

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

LANGUAGE REGULATION IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

CLASSROOM: THE CASE OF THE EASTERN REGION

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ROSE ASANTEWAA ANSAH

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**LANGUAGE REGULATION IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM:
THE CASE OF THE EASTERN REGION**

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**A dissertation in the Department of Applied Linguistics, faculty of foreign
languages education and communication, submitted to the school of graduate
studies, in partial fulfilment**

**of the requirements for the award of the degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Teaching English as a second language)
in the University of Education, Winneba**

SEPTEMBER, 2019

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, **Rose Asantewaa Ansah**, 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 any other degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

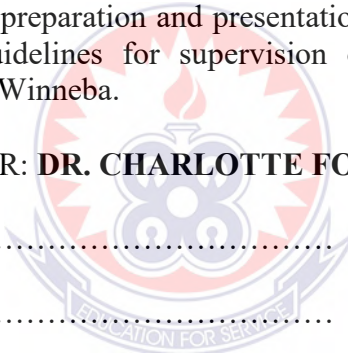
SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

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: **DR. CHARLOTTE FOFO LOMOTÉY**

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....



DEDICATION

I specially dedicate this study to my unborn twins Samantha and Sebastian, my beloved sister Joyce Ansah Larbi and my parents for all their support, love and for being my source of inspiration.



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I would first like to thank my thesis supervisor Dr. Charlotte Fofu Lomotey of the Faculty of Foreign Languages and Communication, Department of Linguistics at the University of Education Winneba. The door to Dr. Lomotey's office was always open whenever I ran into a trouble spot or had a question about my research. She constantly allowed this paper to be my own work, but steered me in the right direction whenever she thought I needed it.

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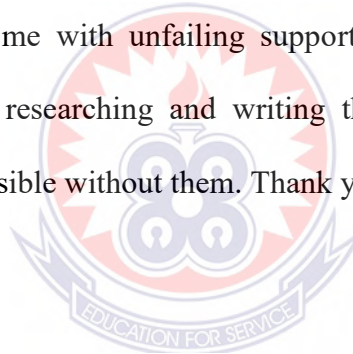


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ABSTRACT

The effects of language regulation have been seen to be positive as it makes learners more aware of their errors and allows for learner generated repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In spite of this, studies in the area of language regulation place little or no emphasis on language regulation. This study investigated language regulation, or the negotiation of acceptability and correctness in language, in English as a second language classroom. The study examined the practices of language regulation in the classroom, to understand the factors that inform the regulation of language in the classroom and to determine who takes on the responsibility of language regulation in the classroom. Through purposive sampling, data were collected from recordings of

classroom interactions and interviews from eight classrooms (360 students; 24teachers) in senior high schools in the Koforidua Township. The findings showed that second language speakers reject the idea of *anything goes* and take on language expert roles, resulting in explicit and implicit regulation of language. The study also showed that the language regulation of one's language was triggered mostly by nonconformity or mutual understanding. Finally, the results revealed that language can be regulated by language teachers, students, other teachers and the native speaker (in this case, the dictionary). Based on the findings, it is argued that classroom language needs to be regulated in order to improve L2 learners' competence and performance.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The active and effective participation of a member of a society is dependent on the individual's ability to speak, read, and write with confidence and with purpose in a wide range of contexts (Zar, 2015). Communication is, therefore, seen as the lifeblood of any language curriculum, especially in the context of second language learning. In Ghana, the learning of English language involves attaining mastery in the use of the language for appropriate and effective communication. Learning and attaining mastery in English go beyond developing the ability to speak and understand English. In Ghanaian schools, English language is the medium of instruction, besides being a subject of instruction. Learning English and attaining competence in it therefore, is a means of learning and doing well in other areas of the school curriculum. The ability to speak the English language effectively is very crucial to achieving one's goals and aspirations in life as a Ghanaian. Hence, students need to understand the English language in order to develop the competence and confidence needed to meet the demands of school, employment, and further education. English language plays a significant role in the Ghanaian society and culture.

The status of English in the country dates from the colonial times, and this has proven why the language dominates the native languages in the country. Thus, the language's function as the official language gives it a status that appears to make it a language that everyone needs to learn and use. It is expected that, without competence in the use and understanding of the English Language, rarely would one hold any high position in the country. English is so important in Ghana that without a pass in it a student cannot progress to the next level of education. This has made Ghanaians to

develop a favourable attitude towards it. The attitude of Ghanaians towards English language has been reflected in the language policy in education. This attitude has been influenced by the socio-economic status of the language and its domination in global communications (Omoniyi, 2014). Due to this, Guerini (2008, p. 2) asserts that “English has been assigned a higher prestige and is perceived as the only language worth being literate in or even the sole language worth investing ... to the detriment of local languages and vernaculars.” As a multilingual country that has adopted bilingual policy in education, it should be expected that students’ and teachers’ attitudes in the classroom and how language practices occur in the course of teaching and learning would be influenced by several factors (Saracalolu, 2010; Siti, 2008).

As the students and teachers find themselves in the classroom, they form their own community. Some teachers even have their own classroom rules and regulations. Some of these rules and regulations concern language practices. Although some of these rules are explicitly stated (e.g., speak English always), some are not overt, through existing and moderate classroom activities and verbal behaviours. The disposition of a teacher on how the classroom should appear in terms of language use is dependent on his language ideology, his awareness of language policy in education, the subject he or she is teaching, and his own attitude towards English language. With all these in mind, the teacher would want his students’ language in the classroom to conform to a certain standard. In ensuring that the verbal behaviour in the classroom is in consonance with his language ideology, language policy in education and the subject he is teaching would help regulate his students’ language in the classroom.

The students, on the other hand, also have their own orientation and what they consider how language should be and how it should function in that domain. Though most of these students would have their perspectives and language orientations

influenced by their teachers, we cannot conclude that their views on how language should function in the classroom coincide with that of their teacher. Hence, being guided by their own ideologies and language orientations, students in senior high schools in Ghana may also assume the role checkers and may shove away their responsibility of language regulators in the classroom. In effect, though one expects the teacher to play the crucial role of regulating the language of his students, some students also assume that responsibility and regulate language of their classmates in the classroom. In addition to the regulation of the students' language, the teacher may also regulate his own language to reflect or satisfy a particular purpose. This kind of self-regulation is also true with students. Sometimes a teacher may regulate his language to enhance clarity of meaning or to satisfy a grammatical requirement. The students in the same classroom may also engage in self-regulation of their own language to either enforce clarity or to comply with a particular grammatical rule.

This study examines language regulation in the classroom as a mechanism or process of negotiating for the acceptability and correctness of language use in senior high schools in Ghana. In this regard, the study investigates the ways by which students and teachers, as participants in interactions in the classroom, manage and monitor language, effect corrections to their language and the language of others in the interaction process, and their general verbal behaviours. Considering the verbal behaviours, the study also looks at the reactions of the interactants to corrections and how they also go by their corrective processes. Language regulation in this study is approached from the perspective that interactants in the classroom both reproduce codified language norms and construct alternative ones. With regard to this, language regulation is recognised as a process by which participants in classroom interactions construct linguistic norms that are relevant to them and appropriate to the context of

the interaction. These norms may not necessarily conform to what persists in the macro-speech community, which is mostly prescriptive, codified norms that arise as a consequence of linguistic description and codification. This thesis seeks to study the language behaviour in the classrooms of senior high schools to understand the practices of language regulation and how it is influenced in the classroom.

