundaries, and as a result misunderstand the meaning underlying the linguistic structure. Consider the following example adapted by Wingfield et al. (1999, p. 775):

1. (A is a student; B is a professor).

A: I have to indicate two topics for exam.

B: Which ones did you choose?

A: Dialogue grammar and communication disturbances.

B: You should see me once again and tell me about your preparation. Did you attend the lecture on communication disturbances?

A: Yes, naturally.

B: O.K. And what is your second topic?

A: Communication disturbances.

B: Oh, now I understand. There are two subjects here. I initially believed it to be one, but the connection between conversation grammar and communication breakdowns struck me as odd, so I requested you to show me your exam-related work.

This misunderstanding emanating from the exchange is the outcome of incorrect prosodic processing leading to improper syntactic processing. In other words, B produced a syntactic representation that was incompatible with the actual structure since it was unable to accurately detect the borders of the incoming structures. Instead of being processed as two coordinated sentences, the structure “dialogue grammar and communication disturbances” was processed as one complex phrase. Syntactic ambiguity is associated with syntactic processing. Standing ambiguity refers to “cases of sentences that remain syntactically ambiguous even when all of the lexical information has been received” (Wingfield & Lindfield, 1995, p. 226).

Local ambiguity refers to instances where substructure of a sentence is unclear unless the whole structure of the sentence is complete. Wingfield emphasized the function of prosodic characteristics in addressing such ambiguity, following Beach (1991). It is unfortunate that phrases sometimes have unclear prosodic qualities. Syntactically unclear statements will be challenging to process in this situation. Tabor et al. (2004) who conducted three studies to investigate the impact of local syntactic coherence on language processing, provide evidence in support of this challenge. They discovered that participants had trouble understanding sentences with local syntactic coherence. They provided an explanation for this result, stating that “local syntactic coherence in the input can result in the construction of syntactic analyses

which are inconsistent with the global syntactic context” (p. 356). In other words, they are likely to cause miscommunication.

This has to do with how a sentence’s word order might lead to ambiguity. The potential for different meanings in a piece of written or spoken language due to the arrangement of the words or phrases is known as structural or syntactic ambiguity. Language expressions that have several meanings and hence lack a clear message are said to be ambiguous. The term lexical ambiguity, which frequently results from the fact that words can have several meanings, is sometimes contrasted with structural ambiguity. Both are instances of linguistic ambiguity, which can also be brought on by figurative language and vagueness. Such adaptability could prevent the listener from learning precise information, which would disrupt the flow of the talk. The three main types of ambiguity are lexical, structural, and pragmatic. While syntactical changes result in structural ambiguity (SA), lexical ambiguity (LA) is related to words with numerous meanings, which makes it difficult for the listener to determine the correct meaning. But pragmatic ambiguity has nothing to do with language or structural distinctions; rather, it arises from the speaker’s environment, past experiences, or background information. It is possible to resolve the pragmatic ambiguity in the statement ‘I have visited my aunt’ right away.

Given the lexical ambiguity of the term ‘aunt’, this remark might be problematic. Since both the mother’s sister and the father’s sister are addressed as ‘aunt’, it can be difficult for a listener to distinguish between the two. Students frequently encounter these lexical ambiguities in the classroom because they either do not know all of the definitions for the word or are unaware of the ambiguity or potential misunderstandings that it may present. Homonymy and polysemy, which Lyons (1977) initially advocated for a separate differentiation, are to blame for this.

Both lexical items are words with numerous meanings; however, polysemic words convey the continuity of meaning within a semantic field; as a result, they have a number of connected meanings, whereas homonymy is called for words with two or more unrelated meanings.

When a reader can infer several interpretations from an embedded phrase or clause within a sentence and it was further separated into more subtitles, this is known as syntactic ambiguity, also known as structural ambiguity or grammatical ambiguity. Deep structural ambiguity and surface structure ambiguity were the two levels of structural ambiguity that Demir (2020) explored. As a result, deep structure deals with the idea of underlying meaning such as thoughts, feelings, ideas, and concepts, which is a cognitive issue, as opposed to surface structure, which can be compared to a linear arrangement of sounds, words, clauses, and phrases. Changes in word order may aid in resolving structural ambiguity, which might result from choosing words that are inserted in connotative rather than denotative contexts (Demir, 2020). For instance, 'The teacher said he would not attend the class on Tuesday'. The misleading term or phrase can be moved to clear up the uncertainty. The ambiguous expression may be readily resolved by this adjustment in word order: On Thursday the teacher said he would not attend the class, or the teacher said he would not attend the class on Thursday. In this case, the hearer correctly understands what he has heard; he has not, however, correctly understood what the speaker uttered nor what the speaker intended.

2.3.2 Misunderstandings related to the speaker

To understand a request, one would have to understand who made the request, what is expected by the person making the request, whether the request is legitimate and whether one understands the speaker (Weigand, 1999). In other words, one

understands a message if one can meaningfully reproduce the information conveyed by the message, correctly and appropriately. In addition, understanding is only possible when one has correctly interpreted the context in which the speech event took place, where understanding or misunderstanding can occur due to the context rather than words or language and taken body language into account.

2.3.3 Misunderstandings related to the hearer

Thomas(1983 pp.91-112) believes that misunderstanding arises from an inability on the part of the hearer to recognize the force of the speaker's utterance. A misunderstanding may occur when a participant has-incorrectly heard either some part or the whole of an utterance. If this mishearing is realized and acknowledged and a clarification or repeat is sought, using such formulae as 'Pardon'? 'What did you say'? 'I didn't catch that' and so on, it is not a misunderstanding. If the person who misheard the utterance interprets that mishearing, believing it to be correct, and continues the conversation under this belief, it is a misunderstanding. Mishearing can thus result in misunderstanding. (Goffman, 1981, p. 296) makes a structural distinction between the two which gives the impression that they are not connected: "the structural difference between an unhearing and a misunderstanding is to be found in terms of how the difficulty gets corrected. With unhearing the recipient signals there is trouble; with misunderstandings, the speaker realises that the listener had misunderstood the utterance".

Bou-Franch (2002) comments that the listener, too, can be blamed for misunderstanding, especially if he has not been listening, Also hearer is said to have misunderstood when the hearer is confident of having correctly heard and interpreted the speaker's utterance and secondly, that the hearer has the linguistic capacity to understand the utterance correctly, and should know the meaning of the constituents

of the utterance. In a misperception based on the listener's current preoccupations, the hearer could have perceived the signal correctly but because of his current preoccupations does not understand it as the speaker intended it to be understood. It is also possible that a hearer realizes that he has misunderstood an utterance before the speaker of that utterance realizes the misunderstanding has occurred. The hearer may have realized the occurrence of the misunderstanding in the light of utterances after the one misunderstood, in which case the sequence of utterance, reply, and correction is broken by other utterances.

2.3.4 Misunderstandings related to the interaction between the two speakers

In this instance “those involved appeared to be talking at cross purposes where interactants are not aware that there is any problem in understanding and the ‘impasse’ is not resolved and ‘any minimal ‘sense’ that could be made out of the exchange is by recourse to a deeper and deeper examination of several contextual dimensions”(Grimshaw, 1982, p. 20). This means that the participants are not themselves troubled by a miscommunication which subsequently cannot be understood, even with the benefit of hindsight. Weigand (1999, p. 769) argues that the most prominent feature of misunderstanding is that it is a “form of understanding which is partially or deviant from what the speaker intended to communicate, it is a communicative phenomenon typically belonging to the receiver, who is not aware of the fact that he or she has misunderstood”. Weigand's statement points to the receiver/hearer having misunderstood, knowingly or unknowingly, the error (of whatever kind) made by the speaker that leads to the receiver misunderstanding the speaker's intent.

A slow rate of processing information from what the interlocutor is saying is also another type of misunderstanding. This is a type of difficulty found with some

learners. Because of difficulties both in understanding and production of target language, their utterances have a delayed relevance to their interaction, and often is not noticed by their target language-speaking partner. A question is directed at a language learner who then sets out to try to understand and answer. However, since the process is slow, the target language speaker thinks the first question has not been understood and asks new questions. When the learner eventually answers the first question, it is no longer immediately locally relevant (e.g. Allwood & Abelar, 1984), and can confuse the target language speaker. If the speaker makes one or more attempts to amend the hearer's understanding it can be assumed that the hearer has not understood correctly.

Milroy and Milroy (2012), for instance, tackles dialectal misunderstandings, that is, misunderstandings that arise between people using different dialects, aiming at highlighting the sources of misunderstanding in cross-dialectal communication. Examining material of miscommunication data from the Hiberno-English dialect, Milroy and Milroy, (2012) suggests that the cause of misunderstanding is “located in a disparity between inferences which conversational participants draw from a given utterance, rather than a disparity between semantic structures from which they derive that utterance” (p. 24). Milroy & Milroy (2012) and Varonis and Gass (1985) focus on cross-dialectal and inter-ethnic misunderstandings, that is, those between speaker-hearers whose “internal grammars are different in some specifiable way” (Milroy & Milroy, 1985, p. 7). Interaction between such participants, as between native and foreign participants, is usually marked. Misunderstandings between such participants (Milroy & Milroy, 1985, p. 7) could be due to syntactic, semantic, and cultural errors as a result of incomplete knowledge of each other’s language or dialect and environment.

2.3.4 Summary

Misunderstandings in communication can be categorized into structural, lexical, structural, and pragmatic misunderstandings. Structural misunderstandings involve incorrect prosodic processing, leading to incorrect syntactic processing, resulting in miscommunication. Local ambiguity refers to unclear sentence substructures, while structural ambiguity involves multiple interpretations of a sentence. Syntactic ambiguity, also known as structural or grammatical ambiguity, occurs when a reader can infer multiple interpretations from an embedded phrase or clause. Changes in word order can help resolve structural ambiguity. Misunderstandings can occur due to factors such as the speaker, the hearer, the interaction between speakers, and slow processing of information. Mishearing can occur when a participant incorrectly hears or understands the speaker's utterance, while interaction misunderstandings occur when participants are unaware of the problem and the *impasse* is not resolved. Dialectical misunderstandings, such as those between native and foreign participants, can also lead to misunderstandings due to syntactic, semantic, and cultural errors.

2.4 Causes of misunderstanding

The causes of misunderstanding are closely related to the types of misunderstanding. A functional classification of causes of misunderstanding, which are called triggers, is provided by Bazzanella and Damiano (1999). On the other hand, compared with Kaur's data collected by students in their free time, the smaller percentage of misunderstandings in EFL couples' data is in line with the assumption that the couples have developed shared communication conventions over the years. Most misunderstandings seem to have arisen from the general vagueness of the speaker's utterances, resulting in the hearer drawing misinformed assumptions.

Misunderstandings are not only the hearer's fault; the lack of explicitness from the speaker is equally to blame, as a lack of situational support.

Misunderstanding is hypothesized to be caused by the inconsistencies which take place during comprehension and to the interference of emotions with comprehension. This hypothesis stems from the fact that language comprehension is more complex than we might think. It involves the communicator's capturing of 'the content, structure and sequencing of verbal messages as well as paralinguistic cues, gestures, facial expressions, body movements and cues provided by the physical environment that accompany verbal messages (Burgoon et al., 2000p.106). The multiplicity of tasks in the comprehension process casts heavy unconscious burden on the comprehender, which renders comprehension potentially risky and liable for interpretive errors. Such errors may preclude extracting the intended meaning behind a piece of discourse causing misunderstanding. Language convergence/Meaning divergence (LC/MD), which focuses on the idea that shared language does not necessarily lead to shared understanding, highlights a crucial misunderstanding about communication that pervades our knowledge. However, this research aims to discover how misunderstandings occur in the classroom, and the process focuses on how teachers adjust their speech to promote understanding. The causes of misunderstanding identified are cognitive means, environmental means, and linguistic means.

2.4.1 Cognitive means

According to Weigand our knowledge of habits and similar inferences are examples of cognitive means. She argues that habits are not valid for every case and that inferences are not always conventional. They represent presumptions dependent on the differences between the speaker's world and the listeners. She also notes that

when interlocutors rely on their knowledge of habits, they may rely on different cognitive means, and the lists of triggers appear. Misunderstanding through cognitive means can be attributed to one's culture, pre-understanding, and presupposition.

2.4.1.1 Cultural means

Dean (1995) hints that cultural differences lead to diverging expectations concerning the interaction's content, goals, and process. Another unavoidable circumstance is when the listener has difficulty understanding and recognizing the meaning of a part of the speaker's utterance. For instance, the same symbol can have different meanings to different groups or individuals. For example, nodding means 'yes' for Chinese, while it means 'no' for Indians. Wiegand (1999) also admits that cross-cultural communication problems can be observed between speakers of different languages and even within the same language. However, it is also possible to find different cultural frames belonging to different varieties. Kurhila (2001) further affirms the previous assertions by indicating that when participants in an encounter do not have equal access to the language of the exchange, they can face interactional problems that are absent or only rarely found in conversations between native speakers.

2.4.1.2 Pre-understanding and presupposition

It is very rational to make use of one's pre-understanding and presuppositions in learning a new language, it sometimes, leads to misunderstandings. One's presuppositions and expectations go to the extent that no room is left for the reactions of the interacting partner. These reactions can be neglected or reinterpreted to fit the assumptions governing one's behaviour. For language learners this situation can arise if they in advance prepare a certain type of interaction and become so absorbed in carrying out what they have planned, that they do not notice that their target language

speaking partner has not understood or has been acting on assumptions which are different from the language learners own. Situations of this type seem to occur fairly frequently when one must communicate something important in a language one does not master. One's attention and linguistic ability are so fully taken up by what one is trying to say, that it does not become possible to take into account what one's interlocutors are saying.

2.4.2 Environmental means

Borrowing the phrase *triggers of misunderstanding from previous researchers*, Bou-Franch (2002) argues that the occurrence of these triggers can be attributed to external sources. One of the external sources that thrust misunderstanding is disturbing background noise (Qin, 2011). A misunderstanding occurs when a hearer, has an incorrect belief about the context in which an utterance is expressed. A particular state of affairs automatically holds if it is brought about by a sound event in a particular context. A misunderstanding can occur when the background noise gives an impression of words being spoken in an interaction. An example is a sound made by a parrot during an interaction; the hearer may take that sound as part of the interaction and react to it.

2.4.3 Linguistic means

Weigand (1999) claims that the linguistic means used by the speaker are not correctly identified by the interlocutor as linguistic causes are influenced by cognitive means.eg- a speaking is bound to situational (e.g., acoustic and perceptual) conditions. With acoustic as a factor, she observes that there might be noise in the environment that distracts the interacting parties from identifying phonological and lexical sequences causing misunderstanding. Also, Qin (2011) identifies troubles related to using a foreign language as a linguistic cause of misunderstanding. An

example is a teacher who is explaining class activities to his EFL French students and code switches to Twi a local Ghanaian dialect. He is likely to create misunderstanding with his explanation because of the foreign language he used.

2.4.4 Summary

Most misunderstandings seem to have arisen from the general vagueness of the speaker's utterances, resulting in the hearer drawing misinformed assumptions. Misunderstandings are not only the hearer's fault; the lack of explicitness from the speaker is equally to blame, as a lack of situational support. The causes of misunderstanding identified are cognitive means, environmental means and linguistic means. Bazzanella and Damiano (1999) mention that one or more factors can appear at a particular moment. These factors can appear at a specific moment in an interaction, making understanding more difficult. The types of misunderstanding are related to the causes of these misunderstandings. There are four types of misunderstandings identified in the literature research.

2.5 Signalling misunderstanding

Negotiation between learners and interlocutors occurs when one signals with questions or comments that the other's preceding message has not been successfully conveyed. The other then responds, often, by repeating or modifying the message. The modified version might take a word or phrase extracted, segmented from the original utterance, a paraphrase, or a synonym substitution. This implies that negotiation in an interaction can offer learners a speaking context in which they can manipulate and modify their messages toward greater comprehensibility. Simple clarification requests and signals from the interlocutor, such as *what?* or *you did what?* can serve that purpose. Studies on learner-NS negotiation suggest that learners' responses to each other during learner-to-learner negotiation might differ from the

native speaker in the way they address their needs for input, feedback, and output production in negotiation.

Clarification questions and minimal in comprehension signals are identified in language learners (Mauranen, 2006). Some signals of misunderstanding are direct clarification, questions, echoing, paraphrasing, self-repair, and code-switching. The issue of misunderstanding and misinterpretation is of significant interest to this research. Its primary objective is to examine the problems or troubles that can surface within the transaction involving individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Frequently, these encounters could be confronted by obstacles and incompatibilities that eventually could result in misunderstanding, hostility, and increased prejudice. These differences suggest the seven hypotheses about learners' interaction as a context for L2 learning. Learners would provide less modified input than NSs in their responses to other learners' negotiation signals.

Modifications in learners' responses would be less evenly distributed by type than those of NSs: Learners would segment individual words and phrases from their prior utterances more often than they would make other modifications, such as lexical substitution and paraphrase, structural changes of embedding, or relocation of primary utterance constituents. Learners' responses that were simple segmentations of their prior utterances would conform more to L2 morpho-syntax than their responses that were of other modification types. L2 Learners' simple segmentation of each other's prior utterances would outnumber their signals of other modification types. Learners' signals that were simple segmentation of each other's prior utterances would conform more to L2 morphosyntax than their signals that were other modification types. When learners were given signals that modified their previous utterances, they would

produce a similar amount of modified output in their responses, whether the signals were from other learners or NSs.

In Pica et al. (1990, 1992a, 1992), learners modified 40% of their prior utterances, compared with 70% on the part of NSs. Learners, on the whole, restricted their modified responses to instances of NS signals that were open clarification questions such as *what? Or could you repeat that?* Several studies have shown that learners can modify their output in response to NSs. The incidence of modification in their responses can be contingent on the types of signals directed at them. Thus, learners responded with modified versions of their prior utterances when NS signals were open-ended. The participants in (Schegloff et al., 1977) study used repairing conversations where the speakers halt the ongoing action to deal with communicative problems. These instances are not limited to error correction. It can also include problems of understanding or hearing, for which repair is a more accurate term than correction, using discourse analysis. They could show that most repairs were made in the same conversational turn as the problem originated. Generally, the repairs they studied had little to do with linguistic problems, and insufficient knowledge of the topic discussed was more common. According to Varonis and Gass (1985), repair sequences can even dominate conversations between NNSs. They proposed that these sequences are termed negotiation of meaning. The sequence consists of an utterance that the listener does not understand, an indicator of a problem, and a potential response.

2.6 Theoretical framework: Communications Accommodation Theory (CAT)

In the recent decade, various researchers have explored different methods and strategies to promote interaction in the EFL classroom. In contrast, very little research focused on what happens in the EFL classroom and the interaction in the EFL

classroom. This study explores teacher-student real interaction in the EFL classroom from the perspective of communication accommodation theory, explicitly explaining how teachers apply the communication accommodation strategies to accommodate the students during the interaction to avoid communication breakdown in the EFL class. Communication accommodation theory (CAT) is a theory of interpersonal communication derived from Speech Accommodation Theory (SAT), which Giles first coined in 1973. According to Giles, interlocutors consciously or unconsciously adjust their verbal and non-verbal behaviours to accommodate each other in order to: 1) evoke their social approval; 2) promote the effectiveness of communication; and 3) sustain good social identity (Beebe & Giles, 1984; Giles et al., 1991)

The theory provides a wide-ranging framework to predict and explain many of the adjustments individuals make to create, maintain, or decrease the social distance in interaction. Our identities drive our communications with others - and sometimes within the very same interaction - our words, nonverbal, and demeanour are fuelled, instead and almost entirely, by our social identities as members of groups. This movement by changing one's communicative behaviour toward and away from others is called accommodation. A broader range of factors at diverse levels can occur as accommodation, such as variation in using a wide range of linguistic and non-verbal features such as accent features (pronunciation), intonation, speech rate, pauses, and utterance length gaze.

Depending on the speakers' attitude towards each other, shared social context, and their language varieties, accommodation can be either divergence or convergence. While **convergence** may be a form of linguistic similarity (i.e., accommodative, a process in which a speaker modifies his/her speech to **resemble the addressee's speech more closely**), **divergence** may be a process in which a speaker linguistically

moves in the opposite direction to make his/her speech sound **more unlike** the person s/he is talking to. Communication accommodation theory is an interpersonal and intergroup communication theory; it describes communication between interactants as a result of the direct enactment of individuals' personal or social identities (Dragojevic & Giles, 2014; Giles & Ogay, 2007). The theory posits the various eleven mechanisms for how, when, and why individuals adjust communication behavior to interlocutors as a means of facilitating understanding (i.e., cognitive function) and managing social distance (i.e., affective function) (Gallois et al., 2005).

Within CAT, convergent and divergent speech behaviour has been explained based on speakers' underlying psychological motivations connected to their language use. By convergent accommodative acts, interlocutors can linguistically signal similarity and social solidarity. This behaviour expresses their desire for social approval or attraction and assimilation. Conversely, by employing divergent communicative acts, speakers can coherently emphasize their social difference and distance from and disapproval of the addressee and his/her communicative behaviour. The application of divergence strategies shows an individual's identity (e.g., socio-economic, religious, cultural) in contrast to another individuals. For instance, ethnic minorities can signal their social distinctiveness by using ethnic markers when interacting with ethnic majorities. When linguistic divergence is used in ethnic variety, it functions as an identity marker.