In the classrooms of senior high schools in Ghana, teachers are more authoritative in terms of information and informational sources. The teacher then has a vertical relation with the students in terms of who corrects whose language. The students, on the other hand, appear to be equal in terms of language use, even though some of them may be more inclined to the correctness of language use in the classroom. The teacher thus acts as the representative of the native speaker of English and serves as the last resort for supplying the correct form of language elements (pronunciations, sentences structure and vocabulary). And, the students also act as checkers on one another's language in the classroom. This relationship is horizontal: sometimes, the teacher may want his students to use appropriate vocabulary that suits the context (especially, the subject and topic of instruction in the classroom). Studies have shown that language correction is not common, and it is a function of L1 speakers (cf. Hosoda, 2006). This reflects the asymmetric relations in L1-L2 interaction. Whether similarly asymmetric relations can be found during classroom interaction and how the relationship is constructed is among the things this study intends to discover.

Speakers of languages undertake language regulation practices during interaction in their societies. These kinds of regulations occur in different ways and in various domains. In different settings of the society, language of everyday interaction may be influenced by language policy decisions. In the school setting, for example,

language policy in education controls the status of diverse languages. The policy may spell out which of the various languages should be taught as subjects and which of them should be used as medium of instruction. In Ghana for instance, English is used as the sole medium of instruction from Upper Primary, with French and the Ghanaian languages taught as subjects. In such situations, like the school where languages are taught and specific languages are expected to be used in the classroom, books on grammar and dictionaries that codify these languages are usually considered authorities that provide correct and acceptable language usage forms and structures. According to Hynninen (2013), language policies and codification play a crucial role in regulating language in the school. In general, language policy and codified language rules influence how people use language. In other words, the choice of one language or the other in a particular context may be regulated by language policy. Thus, while language policy may dictate the kind of language to be used in the classroom, the correctness notion regarding the use of the stipulated language may be influenced and guided by grammar books and dictionaries.

The participants involved in the communication event may also have their affective attitudes towards the choice of language and how they perceive language to be spoken. In Ghanaian senior high schools, students are posted from different parts of the country and this makes the composite of students in a particular school to constitute people from deferring backgrounds. Therefore, one would not be wrong in thinking that these students have different orientations to language use as well as how they conceptualize ideas. Thus, apart from what is stipulated by the language policy and grammar books and dictionaries, one student may think a particular word is more appropriate in some contexts than the other, especially words that are considered synonymous.

With regard to these instances and conditions that may trigger one interactant to regulate another's language in an interaction, language regulation as a communication phenomenon can be construed as a multidimensional phenomenon. This indicates that the approach to language regulation may manifest from an institutional perspective where the focus will be placed on language policies in education and guidelines to language use in the classroom and how the policy is applied in teaching and learning activities. The ideology and orientation of the participants in the communication event constitute another perspective from which language regulation can be explored. In all these instances, how the interactants go about their regulation processes and how institutions regulate speakers, directly or indirectly, is the concern of this study. This thesis, therefore, examines language regulation in the classroom from an interactional perspective by focusing mainly on classroom interaction between teachers and their students and among students. This is done with the aim of understanding the norms that are reproduced or constructed as alternatives to existing norms.

1.2 Statement of the problem

One important aspect of human existence is communication. Whenever there is communication, it is an attempt to solve a problem or a need for survival. Hence, speakers should be able to use the correct sounds and speak intelligibly in order to facilitate the understanding of the message and to give back the appropriate response for purposes of effective communication. Adaba (2017) posits that to get experience in English speaking, students need to interact with the teachers, themselves and with materials regularly using the target language because interaction is the heart of communication. Unfortunately, the interaction in the language classroom seems to be a problem to the teachers in the classroom almost always. The goal of the teaching

process then cannot be achieved if the teacher ignores these problems. Due to the importance of communication, speaking competence cannot be disregarded during interaction between teachers and students. In the classroom, it is expected that interlocutors use language (both linguistic and syntactic forms) the way it is expected to be used. Incorrect linguistic and syntactic forms can distort communication. This is in line with Yule's (1996) assertion that when there is inappropriate use of language, speakers can be misled. This undoubtedly leads to miscommunication. Noviyenty (2019) claims in his study that lack of speaking competence prohibits the opportunity for students to interact with teachers and peers in the classroom. The effect of this is that students may not be able to grasp the concepts they are supposed to.

However, in spite of these known significance of appropriate use of language, it is not in all cases that speakers are able to use the language appropriately as it should be. In this regard, Hedge (2000) asserts that in the practice of English language teaching and learning, lack of appropriate classroom interaction or communication is a common thing. However, the learners' appropriate use of the language, highly determines their academic success in the school or after school. In the classroom context, most teachers are only interested in getting their students understand the concept they seek to teach without giving recourse to correctness of students' language. Teachers treat the language of their students this way and forget that these students have exams to write and grammatical correctness is highly emphasized in the marking scheme of the external examination.

A study conducted by Kalocsai (2009) on Erasmus students undertaking studies in Hungary revealed that the students gave consideration to the English they were speaking along the borders of mutual intelligibility with little emphasis on correctness (mistakes that take the form of grammatical errors). In other studies,

Ehrenreich (2009) and Smit (2010) indicate that the primacy of business and study goals respectively are the focus of their study informants on language regulation. It therefore, appears that experiences of communication in contexts where English functions as lingua franca, the attitudes of participants in interaction seem not be given much attention to correctness. In spite of the abundance of evidence to show how language is regulated in the classroom, there is no known study even in Africa that reveals how language regulation is practised in the classroom. Hence, the interactional and ideological dimensions of language regulation within the classroom are the focus of this study. Meanwhile such a study is important because it exposes us to both language-regulatory practices of managing and monitoring language in interaction, and speakers' notions of acceptability and correctness in language use.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study is to understand the notion and practices of language regulation and what informs it in the context of classrooms of senior high schools in Ghana. With this objective, the study specifically aims to

1. investigate the practices of language regulation in the classroom.
2. examine the factors that informs the regulation of language in the classroom
3. determine who takes on the responsibility of language regulation in the classroom.

1.4 Research questions

In order for the objectives of the study to be achieved, the research is guided by the following questions:

1. In what form do language regulation practices in the classroom take?
2. What factors control the regulation of language in the classroom?
3. Who does the regulation in the classroom?

1.5 Significance of the study

This study's aim of revealing language regulation of practices in the classroom is crucial to teachers, especially those who handle language classes. The findings would prompt teachers of practices they partake without being conscious of. Teachers are always considered as language experts and their language is mostly considered. This study would be beneficial to teachers by bringing their attention to what they do in the classroom and how their actions in ensuring that the language of their students conforms to specific standards. This may ultimately lead to the creation of language norms that may not necessarily coincide with what exists in the macro speech community. It would also bring to the awareness of the teacher, how, though indirectly, their actions in the classroom are helping their students to use language that is acceptable and correct is motivated by several factors.

On the benefits of the study to players in the educational sector, the results inform language policy and decision makers of the need to consider, also, the bottom-up approach in their consideration of language policies and their implementations. Language represents the conceptualisation of the world, and how one speaks it is influenced by how one sees the world. Hence, though English is an imported language, speakers in a micro speech community may choose to speak it in a way that reflects their ideology and conceptualisation of their world. Understanding this would enable teachers and appreciate learners on how their language may not conform to what exists in grammar books or macro-speech community. As the first work that contextualises the creation of language norms through language regulation in the classroom, this research contributes significantly to the literature on the practice and the creation of language norms in the classroom. It would also help researchers

intending to undertake studies on classroom language in the senior high schools to obtain literature upon which they can build their research.