The theory assumes that adjustments in communication may also be motivated by a desire to organize comprehension and increase efficiency in communication (Thakerar et al., 1982). With this motivation, speakers can assess their interactants' communicative needs and behaviour and adjust their speech to be more (or less) predictable, intelligible, and comprehensible. Adjustment can also be

conceptualized in at least five ways regarding its goal or focus comparative to a conversational partner's needs and behaviour (Coupland et al., 1988). First, when interactants focus on their partners' productive language and communication, they can employ approximation strategies, which involve adjusting their verbal and nonverbal behaviours toward (convergence) or away from (divergence) their interlocutor. Speakers can increase personal and social liking and gain others' social approval by becoming communicatively more similar to them (i.e., converging) (Wang et al., 2010). Speakers may also converge to their interlocutors' socially marked communicative behaviours (e.g., accent, dialect) to signal that they belong to the same social group and, thus, secure potential social reward (e.g. Turner & Oakes, 1986).

Communication accommodation theory conceptualizes motivation as an emergent process that can dynamically change during the interaction. People enter a given communicative encounter with an initial orientation and adjust their communication as a function of their initial orientation or pre-disposition to construe one another in interpersonal or intergroup terms in conjunction with their initial intentions concerning accommodation (Gallois et al., 2005). As the interaction progresses, the initial orientation transforms into a psychologically accommodative stance based on the different identities and interactants' perceptions of their own and the other interactant. Five factors can influence interactants' initial orientation: interpersonal history, socio-cultural norms and values, and the current and past state of relevant intergroup relations. Socio-cultural norms and values specify when whom, and how appropriate to interact. As such, they circumscribe not only to the available opportunities for intergroup contact but also shape interactants' behaviours.

2.5.1 Motives for adjustment

We adapt our communication to our fellow speakers unconsciously and automatically. Other times, these adjustments are conscious and deliberate. The Communication accommodation theory gives two distinct motives for adjusting communication (Giles et al., 1979). The first is an effective (identity maintenance) motive for managing identity concerns. The other is a cognitive (organizational) motive related to managing comprehension and communicative efficiency. There is an inherent tension between people's motivation to adjust and their ability to adjust (Beebe & Giles, 1984). In other words, people adjust their communication based on their behaviour. Several factors can constrain people's ability to accommodate. First, adjustment is necessarily constrained by one's communicative set of verbal, repertoire, or the nonverbal, and paralinguistic features they can produce and have at their disposal (Gumperz, 1964, 1965). Accommodation within one's existing repertoire involves altering the usage of frequency variants already within one's control, whereas accommodation outside one's speech repertoire involves adopting new forms (Trudgill, 1986). A speaker's communicative repertoire can restrain accommodation by deciding which communicative features (e.g., gestures and words) she or he is familiar with and can accommodate with relative ease (Beebe & Giles, 1984). However, speakers may accommodate outside their repertoire by adjusting their needs to suit themselves and their interlocutors and trying to understand some nonverbal codes during an interaction that encourages others to be confident.

Non-cooperative accommodation (including divergence and maintenance) is generally motivated by a willingness to emphasize the difference from one's interlocutors to differentiate oneself from relevant out groups and positively reinforce one's personal and social identity (Beebe & Giles, 1984). For example, , Berger &

Heath, (2008) note that people often diverged in clothing and apparel from selecting others to avoid signalling socially undesirable group identities (e.g., geek). Additionally, members of social and ethnic minorities may show features of their own (perhaps stigmatized) dialects when they become aware and proud of their cultural identity, as did the Welsh speakers in response to an English person slandering their language (Bourhis & Giles, 1977). More research is needed to explore this possibility, and (Gasiorek et al., 2015) specifically referenced the potential for CAT to facilitate this type of understanding. They note that in the instructional context, CAT could be used to examine the motivation and relational or instructional outcomes (effect for learning, cognitive learning) associated with teacher-student (non)accommodation in and outside of the classroom.

2.5.1.1 Full/partial adjustment

Adjustment can also be either full or partial (Bradac et al., 1988). For instance, a speaker initially exhibiting a rate of 100 words per minute may increase his speed to match exactly another speaker's rate of 200 words per minute (full Convergence) or may increase his rate to 150 words per minute to only partially match her rate (Street Jr, 1982). Similarly, interactants can diverge from one another in variable degrees, from total divergence to partial divergence (such as code-switching for a short while) (e.g., speaking an entirely different language). The degree to which speakers approach their listeners' communicative patterns might vary (for example, as full or partial) (Bradac et al., 1988; Street Jr, 1982)

2.5.1.2 Upward/downward adjustment

The upward adjustment refers to a more prestigious variety of speech, whereas downward adjustment refers to a less prestigious, or even stigmatized, variety. A nonstandard speaker matching another's standard accent is an example of upward

convergence, whereas a standard speaker matching another's nonstandard accent is an example of downward convergence. For example, the lecturer can interpret any converging action of the student as forwardness or a lack of modesty rather than as a sign of expertise. People in junior positions are typically anticipated to move upward toward those in superior positions (referred to as upward convergence). In contrast, a person of higher status (such as a professor) might communicate with the group of trainees - his students - who are generally of lesser status by using informal language. The lecturer can interpret any converging action of the student as forwardness or a lack of modesty rather than as a sign of expertise. People in junior positions are typically anticipated to move upward toward those in superior positions (referred to as upward convergence). Someone with a higher rank, such as a professor, might converge by colloquial and lay language to the relatively lower-status trainees gathered, that is, his students. However, the students might perceive this so-called downward convergence as suspicious, inappropriate, or even condescending.

2.5.1.3 Symmetrical/asymmetrical adjustment

Sometimes the adjustment is symmetrical, and one person's communicative moves are reciprocated by the other, avoiding sensitive topics to avoid conflict and promote group harmony. Sometimes, one person's communicative moves do not correspond to the other. Convergence is frequently directed at stronger people (without reciprocation from the high-power speaker); these shifts are frequently asymmetrical.

2.5.14 Unimodal/multimodal adjustment

Adjusting some communicative features does not necessarily mean the speaker will adjust in all available variables and dimensions. Accordingly, unimodal adjustment refers to shifts on only a single dimension (e.g., accent), whereas multimodal adjustment refers to multiple dimensions simultaneously (e.g., accent,

posture, eye gaze). Since adjustment can occur on multiple dimensions, convergence and divergence are not mutually exclusive strategies, and both may be enacted simultaneously (Gallois et al., 2005).

2.5.1.5 Short-term/long-term adjustment

Adjustment can also vary in its duration. Sometimes adjustment toward a particular style is short-lived and occurs during only one or a few social interactions (short-term). Other times, adjustment toward a particular style is more sustained and repeatedly occurs over multiple interactions (long-term). The distinction between long and short-term accommodation has been constructive in explaining dialect change (Trudgill, 1986). Specifically, whereas short-term accommodation toward a particular style may lead to transitory changes in a person's habitual speech, long-term accommodation toward that style may ultimately result in permanent changes to a person's speech. Long-term accommodation is a primary mechanism underlying language change. Thakerar et al. (1982) further distinguish linguistic accommodation as being objective - that is, directly observable or measurable shifts in behaviour and subjective - that is, individuals' perceptions of behavioural shift. Thakerar et al. (1982) observed that high-status participants slowed their speech rates and made their accents less standard in dyads characterized by status inequality. In contrast, lower-status speakers increased their speech rates and made their accents more standard. Each perceived that they were converging, although both were objectively diverging from one another.

Sometimes, people's anticipations of how others will behave, and their actual behaviours may be incongruent; other times, they are exact. Such high expectations are especially likely to occur during intergroup encounters. People define one another mainly in terms of their social identities rather than their personalities because social

categorization conceals people's perceptions of others and leads to stereotyped expectations (Dragojevic&Giles, 2014). Sometimes speakers' reasons and intentions to accommodate and their communicative behaviours are consistent. At other times, however, they are inconsistent. Thakerar et al. (1982) differentiate between linguistic accommodation - speakers' actual speech behaviour and psychological accommodation - speakers' intentions and reasons for adjusting their communication. Thus, an interviewee wishing to be accommodated by his interviewer (i.e., psychological convergence) may do so by not using the interrogative, directive language of the interviewer (i.e., linguistic convergence) but rather by forming a more tempered and cooperative communicative style (i.e., linguistic divergence). People leave an interaction thinking that they have reached an agreement only to be surprised by the interpretation the other gives to the interaction, illustrating a new theory of communication called *language convergence/meaning divergence*.

Language is simply the words that we use. People who speak a common language usually use the exact words. On the other hand, meaning constitutes the underlying definition of a word. Words are not necessarily a bypass for meanings. Communication would be tiresome if we had to define each word. Unfortunately, language as a conversational bypass can also create the illusion of shared meaning. In other words, it leads individuals to believe they concur even when they do not. Individuals respond when using a language that has multiple meanings through differing means. First, having a common language but having it interpreted differently can provide the impression that something is shared. People think they agree when they do not. When this illusion of agreeing on meaning begins to break, people's natural disposition is to wonder what is wrong with the other person. They might classify the other person as crazy, not very brilliant, or morally questionable. Othering

is the term for this behaviour. The difficulty with othering is that we think the other person is the issue rather than attempting to understand them to mediate a conflict or solve a problem. Communication accommodation theory CAT focuses on the basic strategies of convergence and divergence between individuals' communication (Giles et al., 1991; Giles & Ogay, 2007).

2.5.2 Convergence

Convergence is a strategy individuals use to adapt their verbal and non-verbal communicative behaviours to show similarity and gain approval from their listeners (Giles & Ogay, 2007). Convergence occurs across a vast scope from verbal behaviours (e.g., pause, adjusting pronunciation, speech rate, use of words and sentences, praise, explanation, repetition, and language switching) to non-verbal behaviours (e.g., gestures, smiling, and other activities promoting the effectiveness of communication) (Coupland, 1980) Convergence is defined as a strategy. Expectations based on conventions can lead speakers not to adjust sufficiently (i.e., under-accommodate) or over-adjust (i.e., over-accommodate) their communicative behaviours relative to their interlocutors where individuals conform their communicative patterns in terms of a wide range of linguistic (e.g., accents, speech rate), nonverbal features (e.g., smiling, gazing) and paralinguistic (e.g., pauses, utterance length), in ways to become similar to their interlocutor 'behaviour.

Also, there are optimal convergence rates (Gallois et al., 2005), with the phenomenon of 'over-accommodation' occurring when the listener considers a speaker to be making more adjustments than necessary, thus often leading to miscommunication despite the speaker's precise intention to produce the opposite effect. Converging speakers are favoured over diverging and maintaining speakers. They are perceived as more efficient in their communication and more cooperative

Hernández-Campoy & García-Vidal (2018) found that full convergence in foreign language learning is not always desired by either the teacher or the student. He notes that native-speaker-like fluency or full Convergence is often considered distrustful and seen as a form of control by the student.

2.5.2.1 Over-accommodation as a consequence of convergence

The only instance where convergence does not achieve its purpose of mutual communication causing misunderstanding is called over-accommodation. Over-accommodation refers to communication behaviour perceived to exceed the necessary threshold for successful interaction. Typical patterns that stand out regarding teacher communication and behaviour point us toward an over-accommodative approach to communication between the teacher and students. Commonly, teachers take two approaches to over-compensate students' lack of English knowledge. First, it is common for teachers to simplify the language to understand better the information shared with them. A teacher asking a student: *what are you planning to do tomorrow?* is one such example. Instead, he or she can choose to ask, *what are you going to do tomorrow?* When being overly accommodating, teachers concentrate on specific words or phrases and occasionally say the same thing twice or three times. Teachers sometimes simplify their language further if students still look confused or unsure about the words. Using the phrase *What is your job?* as an example, a teacher might ask the student three times, *what do you do for a living?* However, if the student still does not understand, they will oversimplify and accommodate. When this oversimplification does not yield the desired results, some teachers will choose to oversimplify and accommodate once more by asking, *Job is what?*

Such over-accommodations vary depending on the instructor, the student's grade level, and the material being taught. Teachers who follow this strategy also

frequently permit pupils to speak any foreign language in class. This might not be allowed predominantly; however, during student-to-student discussions or seeking help, a teacher may not press the student only to use English. When this happens, there is to be quite a mix of spoken English and foreign languages. Another verbal way teachers choose to over-accommodate communicatively with their students is by directly slowing down their speech rate. This way, the teacher stops on specific words and phrases so the student can keep up. This is also sometimes intertwined with simplifying and slimming down the paragraph above. For instance, a teacher may have a class of 20 students with minimal education. The teacher may say something like, *what did you do on your holiday?* If the students do not pick up on the question, the teacher may repeat with a slow *What...did you...do...on your....ho.l.i.day?* Often, when there is new or challenging vocabulary or phrases, the teachers opt to take this over-accommodative approach to language teaching.

In the ESL classroom, over-accommodation takes place both vocally and nonverbally. There are two main ways it may happen verbally; however, they are often mixed with emphasized nonverbal communication gestures by the teacher. Teachers in the ESL classroom - some more than others - use an array of facial emphasis, hand movements, and body gestures to re-assert language to over-accommodate for the lack of knowledge from the student. An example might be when a teacher commonly tells the students to *Stand up, please*, he or she may also raise both hands from waist to shoulder level to signal an upward motion. Similar nonverbal gestures are used when asking students to *Sit down*, as teachers commonly reverse the motions and lower their hands from shoulder level to waist level. In the ESL classroom, nonverbal communication is prevalent with a majority of the teachers. Many teachers express directions, emotions, verbs, and other language-

related concepts over-accommodatively using this non-verbal, communicative approach.

2.5.3 Divergence

Divergence is a strategy that participants use to highlight the verbal or non-verbal distinction between themselves and their interlocutors (Tajfel, 1978). Communication accommodation theory conserves that individuals show different social identities by using different languages limited to pronunciation, lexical differences, dialect, and other non-verbal behaviours. Divergence can also be adopted to shape receivers' attributions and feelings. An example is that a French-speaking student could purposely say some words in French during the conversation to remind her associate that she does not belong to the same linguistic group.

2.5.3.1 Divergence and misunderstanding

Indeed, converging to a typical linguistic style often improves communicative performance and has been associated with increased monotony of the other and, in turn, reduced uncertainty, interpersonal anxiety, and increased mutual understanding (e.g. Gudykunst, 1995). Although divergent shifts, understanding can also be enhanced (Putman & Street Jr, 1984). For instance, speakers may encourage their interlocutors to adopt a more effective communicative style and slow down one's speech to recalibrate an overly fast-talking partner to show divergence (Dragojevic et al., 2016a). Similarly, therapists may diverge from their clients by decreasing their talking to encourage patients to talk more (Matarazzo et al., 1968). Divergence can also indicate that specific knowledge and behaviours may not be shared among interactants to prevent misunderstandings or misattributions. Speakers may also diverge from their interlocutors' peculiar communicative behaviours to signal their disapproval of others as individuals.

2.5.3.1.1 Non-accommodation communication: (divergence = very high, convergence = very low)

Non-accommodation is the easiest to pinpoint and document in the ESL classroom. It has the most instances of divergence, as the teacher does not actively seek to adapt to the students. This is because teachers, in essence, do not change - or transform - in the classroom into a new performer, even though some of the students in the class may not speak. Teachers, who are proficient in English and, as a result, can only absorb a limited amount of information, resist the need to alter their teaching methods to facilitate student-teacher communication. Therefore, teachers who are proficient in English and can understand a basic level of information resist the urge to alter their teaching methods to satisfy their students' communication needs. These teachers communicate the same way before, during, and after class. Some instances of this style might include the rates at which teachers speak. With non-accommodation, a teacher's speech rate would not slow during class. The teacher communicates with the students with the same speed, loudness, and seriousness throughout the course session.

Just as though he or she speaks with a colleague, the teacher makes no special communication adjustments, regardless of who the audience might be. This might also involve nonverbal communication techniques frequently used in ESL classes. However, if the teacher's style is perceived as non-accommodative, they will not use any more non-verbal language than is typical outside of class. There will be much divergence and few instances of convergence in the non-accommodative teaching style. In this way, convergence remains very low in the ESL classroom. Non-accommodation is more than the absence of adjustment; it usually involves some form of perceived dissimilarity or disassociation due to another's behaviour (Giles

&Gasiorek, 2013) . Ultimately, non-accommodation occurs when a listener feels a speaker has adjusted in a way that does not meet his or her individual needs causing misunderstanding (Coupland & Giles, 1988).

2.5.3.1.2 Under-accommodation communication (divergence = high, convergence = low/moderate)

Under-accommodation refers to a communication behaviour that is perceived to fall short of the level required for successful interaction (Gasiorek, 2016). Many teachers use essential but everyday phrases when communicating in the classroom. Typically, they would not say or reword a sentence in a way they would not usually say. Alternatively, one could say they do not change their speech style in the classroom. Teachers using this approach might still repeat specific sentences 2 or 3 times, but they choose not to restructure or simplify the way the sentence is said. In this way, there is little attempt to accommodate communication in the classroom; therefore, an under-accommodative approach occurs. Teachers using this approach sometimes demand that their students only speak English in the classroom. Whether the students speak to each other or with the teacher, the classroom rules might not allow for any form of foreign language communication. When this occurs, the classroom conversation level tends to be much lower, decreasing convergence and increasing divergence.

Teachers also stick with their regular rate of verbal speech. Many educators decide against speaking at their usual cadence. Many educators opt to speak normally, with their usual tone and accent, rather than speaking more slowly to concentrate on certain words or phrases. This makes it more of a prescriptive approach to language and communication. The class can be asked, *what are you going to do today?* by the teacher in a fast but normal-sounding speech rate, and whether or not the students

respond or understand, the teacher does not slow down or simplify the speech. He or she continues with her typical speech pattern, under-accommodatively communicating with the students. Nonverbal communication is also lacking under this approach. Teachers who choose to under-accommodate communication with students use little or no nonverbal gestures in the classroom. Many teachers may use their hands, but not in any way that might be different from how they usually communicate. Some teachers taking this route even choose to sit for large portions of the class, only relying on verbal speech to communicate. The specific style will have a high degree of divergence and a low to moderate convergence.

2.5.6 Summary

Convergence is a strategy adapt to show verbal and non-verbal communicative similarity and gain approval from listeners (Weizheng, 2019a). Irrespective of the similarities created by convergence, it does not always bring approval to the interlocutors. Over accommodation, is a situation where the teachers overly converge to his students causing misunderstanding or create a situation of mistrust. Divergence is a strategy that participants use to highlight the verbal or non-verbal distinction between them and their interlocutors (Tajfel, 1978). This can lead to non-accommodation, a situation where the teacher does not adapt to the students creating misunderstanding and under-accommodation, where the teacher does little to nothing to accommodate the students in the class, leading to misunderstanding.

2.6 Strategies to repair the misunderstanding

Varonis and Gass (1985) note that experiences, mutual background, or other shared languages can make up for the lack of language skills and interaction between NNSs without frequent negotiation. They propose that the learner-learner duo might even encourage language development to a greater extent because the given disparity

between NSs and NNSs discourages negotiation since it magnifies the non-equality between the speakers. Schegloff et al. (2002) argue that negotiation of meaning and repair sequences can constitute a significant part of daily language classroom activity. This has helped to promote interest in investigating institutional repair and what settings are ideal for eliciting the negotiation sequence. Doughty & Pica (1986) maintain that structured tasks where the exchange of information is required are vital in producing input and negotiation modification that facilitates learning. Their research signifies that the type of task that learners are given in group work is paramount in deciding the usefulness of the exchange. Specifically, so-called information gap tasks are especially beneficial by Doughty and Pica (1986). Learners that engage in decision-making and optional exchanges are much less likely to modify their input. Nakahama et al. (2001) agree that interaction, including negotiation of meaning, is more conducive to language development. The negotiation sequence appears relatively rigid and is perhaps best suited to investigate the interaction between learners that only have reasonably basic language skills.

Research in language teaching suggests that interaction between teachers and students is significant in the EFL classroom (Ellis, 2008), making the strategies for repair of misunderstanding in the classroom very important. Foreign language teaching highlights the learners' communicative competence because the primary purpose of learning a foreign language is to use the acquired language to communicate. However, the francophone EFL learners have mastered abundant knowledge of grammar and enough vocabulary but encounter lots of misunderstanding, mainly resulting from a lack of interaction outside classroom teaching. Communication accommodation theory began as a theory concentrating on

the effects of observable, measurable behaviours by speakers to interactions that generate misunderstanding.

However, recent iterations highlight subjective perceptions and evaluations of communicative behaviour as integral constructs for assessing outcomes as stated by Frey (2019). To illustrate, consider the concepts of over- and under-accommodation (Coupland et al., 1988). A speaker fails to meet or far exceeds the level of adjustment required for successful interaction, respectively. These non-accommodative perceptions may not represent the most accurate conditions for understanding. Subsequently, comprehension may be affected, and potentially learning might be lessened (Dragojevic et al., 2016). Indeed, acquiring new forms is possible and, arguably, necessary for the success of the interaction. Nonetheless, because the adoption of new forms of repair strategy may take considerably more time for research, most CAT research has focused more on approximation. Secondly, attending to their partners' ability to comprehend what is being said will lead speakers to adopt interpretability strategies, such as decreasing vocabulary diversity, simplifying syntax, or becoming louder to increase clarity.

Also, speakers focusing on their partners' more macro-conversational needs can adopt discourse management strategies, such as offering speaking turns and selecting or sharing topics of mutual interest or concern. Finally, when speakers focus on role relationships in an interaction, they can adopt interpersonal control strategies, such as interruptions or honorific, to remind the partner of their relative status or role. Just as speakers can diverge and converge on different dimensions at once (e.g. Bilous & Krauss, 1988), speakers can adopt multiple strategies simultaneously; for example, one could simplify an explanation to aid interpretability and remind a junior of their social position - and what goals or characteristics speakers attend to

may vary throughout an interaction. According to the other research, five strategies can be employed to boost effective interaction and interpretability, including approximation, discourse management, emotional expression, interpretability and interpersonal control (Womble, 2022). Approximation occurs when speakers adjust their speech styles (e.g., pitch, tone, and rate) to match the listener. Teachers will likely adjust their speech behaviour to ensure better understanding and information exchange in the EFL classroom.

Discourse management is the strategy interlocutors use to confirm signals encoded, sent, and received to express solidarity, maintenance face, and negotiate to mean (Weizheng, 2019). Such strategy contains turn-taking, repetition, praise, topic control, asking referential questions, conversational repair (or self-repair), feedback, backchanneling, delay (or extending waiting time), turn-taking, and using non-verbal signals. In the EFL classroom, the teachers' role is to be understood, and learners actively participate in classroom activities. For these goals to be achieved, different discourse management strategies must be employed to develop the conversation. The emotional expression probably happens in EFL classrooms when teachers regulate their emotions and display emotions such as warmth, appreciation, happiness, pro-sociality, and other positive emotions to promote the relationship between themselves and learners (Weizheng, 2019). The speaker applies interpretability to the words and expressions to quickly make himself/herself understood. In the EFL classroom, teachers can use high-frequency words and expressions or simple sentences to ensure that the learners understand the information, lower learners' anxiety, and avoid learners' frustration due to misunderstanding. Interpersonal control strategies focus on equality between speaker and listener. In the EFL classroom, the equal relationship

between students and teachers helps make learners more relaxed and pleasurable in classroom learning and actively participate in teaching activities.

English language learners have not been found to manifest friendliness more than other speakers. However, they apply more cooperative meaning-making strategies because they recognize the increased possibility of misunderstanding. In a longitudinal classroom discourse study on ELF, Smit (2010) discovered that “problems of intelligibility and comprehensibility characterize ELF talk only initially” (p.260). Misunderstandings are reduced when EFL speakers have become accustomed to each other. The students in Smit’s study tried to accommodate each other initially but failed occasionally. Later on, through trial and error, they became accustomed to applying the accommodation strategies, which seemed to have the best outcome. A distinction was made between the rejection of interpretation based on a misunderstanding and rejecting or objecting to an opinion. However, this contrast was difficult to draw (primarily when the hearer’s opinion was based on a misunderstanding). The conceptual framework of talk and the speaker’s additional repair usually revealed possible misunderstandings in most cases. The slightly higher frequency of misunderstandings in private ELF talk compared with Mauranen’s results on academic ELF data may also be explained by the different nature of one-on-one talk in private contexts. The right kind of understanding is crucial in sustaining the intimate relationship, whereas, in academic contexts, group dynamics and hierarchical considerations may suppress the vocalization of some non-critical misunderstandings.

Most CAT research has focused on these strategies. Second, when interactants focus on their partners’ ability to comprehend what is being said, they can employ interpretability strategies, such as decreasing the diversity of their vocabulary,

simplifying syntax, or becoming louder to increase clarity and comprehension. Third, when speakers focus on their partner's macro-conversational needs, they can employ discourse management strategies. These include regulating speaking turns and selecting or selecting conversational topics of mutual interest or concern; when speakers are focused on role relationships within an interaction, they may adopt interpersonal control strategies, such as interruptions or honorific', to remind the partner of their relative status or role. Fifth and finally, when speakers are concerned about another's feelings, they can employ emotional expressions, such as reassurance and comfort (Watson et al., 2015; Williams et al., 1990). One could simplify an explanation to aid interpretability and remind a subordinate of their social position – and what goals or characteristics speakers attend may vary throughout an interaction (Gallois et al., 2005). When considering appropriate communication to create and establish meaning to promote student learning success, teachers must wrestle with an array of accommodation options in these classroom contexts.

2.7 Importance of the Research of (mis)understanding in the ESL/EFL classroom

The classroom research contexts of the past offer significant changes and insights into how particular language and communication functions. These studies help us recognize that classroom communication is dynamic in several ways, often making it difficult to maintain levels of communicative understanding, which should be our highest regard in the classroom. Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT), according to West and Turner (2010), “considers the underlying reasons and effects of what happens when two speakers alter their communication styles”, which is “mainly done in two ways: divergence and convergence” (p. 467). Harwood et al. (2005) further break this down, pointing out that communicative harmony “is key to

promoting cooperation between individuals” (p. 122), which is a general, yet poignant way to examine our abilities to accommodate communication with each other, as we strive to maintain meaningful communication. In this way, using CAT within the ESL classroom, we would be able to isolate and examine instances of communicative accommodation at work. Communication accommodation theory presents researchers with an opportunity to expand theoretical explanations related to how instruction occurs. Mainly, framing classroom experiences regarding listeners’ feelings of appropriateness (i.e., non-accommodation) makes sense for several reasons for rethinking how instructional communication scholars approach student perceptions.

As noted, CAT highlights the listener’s perspective (i.e., student) in the communicative process. Instructional communication scholars have long acted under the assumptions of the process-product paradigm, which assumes that a teacher’s behaviour (i.e., process) precedes and is primarily responsible for student learning (i.e., product) (Waldeck et al., 2001; Waldeck et al., 2010). Nevertheless, this paradigmatic view is too linear to acknowledge how meaning is co-created transactionally by instructors and students. Although an instructor’s objective behaviour is essential, CAT suggests that creating ideal classroom outcomes might depend on a student’s interpretation of behaviour. This is consistent with the belief that much of what scholars know about effective instruction stems from students’ interpretations of behaviour (Nussbaum, 1992)

To this end, Hosek and Soliz (2016) argue that student perceptions of instructor behaviour in classroom contexts are influenced by their respective positions within a larger social hierarchy. This hierarchy draws upon group-based scripts, stereotypes, and expectations to influence the enactment of communication directly. Communication accommodation theory introduces the possibility that students’

identities influence whether the adjustment made by an instructor is perceived as appropriate (i.e., accommodation) or inappropriate (i.e., non-accommodation; Giles & Ogay, 2007), a student feels that an instructor under-accommodates when he or she acts dismissive or provides unclear explanations. Contrarily, a student may feel that an instructor over-accommodates when he or she is overly helpful, speaks exceptionally slowly, or provides simplistic explanations (Jones et al., 1994). Within each example, the same instructional behaviour, clarity, is framed to either exceed or not meet students' expectations.

Scholars need to know and understand what instructors think they communicate to students. However, students' and instructors' personal and social identities may influence messages to the point where the intended messages are not being received. Although an instructor might intend to accommodate a student, there is no guarantee that the student will identify behaviour as such (Thakerar et al., 1982). Second, CAT offers a theoretical rationale that defends scholars' use of student perceptions to understand instructor behaviour best. Critics of instructional communication often lament the discipline's tendency to revisit constructs over and over in greater detail each time, as well as its consistent reliance on theory developed outside of instructional settings (Johnson et al., 2017; Waldeck et al., 2001; Waldeck et al., 2010). However, CAT transcends these critiques by advancing unique ways of conceptualizing instructor-student interactions.

Moreover, one might consider common instructional scenarios in which behaviours identified as interfering with the learning process, for instance, instructor misbehaviours (Goodboy & Myers, 2015) function to enhance student interactions. For instance, some researchers have suggested that a strategic lack of clarity might achieve positive learning outcomes, as students are likely to interpret the same

instructor's behaviour. It follows that CAT's foundation in identity might explain how or why these perceptions occur in such a manner - applying CAT to an instructional setting position the construct as sensitive to individual expectations about what constitutes competent levels of instruction.

(Mis)understanding involves an individual's impression of his/her own, or another's communication appropriateness and effectiveness within a given context. Given this conceptualization, Spitzberg & Cupach (2012) noted that one of the most fundamental considerations for understanding one's competence is their ability to adapt (i.e., adjust) to the surrounding environment. Duran & Spitzberg (1995) articulated this idea one step further: "adaptability is accomplished by perceiving contextual parameters and enacting communication appropriate to the setting" (p. 260). Adaptability can also be understood as a result of one's perceived ability to encode or decode messages appropriately or effectively (Monge et al., 1981). Essentially, one of the driving forces behind this competence approach stems from perceptions of an individual's ability to appropriately adjust to the features of the context and the interactant. Thus, instructors viewed as the most competent by students know when and how to implement various behaviours effectively to meet student needs. Contrarily, students are likely to view instructors who do not adjust to meet their needs as less communicatively competent.

Typically, theories of communication imply that we will understand one another better if we increase the precision or clarity of our communication. According to this study, to improve the chances that similar comprehension will occur, we need to use precise language and look for underlying meanings. This theory helps to explain the factors that led to misunderstanding, and misinterpretation that causes misunderstanding can be prevented. In multicultural communication, when achieving

language convergence is frequently tough enough, achieving meaning convergence is very difficult; LC/MD would also be helpful. Finally, LC/MD might aid in understanding our conflicts with friends, partners, or other people. Maybe we can have talks that do not start with, *But I thought we said...* by asking questions like *what do you mean by that?* more frequently.

Finally, beyond the problems posed by the inefficient use of student perceptions to understand instructional context, research also suffers from a lack of methodological acknowledgment of the inherently hierarchical structure of many educational systems (i.e., the various levels of analysis). Their interest has an essential classic motive for Convergence: the desire to gain approval from one another. Converging to a standard linguistic style also improves communication effectiveness; this, in turn, has been associated with increased similarity of the other and hence a lowering of uncertainty, interpersonal anxiety, and mutual understanding. An inter-individual interaction is when teacher-student communication is entirely based on differences in personality and temperament and where their ethnicity, gender, age, and so forth are not a premium. The increasing similarity in communicative behaviour, such as speech rate, increases teachers' perceived attractiveness and ability to gain learners' compliance (Morrell, 1999).

2.8 Related studies

Since the inception of the Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) in the 1970s, researchers have applied it to explore interaction in various fields (business, health care, media communication, family interaction, law enforcement) in various ways (telephone, face-to-face interactions, internet, and other media in various discourse (bi-linguistic multi-linguistic and mono-linguistic). However, few prior works focused on language teaching and learning. Mauranen's (2006) study of

Signaling and preventing misunderstanding in English as lingua franca communication. She investigates misunderstanding and its prevention among participants in university degree programs where English was used as a lingua franca; straightforward misunderstandings were not very many. The goal of Mauranen's study, *Signalling and preventing misunderstanding in English as a lingua franca communication*, was to examine the many methods English as a lingua franca (ELF) users employ to signal and avoid misconceptions in intercultural communication.

The study examined the transcripts of recorded ELF talks using a qualitative research methodology. The analysis of a corpus of 22 hours of recorded talks focused on the verbal and nonverbal cues that participants used to signal and avoid misunderstandings. The study's findings revealed that ELF users utilize a variety of techniques to express knowledge and avoid misconceptions when conversing in English as a second language. These are reiterating or paraphrasing information to ensure comprehension, making corrections to oneself or others to make meaning clear, with the use of overt markers. The study ultimately came to the conclusion that effective intercultural communication depends on knowing how to indicate and avoid misunderstandings during ELF conversation. The study's conclusions offer helpful advice on how to enhance communication between ELF users from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds. According to the study, in order to reduce misconceptions during intercultural communication in English, ELF users need to be conscious of cultural variations and modify their communication style and techniques. In conclusion, the study offers insightful information about cross-cultural communication and how ELF users might enhance effective communication in a globalized world.

The study from Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) described that teacher used code-switching in the convergence strategy of communication accommodation to adjust the students' linguistic form in ELT class. The goal of Ahmad and Jusoff's study from 2009 was to investigate how a teacher might use code-switching in a multilingual Malaysian classroom. The data for the study was gathered through interviews, audio recording, and observation, and it was conducted using a qualitative research methodology with an ethnographic approach. According to the study's findings, the teacher's use of code-switching may have occurred for a number of reasons. These included fostering a relationship with students and creating a welcoming learning environment; facilitating students' comprehension of the material, to establish power and control in the classroom, to improve students' language and communication skills, and to engage and encourage pupils in the learning process. The study also discovered that the teacher employed tag-switching, intra-sentential code-switching, and inter-sentential code-switching. The most often used language combinations.

The author came to the conclusion that code-switching can be a helpful pedagogical technique for instructors in multilingual classrooms based on the data. The author did stress, nevertheless, that teachers should be mindful of any potential drawbacks of code-switching, such as strengthening pupils' reliance on their original language and impeding the development of their second language abilities. Overall, the study sheds light on the complexity of language use in the classroom and emphasizes the significance of taking students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds into account in multilingual settings.

Parcha (2014) explored the way students used convergence strategies of communication accommodation through social media as the learning media. In order to investigate how students used convergence tactics of communication

accommodations through social media as the learning media, Parcha (2014) used a qualitative research design. Parcha interviewed 30 undergraduate students from two Pakistani universities in semi-structured interviews. Utilizing content analysis, the data were examined. The study discovered that students using social media used a variety of communication accommodations such as changing speech patterns, minimizing socio-cultural disparities, employing emoticons, and forging a feeling of community. To speak with others, the pupils changed the way they spoke by substituting English for their original tongue. The results showed that students lessened socio-cultural inequalities by comprehending variations within their social groupings, such as age, gender, and cultural origins, students were able to lessen socio-cultural inequalities.

The study also discovered that students effectively and simply expressed their emotions by using emoticons. Finally, the study demonstrated that through connecting with others and exchanging knowledge and experiences on social media, students built a feeling of community. Overall, the research indicates that students' communication accommodation techniques are significantly impacted by their usage of social media as a learning tool. According to the findings, students who utilized social media as a learning tool adapted a number of communication tactics to match their communication style with those of others from varied cultural backgrounds. The study has ramifications for teachers since they can utilize social media as a teaching tool to help their students develop communication adaptation methods.

Junco and Clem (2015) also used CAT to explore classroom interaction through their research. The purpose of the study was to investigate the applicability of Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) to classroom interactions when Twitter is used as a communication tool. A mixed-methods approach, incorporating

quantitative and qualitative techniques, was utilized. Pre- and post-test designs were used in the study's quantitative component to survey undergraduate students about their opinions of Twitter as a learning tool and how they felt about it in comparison to typical classroom settings. The study's qualitative component involved content analysis of tweets sent during interactions in the classroom. The findings suggest that students adapted to twitter's informal tone, which led to an increase in the usage of acronyms, emoticons, and colloquial language. Teachers also changed their teaching language and approach to fit the use of Twitter. Additionally, the use of Twitter as a communication tool in the classroom increased students' participation and engagement while it also fostered a stronger feeling of community among the students. The authors concluded that using Twitter as a communication medium in the classroom can cause both teachers and students to adapt their language and conduct.

Among the few prior works focused on effective communication accommodation in English teaching, Manju (2015) conducted a study to examine how to accommodate successful communication in English education using a qualitative research approach. Twenty pupils from two Indian schools and ten English language teachers participated in the study. Following observations in the classroom, semi-structured interviews with teachers and students were used to collect the data. Thematic analysis was used to examine the data. According to the author, effective communication accommodations required matching teaching methods to the learning needs and aptitudes of the students. The results showed that using visual aids, reducing the number of words used, repeating, and rephrasing, were successful convergent tactics to enhance communication with students. The study also suggested that educators should be aware of cultural variations and that incorporating cultural allusions into lessons can help students communicate more effectively. The study also

suggested that students should be encouraged to participate actively in the classroom, which would help teachers to adapt to the needs of the students.

The study emphasizes how crucial effective communication accommodations are while teaching English. The findings suggest that teachers who use visual aids, simplify language, repeat concepts, and rephrase concepts can improve communication with students. The study also highlights the value of fostering student participation in the classroom and the role that cultural understanding plays in effective communication accommodations. By putting an emphasis on the employment of efficient communication accommodation mechanisms, the research has implications for increasing the quality of English teaching, particularly for non-native speakers.

Also, Yi-Rung and Wenli (2015) explored teachers' accommodation strategies and their influencing factors in EFL classrooms. In order to investigate the accommodations tactics employed by English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in their classrooms and the variables influencing the accommodation process, Yi-Rung and Wenli (2015) adopted a qualitative research approach. Twelve (12) EFL teachers from two senior high schools in Taiwan participated in the study. Information was gathered through audio-taped classroom observations and in-depth interviews with the teachers. Utilizing content analysis, the information gathered from these observations and interviews was examined. The authors discovered that EFL instructors employed a variety of accommodation techniques in their classes, including repetition, language simplification, and the use of visual aids, to enhance communication with their students. Additionally, the study discovered that teachers' awareness, motivation, expertise, and classroom experiences affected how they approached accommodation.

According to the authors, teachers were more likely to employ successful accommodation measures if they had a high level of awareness of the students' linguistic backgrounds and proficiency, a strong desire to promote communication, and an understanding of the target language and culture. The results imply that in order to better communicate with their students and increase the efficacy of their instruction, EFL teachers must employ accommodating tactics. The study emphasizes the critical role played in the adaptation process by teachers' awareness, motivation, expertise, and experience. The study has implications for EFL teacher preparation programs because it argues that bettering teachers' understanding of their students' linguistic backgrounds and proficiency levels as well as their increased motivation to foster communication can help students make effective use of accommodations strategies.

Moreover, Chen (2019) explored the interaction between teachers and old students in senior education in Taiwan, focusing on speech accommodation strategies. The study conducted by Chen (2019) utilized a qualitative research design to explore the interaction between teachers and old students in senior education in Taiwan, with a focus on speech accommodation strategies. The study involved 11 senior education teachers and 20 old students, and data were collected through semi-structured interviews with both groups. The data were analyzed using content analysis. The findings revealed that teachers and older students employed a variety of accommodation tactics, such as language switching, code-mixing, and the use of expressions and gestures, to help communication in their interactions. Additionally, the study found that familiarity, respect, and empathy were significant influences on the accommodation process. The study demonstrated that more complex and contextually appropriate kinds of accommodation were utilized when teachers and

older pupils shared a history, as opposed to simpler forms of accommodation when they did not.

The research emphasizes the significance of speech accommodation techniques in fostering effective interaction between teachers and students. According to the authors, familiarity, respect, and empathy are crucial components of the accommodation process. The study also shows that teachers' and former students' adaptation techniques are influenced by their common ancestry, highlighting the value of cultural and linguistic knowledge in cross-cultural communication. Overall, the study has implications for how teachers, dealing with senior students, should strengthen their communication abilities, especially in cross-cultural settings.

Lastly, Weizheng (2019) identified the way Chinese teachers use communication accommodation strategies to improve their interaction with students in EFL classes. The study used a qualitative research methodology to examine how Chinese EFL teachers can improve their relationships with students by using communication accommodation tactics. Twelve (12) English language instructors from Chinese colleges and universities participated in the study. In-depth interviews and classroom observations were used to gather data, which were then thematically evaluated. From the analysis, Chinese EFL teachers employed a variety of accommodations to enhance their interactions with students: repeating, paraphrasing, using simple, plain language, and using visual aids. The results also showed that teachers' awareness of their students' language competence levels and cultural backgrounds affected their decision on accommodation measures. The study also recommended that teachers' attitudes, enthusiasm, and experience with accommodations also influenced the use of communication accommodation strategies.

The study emphasizes the use of communication accommodations in the classroom, including approximations, interpretability, emotional expressiveness, and interpersonal control. Additionally, interpretability, discourse management techniques like topic control, asking referential questions, turn-taking, conversational repair, and feedback were frequently mentioned as crucial tools for enhancing interactions between Chinese EFL teachers and their students in the classroom. The results also imply that by addressing the linguistic and cultural variety among students, the adaptation of communication styles can improve language learning. According to the authors, teachers' awareness, beliefs, motivation, and experience are crucial in determining whether or not they would employ efficient communication accommodation measures. The study has ramifications for the creation of training programmes for teachers that emphasize the value of communication accommodations in boosting interactions between teachers and students in EFL classrooms.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented the concept of accommodation as a framework that resolves these discrepancies and provides a rationale for relationships between students' perceptions of instructor behaviour and the outcomes necessary for fulfilling classroom experiences. The review articulated how adjustment occurs with a specific focus on using the theory to conceptualize student perceptions and teacher behaviours in classroom accommodation throughout the teaching process. The chapter explains the complexities of communication in the ESL/EFL classroom and how teachers adjust their speech to create similarities or otherwise with their students. The chapter explains the concept of misunderstanding in communication and how misunderstanding is an ordinary aspect of understanding and interaction in general,

and to understand it, we need to take a trans-disciplinary approach. Communication is a complex phenomenon involving cognitive, social, discursive, and emotional dimensions. By applying different explanatory frameworks to the analysis of several sequences of misunderstanding and repair, we have proved that not a single perspective is enough, on its own, to explain the richness and complexity of understanding and misunderstandings in discourse.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter looks at the methods used to collect information for the study. The chapter looks at the research design, population, and sample and sampling techniques, instruments used in collecting data, as well as ethics employed in data collection, and how the data were analysed.

3.1 Research approach

This study used a solid qualitative approach. Qualitative research centres on determining “how people do things and what meaning they give to their lives” (Merriam, 2002, p.26). A qualitative method also thoroughly explained the study's misunderstandings. A qualitative design is adaptable to adjustments. Consequently, where and when necessary (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Since this study aimed to describe a phenomenon, namely signalling and preventing misunderstanding, as clearly as possible, a qualitative study was most suitable and deemed appropriate for this study. Qualitative research aimed to purposefully select participants or sites that will help the researcher understand the problem and the research question (Creswell et al., 2007). Dervin and Dyer (2016) shared that the importance of the case study design was to provide in-depth articulation of a unit of analysis which was a distinguishing feature for this research, and therefore case study design was appropriate.