1.6 Delimitation of the study

This research focuses on issues relating to language regulation in the classroom of senior high schools in Ghana. The study focuses on the process of language regulation, taking into account how this practice is influenced by ideology, attitudes and codified norms. The study does not consider settings that are within the school but outside the classroom. That is, even though it is possible that language regulation could occur at the dining hall, assembly grounds and several other places within the school premises, the current study did not look at those instances. Therefore, the findings of the study do not generalise to these contexts, but the classroom only. Moreover, learners of languages have different sources from which they obtain “correct” forms or model for the target language. Some of these include radio and television programmes and magazines. However, this research considers only materials available in typical classrooms of Ghanaian senior high schools. Hence, conclusions that are made based on the study do not take into consideration these other sources. More so, there are different people in Ghana who are learning English language for various reasons. For instance, people from Francophone countries come to Ghana to undertake various English proficiency courses. However, as indicated in the research objectives, the study concerned itself with senior high school classrooms and therefore, contexts that do not fall under this category are not included for the study.

1.7 Limitations of the study

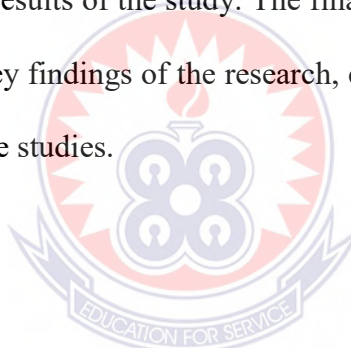
The main purpose of the study is to understand the practices of language regulation in the classrooms of senior high schools in Ghana. This also includes how

the regulation process is influenced by such factors as language policy in education, teachers' and students' notions correctness and acceptability. Although the findings of the study seek to generalize over all senior high schools in the country, the study could not obtain data from every school. Due to this, the study's external validity is, therefore, affected since it has to do with the extent to which a study's results can be generalized from samples to population (Nunan, 1992, p. 15). Nevertheless, findings of the study might prompt further in-depth research into the issues of language regulation at other domains and how it is influenced. Other relevant variables that the researcher is aware could have impact on language regulation in the classroom are the entire school environment and the general world view (status) of the senior high schools involved. However, the research considers these other variables as research components that may be considered for further research. This notwithstanding, the study adopts procedural processes that involve comprehensive analysis of the issues of language regulation in the classroom and therefore, the findings can serve as basis for further research.

Another limitation of the study consists of the instruments that were used in the collection of the data. The adoption of classroom observation implies that the researcher's presence could have influenced the verbal behaviour of the students in the classrooms. Hence, the researcher made the students aware of the process and encouraged them to behave naturally and make the classroom as natural as any other day. This made the students relaxed as they considered the researcher a visiting teacher. This helped her to minimize the probability of the students faking behaviours in the classroom.

1.8 Organization of the study

The rest of the study is organized as follows: Chapter 2 presents the review of the related literature. It brings out the discussion on language regulation, as pertains in the literature, especially in the context of English as a second language domain. The chapter also discusses how language regulation in specific domains may result in the creation of language norms. The theoretical framework (Communication Accommodation Theory) underpinning the study is also discussed in this chapter. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology which comprises the research design, population, sample and sampling technique, research instrument, validity and reliability of instrument, data collection procedure and data analysis. Chapter 4 deals with the presentation of results of the study. The final chapter, Chapter 5, presents the summary of the study, key findings of the research, conclusions based on the findings and suggestions for future studies.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

Speaking is considered one of the most crucial language skills in foreign language context. It has been agreed by most scholars in the field of second language learning that the ability to speak well has always been a colossal challenge to English as second language learners (Shabani, 2013). The expectation of learners to speak English well has made the learning to speak the language even more demanding compared to the acquisition of other language skills such as listening, reading, and writing. Since the primary purpose of learning a language is communication, the ability to communicate well in the second language has become very paramount to the learner's everyday life in the learning process. For instance, Tanveer (2007) is of the view that speaking the target language by the learner in the second language learning classroom is a critical challenge to most learners.

According to Samah (2016), the reason speaking is more demanding than other language skills is the need for speakers to have a swift access to all the relevant knowledge required to produce the appropriate language in a short time. For the other language skills, on the other hand, the learner is not required to rush in attaining mastery in them since he/she has considerable amount of time to match the input with the existing knowledge (Shabani, 2013). Moreover, previously, it has been thought that developing the ability to speak was not that urgent because it could be achieved through the time of learning writing, reading and listening skills. In other words, attaining mastery of speaking was being thought of as a by-product of the ability of the other language skills.

Contrary to the assumed effect of this assumption, researchers have realised that neglecting the development of speaking ability in second language learners contribute significantly to the undesired result of learning to speak a target language in the context of second language learning. This, they would do with speaking anxiety being recognized as one of the problems that ESL learners face in their language learning classes (Humphries, 2011; MacIntyre, 1999; Samah, 2016; Shabani, 2013). The effect of students' inability to speak in class due to anxiety is that it prevents them from expressing their own views and underestimates their abilities. According to Abdullah and Abdul-Rahman (2010), even university students have been found to have challenges in speaking the second language. Therefore, investigating how language is regulated in the classrooms of Senior High Schools in Ghana and how this affects English language performance of students in Ghanaian is in place.

The rest of the chapter is organised as follows: The first section presents Ghana's language policy in education. This is followed with a discussion on the literature on language use in the second section. The third section discusses language norms and formation of living norms. Section four presents a discussion of the Communication Accommodation Theory, the framework that underpins the study. The next section gives an operational definition to Language regulation, where discussions on language regulation practices are considered; section six presents literature on the importance of language regulation. This is followed by other related studies in section seven. The eighth and final section concludes the discussions in the chapter.

2.1 Ghana's language policy in education

The language used as a medium of instruction in classrooms of multilingual nations has been an issue of concern for educators and key players in the educational

sector, not only in Ghana, but among several other African countries. According to Ouadraogo (2000, p. 89) “education and language issues are very complex in Africa because of the multi-ethnic, multi-lingual situation”. As observed by Owu-Ewie (2006), the lack of consensus among the players in the educational sector on issues regarding language of instruction, especially in the basic levels of education, is more severe in countries in which none of the indigenous languages is assigned the role of a national language or official language. In the Ghanaian context, hardly would one identify a community where only one language is spoken; such a community would have to be at a village setting. Thus, the presence of about 44 indigenous languages and sizeable number of cross border languages in the country makes Ghana a multilingual society (Opoku-Amankwa 2009). After gaining independence from the British, in 1957, nine of the 44 Ghanaian languages have been approved, officially by the state as languages of education. These nine languages include Akan (Akuapem Twi, Asante Twi, and Fante), Dagbani, Dangme, Dagaare-Wali, Ewe Ga, Gonja, Kasem, and Nzema (Opoku-Amankwa 2009). As explained by Hall (1983), these languages were adopted as media of instruction because the people who speak them are more, compared to the other native languages are, however, not the media of instruction; The status of the nine approved indigenous languages in education has varied according to the policy on the use of mother tongue in education of successive governments since independence.