3.2 Research design

The design chosen for this study is a multiple case study. A case study investigates a contemporary phenomenon in the real-world context (Atkins & Wallace, 2012; Yin, 2009). This design is usually employed when the research interest is assumed to be typical of a specific type, and therefore a single case can provide

insight into the events and situations prevalent in a group from where the case is situated selecting a case; therefore, purposive, judgemental, or information-oriented sampling technique was helpful. Therefore, the purpose of case studies was not to understand a broad social issue but merely to describe the case under study with a relevant focus on extensively exploring and understanding rather than confirming and quantifying. A multiple case study design was chosen because even though the campuses are at different sites, they all belong the same population of the school of languages of the Ghana Institute of Languages. In this design, the attempt was not to select a random sample but a case that could provide as much information as possible to understand the case in its entirety.

The research methodology selected for this study is a multiple-case study design. A case study examines a current occurrence within a real-life setting (Atkins & Wallace, 2012; Yin, 2009). This design is commonly used when the research interest is believed to be representative of a particular type, and therefore a single case can offer insight into the events and situations that are common in a group where the case is located. Therefore, the purposive, judgmental, or information-oriented sampling technique was beneficial. Thus, the objective of case studies was not to comprehend a wide-ranging societal problem, but rather to depict the specific example being examined, with a pertinent emphasis on thorough exploration and comprehension, rather than verification and quantification. The decision to utilize a multiple-case study approach was used although the campuses are located at various locales; they are all part of the same population of language schools at the Ghana Institute of Languages. The objective of this approach was not to choose a haphazard sample, but rather to choose a specific example that might offer a comprehensive understanding of the situation by providing as much relevant information as feasible.

3.3 Population

The current study population was the Ghana Institute of Languages, from the school of Languages in three strategically located schools in Tamale in the Northern Region, Kumasi in the Ashanti Region, and the two campuses in Accra: Adabraka and East Legon, respectively. These schools helped provide a more objective and broader view of the research findings, making them devoid of bias and valid (Dervin & Dyer, 2016).

3.3 Sample

The sample size was selected from the English department of the School of Languages, one of the three schools of the Ghana Institute of Languages. The School of Languages teaches about seven international languages, with a cocktail of language learners from all over the world and over 80% from Africa. Before the study started, the head of schools and departments granted permission. In order to provide the desired findings, participants were chosen using the purposive sampling technique. The total number of participants was 83. Levels A1, A2, and B1 students were chosen because they were at a lower proficiency level and more likely to use signals to highlight their misunderstanding. Out of the four schools, three were available for the research. The total teacher sample for all three schools was seven (7), and this is because some teachers taught two levels. The teachers comprised two (2) males and five (5) females. Table 3.3.1 represents the breakdown of the sample population.

Table 3.3.1. Sample

Campus	Number of participants	
	Level A1/A2	Level B1
Adabraka	26	11
East Legon	5	8
Kumasi	20	13
Total	51	32

These students are from different background and their nationalities are represented by Figure 3.3.2.

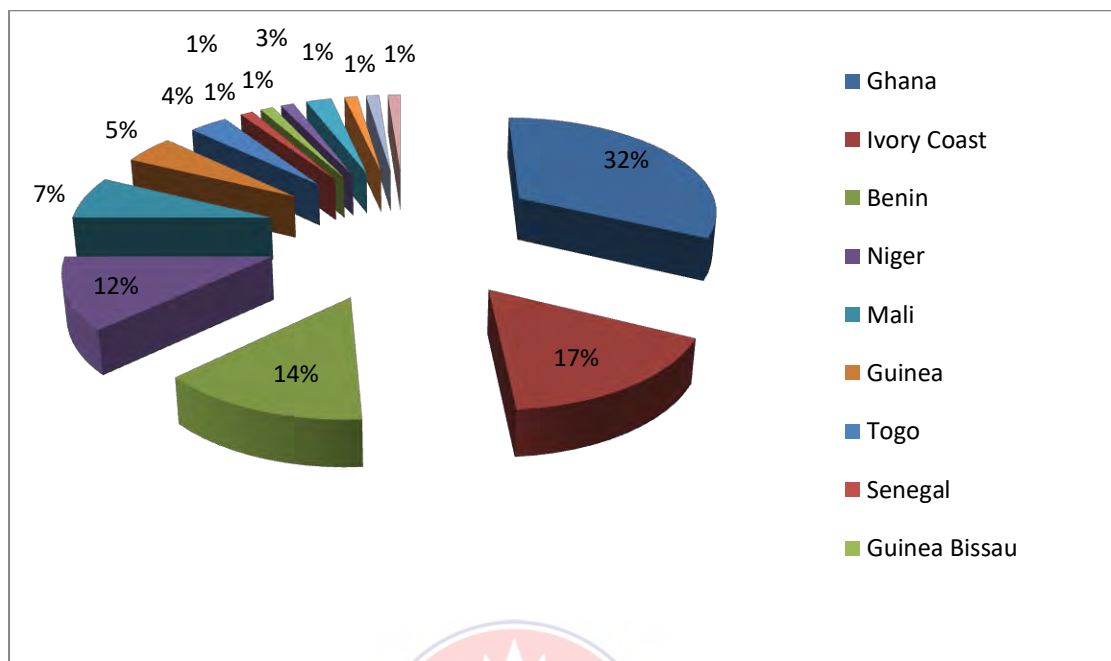


Figure 3.3.2. Representation of nationalities of sample

3.4 Data collection instruments

The instruments used were observation and recording. These strategies allowed researchers and participants to operate well in their natural environment for the desired results.

3.4.1 Observation

The researcher observed the students and teachers in the classroom. The observation was carried out to study and identify and describe the occurrence, type, and frequency of signalling that causes misunderstanding. An average of two hours was spent observing each class with audio-visual recordings at the research sites. The purpose of the observation was to attain first-hand information on events in the classroom, i.e., misunderstanding between teacher and learner interaction, when there is a misunderstanding, who initiates the repair, and the factors that led to those misunderstandings. The observation was successful because the researcher had

already established rapport with the students and teachers because of familiarity and relationships with work colleagues. The researcher was a participant-observer in a class on the Adabraka campus because the researcher is a teacher in the A2 class, while she was a non-participant observer on the other two campuses.

3.4.2 Recording

One of the instruments used in collecting data from the classroom interaction was audio and video recordings of teaching and learning processes. The data were also collected using audio and video recordings of teaching and learning sessions to help the researcher validate data that was collected during data analysis. The audio recording allowed for the transcription of the audio data while the video recording was also appropriate for researching complicated phenomena like teaching practice, which is dynamic and alive and is affected by many factors at once. As stated video recording allows recording even fleeting and non-repeatable events, which are very likely to escape direct observation (Garcez et al., 2011)

3.5 Validity

To ensure trustworthiness of the study, peer debriefing was employed. This was done by requesting a colleague teacher to review the data and make his input. According to Zohrabi(2013), the principles underlying naturalistic and/or qualitative research are based on the fact that validity is a matter of trustworthiness, utility and dependability that the evaluator and the different stakeholders place into it. Additionally, Merriam(1998) posits that in qualitative research reality is holistic, multidimensional and ever-changing. Validity is very important in the development and evaluation of research instruments (Ary et al., 2002, p. 67). It is used to determine if an instrument measures what it is intended to measure. In the same vein, Burns(2009) emphasizes that validity is an essential criterion for evaluating the

quality and acceptability of research. This is necessary because the quality of conclusions a researcher draws fully depends on the validity and reliability of instruments used in collecting the data (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003).

3.6 Data analysis

Data analysis is an inductive strategy that compares data and common patterns across the information. These patterns are named (codes) and refined and adjusted as the analysis proceeds (Merriam, 2002). We transcribed and grouped the collected data into themes for coding regarding the research questions. The data described the research questions. The data analysis began by viewing all tapes together to produce word-by-word transcripts. Revisiting the video and the transcribed material several times made the process arduous. This preliminary analysis laid the foundation for the content analysis. To gain a thorough understanding of the issues related to the challenging research questions, we analysed the gathered data using the principles of qualitative content analysis (QCA). Qualitative content analysis is a qualitative data analysis method that can create a systematic overview of the meaning of the data. Furthermore, researchers themselves must interpret and collect data in visual, verbal, or textual form using this method. Another aspect that validated its choice and application to the study's theoretical premise, CAT, is that it could assist in explaining the wide range of accommodative behaviours so integral to CAT (Frey, 2019). The video samples were transcribed, coded, categorized, and analysed qualitatively based on Jefferson(1984) transcription conventions. The coding approach applied is shown in Tables 3.6.1 and 3.6.2. Table 3.6.1 presents the notations adapted in transcription. Table 3.6.2 is a summary of the participating campuses, and the duration of the teaching, the session, 'S' means one student, and 'T' means the teacher.

Table 3.6.1. Transcription notations (adapted from Jefferson, 1984)

Symbol	Meaning
?	Rising intonation
:::	Extension of an utterance
---	Length of the pause or silence
<u> </u>	Underline Emphasis of the speech
[text]	Correction or Note
Uh	Hesitation or silence
...	Omission of transcription

Table 3.6.2. Summary of participating campuses

Campus	Level	Duration	Teaching content
Kumasi	A1, a2, b1	130 mins	Topic discussion
Legon East	A2 and b1	129 mins	Topic discussion
Adabraka	A2andb2	200mins	Topic discussion

3.7 Reliability

The trustworthiness of the data and conclusions is a crucial need for any research procedure. Reliability pertains to the consistency, dependability, and trustworthiness of the results acquired from a research study (Nunan, 1999). Furthermore, Makee and Pietersen, (2016) note that the dependability of a particular study is contingent upon the constancy or replicability of a measurement or tool (such as a questionnaire). When doing repeated research on the same sample, it is crucial for the measure or instrument to yield consistent results, thereby providing a high level of dependability. To assure accuracy, the researcher meticulously conducted the data gathering method under controlled scientific conditions. The supervisor oversaw the selection of suitable data for the research in order to assure the research findings' credibility. Inter-rater reliability (IRR) is a well-established method used to assess the

credibility of a thesis. In order to guarantee the reliability of the data, a portion of 10% was allocated to a colleague for observation and identification of features coded using Communications Accommodations Theory (CAT). This was done to see if the data were being interpreted in a same manner, as stated by McDonald et al. (2019). By employing this approach, we calculate the total number of agreements in the following manner: Among the 19 features that were identified, A1 agreed on 14 features, A2 agreed on 12 features, and 11 features were agreed on for the intermediate courses. Hence, the sum of 14, 12, and 11 is 37, which is then divided by the total number of potential agreements, calculated as 3 multiplied by 19, resulting in 57. Hence, the coefficient agreement for the inter-rater dependability of this data is calculated as 37 divided by 57, resulting in a value of 0.649. The discrepancy in observation arose from the omission of a single detail by the second observer, and we ultimately resolved our divergent observations through further discussions.

3.7 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues are basically issues or attitudes that are morally acceptable. In the case of a research work such as this, ethical issues would refer to all acceptable norms and practices expected in the research process. All information gathered was used appropriately without exposing the informants to ridicule or any other form that could harm them as individuals. Garcez et al. (2011) and Swedish Research Council (2017) discusses principles for video recordings that, for the most part, apply to sound. Chief among the principles is that it must not be possible to connect the data shown in research and the setting where it was made. To ensure this, all the students were assigned aliases in the transcriptions, and any mention of things or names that will compromise them were deleted (Rudestam & Newton, 2007).

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter looked at the research methodology, which covered areas like research design, population, sample size and technique, research site, data collection strategies which include observation and interview, ethical consideration, data collection protocol, data analysis, and data presentation. The study used a qualitative approach. Qualitative research centres on determining “how people do things and what meaning they give to their lives” (Merriam,2002, p.26). The sample size was selected from the English department of the School of Languages, one of the three schools of the Ghana Institute of Languages. The researcher ensured that the process of data collection was scientifically carried out and in a controlled environment.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

The aim of study was to examine and describe signals that cause misunderstanding in English as a second/foreign language classroom. This research explores experiences of students and teachers and seeks to identify situations that bring about these misunderstandings that limit progress in English language learning. The study was to investigate the signals that cue misunderstandings, examine the factors that contribute to these misunderstandings, and explore the strategies for preventing misunderstandings in the EFL/ESL classroom. The analysis showed the kinds of signals used by the various ESL learners in the classroom as observed are gestures, code-switching, asking questions, non-expression, and facial movement.

The analysis also revealed that in instances where the learners had to speak, most of them had less vocabulary in the English language and resorted to avoidance techniques resulting in misunderstanding among their teachers. Factors that were observed leading to misunderstanding are: Teachers maintained their language, using non expressive gestures, showing different codes, shifting speech rates, and using different pronunciation. Teachers and students use different and similar strategies to prevent misunderstanding. Teachers used all eleven strategies observed namely extending utterance length, using same code, developing topic, translating difficult words, and using pauses. The rest are smiling and gazing, expressive facial and head nodding, code switching, gestures and posture, using repetition, using simple vocabulary to prevent misunderstanding and to increase shared understanding, while students used translation, code switching and gestures to prevent misunderstanding based on the above observations during the study.

The chapter is divided into three sections: The first section presents results regarding cues that students use to indicate misunderstanding in the classroom. The analysis showed that they utilize facial expressions to convey a variety of meanings in a variety of settings, ask questions in response to misunderstandings brought on by classroom interactions. They explored how in-class silence is becoming common and how it frequently results in a breakdown in communication between teachers and students (Hietaranta, 2014b). It also identifies code-switching as a signal of misunderstanding. The final observation for the first objective identified gestures as a specific bodily movement that reinforces a verbal message or conveys a particular thought or emotion.

The second research goal identifies and discusses five misunderstanding-causing factors such as teachers maintaining their language, using non-expressive gestures, showing different codes, shifting speech rates, and using different pronunciation. Maintaining language in the context of classroom communication can help promote clarity and understanding between students and teachers. Showing different code is when a teacher uses difficult-to-understand words to demonstrate his command of the language, while using different pronunciation is when a teacher reduces language further. Non-expressive gestures make teachers approachable to students, while shifting speech rate is when a teacher's inability to change their pattern of speech in the class can slow up productive teaching and learning.

The third objective of the study looked at how misunderstandings were prevented in the classroom. From the observations, Teachers attempted to prevent misunderstandings by using all eleven variables, such as increasing the length of an utterance, taking turns, changing topics, when necessary, topic development, interpreting information obtained in one language into another, using pauses by

applying filler words, motivating students through expressive facials, gazing and smiles, code switching, gestures and postures, repetition, and simple vocabulary. Repetition involves repeating the interlocutor's words or expressions or using repetition to make a point, while using simple vocabulary focuses on each speaker's conversational competence. The analysis revealed that teachers' noticing student signals of misunderstanding in classroom activities and conversations and acting on their use and function may help raise awareness of the central role of pragmatics in language teaching.

4.1 Signals that Indicate Misunderstanding

This analysis looks at the cues or signals students use in the classroom to show misunderstanding. This research question examined the kinds and frequency of signals used by the various ESL learners in the classroom. The findings show that students used facial movement, gestures, code-switching, asking questions, and non-expression to signal misunderstanding. The results are shown in Figure 4.1. According to Negi (2009 p. 101), non-verbal communication is "the process of one person stimulating meaning in the mind of another person or persons by means of non-linguistic cues, e.g. facial expressions, gestures etc." people tend to use non-verbal signals when they are at loss for words or when they cannot come up with an appropriate word so they replace verbal signals with non-verbal ones.

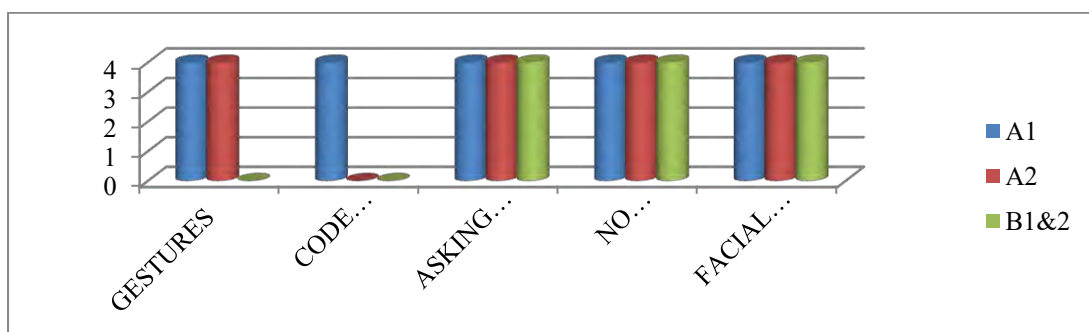


Figure 4.1. Signals that Indicate Misunderstanding

In the classroom environment, active listening is a part of an interactive process. The students show that they are paying attention and contributing to a common understanding of the debated topics (Bjørge, 2010). Active listening behaviour may take various shapes, including verbal backchannels (yeah, good, okay) and nonverbal back channelling in the shape of head nods. Listeners may also opt to signal their understanding and assent utilizing full/partial other repetition.

Whenever a listener cannot reach a sufficient degree of understanding to continue the interaction, they feel the need to indicate this circumstance by employing clarification requests, confirmation checks, or other non-verbal behaviour. Even though the above behaviours are classified as retroactive, they also function as signals of misunderstanding and add explicitness to discourse in most cases. Clarification requests, which happen “when interlocutors seek assistance in understanding others’ preceding utterances” (Nakatani & Goh, 2007, p. 210), are something that the listener does to address misunderstandings directly. They may be content- or language-related. Despite the maxim of clarity and explicitness in EFL, some interlocutors might utilize implicit non-verbal behaviours to indicate their understanding difficulties (Vasseur et al., 1996, p. 78).

4.1.1 Facial movement

Facial expressions are used by humans to convey various types of meaning in various contexts. The range of contexts in which humans use facial expressions spans responses to events in the environment to particular linguistic constructions within sign languages (Elliott & Jacobs, 2013). Fridlund (1997) has noted that all facial expressions are for communicative purposes. A frown can signal disapproval or unhappiness. Tightening the lips might be an indicator of distaste, disapproval, or distrust. Facial expressions such as biting your lip symbolize some thought or

uncertainty, compressing the lips displays resolve or obstinacy, and a visible clenching of the teeth, which shows anger and so on, are all potential message conveyors in communication (Irgin, 2017). In this research students were observed to use facial expressions to communicate with their teachers. The students mostly hesitate with facial expressions when they want clarity from their teacher, who in turn repeats or encourages them to talk. From Extract 1, the research observed that all the various levels used some form of facial expression to indicate their misunderstanding without verbally informing the teacher. The extract gives an instance where a student demonstrated misunderstanding through facial expression.

In Extract 1 line 8, when the teacher made a joke about how the students who want to be considered as reporting to school early should arrive at 6:00 am: a student's eyebrow is wrinkled or frowned, to show confusion or anger at the teacher's comments. Cogo and Pitzl (2013), emphasize the importance of instructors being adept at perceiving the cognitive shifts in their pupils. This requires the ability to keenly observe students' facial expressions, activities, and movements. This helps the lecturers notice a misunderstanding and help students rectify that (Irgin, 2017). According to Gukas et al. (2010), students show comprehension of class activities through facial movements, and when teachers observe very well, it will lead to a better understanding of classroom activities. Some interlocutors might use implicit non-verbal behaviours to indicate their understanding difficulties. Vasseuret al. (1996, p. 78) notes that such *lack of uptake* might surface as silence, laughter, coughing, or mumbling. Smiling is mainly regarded as a worldwide signal of pleasure or welcome.

Another instance of the use of facial movement is described in Extract 2 line 11, when the teacher asks the student a question, the student appears not to have

answers to the question and unintentionally smirks; signalling her discomfort, and therefore the teacher responds and asks her to repeat after him. This observation is similar to Kaur (2010), where a Mongolian (MF1) and a Korean student (KF1) exchange opinions about language learning. MF1 appears not to understand KF1's question and so, perhaps unintentionally, signals her non-understanding through laughter and an uncomfortable facial expression.

Extract 1

Line 1- TEACHER: Because of the traffic, okay
Line 2- Erh, erh, erh, Atta ha ha why did you come early today? Today we were early
Line 3- ATTA: erh, there was no traffic.
Line 4- TEACHER: Because there was no traffic?
Line 5- ATTA: No traffic
Line 6 - TEACHER: There was no traffic,
Line 7- ATTA: No traffic
Line 8 - Teacher: you came early today, Early will be coming at 6:00 am (student's eyebrow is wrinkled or frown)
Line 9- Teacher: Mohammed! (Teacher laughs) okay! it's a joke

Extract 2

Line 10 - TEACHER: Why are you late?
Line 11- Student: (HESITATION) I am late because..... (unintentionally smirks)
Line 12 - Teacher: Say it, why are you late? I am....

4.1.2 Asking questions

The second signal was asking questions for clarification or as a follow-up to misunderstandings created by interactions in the classroom. Asking questions for clarity is what Hirst et al. (1994) called *other-misunderstanding*, where a hearer notices trouble – that she has not heard, perhaps, or that what she has heard does not make sense within the conversation and asks for clarification right away due to lack of

understanding. Students at all levels of learning asked questions or made clarification request for their misunderstanding. Extract 3 is from a discussion of a reading passage by A2 students where questions are asked due to misunderstanding.

From line 16, the students discussed the meaning of the word 'FIST.' The misunderstanding started with the pronunciation of whether the word is /fist/, /fɛst/, or /fi:st/ from a reading passage: *First or Feast! What is the word? Ermm (hesitation), is it fist?* The students discussed the possible meaning of the word 'FIST'; even with clues from the passage, they asked questions until the teacher gave them a direct definition to understand the meaning of the word in the sentence. Extract 4 further demonstrates an instance of questioning (clarification request) by students to avoid misunderstanding.

Extract3

Line12- Student 3: Feast!

Line 13- Student 2: uh? First or Feast! What is the word? Ermm(hesitation) is It fist!

Line 14- Student 2: he shooted, shouted, and banged on onto his feet

Line 15- Student 3: The door was locked, he jumped and turned the handle ... ok!

Line 16- Student 2: aaahhh! He shout and banged and jumped out.

Line 17- Student 1: he jumped out of there ...

Line 18- Student 2; when you use your leg. but this is (he spells: FIST)

Line 19- Student 3: Feast! (Text) First

Line 20- Student 1: here we are talking about the door

Line 21- Student 2: He is trying to open the door

Line 22- Student 3: so what does it mean?

Line 23- Teacher: Yes! We can use our leg to bang on doors, but this time they used their fist to break the door open, your fist is (teacher, holds up her hand in a fist to demonstrate) and with a little pressure can break a door...

Line 24- Student 1: ahhh!(nodding)

In the extract, the teacher gave clues to the meaning of words taken from a reading passage. The explanation given by the teacher in line thirty as *it is not just a name of something; it is a name of a place* caused a misunderstanding with the student's interpretation of what the passage was about. The student, in this case, needs further explanation to understand the meaning of the interaction in the classroom. The student, in this case, misunderstood why an arctic is said to be in the ceiling, yet the explanation gives him an impression of a room. The room should be a place he can freely see and walk into.

Extract 4

Line 25 - Student 1: What is arctic?

Line 26- Student 1: I don't know arctic, arctic is what?

Line 28- Teacher: It is not just a name of something; it is a name of a place

Line 29- Student 1: oh! Let's go to arctic, let's go to arctic...

Line 30- Student 4: in the ceiling arctic is what?

Line 31- Student 2: Top of a place

Line 32- Student 3: Top floor

Line 33- Student 1: he went below the arctic

Line 34- Student 2: If the room is below the arctic it means arctic is up...

Line 35- Student 1: No arctic is down, he went below...

He kept asking follow-up questions until he understood the word in the passage. Muthusamy et al. (2020) says that a good ELF user needs to make a clarification request; he attempts to do so in the most straightforward way possible. Options include direct questions (what is x?), alternative-type questions (do you mean x or x?), reprises of the non-understood part to point at the specific trouble source, and minimal queries (mh? what? pardon?). Another example of the use questions is found in Extract 5:

The students use minimal unfocused signals (uh) to ask for clarity when unsure of the utterance and when the meaning is unclear. It is a minimal response because it is a single-word utterance. This elicits a repetition of the utterance and signals misunderstanding (Mauranen, 2006). Repetition of the problematic item is a style of signalling misunderstanding.

Extract 5

Line 36- Student 2: Then he lay down in his room ... (Pause)

Line 37- Student 1: uh ?what does rapping out order means?

Line 38- Student 3: Talk faster ...

Line 39- Student 2: ok, ok...

Line 40- Student 2: something to convince the others...or is it the word rapping?

Line 41- Student 1: uh? hmhhh!

Clarification requests happen “[when interlocutors seek assistance in understanding others’ preceding utterances” (Nakatani&Goh, 2007, p. 210). Hence, clarification requests are something that the listener does to address non-understandings directly, which may be content- or language-related. Clarification requests, as pointed out by Gramkow (2001), also work as cooperation devices which have social implications for the interactants. I agree with Gramkow Andersen in that a clarification request, even though is caused by an understanding difficulty, signals listenership and the willingness to get it right, which may positively influence interlocutors’ rapport.

4.1.3 Silence/no expression

The notion of silence is literally defined as *the absence of vocalization*(Bosacki, 2005; Hanh, 2020a). Students’ silence should not be deemed as an absence of thought or absence of communication but rather it should be considered as another means of communication(Liu & Gao, 2010).In-class silence becomes a

common occurrence and it often leads to communication failure between teachers and students as well as among students (Hietaranta, 2014). Many researchers claim that in the circumstance of a foreign language classroom, silence presents a significant threat to successful language learning when it is characterized by an absence of oral communication and verbal responsiveness from students (Hanh, 2020b). Tsui (1996) notes that insufficient understanding might cause the learner to remain silent and refrain from topicalizing their misunderstandings (Tsui, 1996, pp. 104-105). The analysis discovered that, in instances where the learners had to speak, most of them had less vocabulary in the English language and resorted to avoidance techniques. These misunderstandings were identified when the teachers reviewed the lessons and asked the class follow-up questions.

Extract 6

Line 42 -Teacher: Thank you, who would continue
 Line 43 -Teacher: Yes
 Line 44 -Student : When the wons this errrrr, this... [pause and hesitation]
 Line 45 - Teacher : The wolf
 Line 46 - Student : the /wof/
 Line 47 - Teacher : Wolf (stretches it)
 Line 48 - Student : Wolf
 Line 49 - Teacher: /W/,/ W/
 Line 50 - Student : Wolf

The silence in Extract 6 included leaning forward, frowning, confused facial expressions, or lack of feedback. Another instance is illustrated in Extract 7:

Extract 7

Line 51 - TEACHER: There was no traffic
 Line 52 - ATTA: No traffic, Teacher laughs okay
 Line 53 - Teacher: Mohammed, you came early today
 Line 54 - MOHAMMED :je ne comprends pas l'anglais

The student did not give feedback to the teacher, that he did not understand what was going on in the classroom. He only made the teacher aware when he was called to answer questions and he code switched to French that he did not understand what was going on in the classroom. Böhringer (2007) argues that, apart from the fact that silence is a shared resource EFL users turn to when they face communicative obstacles, they also use it to find effective ways to put their message forward. He reiterates that this technique does not result in mutual understanding but may cause a communication breakdown. Rubin (1975) also attributes a good EFL user and a good language learner to one who characteristically “monitors his own and the speech of others” (Rubin, 1975, p. 47) by being silent and observing their interlocutors. This may primarily monitor whether his interactants can come to a satisfying understanding while also functioning as an invitation to the interactants to co-create shared meaning. It is significantly easier for instructors to consciously and unconsciously send nonverbal cues than for them to identify and interpret the nonverbal cues of their students (Trenholm & Jensen 2008). By comparison, nonverbal messages are less tangible and can be more difficult to interpret than verbal messages (Thompson, 1973).

4.1.4 Code-switching

Code-switching was also identified in the analysis. Code-switching is described as combining phrases or terms from two languages throughout speaking or writing (Al-Qaysi, 2019; Muthusamy et al., 2020). This means that a language or a dialect is considered a ‘code.’ According to Muthusamy et al. (2020), one of the factors accounting for code-switching is the students’ inability to express themselves and get their message communicated in language classrooms. Code-switching contributes to maintaining continuity in speech. It does not stop the flow of linguistic

interaction. The analysis revealed that the main factor accounting for code-switching in international classroom studies is the lack of competence in the second language and the avoidance of misunderstanding. As a result, code-switching improves communication as a tool for conveying meanings. Extracts 8, 9, and 10 show instances where the teacher used code-switching to help the students understand what was going on in the class.

Extract 8

Line 55- Teacher: You wake up (speaks Arabic: /‘tastayqizwatatrakalsarir/’
 ٻ ستي قظوت تترك ال سي ر You wake up and leave the bed
 Line 56- Student: Wake up,(asks in French: Qu'est-ce que ça veut dire)
 Line 57- Teacher (responds in French; tute réveillés)
 Line 58 - Teacher:[in French] s'éveiller , wake up means you open your eyes. Mm-hmm. Get up; get up is when you leave the bed.
 Line 59 - Student: When I have my bath, Get dressed at aa bathroom.
 Line 60 -Teacher: You get dressed. You have what? Breakfast. You leave the house. You come to school to learn. You finish learning. You have lunch(smiling)
 Line 61 - Student: No lunch. I,(speaks Arabic) /“‘ana la 'atanawalalghada' ,
 'atbakhhalghada' wa'aelam 'atfali'”/ (أطبخل غداء وأعلم أطفال ي ، أن الأكل ناول غداء) I
 know I lunch, I have uh.I cook. I cook. Uh, lunch. Yeah, I prepare. I prepare, eh,
 okay. Go back home

In Extract 8 lines 55-61, the teacher notices the students' difficulty understanding his instructions. Hence, he uses French and Arabic, the second language for most of the students, to explain the instruction and then repeats the same in English. The student code-switches to Arabic in line 50 because she felt the teacher misunderstood what she was saying. Extract 9 also presents an instance where the student felt misunderstood and resorted to code-switching.

Extract 9

Line 62 - Teacher: But what do you do?

Line 63- Student: I take care. My children. (Teacher: Children?) To school?

Line 64- Teacher: Yeah. School. Prepare, Take your children to school?

Line 65 - Student: No, no. (speaks Arabic “انا قسردملاىلإمذخأويلافتأسبلأنأ /“ana 'albas 'atfaliwa'akhadhahum 'iilaaalmadrasa”/)

Line 66 - Teacher: You prepare your children. Yeah. You take your children to school. Yeah. You prepare your children. To go to school.

Line 67 - Student: dress my children and take them to school

In line 64, the student code-switches to Arabic because she felt *preparing her children to school*, which was what the teacher suggested to her, does not mean getting them ready for school so she code-switched to Arabic so that the teacher could understand her clearly. Extract 10 presents an instance where the teacher code-switched to Twi because he felt that would get his student to understand what was going on in the class.

Extract 10

Line 68-Teacher: Seventh, seven ermm thank you

Line 69 - Dictation, we have oral, oral dictation

Mm, so you write what I say hm, stating with to be, present.... I am. I am, you are, (Speaks Twi. To a student in class) 'woatwere “m” “AM” noye, “am” twere wei! “A.m.” enye “ma” wai! she is....

In another instance, the teacher, code-switched to Twi, to clarify any misunderstanding the Ghanaian students may have. The students who used code-switching were mainly in A1 and can be said to be students with little to no language competence. They have less vocabulary to express their thoughts in the classroom and therefore fell on their first language to help them with their misunderstanding. This

indicated that the main factor behind code-switching among the students was incompetence in the second language.

In the interview with the students, it was revealed that code-switching takes different forms and may occur anywhere in the sentence. According to Myers-Scotton (2012), code-switching is divided into inter-sentential and intra-sentential. In inter-sentential code-switching, elements of a language are switched at sentence edges, mainly between competent bilingual speakers. However, in intra-sentential code-switching, the shift occurs as part of the sentence without interruptions, hesitations, or pauses. Inter-sentential code-switching unintentionally compensates for unknown or unavailable terms in one language (Muthusamy et al., 2020). Muthusamy et al.'s (2020) study revealed that the factors that influenced code-switching were avoiding misunderstanding (5%), lack of L2 competence (26%), easier to speak in their own language (12%). The rest are not knowing the English (19%), attracting attention (10%), emphasising a point (4%), pragmatic reasons (9%), conveying intimacy (6%), filling the gap in speaking (7%), and maintaining privacy (2%) respectively. The students clarified why they switched the codes in class as not having enough linguistic competence in the second language. Therefore, the lack of learners' literacy and vocabulary knowledge in L2 is the first and most dominant factor for code-switching among the students. Additionally, 5% of the students said they use code-switching to avoid misunderstanding when they did not know the terms or phrases. The findings of the current, to a large extent, confirm the results of Muthusamy et al. (2020).

4.1.5 Gestures

A gesture is a specific bodily movement that reinforces a verbal message or conveys a particular thought or emotion. Although gestures may be made with the head, shoulders, or even the legs and feet, most are made with the hands and arms.

According to McNeil (2005, pp. 353-365) asynchronous gestures occur during a pause in speech thus filling a speech gap. These gestures are used by learners when they lack vocabulary or by teachers as a teaching strategy, leaving a blank and performing a gesture so that learners can supply the missing word or words (Stam & Tellier, 2021). Learners may use gestures to cope with weak language proficiency or gesture frequency and timing may differ as learners work out their utterances in the L2 (Stam, 2006). The students also used hand gestures to emphasize or double-check the meaning of utterances. Extract 11 shows how a student used gestures to explain his message.

Extract 11

Line 70 - Student 2: aaahhh! He shout and banged and jumped out.

Line 71- Student 1: he jumped out of there ...

Line 72 - Student 3: They say the men were rapping out orders to give them (Using hand in a forward and backward movement) Giving orders ...

In Extract 11 line 72, students misunderstood the discussion and tried to make meaning of the sentence, so they used hand gestures to demonstrate or support the message for the discussion. A study by Lee, and Lee (2015) examined the use of gestures in a South Korean EFL classroom. The researchers found that gestures played an important role in facilitating communication and reducing communication breakdowns. They also found that learners used both verbal cues and nonverbal gestures, such as shrugging or raising the eyebrows, to indicate confusion or uncertainty. Another example of the use of gestures is found in Extract 12 as follows:

Extract 12

Line 73 - Teacher: The wolf

Line 74- Student: The wolf went ahead from her to the house ...

Line 75 - Teacher : To the grandmother's house

Line 76 - Student: To the grandmother's house (scratches head). When he went there, he (Hand movement) [Pause]

Line 77- Teacher : It, so ill

A study by Togashi & Morrison (2012) examined the use of gestures in a Japanese EFL classroom. The researchers found that learners used a variety of gestures, such as hand gestures, head nods, and eye contact, to indicate misunderstanding. In addition, a study by McPherron and Randolph (2013) examined the function of gestures in an adult EFL classroom in India. Researchers discovered that learners who had difficulty with language proficiency benefited most from gestures. The students utilized a variety of hand and head movements to indicate that they did not understand a certain concept. Overall, these studies emphasize the value of employing gestures to signal misunderstandings in EFL classes. By demonstrating and explicitly teaching gestures to students, teachers can encourage them to utilize them. Teachers can help students learn to speak more effectively and improve the results of their language acquisition by doing this.

4.1.6 Summary

The students mostly hesitate with facial expressions when they want clarity from their teacher, who in turn repeats or encourages them to talk and asks for clarification right away due to a lack of understanding. The analysis showed that in instances where the learners had to speak, most of them had less vocabulary in the English language and resorted to avoidance techniques, resulting in misunderstanding among their teachers. The students employed code-switching to indicate their

misunderstanding in class. These findings agree with the work of Cogo and Pfizer (2016), who reiterate that non-understanding is a graded phenomenon and varies from a total lack of understanding to a more or less complete understanding. They further observe that speakers can not only rely on pre-emptive strategies but can also employ other signals to show misunderstanding and start a negotiation for understanding. These signals vary in length and salience, depending on the type and depth of the non-understanding. The indicating signal used by interlocutors, such as silences, facial expressions, or questions in which a speaker only provides minimal feedback, can be a sign of non-understanding and make room for negotiation. In addition, it also shows that even though EFL learners tend to rely more on clarification, this research found out that they also equally rely on salient signals, and depending on the level of language attained, one pre-dominates the other. As Bambaeroo and Shokrpour (2017) mentioned in their study, nonverbal language is highly reliable to complement classroom communication for a teacher's success in teaching.

4.2 Factors that lead to misunderstanding

Students may feel that an instructor's attempts to increase volume, diversify vocabulary, or reduce jargon may not be accommodative enough for their needs. When adjustments are insufficient for a target's needs or desires, the corresponding (adjusted) behaviour is considered under-accommodative (Gasiorek et al., 2021). According to Harwood (2000), under-accommodation is the perception of a failure of one interlocutor to incorporate the needs of the other in a communication exchange (Speer et al., 2013). When adjustments overshoot or exceed a target's needs or desires, the corresponding behaviour is considered over-accommodative (Gasiorek et al., 2021). Over-accommodation can be defined as the perception of "go[ing] too far in accommodating their partner's needs, for instance, by accommodating towards

a stereotype of their partner rather than their actual competencies” or preferences (p. 745). Factors that were observed leading to misunderstanding are teachers maintained their language, using non-expressive gestures, showing different codes, shifting speech rates, and using different pronunciation. These are illustrated in Figure 4.2.

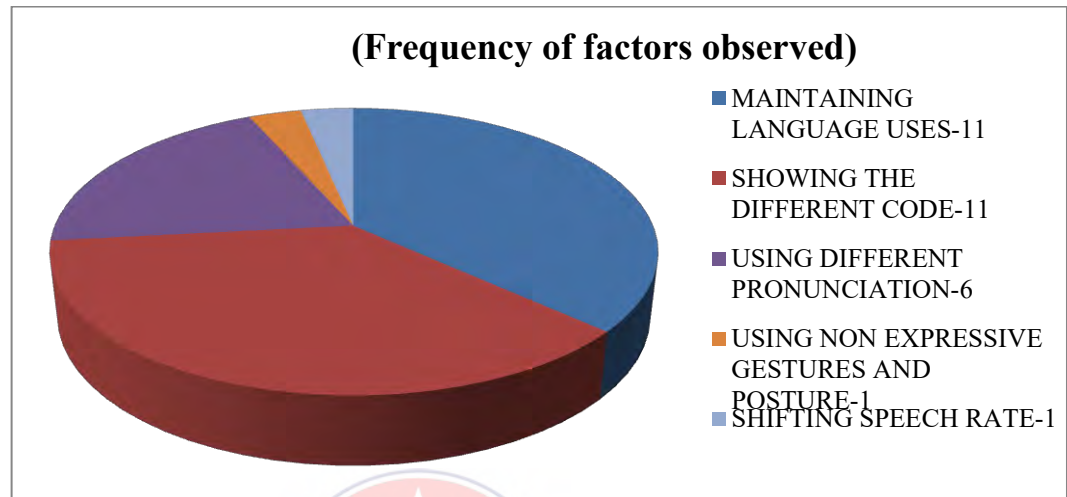


Figure 4.2. Factors that cause misunderstanding

4.2.1 Maintaining language

In Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT), maintaining language refers to a communication strategy in which people modify or maintain their language use to accommodate the language of the person they are communicating with. The theory suggests that people adapt their language based on a variety of factors, such as the cultural background, social status, and relationship with the other person. Maintaining language in the context of classroom communication can play a critical role in promoting clarity and enhancing understanding between students and teachers. Maintaining language can be achieved in several ways. For instance, a person may adapt their accent or dialect to match the person's, use specific words or phrases associated with the other person's language, or adjust their speech rate or intonation to match the other person's. The goal of maintaining language is to reduce communication barriers and enhance interpersonal communication. This factor was

observed in all eleven observations made. The need for teachers to modify the language they use in the classroom is to create an easy link for comprehension among their students. When teachers refuse to modify their language in the classroom or reduce the speed in delivery of classroom activities the teacher is said to under accommodate towards the students. This is demonstrated in Extract 13.

Extract 13

Line 78-Teacher: dispose of!

Line 79- student: (repeats) dispose of...

Line 80 -Teacher: it's not dispose of..., dispose off? So let it go like this..disposeoff!
(Student tries and gets stuck pronouncing the word) sol....

Line 81- Teacher: solid! all of you say solid!(class repeats)

Line 82- Teacher: what is solid?

Line 83- Student 2: something you can touch
(teacher repeats and rolls eyes)

The Teacher refuses to simplify words for students and even makes fun of their inability to pronounce and understand them. He did not reduce his speech rate and in line sixty-seven, because he was dissatisfied with the response of his students, he got irritated by the students' lack of understanding for the words and rolls his eyes. Study by Gallois et al. (2005) investigated the role of language maintenance and accommodation in multicultural classrooms in Australia. Teachers who accommodated students' language preferences were more successful in building trust and rapport with their students, which led to more effective classroom communication. Another example of maintaining language is seen in Extract 14:

Extract 14

Line 84-Teacher: ok, I want your definition of the word! The phrase is trap door
(Students hesitates, another wants to speak)

Line 85- Teacher: Let him speak ...

Line 86- Student 2: Ok, the trap door is the second door who you can take to run away.

Line 88 - Teacher: hm(has a wondering look)

In the extract even though the teacher had a calm demeanour in the classroom, she still maintained her language used and that cause some confusion in the class. Language maintenance is a common communication strategy used in a variety of settings, including business, education, and interpersonal relationships. The ability to effectively maintain language is a valuable skill that contributes to successful communication and helps to build stronger relationships with others. The conclusion from these studies is that language maintenance enhances student-teacher and student-student communication in the classroom. A more inclusive and productive learning environment can be created by teachers who are aware of their students' language preferences and are able to accommodate their language use. Similar to this, pupils who are able to use their native language in the classroom may experience a stronger feeling of identity and kinship with their cultural background.

4.2.2 Showing different codes

This instance is when the teacher shows his superiority in the language by using words the students do not easily understand. The teacher makes the student understand that he is better with the language using complex vocabulary and syntax for this purpose. Extract 15 is a demonstration of such. In this extract the teacher intimidates the learners for not understanding the meaning of the word 'solid'. He did not explain to the learners but goes ahead to blame them for their lack of knowledge,

making the learners uncomfortable in the class. The teacher in this case is under accommodating students, which intimidates those who may have difficulty understanding class lessons but are unable to communicate them to him.

Extract 15

Line 89 -Teacher: what is solid?
Line 90- Student 2: something you can touch
(teacher repeats and rolls eyes)
Line 91- Student 3; something that is tangible...
Line 92- Teacher: (repeats and says..) you don't even understand solid and you are adding tangible! What is the meaning of tangible!