Opoku-Amankwa (2009) observes that “the language-in-education policy in the country from 1971 up until 2002, was that the main Ghanaian languages provided for in the curricula of basic schools should be used as the medium of instruction in the first three years of the primary course and, where possible, in the next three years as well” (p. 122). These Ghanaian languages are to be taught as subjects at upper

primary or higher classes where English functions as the sole medium of teaching. The main weakness of the policy was that very little had been done to ensure its full implementation. In 2002, the policy was changed by the government and English became the language of instruction for pupils at levels in all basic schools in Ghana. The policy implemented in 2002 required pupils in both public and private to study any of the nine main Ghanaian languages as a subject from primary one to junior secondary school (JSS), now junior high school level three. The main explanation for the adoption of this policy was the fact that classrooms in urban centres were made up of pupils who do not necessarily speak the local languages which were being used as the medium of instruction.

The importance of language in the functioning of societies is captured in the axiom that any man who can think and does not know how to express what he thinks is at the level of him who cannot think. Language is very crucial in every aspect of the society. It becomes, therefore, very essential that at the early formative years of children, adequate policies are formulated to enhance the development of language among these children. It must be noted that, as the above adage connotes, children think, and need to express or communicate their thought to people around them. However, without language children cannot do this; therefore, the ability of educators to measure the progress of a child's cognitive and emotional development in order to provide the requisite assistance will become very difficult.

According to Owu-Ewie (2006), the controversy about the language to be used as the medium of instruction in Ghanaian schools, especially at the lower primary level dates back to the castle schools and missionary era. It not surprising that Ghana has experienced a back and forth shift in terms of language in education policy. Bamgbose (2000) explains that with the inception of formal education and the

subsequent use of English as the medium of instruction, the indigenous languages were seen as inadequate teaching media. With the policy of 2002 stating that English should be used as the sole medium of instruction from Primary 1, with a Ghanaian language studied as a compulsory subject to the Senior Secondary School, Owu-Ewie (2006, p. 77) argues that something must be done about the situation as the policy does not favour the development of the indigenous languages and describes the policy as “saddening and baffling”.

The reasons cited for the adoption of English-Only policy are the abuse of the local languages in the classroom, lack of materials written in the local languages, and the inability of students to speak and write English very well. Others are the difficulty educators face in selecting an indigenous language in highly multilingual urban centres is not problems that cannot be solved (The Statesman, Thursday July 16, 2002). Owu-Ewie (2006) explains, therefore, that terminating the policy of using a Ghanaian language as the medium of instruction is an unscientific way of ameliorating the problems of the old policy. Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) argues that denying the Ghanaian child the use of his/her native language in education is committing the crime of ‘linguistic genocide’ in education. Advancing argumentation for his proposal of the adoption of Late-Exit Transitional Bilingual Education, which allows for about 40% use of the mother tongue in teaching until the sixth year (Grade 6) of schooling, Owu-Ewie (2006) posits that such a policy will bridge the gap between the home and the school, make learners literate in both languages, give learners the needed exposure in the L1 to make them balanced bilinguals and make learners appreciate their culture and understand.

Again, Owu-Ewie (2006) from the argument advanced, posits the reinforcement of Ghanaian language use in school as the medium of instruction, and in doing this he

recommended the adoption and implementing the late-exit transitional bilingual education. He went on to propose the training of highly motivated teachers, providing effective supervision, educational materials, parental and community involvement in education, and formulating sound language and educational policies to ensure comprehensive language education in Ghana. The argument of the Owu-Ewie (2006) and several others, such as Opoku-Amankwa, (2009) and Brew-Hammond and Opoku-Amankwa (2012) for the government to review the new policy was not unfounded, as their perspective matches the language orientation and ideology of experts in the field of education. For instance UNESCO (1953) affirms that the use of L1 in education is psychologically, sociologically, and educationally beneficial to learners and that every effort should be made to provide education in the L1. Hence, as Baker (2001) argues, government cannot be too narrow in perspective by considering only socioeconomic factors, which see language as a means (instrumentarian ideology of language) in making decisions concerning language use in the classroom. Thus, as Saville-Troike (1988) argues, learners can transfer from the native language to the target language and other academic subjects when there is a pre-existing knowledge base for making inferences and predictions.

This review, however, suggests that the perspectives of teachers who handle these children and students at the higher levels should be taken into consideration when making language in education decisions. For instance, Owu-Ewie could have experimented the new policy to see its effectiveness before making arguments in its favour. It could have worked in some other places, but not in Ghana, due to the cultural specificities. Thus, teachers and language-in-education planners need to be considered and a research of a more qualitative nature to further explore these issues must be done. The awareness of language policy by the citizenry is generally ignored.

This has created gaps in integrating language of instruction and language teaching as aligned components of education. Brew-Hammond and Opoku-Amankwa (2012, p. 117), therefore, suggest that “in the current global village however, while there are strong educational arguments in favour of mother tongue (or familiar language) instruction, a careful balance also needs to be made between enabling people to use local languages in learning and providing access to global languages of communication through education”.

Klu and Ansre (2018, p. 596) highlight the undulating language-in-education policy from 1925-2007. The authors observe that Ghana, like most African countries, continues to grapple with the choice language that will function as the medium of instruction in basic schools. The authors pointed out that in spite of the “advantage of between 60-80 indigenous Ghanaian languages and dialects, the language-in-education policy is inconclusive of which language to use as medium of instruction in lower primary classrooms”. The study reveals that the undulating nature of the language-in-education policy has been compounded by problems including “low levels of teacher professionalism, inappropriate use of classroom curricula, lack of adequate classroom facilities and inadequate trained teachers to teach in mother-tongue”. Klu and Ansre further indicate that finding solutions to the language policy problems should not derail the policy makers’ attention from addressing challenges that emanate from certain factors that inhibit learning. These are unsatisfactory teacher capacity, inadequate teaching and learning materials on the Ghanaian languages, and parents’ and pupils’ views on the learning of the Ghanaian languages. They further note that these are equally crucial for a successful implementation of the language-in-education policy in the country. Klu and Ansre (2018) posit therefore that if these issues are properly addressed, the gap between ‘theory’ and ‘practice’ will be

resolved at the implementation stage of language of education policy. The study concludes that for language in education policy in Ghana to be effective, a holistic approach needs to be adopted to ensure a solid foundation for pupil's literacy skills acquisition in their early years of schooling.

2.2 Language use

Language is an inseparable part of human society. Human civilization has been possible only through language (Naeem, 2010). Language is not something that anybody is born with like crying and walking. It is not an automatic process; hence, it has to be learnt. Language therefore is learnt only through imitation and practice. Language is an integral part of human communication, without which we cannot express most of our thoughts, ideas and experiences. Mahadi and Jafari 2012 claim that language is the most commonplace of all human possessions, is possibly the most complex and the most interesting. In line with Holler et al (2017), the home of human language use is face-to-face interaction, a context in which communicative exchanges are characterised not only by bodily signals accompanying what is being said but also by a pattern of alternating turns at talk. Saussure (1974) sees language as a system of signs. For him, a sign consists of a signifier (the sound- image or the written shape) and a signified (a concept), in the manner that, they both are inseparably linked with each other. According to Emmitt and Pollock (1997), language is a system of arbitrary signs which is accepted by a group and society of users. It is said to be arbitrary because there is no one-to-one correspondence between letters, symbols and words and what they stand for in communication. One important aspect of language is its shared meaning among the people who use it. Chase (1969) therefore concludes that the purpose of language use is to communicate with others, to think, and to shape one's standpoint and outlook on life. A grammar in Finegan's (2003) view is a coin

whose two sides are expression and meaning and whose task is to systematically link the two. However, he sees language as having a third face, so important in producing and interpreting utterances that can override all else. To him, that third face is context. In this regard, a speaker's intended meaning of an expression can be conveyed and be interpreted correctly by a hearer only in a particular context. Context, according to Leech (1983, p. 13), has a great influence and also effect in understanding the meaning of an utterance. Through the context, the interactants share their background in understanding the utterances. To confirm this, Levinson (1983, p. 31) claims that to understand a speaker's message, the hearer should be able to guess the intended meaning because sometimes the speaker delivers more information than what she or he really says. In relation to this, (Yule, 1996) also concludes that sometimes a true fact can be said in a misleading way by the speaker. These facts can include specific words and those words may carry additional conveyed meaning when they are used (p. 45).