A study by Huang et al. (2019) investigated the effects of instructor verbal accommodation on students' comprehension of programming concepts. The study found that students performed better when the instructor used terminology and language that was familiar to them and that student who perceived high levels of verbal accommodation reported higher levels of satisfaction and confidence in their ability to programme. Another instance is illustrated in Extract 16:

Extract 16

Line 93- Student 4: in the ceiling arctic is what?
Line 94- Student 2: Top of a place
Line 95- Student 3: Top floor
Line 96- Student 1: he went below the arctic
Line 97- Student 2: If the room is below the arctic it means arctic is up...
Line 98 - Student : No arctic is down, he went below...

In this extract, in an attempt to simplify the words by using different codes, the student got confused because he was familiar with the words used in the explanation but not the context use. Most of the learners literally translate English words to get the meaning, so when the meaning does not fit into how they understand; it causes more misunderstanding for them. This is similar to a study by Giles & Coupland (1991)

who found that accommodation to non-native speakers of English, can sometimes lead to misunderstandings in classroom settings. When teachers adjusted their speech to accommodate learners, they often used simpler language and spoke at a slower pace. A study by Flege et al. (1995) found that accommodation to non-native speakers can also lead to linguistic interference, where the adjustment leads to errors in grammar and syntax in the non-native speaker's language. This can worsen communication and hinder learning.

These studies suggest that although accommodation is important for creating shared understanding in the classroom, it can sometimes lead to misunderstandings. To avoid these misunderstandings, teachers should be aware of the potential consequences of different codes in communication accommodation theory and be mindful of how they adjust their communication styles in the classroom. Overall, the CAT framework suggests that instructors should be mindful of their communication style and adapt it to meet the needs of their students. However, it is important to consider the potential drawbacks of under accommodating students by presenting different codes that is too basic or advanced for their level of understanding. Instructors may need to strike a balance between accommodating students' needs and providing a consistent and informative learning experience.

4.2.3 Using different pronunciation

This was observed in a class that the teacher over-accommodated. First, it is common for teachers to simplify the language to understand better the information being shared with them. When over-accommodating, teachers concentrate on specific words or phrases and occasionally say the same thing twice or thrice. Teachers occasionally decide to reduce language further if students still appear perplexed or uncertain about the words. The teachers' attempt to simplify the language for the

student caused further misunderstanding. Extract 17 illustrates this. In Extract 17, even though the teacher already over-simplified words for the student; he felt the student could interchange ‘get ready’ ‘dress up’ and ‘prepare to leave’ in the same sentence. However, this got the student confused because she was used to one phrase and using them interchangeably meant a new thing had been introduced by the teacher. The teacher in this case over-accommodated and this got her confused, so she decided to code-switch to Arabic before the misunderstanding was cleared.

Extract 17

Line 63- Student: I take care. My children. (Teacher: Children?) To school?
Line 64- Teacher: Yeah. School. Take your children to school?
Line 65 - Student: No, no. (speaks Arabic أنا س ردمل اىل اىم مذخ اوىل افطاس بل ان انا“/ة
'albas 'atfaliwa'akhadhahum 'iilaaalmadrasa’/)
Line 66 - Teacher: You prepare your children. Yeah. You take your children to school. Yeah. You prepare your children. To go to school.
Line 67 - Student: dress my children and take them to school

A study by Kang (2010) found that teachers who attempted to accommodate students’ pronunciation by adopting their accent often led to confusion and misunderstandings among students from different cultural backgrounds. The teachers’ speech patterns could become opaque and difficult to understand for students who were not used to hearing that accent. Another instance is seen in Extract 18. The student’s attempt to pronounce the word like the teacher did not go very well and created some discomfort for the student. Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) suggests that individuals adjust their communication styles to match those of others to create shared understanding. However, this accommodation can sometimes lead to misunderstandings, especially when it comes to pronunciation.

Extract 18

Line 99 - Teacher: So start again. I see that there are pauses in the reading so let it flow.

Line 100 - Student: continues (mispronounces a word)

Line 101 - Teacher: in ensuring

Line 102 - Student: Repeats (continues to read and then stammers with a word)

Repeats (dispose of ...

Line 103- Student: repeats and gets stuck again) so (hesitation)

A study by Moyer (1999) found that pronunciation accommodation in the classroom can sometimes lead to confusion and communication breakdown. When students attempted to mimic their teachers' pronunciation, it often resulted in mispronunciation and decreased comprehension. These studies indicate that pronunciation accommodation in the classroom can sometimes lead to misunderstandings and communication breakdowns. To avoid these issues, teachers should be mindful of their own pronunciation and adjust it to be clear and comprehensible to their students. Teachers can also encourage students to practice and learn proper pronunciation together, rather than focusing solely on mimicking the teacher's accent.

4.2.4 Using non-expressive gestures

This factor was observed in one class where the teacher irrespective of the ability of the learners, sat throughout the lesson with little to no movement. This may be seen as under accommodating since a teacher must show intentional convergence to show goodwill towards his students. Expressive gestures used by teachers make them approachable to students, who may be having difficulty in class. Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) suggests that individuals adjust their communication styles to match those of others to create shared understanding. This may include the use of non-expressive gestures, such as avoiding eye contact or facial

expressions, which can sometimes lead to misunderstandings in the classroom.

Extract 19 shows how the teacher's own expression caused misunderstanding in the classroom.

Extract 19

Line 105 - Teacher: Ready ...

Line 106 - Teacher: thank you very much , (calls somebody else) (calls another student to continue reading) Student is confused and not sure where to continue)

Then it means that you were not following

Line 107 - Student 2: I was but I'm not sure

In the extract, because the teacher was less engaging the students could not fully comprehend what was going on in the class and were absent-minded. According to research by Giles and Coupland (1991), when teachers made accommodations for non-native speakers by adopting non-expressive gestures like avoiding eye contact, it reduced overall classroom engagement and involvement. Due to a lack of nonverbal cues, it was challenging for the students to comprehend the purpose and context of the lecture, which caused confusion and misconceptions. In another instance, Chesebro (2003) looked into "Effects of Teacher Clarity and Nonverbal Immediacy on Student Learning, Receiver Apprehension, and Affect". According to the study, students in classrooms with non-expressive teachers showed lower levels of motivation, engagement, and comprehension than those in classes with expressive teachers. Gorham also looked at "The relationship between verbal teacher immediacy behaviors and student learning". The study found that teachers who expressed warmth, enthusiasm, and positive emotion towards their students significantly improved their learning outcomes.

Similarly Extract 20 shows how the teacher's non-expressive nature in class caused misunderstanding among the students.

Extract 20

Line 108 - Student: What is arctic?

Line 109- Student 1: I don't know arctic, arctic is what?

Line 110- Teacher: It is not just a name of something; it is a name of a place

Line 112- Student 1: oh! Let's go to arctic, let's go to arctic...

Line 113- Student 4: in the ceiling arctic is what?

Line 114- Student 2: Top of a place

Line 115- Student 3: Top floor

Line 116- Student 1: he went below the arctic

Line 117- Student 2: If the room is below the arctic it means arctic is up...

Line 118- Student 1: No arctic is down, he went below...

The teacher's lack of expression in the class created misunderstanding for the students. The student got confused with how the teacher explained the statement. And the teacher did not try to connect with the students even when they expressed their misunderstanding. This finding is similar to a study by Kumaravadivelu (2006) who highlighted the importance of teacher communicative competence in classroom settings. The researcher argued that non-expression on the part of the teacher could lead to misunderstandings and miscommunication, hindering students' learning and growth.

4.2.5 Shifting speech rates

Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) suggests that individuals adjust their communication styles to match those of others to create shared understanding. One aspect of this is shifting speech rates, which can cause misunderstandings in the classroom. If students do not understand the input they receive, it is unlikely that they will progress. A teacher's inability to change their

pattern of speech in the class can slow up productive teaching and learning, especially in a language class. A study by Drljača Margić, (2017) found that speech rate accommodation can also lead to perceptual difficulties, where students have difficulty detecting and processing important information in spoken language. When teachers varied their speech rate, students were less likely to retain important information, which led to increased confusion and misunderstandings. Extracts 21 and 22 demonstrate a shift in speech rate, in the class.

Extract 21

Line 119-Teacher: start again! Restart! Line 120- Student :(reads) Line 121-Teacher: let it flow, start again , I see that there are pauses in the reading, so let it flow!

In this extract, the teacher was intolerable of the students' need for patience. He was intolerant of the students' mistakes and was not ready to explore further or extend the utterances for the students to understand the concept fully. He was only interested in the speed of the class and getting his work done. In a situation like this the teacher is said to be under accommodating since he did not have the patience to reduce the speed for the students to fully understand the lesson before moving on. A study by Draeger Jr, (2017) found that speech rate accommodation can also cause confusion and ambiguity, especially in situations where there are time constraints, or when there is a need for quick response. Shifting speech rates can create a sense of uncertainty and make it difficult for students to follow along. Another instance is found in Extract 22 as follows:

Extract 22

Line 122 –Teacher: I am you, he is, she is, it is, okay you take err, erh,

Line 123 - Teacher: Are you ready for dictaton? Erhhh, .

Ready ...

thank you very much , (calls somebody else) (calls another student to continue reading) Student is confused and not sure where to continue)

In this extract, the teacher tried to accommodate all his students by slowing down his speech rate and even code switching. This made it difficult for some of the students to follow what was going on in the class, causing misunderstanding. This is also another instance of over-accommodation causing misunderstanding in the classroom. A study by Chesebro (2003) claimed that when teachers slowed down their speaking rate to accommodate learners, it often led to a decrease in engagement and motivation for all students. Students experienced boredom and found it difficult to pay attention, leading to confusion and misunderstandings. These studies indicate that shifting speech rates in communication accommodation theory can lead to misunderstandings in the classroom. To avoid these issues, teachers should aim to use a speech rate that is clear and easy to understand for all students, while also incorporating other accommodation strategies, such as repetition and clarification, to ensure that important information is retained. Teachers can also work with students to identify areas where they may need additional support in understanding spoken language and adjust their communication style accordingly.

4.2.7 Summary

Three out of five factors observed led to under-accommodation. These are teachers' maintenance of their language, using non-expressive gestures, showing different codes. Two factors, using different pronunciation and shifting speech rate

caused both under accommodation and over-accommodation caused misunderstanding in that classroom. Under-accommodation suggests that this behaviour occurred too frequently or infrequently relative to those needs. These under-accommodative perceptions may not represent the most accurate conditions for producing understanding. Subsequently, comprehension is affected and potential learning might be lessened (Dragojevic et al., 2015; Frey, 2019). On the other hand, students may feel that an instructor's attempts to increase volume, diversify vocabulary, or reduce jargon may not meet their individual accommodation needs. This means that over-accommodation may cause problems of misunderstanding as well.

Over-accommodation occurred mainly in the lower-level class (A1). Teachers, who over-accommodated, tried to compensate for their learners' limited English proficiency by accommodating students to bridge the gap of linguistic competence between teachers and students, so students can actively participate in classroom interaction but this caused misunderstanding in the classroom. Matsuda (2017) observes that implementing communication strategies in classroom interaction could motivate and expose students' communicative skills to negotiate their linguistic competence. This research results also differ from Frey (2019). In this study, data collected from 573 undergraduate students across 38 sections of an introductory Communication course (BCC) showed that students who perceived instructors as under-accommodative reported greater instructor competence. Although specific intentions were not examined on the instructor's part, the data and results show that their behaviour may have resembled a downward convergence for many students. The research argues that the increasing presence of unnecessary factors to the learning objective will increase the amount of workload experienced by students. Instructors

may want to devote extra time and energy to adjusting these behaviours to help students' process information, develop relationships, and form positive impressions. Theoretically, these findings also highlight the importance of role-related differences influencing students' perceptions (Hosek & Soliz, 2016).

4.3 Strategies for preventing misunderstandings

Misunderstandings can be prevented by applying the right strategy in the classroom. Holmes explain that convergence is a part of accommodation strategies used when someone is involved in the interaction and tries to adapt the communicative behaviour to be more like the interlocutor. The features that cover the verbal domain include more straightforward vocabulary, repetition, same code, and code-switching, translation, and topic development (Dragojevic et al. 2016; Gallois & Giles, 2015; Holmes & Wilson 2017). At the same time, those that cover the nonverbal domain consist of extending the utterance length, pausing, smiling, and gazing, using expressive facial and head nodding, gestures, and posture.

Interactants do not have to adapt to all these subcategories to accommodate successfully. Indeed, an agreement can be created (or attempted) by adapting only a certain number of them and minimally in each (Dragojevic et al., 2016). Teachers were observed to initiate and prevent misunderstanding when they sensed any indication of misunderstanding from the students based on observations during the study. Most of the teachers applied these strategies to help students understand classroom activities. Out of the eleven classes observed, topics were well-developed in eight to repair any misunderstandings that may have occurred. Eight teachers used repetition to make sure lessons were well understood. Seven teachers used non-verbal codes to demonstrate and further explain through body language and facial expressions. The analysis revealed that teachers used a combination of strategies to

prevent or repair misunderstanding in the classroom. These strategies are shown in Figure 4.3.

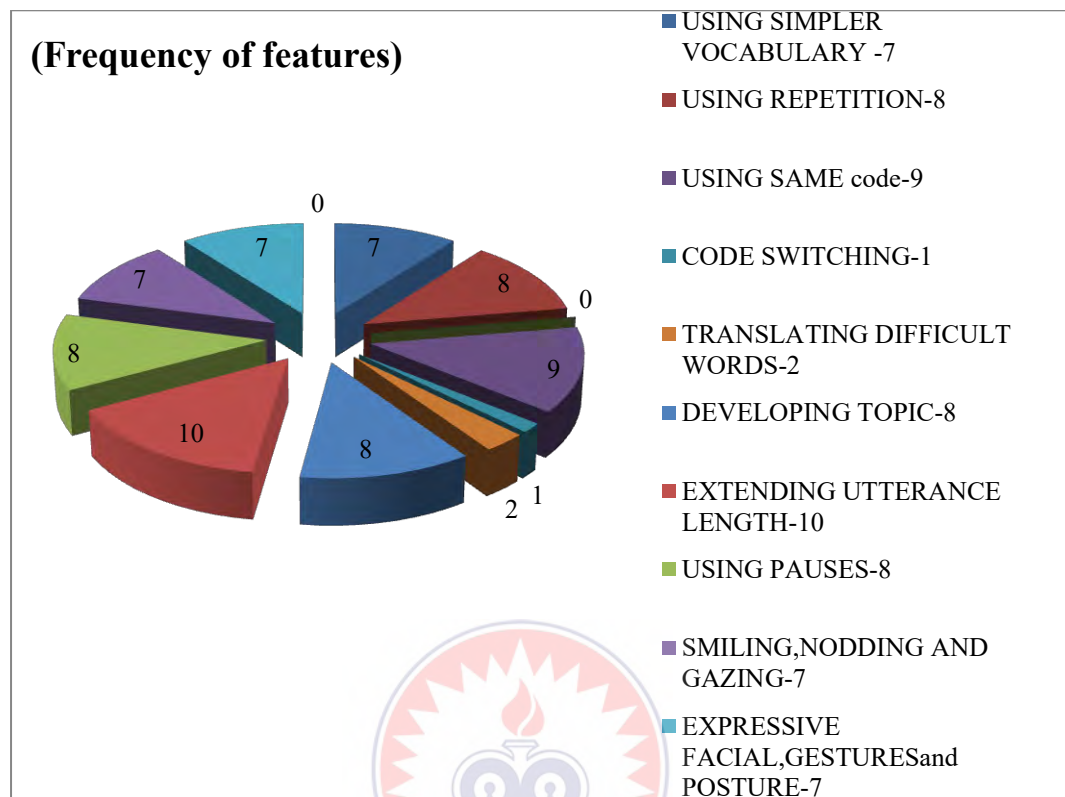


Figure 4.3. Strategies for preventing misunderstanding

4.3.1 Extending utterance length

Topic selection, turn management, and repair strategies involve conversation processes to promote conversation between interlocutors. Appropriately extended utterance length in the classroom include turn-taking, changing topics as needed, responding to non-verbal cues and using conversational repair, such as face maintenance, that students to maintain a positive self-image and prevents interactions from becoming ineffective or negative (Dragojevic et al., 2016; Nabila et al., 2020). Teachers avoid using complex words and extend utterance length to adjust students' understanding by giving more explanation about the material and using pauses to build an effective communication. In the data, teachers used turn taking to extend utterance in the classroom. Turn taking is a type of organization in discourse

management where participants take turn in their speaking, by asking referential questions to seek further information about the topic under discussion. Turn taking gets the student's attention in teaching and learning process and makes the students focus on the lesson, by giving the students a chance to speak and to check and reconfirm their understanding. These factors help prevent any misunderstanding that may occur in the classroom, and this is demonstrated by Extracts 23 and 24.

In the extract, the teacher is seen to give the students time to express themselves. The teacher corrected some of the mistakes and allowed others to slide. In those instances where the mistakes had not been corrected, the students fully expressed themselves and contributed to the class discussion. The teacher allowed the students to feel that they were in control of the discussion in the class. She did so by asking them of their opinion and allowing others to agree with the presentation by their classmate. She allowed them to take turns on their own accord making them feel like their opinions were important, therefore preventing any misunderstanding that might have occurred during the presentation.

In Extract 23, the teacher used questions that allowed the students give their own interpretation of the text. This encouraged more speaking time for the students as they felt their opinions were important and therefore felt safe to air them out. It also encouraged a lot of confidence and helped prevent misunderstanding in the classroom. These findings agree with the findings of Boyd and Rubin (2006), who found that students who received explicit instruction on how to extend their writing and speech demonstrated improved comprehension and recall of course material. By using longer, more complex sentences, students were better able to convey nuanced ideas and connect concepts within feedback and uptake in teacher-student interaction, Tsang

(2004) investigated whether extended utterance length could improve comprehension in the classroom.

Extract 23

Line 124 - Teacher: That's nice. Yes, who has something to say?

Line 125 - Student: I think after reading the passage, sometimes, errrr, the children from rich-school, they think they can do everything in the society because their parents have money to support and save them jail but they don't know that nobody is under the law. [hesitation]

Line 126 - Teacher: is above the law

Line 127 - Student: I think those who are long [pause]

Line 128 - Student 2: Comparing this to what she said, they hide themselves to wash it.

Line 129 - Student 2: Because of this, she starts doing like, mmmh, [student hesitates]. haven sexual with ,YES,YES. It is very free so she become having bad relationship with people. This is the fault of the mother, she doesn't control her. She is seventeen but she can leave house and get three days after, Yes,

The results showed that students who used longer utterances had better comprehension than those who used shorter ones. Extract 24 also demonstrates how extended utterance length in the classroom helps prevent misunderstanding.

Extract 24

Line 131 - Student: Madam, if you look at the ceremony, in errrrr, betweenhow it is organized. [hesitation]

Line 132 - Student: You will see that is women who is happier than the men

Line 133 - Teacher: Really?

Line 134 - Student: if you get married, is like a achievement for her and the mother. Your mother is happy in your heart that she fulfil the

Line 135 - Student: marriage is benefitting both sides [Text] we both benefit from marriage or marriage is beneficial to both the male and female.

In Extract 24, the teacher encouraged the students to talk by asking only brief questions. This helped break down the students' timidity and gave them the confidence to speak more at length, avoiding any potential misunderstandings during the lesson. These results agree with the results of Tsang (2004) on extended utterance length in ESL classrooms, where a teacher's approach of encouraging her ESL students to use lengthier utterances was examined and the findings demonstrated that students who utilized lengthier utterances had higher speaking self-confidence and were more effective communicators. Additionally, Hester and Adams (2017) discussed at how long utterances affect teacher-student interactions. Their discussion demonstrated that lengthier utterances increased engagement and interaction between teachers and students. While there is limited research specifically related to using extended utterance length to prevent misunderstanding, these studies suggest that doing so can facilitate deeper understanding of course material and promote student engagement in the classroom. They suggest that encouraging students to use longer utterances can help to prevent misunderstandings in the classroom. By expressing themselves more fully, students may be better able to communicate their ideas and understand their classmates and teachers.

4.3.2 Using same code

This concerns how individuals adjust their speech patterns such as the speech rate, volume, tone and use of dialect or accent to converge towards or diverge from their partner's speech. A teacher tries to adjust the speech style or linguistic variation to establish closeness with students in the English learner context. If the teacher-student relationship runs well, students will quickly understand the message delivered. They can use the same code, which involves adjusting their verbal and nonverbal behaviours, such as decreasing the diversity of their syntax and vocabulary, with the

students or by directly slowing down their speech rate. Some of teachers used same code to try to prevent some misunderstanding that may occur in the classroom. This is demonstrated in Extracts 25 and 26 as follows:

Extract 25

Line 136 – Student 4: The girl told the wolf, the girl answer.
Line 137 – Teacher: No, answered.
Line 138 Student 4: Am going to my grandmother because she is ill.
Line 139 Teacher : Ok
Line 140 -Student: So the wolf is (hand movement) it distracts.
Line 141 -Teacher: distracted
Line 142 - Student: distracted the small girl.
Line 143 -Teacher: Thank you, who would continue
Line 144 -Teacher: Yes
Line 145 –Student 2: When the wons this errrrr, this
Line 146 - Teacher: The wolf

Because the learners lack language references, the teacher likewise employs the same code as them in Extract 25 to prevent social distance in conversation. By communicating with the learners using basic codes, she avoids the gap. Recognizing that her students lacked vocabulary, the teacher encouraged them to speak in sloppy English and corrected them only when necessary. This agrees with a related study of how African American English (AAE) usage in the classroom was examined by Johnson (1999) who discovered that students were more involved and more able to express themselves when teachers accepted and valued AAE as a valid mode of communication. It avoids misunderstandings and fosters a more welcoming environment where everyone adheres to the same code or respects each student's primary language or dialect.

Extract 26 also demonstrates how teachers using the same code, or a shared language or dialect, can also help prevent misunderstandings and improve communication in the classroom setting. In this extract the student did not understand what was going on in the classroom and used his primary language to ask the teacher a question and he did not dissociate himself from the student, He also responded to the student's need using the same code and thereby fostering understanding. This agrees with Hanson et al. (2016) research on the impact of shared language on classroom interactions between English language learners (ELLs) and their teachers.

Extract 26

Line 147- Student: Wake up,(asks in French: Qu'est-cequeçaveut dire) Line 148- Teacher (responds in French; tuteréveilles) Line 149 - Teacher:[in French] <u>s'éveiller</u> , wake up means you open your eyes. Mm-hmm. Get up; get up is when you leave the bed.

They found that when teachers used the students' primary language or a common language to clarify concepts, students were better able to understand and engage with the material. Overall, these studies suggest that using the same code, whether it is a shared language or respect for diverse dialects and forms of communication, can prevent misunderstandings and promote understanding and engagement in the classroom.

4.3.3 Developing topic

Topic control is used to control unnecessary interruption during teaching and learning. Topic control works hand-in-hand with extending utterance length during teaching to maintain class discourse. This can be done with using code-switching and in order to maintain students' understanding using simpler vocabulary and translating the difficult word. The teacher controls the type of information that the students

discuss in the classroom, taking into consideration the background knowledge of the students and the lesson plan for the class. This strategy was used by the teachers to make the students focus on the topic discussion as demonstrated in Extracts 27 and 28.

Here, the teacher developed the topic by introducing a subject from the material they read the previous week to later develop it into other things related to the lesson. This encouraged students to give a response or questions regarding the story. The students were gently guided on their line of thought throughout the lesson, with very minimal input from the teacher; the students took up the challenge and discussed the topic without deviating from the teachers' expectation. A study by Guthrie and Davis (2003) highlighted the importance of providing additional context and real-world applications of concepts in promoting student comprehension and engagement. They found that when instructors provide examples and applications of the concepts being taught in real-world settings, students were better able to see the relevance of the material and connect it to their own experiences and interests. Extract 28 further demonstrates how developing topic helps prevent misunderstanding in the classroom.

Extract 27

Line 150 - Student: marriage is benefitting both sides
Line 151- Student: For a man to get married, he is like, he reach the age, he say
he'd take a decision.
Line 152 -Student: If you have even 40.
Line 153- Student: man are expensive.
Line 154 -Teacher: What did you learn about their love for each other?
Line 155 - Student: She cannot face her husband face to face but she can do something.
Line 156 - Student: is like issues. If you tell somebody to go, he will go there, you are like, errr, like errr,

Extract 28

Line 158 - Teacher: Any other opinion? Did you do the work?
Line 159 - Student: Papa has controlled on her and the fact that he beat her, he havecontrol.
Line 160 -Teacher: control over her?
Line 161- Student: If Papa told her to do something she don't like to do, she will do it because she's afraid.

In the extract, referential questions were used by the teacher to check students' understanding and reconfirm whether they could follow the topic or not. Adjusting pitch, tone and rate, was used to get the students' attention and made them focus on the topic given. Similarly, a study by McComas and Abraham (2004) found that developing a topic through the use of inquiry-based learning and open-ended questioning improved student engagement and participation. By asking open-ended questions and encouraging students to explore different perspectives, instructors can help develop the topic and promote a deeper understanding of the

material. Developing the topic or providing additional context and information to support a given concept has been shown to prevent misunderstandings and promote deeper understanding in the classroom setting. Overall, these studies suggest that developing the topic through the use of various multimedia materials, inquiry-based learning, and real-world applications can prevent misunderstandings and promote deeper understanding and engagement in the classroom setting.

4.3.4 Translating difficult words

Translation is usually an activity of interpreting the information received in one language (L1) into another language (L2), and vice versa. The basic function of translation is to transmit appropriate meaning of a word or a sentence, linguistically, semantically and pragmatically (Al-Musawi, 2014). Most educators agree that translation is a powerful tool to help the student more confidently understand foreign words and expressions and express ideas in the target language. Translation can be used as an effective medium for developing learners' communicative competence and for teaching properties and types of meaning underlying semantic relationships, communicative language functions, sentential information structure, and discourse values (Al-Musawi, 2014). Seen from this perspective, translation is a cognitive activity that assists students in learning new phrases and expressions in the target language and using them to communicate meaning. Translating the word or expression is done to give a clear understanding of a word or expression. Translation also encourages the students remember the words easily since they get a clearer understanding of what is being taught in the class. The teacher translated words and phrases that the students did not understand to help curb any misunderstanding they may have. Extracts 29 and 30 demonstrates how translation helped the students to understand and thereby participate in class activity.

In Extract 29, the student had very little knowledge of the English vocabulary and could not understand what was going on in the class. When the teacher asked him a question in English, he told the teacher that he did not understand and therefore the teacher had to translate everything to French for him and ask him the question again. Extract 30 also demonstrates how translation helps to prevent misunderstanding in the class.

Extract 29

Line 163 -MOHAMMED :je ne comprends pas l'anglais
Line 164- Teacher :Tu es venu à l'heure ...
Tu es venu tôt, pourquoi ? Pourquoi tu es venu tôt ?
Line 165 -Mohammed : inaudible
Line 166 -Teacher: erm, speak loudly, Speak loudly
Line 167 -Teacher :Aujourd'hui tu n'étais pas en retard.
Il n'y a pas d'embouteillage

Extract 30

Line 168 - Student: Wake up, (asks in French: Qu'est-ce que ça veut dire)
Line 169- Teacher (responds in French; tute réveilles)
Line 170 - Teacher:[in French] s'éveiller , wake up means you open your eyes. Mm-hmm. Get up; get up is when you leave the bed.

In Extract 30, the teacher translated to French for the students to understand the lesson. Even though the teacher employed translation to prevent misunderstanding, students were also observed to have used translation to prevent misunderstanding on their part as well. The results here are in line with study by Hsueh-Chao and Nation (2000) who investigated the use of translated input in the learning of vocabulary by EFL learners. The study found that learners who received translated input retained more of the target vocabulary than those who received only English

input. Similarly, a study by Dewi et al. (2018) investigated the types of communication strategies used by young learners in EFL classrooms. The study found that the use of translation significantly improved learners' comprehension of English texts. In general, these studies suggest that translating difficult words and providing explicit instruction on complex vocabulary can prevent misunderstandings and promote deeper understanding in the classroom.

4.3.5 Using pauses

A pause is a silence within-turn (Maroni, 2011). Delay or waiting extended time is time gaining to fill pauses. It was done by the teacher by producing filler words applied to share happiness by making some jokes in the teaching process because they wanted to create a good and relax atmosphere for learning in the classroom. To help the learner keep up, the teacher pauses at certain words and phrases. This is demonstrated in Extracts 31 and 32.

Extract 31

Line 171 - Teacher: You prepare your children. Yeah, You take your children to school. Yeah, You prepare your children. To go to school. Yeah, Okay. What school, what is the name of the school?

Line 172 - Student: Uh, solo. Solo. So Block.

Line 173 - Teacher: Yeah. Where, where is the school?

Line 174 - Student: Tech. Tech.

Line 175- Teacher: So the school is at Tech Zi?

Line 175 - Student: Yeah. Tech, eh, is Near Tech.

The extracts show that the teacher used filler words to pause; he used pauses to encourage their students to contribute to class discussions. They used smiles to encourage them to speak and sometimes minimal sounds to get them to contribute to class activities and prevent misunderstanding in the classroom. A study by Tobin

& Capie (1983) on “learning “found that incorporating intentional pauses in the classroom can improve student learning and retention. The researchers used a variety of pause types, including short breaks mid-lecture pauses for discussion, and review. They found that students who experienced pauses during learning activities had better recall and application of the material than those who did not. At times, the teacher aims to elicit a collective response from the whole class, while on other occasions the question is constructed to address only one student. Margutti, (2006 as cited in Maroni, 2011) conducted a study on the use of pauses in a classroom and the results showed important and positive changes in the answers of the students, and in the number and type of questions asked by the teachers, along with the flexibility of the answers. This is also demonstrated in Extract 32.

In this extract, the teacher pauses to elicit answers and the opinions of the students. This gives them a chance to think about the activities in the class and reflect so that if they are having any difficulty understanding class activities they can discuss with the teacher. This agrees with the results of a study by Maroni et al. (2008) on turn-taking in classroom interactions: overlapping, interruptions and pauses in primary school. The authors investigated the use of pauses by elementary school teachers during classroom instruction.

Extract 32

Line 176- Teacher: What did you learn about their love for each other?

Line 177 - Student: She cannot face her husband face to face but she can do something.

Line 178 - Student: is like issues. If you tell somebody to go, he will go there, you are like, errr, like errr, [hesitation]

Line 179 - Student: Yes, she said, Papa deserve praise for not choosing but then Papa was different.

Line 180- Teacher: Any other opinion? Did you do the work?

They found that teachers who incorporated pauses into their lessons had more positive interactions with students, which led to improved student learning. Pauses were used to allow for student reflection, transition between activities, and to foster a more collaborative learning environment. Teachers need not slow their actual speaking speed but like any good public speaker, they need to pause and pause often so that students can think about the content of the words delivered for proper understanding.

4.3.6 Expressive facial, head nodding and gazing

Emotional closeness between teacher and student takes place when teachers provide appropriate levels of reassurance and empathy in response to students' emotional needs. The use of smiles and gaze by the teachers and positive expressive facials was a way to encourage students to understand that the teacher understood where they were coming from and give a welcoming impression for follow up issues that might cause misunderstanding in the class activities as demonstrated in Extracts 33 and 34.

Extract 33

Line 181. - Student: Madam, if you look at the ceremony, in errrrr, between.... How it is organized eh!

Line 182 - Student: You will see that is women who is happier than the men.

Line 183- Teacher: Really? (teacher smiling)

Line 184 - Student: if you get married, is like a achievement for her and the mother.

Your mother is happy in your heart that she fulfill the..... .

(teacher gazing)

The teacher showed their emotional expression primarily by sharing their happiness and making jokes. Using this strategy was to create a conducive and relaxed atmosphere for learning. The students' involvement and response also made the learning process easier. In order to accommodate all of the learners; the teacher establishes an equal relationship with each one of them by giving each one equal attention through smiles, which encouraged students to express themselves and prevents any misunderstandings from developing during the learning process. This finding is in line with a study by Todorović (2010) whose study focused on the impact of teacher attention on student behavior in the classroom. The authors found that teachers who used frequent head nodding and gazing behaviors during instruction had a positive effect on student on-task behaviour. The study suggests that the use of these nonverbal behaviors can help prevent misunderstandings in the classroom by increasing student engagement and attention. This is also demonstrated in Extract 34:

Extract 34

Line 185 - Teacher: That's nice. Yes, who has something to say?

Line 186 - Student: I think after reading the passage, sometimes, errrr, the children from rich-school, they think they can do everything in the society because their parents have money to support and save them jail but they don't know that nobody is under the law. [hesitation]

Line 187 - Teacher: nobody is above the law

Line 188- Student: I think those who are long [pause]

The instructor in the excerpt above used components of emotional expression through laughter, identifying with the kids' worries by not excluding herself from the examples the children were providing, and giving each student who was speaking her entire attention. According to a study by Haranburu et al. (2010) this resulted in some kind of warmth and connection between the teacher and the students. This study investigated the connection between classroom engagement and instructor attention. The authors discovered that teachers who frequently made facial expressions, nodded their heads, and gazed at students were more likely to involve them in educational tasks, interactions and improve learning outcomes and prevent misunderstandings.

4.3.7 Code-switching

Code-switching is the alternating use of two or more languages in a single conversation (Hu, 2021). It is used for numerous social and educational purposes: linguistic insecurity, topic switch (i.e. language choice is done according to the topic that is discussed, e.g. grammar explanation or giving instructions), and repetitive function (i.e. monitoring or helping the students and giving explanation). Other reasons for language alternations are affective function (i.e. expressing emotions) and socializing function (i.e. using L1 to mark solidarity and friendship with the students).

In Extracts 35 and 36, the teacher employed code-switching to prevent the misunderstanding of linguistic expression.

Extract 35

Line 189 - Teacher: Seventh, seven ermm thank you
Line 190 - Dictation, we have oral, oral dictation
Mm, so you write what I say hm, stating with to be, present.... I am. I am, you are,
(Speaks Twi. To a student in class)' woatwere "m" "AM" noyε, "am" twere
wei! "A.m." enyε "ma" wai! she is....

The teacher in the extract code switched to a student's primary language to make sure that that student understood what was happening in the class. This was also because most of the students in his class had limited comprehension of their target language. This being so, code-switching can be regarded as a supporting component contributing to communicating information in social interactions. This finding aligns with those of Simasiku et al. (2015). Their study explored the use of code-switching as a strategy to prevent misunderstandings and support multilingual students in the classroom. The authors found that when teachers used code switching to clarify meaning or provide examples in the students' first language, it improved their comprehension and engagement in the classroom. This is further demonstrated in Extract 36.

Extract 36

Line 191- Teacher: You wake up (speaks Arabic: /'tastayqizwatatrakalsarir/'
ستيقظوت تركال سري ر You wake up and leave the bed
Line 192 - Student: Wake up,(asks in French: Qu'est-cequeçaveut dire)
Line 193 - Teacher (responds in French; tuteréveilles)
Line 194 - Teacher:[in French] s'éveiller , wake up means you open your eyes. Mm-
hmm. Get up; get up is when you leave the bed.

The teacher in the above class code switched to most of the languages his students spoke; namely Arabic and French, He did that to prevent any misunderstanding they may have. Here, students were also observed to have used code-switching to prevent misunderstanding. The findings agree with those of Cahyani et al. (2018). Their study examined the use of code-switching in the classroom and its implications for teaching and learning. The authors found that code-switching can be an effective strategy to prevent misunderstanding and promote learning, especially for students who are learning in a second language. The study suggests that teachers can use code-switching to scaffold student learning and provide opportunities for students to develop language skills. Code-switching used as a communication tool helped with conveying meaning. This assertion is also supported by Chen's study of Malaysian students (2019). The study posits some implications for language learning as it demonstrates code-switching as a valuable component in adult language learning classrooms. The analysis from Tien (2009) also revealed that teachers used code-switching in the convergence strategy of communication accommodation to adjust the students' linguistic form in ELT class and this can be an effective tool for teachers to facilitate communication and learning in multilingual classrooms

4.3.8 Gestures and posture

Gestures are important in human communication in that they animate conversations, clarify misunderstandings, and express feelings deeply (Axtell, 1998). The individual communicates numerous messages by the way he or she walks, stands, or sits. According to Simões et al. (2018) when teachers used good posture and movement during instruction, it improved their effectiveness as educators suggesting that posture can be an effective strategy for preventing misunderstanding and

promoting learning in the classroom. Teachers who stand erect, but not rigid, and lean forward, is more open and approachable than the ones who stand rigid and cross their arms. The use of gestures is demonstrated in Extracts 37 and 38.

Extract 37

Line 195- Student 3: so what does it mean?

Line 196- Teacher: Yes! We can use our leg to bang on doors, but this time they used their fist to break the door open, your fist is (teacher, holds up her hand in a fist to demonstrate) and with a little pressure can break a door...

Line 197- Student 1: ahhh!(nodding)

In the extract, the teacher employed gestures to demonstrate the meaning of an expression to the students; she did that to prevent misunderstanding of the word as demonstrated by the utterances of the students. Bedir and Daskan (2023), which investigated the role of body language in classroom communication and its impact on student understanding, found that teachers who used gestures and posture to convey meaning were more effective in delivering instruction and preventing misunderstandings. Additionally, student participation and engagement increased when teachers used effective body language during instruction. The study suggests that body language can be an important tool for teachers to facilitate communication and learning in the classroom.

The findings agree with the study by Yang (2017). His study investigated the impact of gestures on classroom learning and achievement and found that when teachers used gestures to accompany their instruction, it improved student comprehension and led to higher achievement scores. The study suggests that gestures can be an effective tool for preventing misunderstanding in the classroom. Additionally, the teachers who smiled and cracked jokes with their students made their interactions a more cordial one and that created an environment where the

students could ask questions and air their views to prevent misunderstanding. Another instance is demonstrated in Extract 38:

Extract 38

Line 198 - TEACHER: There was no traffic

Line 199 - ATTA: No traffic,

Line 200 - Teacher: you came early today, Early will be coming at 6:00 am
(student's eyebrow is wrinkled or frown)

Line 201 - Teacher: (Teacher laughs) okay Early will be coming at 6:00 am
(student's eyebrow is wrinkled or frown Mohammed, you came early today

Line 202 - MOHAMMED ;je ne comprends pas l'anglais

The teacher in the extract cracked jokes to liven up his class and also get the students to relax in the class. Appropriate use of posture by the teachers fostered equality between themselves and their students, promoting classroom growth and preventing misunderstanding. These findings agree with the findings of a study by Neill (1989) who investigated the relationship between teacher posture and classroom discourse. The study found that when teachers used positive posture (e.g. cracking jokes, nodding, making eye contact), there was more student participation and fewer interruptions during classroom discussions as students felt more comfortable.

4.3.9 Using repetition

Repetition is saying words or expression regularly or re-saying the same words or expression to the interlocutor. One reason repetition proves to be a powerful strategy for re-establishing understanding is that it allows the listener to re-hear the item in question. In this case, the speaker of the troublesome utterances uses repetition and reformulation to re-establish the listener understands. This is demonstrated in the Extract 39 and 40.

Extract 39

Line 203- TEACHER : Why are you late?

Line 204- Student: (HESITATION)

Line 205- Teacher: I am late because Say it, why are you late? I am late because what you wrote yesterday errhhh(Student repeating after Teacher)I am late ... because I took

In the extract, the teacher used repetition to make the students understand and familiarize themselves with the expressions. The teacher used this strategy because he wanted to attend to all the students, by making sure all the students could hear his voice. The teachers employed repetition mainly in the beginner classes. This was because their competence level was lower, and this strategy helped with reinforcement of class activity and to help with memorization of class activity and this helps to prevent misunderstanding. Employing a simple repetition, an interlocutor will manage to show listenership and contribute to a collective grounding process through which they can try to establish that what has been said has been understood. This finding agrees with a study by Duff (2000). This analysis examines the impact of repetition on learning and memory. The authors found that when information is repeated, it improves retention and allows for a deeper understanding of the material. The study suggested that repetition can be an effective tool for preventing misunderstandings in the classroom by reinforcing key concepts. This is further demonstrated in Extract 40.

Extract 40

Line 206 – Student: When the wons this errrrr, this... [pause and hesitation]

Line 207 – Teacher : The wolf

Line 208 – Student : the /wof/

Line 209 – Teacher : Wolf (stretches it)

Line 210 – Student : Wolf

Line 211 - Teacher: /W/,/ W/

Line 212 – Student : Wolf

The teacher repeated the word and the sounds for reinforcement. The student could not pronounce the word correctly even though it was a revised lesson, so the teacher used repetition to make sure there was no misunderstanding. These results agree with Atikah and Rezki (2018) who investigated the use of repetition in English language teaching and its impact on comprehension. The authors found that when teachers used repetition to reinforce key vocabulary and concepts, it improved students' ability to understand and retain the information presented. The study suggests that repetition can be an effective strategy for teachers to prevent misunderstandings and promote learning in the language classroom.

4.3.10 Using simple vocabulary

This focuses on each speaker's conversational competence. The highlight is on conversation content. Interlocutors who modulate their language and word choice to ensure their words are understood demonstrate appropriate interpretability. This strategy consists of using high-frequency words and expressions and other words to express the same meaning. Teachers adjust their pitch, tones and rate of speaking when they want to build engagement with their students. They also use high frequency words and expressions to express same meaning, to give a deep

understanding about a word that gives the same meaning. This is demonstrated in Extracts 41 and 42.

Extract 41

Line 213 - Student 1: here we are talking about the door

Line 214 - Student 2: He is trying to open the door

Line 215 - Student 3: so what does it mean?

Line 216 - Teacher : Yes! we can use our leg to bang on doors, but this time they used their fist to break the door open, your fist is (teacher, holds up her hand in a fist to demonstrate) and with a little pressure can break a door...

Here, the teacher wanted to make the students understand the words and expressions and find them easy to remember. The teacher tried to modulate his speech by using simpler words and gestures to explain and paint the picture of what they are discussing for the student to understand. It is done to help students understand a word or expression clearly. The teacher oversimplified exercises in his bid to identify with the students. This prevented the misunderstanding that may have arisen this way. An investigation by Mukoroli (2011) of the teaching of vocabulary to EFL learners found that using simplified vocabulary not only reduced misunderstanding but also enhanced learners' motivation and engagement in the learning process. This is further demonstrated in Extract 42:

Extract 42

Line 217- Teacher: Are you ready for dictation?

Erhn, you are, Dictation what we have been learning already

Everyday I do, erh, tomorrow I will do erhhh. What we learnt yesterday we will do dictation on that mm.

So we will do dictation on "to be"

First we will start with "to be".

The teacher in the above extract simplified every statement he made with repetitions and explanations. He used very simple vocabulary to make sure that all the students understood what was going on in the class. A study by Suban, (2021) which explored the impact of comprehensible input on the speaking skills of EFL students, found that using simplified and comprehensible language in the classroom promoted better understanding and led to improved speaking proficiency among the students. Overall, these studies suggest that using simple vocabulary in the classroom can help prevent misunderstandings and enhance learning outcomes among EFL learners.