Language speakers often form different perceptions about certain languages. These perceptions or language ideologies maybe either positive or negative. Language ideology has been defined as a set of beliefs about language and its use in society (Kroskrity, 2004; Lippi-Green, 2004). Particularly, there are numerous ideologies people have about language, and these ideologies shape and inform them about their notion of language. This includes how language should be learnt, the conditions that will enhance its acquisition and learning, and the roles languages should play in the society. Others are the importance or prestige that is assigned to languages, the level of value that is placed on the proficiency in a language and whether a particular language is worth learning. Scholars (eg. Ricento, 2006; Wiley, 2004) have argued that even though it is the actual case that language policies in countries have been

shaped by the ideologies of policy makers, they need not be the determining factors of language policies. It must be noted, as shown by studies, including Blackledge (2003), Griswold (2011), and Kroskrity (2004), that language ideologies are often tacit and intuitive, yet pervasive in every aspect of social life. According to Lippi-Green (2004), language ideologies are also behavioural because they become evidence and are reflected in the teaching and or language behaviour, of those who hold them. It is therefore expected and the evidence of language ideologies in social institutions including English as L2 learning classrooms is not quite a shock.

As this study intends to examine the regulation of English language in the classroom, the researcher will also want to unravel the ideologies that language teachers have about language and how that has shaped their orientation, decision, and actions on error correction, in particular and regulation of their students language in general. This assumption is that whatever action and decision these English teachers will take in the English language classrooms will be informed by their ideology. We envisage, that a teachers who holds the ideology of behaviourism, where we see language as a social behaviour, will not condone errors in the English language classroom and will therefore correct these errors, by which we will be regulating the learners' language. On the other hand, a teacher who holds the ideology that errors are necessary because they reveal unto us the level the learner has reached and provide us, language researchers, with the data for error analysis in L2 language learning process, will even create more opportunities for the learner to be creative by allowing him to commit errors.

2.3 Language norms

Language regulation is about conforming to a particular norm of language use and this norm, as explained above, is determined by three different perspectives:

institutional, ideological and interactional. It must be hinted that this norm of language use or how the target language must be used could be social or grammatical. Thus, as Hynninen (2013) observes, “the norms of language – representations of acceptable linguistic conduct – are deontic norms and whenever speakers are made to regulate their language, whether by themselves or someone else, the focus is placed on living norms. The norm, of which one may regulate language to suit, may represent alternatives that the linguistic system of a language may allow. Thus, the norm, according to Bartsch (1982, p. 52), cited Hynninen (2013), represents “a restriction on the possible patterns and structures that are compatible with a language system”. However, Havránek (1964) cited in Hynninen (2013), presents a shift in perspective of what the norm represents by explaining that all linguistic communities have their own linguistic norms, whether codified or not. Therefore, the norm may not necessarily be the codified standard of a language but a convention within a subgroup of language speakers.

The concept of norm, in this regard, is construed as a phenomenon that pertains to a dialect, a sociolect or an idiolect. Piippo (2012), on the notion of norm, intimates that some norms are relevant to linguistic communities while others may be crucial to standard language. This conceptualisation of linguistic norm does not refute the idea that norms vary in scope and diverse norms may exist within a particular speech community. Hynninen (2013) maintains, therefore that language regulation is the discursive practice through which norms are reproduced and through which alternative ones emerge. According to her, language speakers adopt language-regulatory mechanisms “to negotiate acceptable and correct linguistic conduct”. This implies that interactants in a speech event may condition their own utterances and other interlocutors’ utterances throughout the communication process. However,

when a speaker wishes to regulate his language or other people's language, then that suggests that there is a form of the target language the regulator assumes to be standard and therefore wishes to modify his speech or other people's speech to conform. This brings about the issues of acceptability and correctness as advanced by Bartsch (1987) cited in Hynninen (2013).

Bamgbose (1998) defines a language norm as a standard language form or practice that serves as a reference point for other language forms or practices. He distinguishes between code norm, feature norm and behavioural norm. Bamgbose's (1987, p. 105) definition of his three types of norms is provided in the quote below:

(i) Code norm: A standard variety of a language or a language selected from a group of languages and allocated for official or national purposes.

(ii) Feature norm: Any typical property of spoken or written language at whatever level (e.g. phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, orthographic, etc.) and the rules that go with its production or use.

(iii) Behavioural norm: The set of conventions that go with speaking including expected patterns of behaviour while interacting with others, the mode of interpreting what is said, and attitudes in general to others' manner of speaking.

(Bamgbose 1987, p. 105)

This study focuses more on the feature norm and behavioural norms. This is because, the classroom setting from which the study looks at language regulation, relegates the function of standard variety of language to the implicit level where teachers and language students do not even think about in the cause of teaching and learning. However, feature norm and behavioural norm are very active in the classroom setting and serve as the template of effecting regulation.

Piippo (2012), on the concept of norm argues that norms are empirical phenomena, and recognises codified norms as overt standards for which language must conform to. She therefore defines language norms as “concepts of appropriate, expected and meaningful conduct” (Piippo, p. 27). She explains that these language norms symbolise what speakers know about a certain linguistic element’s social range as well as its social domain. This includes knowledge about whom and in what type of situations the linguistic sign could be appropriately and meaningfully used (Piippo 2012, p. 233). From the argument of Piippo (2012), it is observable that her notion of norms is based on the appropriateness of an utterance or expression that is determined by a specific situation. Piippo (2012) therefore refutes the idea that norms must rely on the notion of correctness.

2.3.1 Normative beliefs versus behaviour

Scholars have identified norms with observable, recurrent patterns of behaviours while others see them as the beliefs and expectations of some kind of behaviour that has been prescribed by people in a given context of the society (Bicchieri & Muldoon, 2011). In explaining behaviour, it becomes problematic when norms are equated to behaviour, because studies in social science have demonstrated that our normative beliefs do not always reflect in our behaviour (Bicchieri, 2006; Bicchieri & Xiao, 2009). The approach which establishes that conforming behaviour is rationally chosen to prevent sanctions associated with norm-breaching is also problematic because not every norm involves sanctions. Studies have shown that there exist discrepancies between the correctness notions and the actual forms speakers use (Schmidt & McCreary, 1977). This shows that speakers’ normative beliefs do not necessarily cause them to behave in accordance to their beliefs. Due to this, Hynninen (2013) posits that in dealing with language, researchers must be conscious of the fact

that linguistic behaviour does not necessarily conform to speakers' normative beliefs about language. Therefore, in analysing language behaviour phenomenon, an approach that explores behaviour independently from beliefs, needs to be adopted (cf. Piippo, 2012). From this, Hynninen (2013) argues that:

What becomes important when dealing with language norms is not only to separate linguistic behaviour from speakers' (normative) beliefs about language, but also to distinguish between speakers' beliefs about language and their expectations of language use in specific contexts, because speakers' linguistic behaviour is more likely to be guided by their expectations than by their beliefs

(p. 20)

2.3.2 Common versus behaviour

A distinction has also been made between the notions of common and normative. According to Anderson (2009), norms may be declarative or deontic. He defines declarative norm as what is common, with sub-divisions of descriptive and experimental norms. For descriptive norms, it has been regarded as a common linguistic behaviour in a speech community. With descriptive norms again, the system of language is perceived to restrict patterns and structures of normal speech. Thus, the restrictive patterns and structures become norms. Experiential norms on the other hand, refer to what speakers assume to be common, whether it has been statistically proven or not. According to Hynninen (2013), unlike declarative norm that needs a quantitative study to establish it, experiential norm could be ascertained through speakers responding to questionnaire about their impression of the frequency of a form or structure in the language. Thus, descriptive norm informs us about the actual usage and experiential norms about speakers' beliefs about the usage. Following Milroy (1992, p. 91), the observable frequency patterns can be construed as language

change; and therefore, declarative norms become relevant in suggesting the direction of the change concerning the level of the change and how the people actually perceive these changes.

In spite of these roles played by the declarative norm, it does not translate into what is acceptable. Hence, Hynninen (2013) suggests that the need for deontic norms, which according to Anderson (2009), involves what is acceptable in the sense of what one is permitted or disallowed to practise in certain circumstances, as well as the obligations and prohibitions to practise or do something. Anderson (2009) identifies prescriptive and living norms as types of deontic norms. Seeing prescriptive norms as correct based on the established standard, he points out that they are codified norms. In Ghana, Standard British English becomes the prescriptive norm irrespective of who would be using it and where it would be used. Therefore, Hynninen (2013) maintains that prescriptive deontic norm becomes crucial in the classroom and should be expected to constitute part of the speakers' normative beliefs about language. Living norms on the other hand, as perceived by Anderson, are appropriate norms that are constructed and reconstructed by a speech community, and they become relevant in such a community, even though they may not be necessarily codified. Andersen (2009) explains that living norms are formed and shaped through an implicit metadialogue in communities, where what the speakers expect regarding appropriate language behaviour are constantly depicted in their actual behaviour of others. This implies that living norms need not correspond to prescriptive norms, "even if prescriptive norms may become living norms when accepted as such in a community" (Hynninen, 2013, p. 21).

Offering support to Piippo's (2012) dialogue approach to norms, where he considers norms to emerge and be maintained out of social interaction, norms,

whether living or codified, need to be understood as being constructed, maintained and shaped in interaction. Living norms eventually emerge due to negotiations of acceptability that occurs implicitly or directly during interactions; whereas prescriptive norms are formed as the consequences of linguistic descriptions and codification. The crucial point about codified norms is that they are not always considered as important at the onset, yet they are maintained and accepted in interaction. Piippo (2012, p. 225) emphasises this by asserting that “varyingly binding prescriptions and guidelines [of linguistic conduct] become bona fide norms at the point when language users recognize them as expectations directed at their own linguistic behaviour or that of the others”. With the assertion that prescriptive or codified norms, at the onset, are seen as relevant, this study seeks to ascertain the extent to which participants in this study (students and teachers) draw on these codified norms while constructing their living norms. In other words, the researcher anticipates some level of influence by prescriptive norms on the construction of living norms in the classroom, and as the study explores deontic norms, it be important for us to understand how this influence occurs.

2.3.3 Formation of living norms

Codified or prescriptive norms play a very crucial role language regulation, by enabling speakers to distinguish between correct and incorrect language use. However, in spite of speakers’ awareness of the correct forms of language, actual speech, especially in verbal interactions, indicates that speakers persistently use language in a way that does not conform to the standard form. This implies that language norms are constructed within speech communities where there is existence of language deviations that are consistent with standard language (Hynninen, 2013). As Milroy (1992) argues, communal norms (living norms) are constructed when

speakers in a community agree to certain usage. Studying linguistic variables, he concluded that these linguistic variables distinguish one dialect from another in the same speech community, and therefore, there are variable norms in communities.

The findings of Leppänen and Piirainen-Marsh (2009), who studied collaborative game-playing and fan fiction writing in a multilingual media context, suggests that gamers and fans recycle and exploit resources offered by the games, and negotiations of norms relevant to them and their activities take place. As these norms are created, sanctions are given to those members who do not conform to these norms. Leppänen and Piirainen-Marsh's (2009) study was concerned with implicit practices of norm development by exploring the ways by which gamers and fans repeat, imitate and parody game characters' speech styles. The findings of the study showed that in the case of fan fiction, in particular, the repetition, recycling and modification of language by the gamers form a linguistic norm and pattern that are shaped and shared by normative framework established and maintained by the fan fiction writers themselves. It has been argued by the researchers that as the "writers play with the language forms and patterns, the way they do it is discussed by the fans and this establishes them as living norms of the community (Leppänen & Piirainen-Marsh, 2009, p. 278).

A study conducted by Agha (2003) took a retrospective view of the processes that lead to the consideration of the legitimacy to a particular language form. The finding shows that the assignment of the descriptor, 'legitimate', to a language form does not suggest that it is automatically used; however, it implies that such a form serves as a yardstick for correct and acceptable usage in several contexts. According to Piippo (2012, p. 208), "codification and the ensuing promotion of the standards [of language use] through, for instance, dictionaries and educational institutions are what

set it apart from (uncodified) living norms that arise and are regulated within communities of practice.” The living norms that are created affect a specific dialect rather than a macro speech community that uses the language. Moreover, these norms are built within the micro community where the dialect within which they are created is spoken. Therefore, living norms are not controlled by occurrences such as language reformation inside the macro community or outside the community. As a result, what members of the micro speech community deem legitimate may thus differ from the standard language. This has incited scholars (e.g. Blommaert et al, 2009; Piippo, 2012) to posit that studies should analyse emerging practices that produce legitimate usage in particular sociolinguistic contexts.

This way of studying emerging practices in speech communities has informed this study, which seeks to discover the ways students and teachers regulate language, create living norms based on their beliefs about language expectations of language use in their interactions in the classroom. Furthermore, speakers during norm formation, vary their language use for correctness and acceptability in relation to the identity and relationship they have with their interlocutors. In all these, Accommodation plays an exceptionally significant role. In a study conducted by Garrod and Doherty (1994), interactants were found to establish new practices by accommodating to specific linguistic items, which means that accommodation not only reconstructs norm perceptions but can potentially construct new ones. According Cogo and Dewy (2012), accommodation appears to underpin a good deal of variation in lexicogrammatical systems of English as enacted in lingua franca talk, hence, the need to shift attention to the Communicative Accommodation Theory.

2.4 Communication Accommodation Theory

Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) was propounded to offer explanation to how and why speakers or interlocutors reduce and magnify communicative differences among themselves. It also aims at explaining the social effects of accommodation in communication. According to Giles and Coupland (1991) and Shepard et al (2000), Accommodation Theory provides a framework for analysing and interpreting the linguistic adaptations speakers make in relation to their interlocutors' speech patterns. Communication accommodation theory therefore suggests that individuals use communication, in part, in order to indicate their attitudes toward each other and, as such, is a barometer of the level of social distance between them. This constant movement towards and away from others, by changing one's communicative behaviour, is called accommodation" (Giles & Ogay, 2007, p. 259). The main accommodative strategies people employ during interaction include converging toward or diverging away from another or other people involved in the same communicative event. In accommodating a communicative event, either by divergence or convergence, different verbal and nonverbal mechanisms are employed. This mechanisms may be linguistic, such as syntactic and word choice or modifying one's speech rate, pitch, gestures and accent, or non-linguistic, in the form of compromising or enforcing cultural norms of regulating language use in a particular speech community. Expectedly, people involved in a communicative event may converge towards those whom they like, respect or have power over.