4.3.11 Summary

The third research question sought to examine the strategies that were used to prevent misunderstanding in the classroom. It was revealed that teachers and students used different and similar strategies to prevent misunderstanding. Teachers used all eleven strategies observed: extending utterance length, using same code, developing topic, translating difficult words, using pauses, smiling, and gazing, expressive facial and head nodding, code-switching, gestures, and posture, using repetition, and using simple vocabulary, to prevent misunderstanding and to increase shared understanding. Students used translation, code-switching, and gestures to prevent misunderstanding. Teachers were observed to initiate repair when they sensed any indication of misunderstanding from the students. Teachers and students were actively involved in interactional repair and negotiation of meaning, Teachers in the lower proficiency class tried to simplify every statement made with lots of repetitions, pauses, and extended utterance length. They also code-switched and translate utterances into French and sometimes Twi, to satisfy all the students in the class. Teachers were observed to use a combination of the strategies to control and manage discourse and

to prevent and repair misunderstanding in the classroom. Although the structure of classroom discourse gives more power to the teacher to control class activities, the learners were made to relax and contribute to activities in the classroom. The teachers also took a lot of factors into consideration to prevent misunderstandings that may hinder the learning process.

The outcome did not match earlier research by (e.g. Teng, 2012; Weizheng, 2019; Wu, 2020). Their study focused on the interactions between teachers and students in EFL classes at a university in central China. It was discovered that the teacher's preferred tactic was interpretability. In order to ensure that students understood a term or expression clearly, teachers employed the technique of translating into French (Nabila et al., 2020). Theoretically, to achieve this, they should adjust their usual delivery. Other ways are through the use of features (emphasis, length of utterances, rapidity), purposes (more instrumental, less interpersonal, interpretive techniques) (high-frequency vocabulary, repetition, high explicitness), and other behaviours similar to what language teachers try to do with struggling student (Nabila et al., 2020). Research from this thesis shows that teachers employed more convergence features than divergence in accommodating tactics. In addition, the teachers used communication accommodation to highlight intimacy with pupils and enhance their comprehension of classroom participation.

According to other research, teachers' employment of accommodating techniques increases classroom interaction (Weizheng, 2019). Applying an accommodation strategy can enhance effective interaction in the teaching learning process. The results of a few previous studies on communication accommodation strategies in ELT classrooms (e.g. Weizheng, 2019) revealed that teachers tended to use more convergence aspects (than divergence) in accommodative tactics. Other

researchers discovered that the more flexible teachers were, the more engaging the classroom was (Weizheng, 2019). The results differ from the study of Teng (2012), Weizheng (2019), and Wu (2020). They are also different from those of Manuaba and Putra (2021) who found that asking referential questions is the most frequently used strategy in the EFL classroom.

4.4 Conclusion

This thesis examined the ways through which teachers and their students signal and prevent misunderstandings in the ESL/EFL classroom in Ghana. The analysis revealed that learners use five signals to show misunderstanding. It was observed that students ask questions in reaction to misunderstandings caused by classroom interactions and use facial expressions to convey a range of meanings in a variety of circumstances. The research also identified the rising prevalence of in-class non-expression and how it regularly impairs communication between teachers and students (Hietaranta, 2014). Additionally, it recognizes code-switching as a signal of misunderstanding, a finding consistent with the work of Cogo and Pfizer (2016). Lastly, gestures were also used as a signal for misunderstanding. Three out of the five factors led to under-accommodation, while two factors, using different pronunciation and shifting speech rate, caused both under-accommodation and over-accommodation. Under-accommodation suggests that accommodative adjustments occurred too frequently or infrequently relative to those needs, while over-accommodation may cause problems of misunderstanding. Over-accommodation in the lower-level classes caused misunderstanding in the classroom. The analysis showed that students who perceived their instructors as under-accommodative reported greater instructor competence.

Regarding the third objective, teachers were found to use eleven strategies to prevent misunderstanding, while students used translation, code-switching, and gestures to prevent misunderstanding. These findings highlight the importance of role-related differences influencing students' perceptions. Teachers were observed to initiate repair when they sensed any indication of misunderstanding from the students. They used a combination of strategies to control and manage discourse and prevent and repair misunderstandings. The teacher's preferred tactic was interpretability, which involved translating into French to ensure students understood a term or expression clearly. The results point to the fact that teachers should adjust their delivery to accommodate struggling students, using features, purposes, high-frequency vocabulary, repetition, and explicitness. Previous research has found that teachers use more convergence features than divergence in accommodating tactics, and that the more flexible teachers are, the more engaging the classroom is.

Referential questions were the most frequently used strategy. However, it is important to note that using overly complex language or sentences that are too long can hinder understanding. Thus, it is important to strike a balance between complexity and clarity when extending utterance length. Research has shown that extending utterance length, or using longer sentences and more complex language, can both prevent misunderstandings in the classroom and facilitate deeper understanding of course material. While these studies suggest that translation can be an effective tool in EFL teaching, it is important to note that translation should be used selectively and with caution. This is because translation can lead to overreliance on the learner's first language and may hinder the development of fluency in the target language. Overall, these studies also suggest that teacher non-expression can cause misunderstandings and hinder students' learning outcomes. On the other hand, teachers who demonstrate

expressive and communicative competence in the classroom can create a positive learning environment and enhance students' motivation, engagement, and comprehension. Additionally, Kitzinger & Frith, (1999) discovered that non-expressive gestures can cause social distance and a lack of trust when used in conversation. Students may feel uncomfortable and uneasy when teachers avoid making eye contact or showing emotion, which can cause misunderstandings and lower participation motivation. According to Tellier, (2008) the communication accommodation hypothesis can be improved by including more expressive gestures. This is confirmed by the results of this study that where teachers who made use of hand gestures, facial expressions and other expressive nonverbal cues were better able to engage pupils and convey meaning to them.

To avoid confusion and misunderstandings due to the use of non-expressive gestures in communication in the classroom, teachers should be aware of the importance of nonverbal communication and make an effort to use more expressive gestures and facial expressions to convey meaning and create engagement in the classroom. Teachers can also work with students to identify areas where they may need additional support in understanding nonverbal communication and adjust their communication style accordingly. The analysis showed that students have problems speaking fluently to produce the spoken language in English language learning (ELL) class. And that, the students mostly hesitate with facial expressions when they want clarity from their teacher, who in turn repeats or encourages them to talk and asks for clarification right away when there is misunderstanding.

The analysis also showed that, in instances where the learners had to speak, most of them had less vocabulary in the English language and so resorted to avoidance techniques resulting in misunderstanding among their teachers. This can be

challenging for English teachers who may have difficulty developing interactions in the classroom and end up with active learning delayed because some students are not actively speaking up in the class. It must be emphasized that the primary entities of classroom interaction are the teacher and students. When one entity is not actively participating in the classroom activity, the teaching and learning process cannot run effectively and intensively. As such, teachers need to be thoughtful and choose the appropriate language in delivering the material to encourage students to be more active, especially in oral communication, using the target language.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter provides conclusions from the data collected. It describes the significance and implications of the findings from the collected data and recommends new channels for further studies. It explores how misunderstandings are signalled, factors that contribute to these misunderstandings, and the strategies adopted to prevent misunderstandings in the classroom. The research was a case study on the school of languages of Ghana Institute of languages from the school of Languages. The purposive sampling technique was used to select participants to generate the desired results. Students from levels A1, A2, B1, and B2 were selected because these levels help bring out the issues that are the focus of the study. Out of the four schools, three were available for the research. Recordings and classroom observation identified and described the occurrence, type, and frequency of signalling that causes misunderstanding. Within an instructional setting, students' impressions of an instructor's competence and instructor credibility in general, depend on their ability to adjust content in a way that helps students meet learning goals. If students feel that an instructor helps them meet this goal by adjusting appropriately, they will view them as more knowledgeable and expert (Atalay, 2015).

5.1 Summary of Findings

The findings' summary is based on the three main research questions and the various themes from the data collection strategy.

5.1.1 How do students signal misunderstandings?

The study discovered that the students mostly hesitate with facial expressions when they want clarity from their teacher, who repeats or encourages them to talk and

asks for clarification right away due to a lack of understanding. The observation discovered that, in instances where the learners had to speak, most of them had less vocabulary in the English language and resorted to avoidance techniques, resulting in misunderstandings among their teachers. The students employ code-switching to indicate their misunderstanding in class. The students mostly hesitate with facial expressions when they want clarity from their teacher, who in turn repeats or encourages them to talk and asks for clarification right away due to a lack of understanding. The observation discovered that, in instances where the learners had to speak, most of them had less vocabulary in the English language and resorted to avoidance techniques, resulting in misunderstandings among their teachers. The students employ code-switching to indicate their misunderstanding in class.

The research findings agree with Cogo and Pfizer (2016), who reiterate that non-understanding is a graded phenomenon and varies from a total lack of understanding to a more or less complete understanding. He says speakers can not only rely on pre-emptive strategies but also employ other signals to show non-understanding and start a negotiation for understanding (see Vasseur et al., 1996, pp. 73-90). These signals vary in length and salience, depending on the type and depth of the non-understanding. The indicating signal used by interlocutors, such as silences, facial expressions, or clarification requests in which a speaker only provides minimal feedback, can be a sign of non-understanding and make room for negotiation. In addition, it was also revealed that even though EFL learners tend to rely more on clarification, they also rely on salient signals, and depending on the level of language attained, one predominates the other. This affirms the assertion of Bambaeroo and Shokrpour (2017) that nonverbal language is highly reliable in complementing classroom communication for teachers' success in teaching.

5.1.2 What are the factors that cause misunderstandings?

Factors observed in the class that caused misunderstanding are teachers maintain their language, using non expressive gestures, showing different codes, shifting speech rates, and using different pronunciation. Four out of the five factors led to under-accommodation: teachers maintaining their language, using non expressive gestures, showing different codes, and shifting speech rates, which caused misunderstanding in the classroom. One factor ‘using different pronunciation’ led to over-accommodation which also caused misunderstanding in the classroom. Over-accommodation occurred mainly in the lower-level class (A1), with the teacher employing almost all convergent strategies in the classroom. In this class, there is high convergence and low divergence. The teacher employed eleven of the twelve convergence strategies, tried to simplify every statement he made with lots of repetitions and pauses, and extended his utterance length. He also employed elements of emotional expression with laughter and tried to identify with the students. In this sense, over-accommodation caused the class to lose the focus and direction, causing misunderstanding among the students.

The factors discussed above, bring misunderstanding when students do not effectively indicate their misunderstanding to their teachers because the teachers are not converging in class. The analysis revealed that a teacher refused to simplify words for students and even made fun of their inability to pronounce and understand words. He did not reduce his speech rate and got irritated by the students’ reading pace. It is argued that the increasing presence of unnecessary factors to the learning objective will increase the amount of workload experienced by students. Also, specific instructor behaviours like immediacy, humour, and confirmation impact students (Myers & Goodboy, 2015). Students’ thought of instructor behaviour as

accommodative indicates that the behaviours were deemed ‘appropriate’ relative to the students’ needs. Under-accommodation suggests that this behaviour occurred too frequently or too infrequently relative to those exact needs.

Studies of interpretability, where accommodation is intended to increase or reduce mutual understanding, could also depend on attributions and perceptions within and across specific behaviours to influence results (Hewett et al., 2009). In an instructional context like this study, non-accommodation depends heavily on the teacher’s ability to adjust content to students’ needs to enhance learning conditions (i.e., building relationships, creating positive impressions, and enhancing information processing) (Frey, 2019). Instructional communication researchers act under the posits of the ‘process-product’ belief, which puts the teacher behaviour (i.e., process) as the ultimate and is solely responsible for student learning (i.e., product) (Frey, 2019). These non-accommodative perceptions may not represent the most accurate conditions for producing understanding. Subsequently, comprehension, effect, and potential learning might be lessened (Dragojevic et al., 2015; Frey, 2019). Moreover, one might consider common instructional scenarios in which behaviours that have been identified as interfering with the learning process (e.g., instructor misbehaviours function to enhance interactions with students (Myers & Goodboy, 2015).

5.1.3 What strategies are adopted to prevent misunderstandings?

Most of the classroom observations show that most teachers applied preventive strategies to help students understand classroom activities. Out of the eleven teachers observed, eight developed the topic well enough to prevent any misunderstandings that may have occurred. Eight used repetitions to make sure lessons were well understood, while seven used non-verbal codes to demonstrate and further explain through body language and facial expressions. Teachers and students

use different and similar factors to prevent misunderstanding. Teachers used all eleven strategies observed namely extending utterance length and using same code. The rest were topic development, translating difficult words, using pauses, smiling, and gazing, using expressive facial and head nodding, code switching, gestures and posture, using repetition, using simple vocabulary to prevent misunderstanding and to increase shared understanding. In addition, students used translation, code-switching, and gestures to prevent misunderstanding.

5.2 The role of accommodation in the ESL/EFL Classroom

Accommodation in the classroom is essential, as it encourages cordial relations between teachers and students and promotes active participation in class activities that foster learning. Students retain classroom information from difficult content, through the presentation of that content and the efforts the students put into the learning. And since non-accommodation is seen to create difficulty in comprehension, a student's signal of non-accommodation during teaching can lead to comprehension difficulty and decrease understanding in class. Accommodation plays a vital role in the ESL/EFL classroom and is essential for creating an inclusive learning environment that meets the needs of students from diverse backgrounds. When teachers accommodate towards their students by using simpler vocabulary, visuals, and context to make meaning clear, they avoid idiomatic or colloquial language that could confuse learners. Students find it easier relating as there is less load to try to demystify in the language rather than that of an instructor they do not understand.

Also, teachers who accommodate to students organize class activities in a way that makes processing it easy for the students; they provide differentiated instruction that meets the different needs of students in the class. This includes providing

differentiated assignments, opportunities for peer learning and individualized support. This makes the students feel satisfied that their needs are considered by their teacher. Teachers who accommodate in the classroom use various teaching strategies such as visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic to appeal to different learning styles of students from diverse backgrounds. They use digital resources that can accommodate and support visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic learning styles. These resources are language-rich and diverse so that learners from different nationalities can access information.

The communicative accommodation theory encourages teachers to strive to develop cultural knowledge of the students and incorporate it into the curriculum through cultural comparisons with the students' native culture. This encourages students to explore and understand differences and similarities between their own culture and others. They also modify the assessment materials and methods to create an equitable learning environment for ESL/EFL learners. This includes adjusting the language level of the content and accommodating the students' cultural background and learning needs. Overall, the role of accommodation in the ESL/EFL classroom is vital for creating a supportive learning environment in which all students can succeed regardless of their background. It can promote greater inclusivity and diversity among learners and help students reach their full potential

5.3 Pedagogical implications

The initial proposition which guided this study was that inadequate communicative competence would be the primary reason for misunderstandings in instructional settings. The analysis showed that students used different methods to indicate misunderstandings in the classroom, and the type of accommodation strategy the teacher employed in the classroom could help control the number of

misunderstandings that occurred. This research supports other scholarly researchers' claims that to create an equality and harmonious atmosphere and encourage student's involvement in class activities, English language teachers adjusted themselves to boost effective interaction (Weizheng, 2019b). As much as converging towards the students by the teacher is not bad, over-convergence tends to draw class activities back (because the teacher wants the students to feel overly comfortable in a class or see the teacher to be part of them). It could also be said that since the EFL learner aims to speak English, any form or means to get him to communicate may be an added advantage. Although motives for converging vary widely, converging to a typical linguistic style can improve communication effectiveness. The premise is that the more similar we are to our interlocutors, the more they will like us and the better we will be at gaining social rewards.

Teachers should therefore foster a welcoming environment where learners feel free to voice their thoughts and ask questions. Open-ended questions can be used by teachers to encourage learners to ask follow-up questions and to express their ideas and opinions. To determine how well their learners have understood the topic, teachers should employ formative evaluations and other forms of feedback. Regular chances for students to share comments on their academic experience, including any challenges or misunderstandings, should be provided. To assist learners in visualizing abstract topics, teachers should employ visual aids like diagrams and visuals. Learners may gain a deeper understanding of the subject matter and discover areas in which they need extra assistance. To assist learners, understand how concepts relate to their surroundings, teachers might use examples from everyday life. Learners can then determine areas where they need extra support and grasp the significance of the information. By posing queries, fostering conversation, and utilizing formative

evaluations, teachers should frequently examine learners' understanding. This can make it easier to spot difficult kids and offer them specialized support. Learners occasionally can find it simpler to comprehend an idea when it is explained by a peer. Activities that involve group work and peer learning can be used by teachers to motivate their learners to take ownership of their education.

The learning goals that learners are expected to attain should be stated by the teacher at the beginning of each lesson. This promotes concentration and a thorough comprehension of the lesson's topics. Pre-assessment techniques can be used by teachers to find out what the learners already know and to pinpoint any potential problem areas. Before introducing new information, any misconceptions, or misunderstandings that students may have should be cleared. Active learning techniques like problem-based learning and collaborative learning encourage student participation and engagement, which can help avoid misconceptions. Additionally, learners can develop their communication abilities through active learning. Concepts can be made clearer and connections between ideas can be made using graphic organizers and visual aids like diagrams, charts, and timelines. This can aid in avoiding misunderstandings and enhancing memory. To assist learners in making corrections and avoiding misconceptions, teachers should provide immediate and constructive comments.

When the subject is still fresh in the minds of the students, feedback should be offered promptly. It is critical that teachers promote inquiry-based learning and class participation. This can aid in avoiding misconceptions and enhancing mental comprehension. Teachers' ought to be available to help learners who might be having difficulties or queries. To offer assistance and direction, this could be done through one-on-one conversations, emails, or virtual office hours. Overall, class planning and

development are the first steps in the prevention of misunderstandings. Teachers can enhance the learning process for all learners by implementing these pedagogical methods into lesson design and classroom management techniques, which will ultimately reduce misunderstanding. In general, teachers should foster an environment that values and encourages learners to ask for assistance when they do not understand something. By so doing, learners may grow in self-efficacy and self-confidence as a result of this.

5.4 Suggestions for future research

The following suggestions are made for future studies. Currently, there is no consistency in applying CAT in research in the educational setting. Specific language features are selected as being particularly relevant by a researcher. To keep consistency with a specific area of previous research, coding with a specific description will go a long way to fine-tune and further advance research. This would significantly enhance our ability to compare and contrast studies across different media, paradigms, and experimental populations (Frey, 2019b).

In the classroom, convergence and divergence may result from speakers' language repertoire. If a speaker does not have the necessary language tools, then whether he diverges or converges may not be related to his unwillingness to accommodate but the result of his inadequacy to do so. This study has several limitations that must be noted. First, the data only represent one side of the teacher-student communication processes. Further research should explore teachers' and students' needs and expectations and assess what is regarded as under-accommodation or over-accommodation by the teachers and the students themselves. It would also be worthwhile to investigate students' rankings of the satisfaction they

obtain from receiving the various kinds of communication factors identified in this research to verify such factors' relative levels of effectiveness.

It should also be noted that teacher-student communication processes do not simply consist of the accommodations teachers make to students but also those made by students to their teachers for various reasons. This issue has not been examined in the present work. Therefore, future research should seek to capture communication accommodation strategies from older learners in ELF and to understand interactional norms such learners perceive as appropriate for communication with teachers of various ages. According to Dragojevic et al. (2016), perceived non-accommodation increases perceived social distance and diminishes interactional satisfaction and positive evaluations of speakers. It also impedes mutual understanding, and further studies on this issue with ESL students will enrich their understanding of the subject. Discourse analysis could also be used as an alternative approach to studying transcribed teacher-student conversations and might reveal the informal mechanisms negotiated by the participants, by objectively categorizing instructor behaviour about students' impressions.

Teachers of English language need to be aware of the linguistic and psychological assumptions underlying perceived language performance and try to empower students by incorporating activities that help raise student awareness. The communicative adjustment will continue to be a fundamental component of human interaction. Scholars should reflect this principle both within and across academic settings. A great deal of work is still to be done before we fully understand the accommodation process.

5.5 Conclusion

This multiple-case study examined how misunderstandings were signalled and prevented in the School of Languages at the Ghana Institute of Languages, focusing on how they are repaired, who initiates them, factors contributing to these misunderstandings, and how to prevent misinterpretation. Misunderstandings in classrooms are caused by factors such as teachers maintaining their language, using non-expressive gestures, showing different codes, shifting speech rates, and using different pronunciation. Over-accommodation occurs when teachers fail to clarify or simplify statements, leading to misunderstandings among students. Non-accommodation depends on the teacher's ability to adjust content to students' needs, enhancing learning conditions. Misunderstandings can be lessened by addressing interfering behaviours and using preventive factors to help students understand classroom activities. Inadequate communicative competence is the primary reason for misunderstandings in instructional settings. Teachers should thus adjust themselves to create an equality and harmonious atmosphere, encouraging student involvement in class activities. Over-convergence can draw class activities back, but converging to a typical linguistic style can improve communication effectiveness.

To create an inclusive learning environment, teachers should use simplified vocabulary, visuals, and context to make meaning clear and avoid idiomatic or colloquial language that could confuse learners. They should organize class activities in a way that makes processing easy for students and provide differentiated instruction that meets their needs. Teachers who accommodate use various teaching strategies, such as visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic, to appeal to different learning styles and use language-rich and diverse digital resources. Future research could focus on consistency in applying CAT in ESL/EFL classrooms, exploring teachers' and

students' needs and expectations, assessing under-accommodation and over-accommodation, and investigating students' satisfaction ratings.



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