On the other hand, speakers will not accommodate by diverging when they are psychologically disposed, favourably, to an interlocutor in a communicative event. In short, as Cogo and Dewy (2012) posit, the theory assumes that speakers will converge towards the language of their interlocutors as a consequence of seeking social

approval, or will diverge away from them as part of a process of signalling a distinct identity, affiliation or approval. Thus, whether speakers will accommodate or not depends on their personal identities and or the social identities of those involved in the interaction. This shows that personal or social identities play a crucial role in communication accommodation. Indeed, it is possible to converge on some communicative features while, simultaneously, diverging on others. It has also been noted by Giles and Powesland (1997) that a desire to be understood also plays a substantial role in accommodative behaviour. Other accommodative moves include attuning to others' conversational needs and knowledge, under- and over-accommodating. The assumption of CAT is that, usually, people will accommodate to where they believe others to be. Accommodative processes are necessary to unpacking the dynamics of intercultural competence and dialogue. The Communication Accommodation Theory does so with due attention to the perceived histories and group structures in which intercultural dialogue is embedded and emphasizes that being the recipient of non-accommodativeness might not have anything to do with individuals, but rather a statement about group membership.

The Communication Accommodation Theory explains a wide range of accommodative behaviours (Soliz & Giles, 2012). It has received some appreciable level research because it is a comprehensive and scientifically versatile theory in communication (Cogo & Dewey, 2012). Convergence has been the most extensively studied – and can be considered the historical core of CAT (Giles, 1973). It is due to this that Jenkins (2000) identified convergence as the key element in the process of achieving mutual intelligibility, and assigned it a crucial role in the Lingua Franca Core for phonology. Jenkins observed that speakers can ensure greater intelligibility if they converge and modify their pronunciation in their interlocutors' direction with

regards to the core features (Jenkins, 2000). Another study by Kaur (2009) indicated that speakers in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) are often listener-oriented. In her study, participants proved skilful at using repetition and paraphrasing in the process of high level of understanding. Similarly, Cogo (2009) also found that accommodation is one of the key pragmatic strategies in accomplishing communicative success in a Lingua Franca setting.

According to Giles and Powesland (1975), there is another important conceptual distinction worth mentioning. This has to do with whether the convergence or divergence is “upward” or “downward” in terms of its societal role. Upward convergence would be illustrated by an interviewee’s adoption of the prestige patterns of an upper class interviewer. ‘Upward divergence would be indicated by the adoption of a swifter speech rate and more cultured accent with someone nonstandard-sounding, whereas downward divergence could be seen in the emphasis of one’s low-prestige minority heritage’ (Giles & Ogay, 2007, p. 295). The Communication Accommodation Theory was developed from the Speech Accommodation Theory (SAT) advanced by Giles in 1973. Speech Accommodation Theory was a theory of social psychology and aimed at investigating accommodation propensities in interpersonal communication. However, by the late 1980s, the primary focus of SAT got broadened to cover a diverse array of communicative behaviours. This resulted in the change of name from SAT to CAT. The change also marked a transition from social psychology theory to a communication theory (Griffin, 2012, pp. 394-401). According to Soliz and Giles (2012), CAT today explores communication accommodation in a wide array of organizational and other various contexts.

Communication Accommodation Theory is a theory in speech communication and it encompasses a wide range of communicative behaviours (Soliz & Giles, 2012,

p. 5). Owing to this, the theory will enable the researcher to analyse the data from the perspective of both speech communication and intercultural communication. As noted in the discussion, CAT looks at communication on both interpersonal and intergroup level, and explains modification or regulation in communication. It will allow the researcher to consider the relational, cognitive, and communicative outcomes of accommodative behaviours in the process of language regulation. The holistic nature of the theory for both pragmatic and literal accommodation makes it ideal for analysing language regulation in the classroom (Griffin, 2012; Soliz & Giles, 2012).

Though most of the researches that employ CAT have focused on face-to-face interactions (Griffin, 2012, p. 405), some studies including Riordan et al (2012) have employed the theory to a number of other contexts including computer-mediated communication. This shows that the adoption of CAT as the framework with which the researcher will analyse the data is not out of order. Since the theory has been used in diverse cultural contexts and has been proven beneficial in intergroup communication situations (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2008; Knobloch 2008), the researcher is of the firm belief that it will be adequate in analysing the data for language regulation in the classroom.

2.5 Defining language regulation

With particular attention given to living norms in the classroom as they are construed as representations of acceptable linguistic or language usage conduct, the study explores deontic norms. Therefore, following Hynninen (2013, p. 23), language regulation is defined in this study as “the discursive practice through which norms are reproduced and through which alternative ones emerge”. Accepting the suggestion that speakers’ linguistic behaviour needs to be distinguished from their expectations and beliefs, two-dimensional approach to language regulation has been adopted in this

study. With the first dimension, language regulatory mechanisms used are considered as being used for monitoring and managing language when conversing with people within the same speech community. The concept is also employed to describe the ways participants construct normative beliefs about language and their expectations of how language should be used in their speech community. Thus, language-regulatory mechanism forms the interactional dimension of language regulation, whereas the construction of expectations and beliefs forms the ideological dimension.

Concerning language regulatory mechanisms, the study focuses on managing and monitoring of one's own language, as well as that of others. This is because these language regulatory mechanisms are used by speakers to negotiate acceptable and correct linguistic behaviours. Although a distinction between acceptability and correctness is made, they are both negotiated in interactions. Hynninen (2013) observes therefore that a speaker may negotiate correct usage in interaction, and use it as a basis for challenging or accepting prescriptive norms. Though normative beliefs and expectations of language use have been treated as separate concepts in the discussion of the literature, they are considered parts of the language ideologies of speakers. Therefore, the definition of language ideology by Seargeant (2009, p. 346) as "entrenched beliefs about the nature, function and symbolic value of language" covers both of them, as they "constitute (communally) shared, although at times debated, notions of language that are rooted in their historical contexts, [but] are always locally produced and individually experienced" (Pietikäinen, 2012, p. 441).

2.5.1 Types of language regulation

During the interaction processes in the classroom, the interactants negotiate for acceptability and correctness of language. This regulation can be explicit where boundaries are drawn between what should be considered correct or acceptable and

what falls outside the level of acceptability or considered incorrect. It must be noted that explicitly judging an interactant's language in the form of correcting his or her own or other participant's language brings to bare the participant's notion of language and his or her own judgement of what falls beyond the scope of acceptability. According to Hynninen (2013, pp. 86-87), the surest means by which a participant in an interaction may draw boundaries between unacceptable and acceptable language is to correct the language of other interactants in the communicative event. A participant's correction of the language of another, in the same conversation, indicates explicitly that the participants are negotiating the boundaries of acceptability of language and portrays how the interactant evaluates the language of his co-interactants. Hynninen explains that this kind of situation differs from re-phrasing processes that may be adopted by an interactant to monitor and modify his or her own language. In this way, language correction may be considered as an instance in a conversation whereby an interlocutor modifies or changes a linguistic detail in the previous speaker's turn.

In communication accommodation, a situation like this is subsumed in the category of other-repair, where in the course of an interaction, participants temporarily pause in order to solve some communicational 'trouble'. For instance, in interaction where one of the interlocutors identifies a linguistic problem, he may repeat the same utterance made by the previous speaker, by providing the correct form or linguistic item. It must be noted that it is not always that the correction is accepted. This normally results in a momentary argument between the interlocutors in order to settle on the correct form or structure (Brouwer et al, 2004). This kind of correction has been considered 'linguistic repair' by Hynninen (2013), who describes it as the instances where an interlocutor produces an alternative version of what a speaker has

said. Language correction could be self-initiated; where the speaker attempts to correct his own language. The linguistic items corrected in an interlocutor's utterance could fall in the domain of pronunciation, grammar and lexis, with lexical correction constituting the majority (Smit, 2010).

There are instances of the regulation practices whereby the process is not covert (implicit). That is, instead of outright corrections, speakers may embed the repair in their turns. This means that individual items in the previous speakers turn are modified without taking them up for discussion (Hynninen, 2013). Repetition in language regulation is considered an indication of acceptance of the repeated items and the process has been found to be typical in interactions involving non-native speakers, as a way of ensuring mutual understanding and cooperation (e.g. Cogo, 2009; Cogo & Dewey, 2006). According to Hynninen (2013) "if the repetition is another-initiation of repair, in contrast to pointing towards acceptance, the initiator of the repair may be questioning the linguistic form of the expression, and reject the repeated item" (p.120). Studies that have examined classroom language (eg. Seedhouse, 2004; van Lier, 1988) have shown this to be typical of language classroom interaction, where teachers, along with using other types of other-initiations focusing on language, have been found to repeat 'incorrect' items in order to prompt the pupils to self-repair their 'errors'.

However, Smit (2010, p. 222) argues that in English as a lingua Franca contexts, initiations are not used to indicate genuine communication trouble created by the use of erroneous linguistic items. Hynninen (2013) suggests, therefore, that in order to find out the scope of acceptability and boundaries between acceptable and unacceptable language, we have to focus on linguistic items that are modified rather

than a mere repetition of the item, since the repetition could indicate acceptability and not necessarily prompting the speakers to the error committed.

2.5.2 Factors that trigger language regulation

In the communication process, interactants assume the responsibility of making classroom language conform to the Standard English, they indirectly establish the boundary between acceptability or correctness and unacceptability. This section therefore seeks to review related studies on factors that trigger the regulation of a language.

2.5.2.1 Lack of mutual understanding

Hynninen's (2013, p. 118) assertion that "language correcting and commenting show that language regulation was done in order to achieve mutual understanding, but also to define boundaries between unacceptable and acceptable (or correct) language". Commenting on the organization of repair in the classroom, Seedhouse (2004, p.153), points that "the focus of repair in meaning-and-fluency context is on establishing mutual understanding and meaning negotiation. Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2003) also observe that, as the interactants considering themselves as L2 learners, undertake the regulation activity of another's speech in the same conversation, they engage in an activity through which they work together linguistically to repair or resolve impasses of communication and set a common ground by which members of the conversation come to an understanding of each other's message meaning. Smit (2010) posits that a conversational partner's regulation in another's speech in English as a Lingua Franca contexts is not used to correct linguistic 'errors' alone as observed by research on interactions in the classroom, but they are used to indicate genuine communication trouble.

2.5.2.2 *When there is violation of language rules (non-conformity)*

In general, overt correction is undertaken only when there is an error which impedes communication. Pawlack (2013, p. 135) however emphasizes that such corrections should by no means be restricted to situations in which the violation of rules of usage or use triggers a communication breakdown but rather, that on many occasions it can constitute a valuable instructional option in its own right. This therefore confirms that language correction or regulation takes place in situations where there is a violation of language rules and its usage. In instances where the language does not conform to the standard, it is regulated. From the study of Mazeland and Zaman-Zadeh (2004) on other-initiated word-clarification repair in lingua franca interactions, they concluded that almost all cases of other-initiated repair occurred after an initial attempt at hearing repair had been unsuccessful. To this effect, Lyster and Ranta (1997) in their study concluded that if the repetition is another-initiation of repair, in contrast to pointing towards acceptance, the initiator of the repair may be questioning the linguistic form of the expression, and rejecting the repeated item.

2.5.2 *Duty demands it*

McHoul (1990), in his investigation of teacher-initiated repair in monolingual English high-school geography lessons, observed that other-initiated self-repair has pedagogical implications as teachers adopt the approach to guide their students to undertake the repair of language problem in a gradual manner. The activity of language repair, according to the findings of Jung (1999), who intimated after examining the repair strategies, is also to serve as a teaching and learning tool that enhances effective communication, and efficient teaching and learning of both students and teachers. According to Doughty (2003) and Long (2007), recasting as a

form of implicit regulation is very effective in facilitating L2 learning. To them, this will help keep the learner in focus and help him or her to identify the error personally, through the teacher's correction. The teacher's duty is to correct the language of his student which in turn facilitates effective learning.

2.5.3 *Who does the regulation?*

This section reviews literature on the responsibility for language regulation. It has been observed from the study of Smit (2010) that in situations whereby the interactants do not see themselves as language experts, a teacher or another person considered more knowledgeable in the language is consulted for appropriate form. This means that anyone who regulates a language takes on expert roles. These roles of expertise are discussed in the submissions that follow.

2.5.3.1 *The teacher*

A study conducted by Seedhouse (2004) and van Lier (1988) have shown this to be typical of language classroom interaction, where teachers, along with using other types of other-initiations focusing on language, have been found to repeat 'incorrect' items in order to prompt the pupils to self-repair their 'errors'. Studies including Friedman (2010), Moore (2006) and Griswold (2011, p. 412) have also proven that "through selective error correction, teachers express their own cultural biases and specific language ideologies". It has been observed from the study of Hynninen (2013) and Smit (2010) that in a situation where the interactants do not see themselves as language experts, a teacher or other persons considered more knowledgeable in the language is consulted for appropriate form. Webb et al (2013) concludes that complex collaborative activities between teachers and learners must be encouraged to enhance learners' monitoring of their own understanding and language performance in the classroom.

2.5.3.2 *Native speaker*

According to Hynninen (2013), standard language is the variety of language that is generally seen as the yardstick to which all other varieties or usage is expected to conform. The standard variety, in this regard, becomes a label for the language variety that functions as a reference point for acceptability and correctness in language. Kurhila (2003) explains that in L1–L2 interaction, the native speaker (NS) is the language authority and that L2 speakers seem to try to conform to the NS and his or her norms. Hence, he is sometimes invited to the negotiation process to provide the evaluation and the correct form.

In this regard, Knapp (2002) claims that non-native speakers of English, in the context of English as a second language settings, reject the idea of ‘anything goes’ and always crave to draw the boundary between acceptability or correctness and unacceptability. In a similar observation Knapp (2002) maintains that native speakers of English undertake the responsibility to correct the language of their fellow native speakers on rare occasions. This is in spite of the fact that they have been tasked with the responsibility to undertake such duty or have been appointed by an institution to play the role of a linguistic authority, where are regarded as instructors of English language courses. Çelik et al (2012) have observed that English language learners resort to the use of computer software to practise listening, build vocabulary and develop their writing skills.

2.5.3.3 *Learners*

Smit (2010) reveals that learners take up the responsibility of language expert. However, in a situation whereby the interactants do not see themselves as language experts, a teacher or other persons considered more knowledgeable in the language is consulted for appropriate form. In a similar study conducted by Hynninen (2013), it

was observed that native English students usually abstain from correcting the language of their fellow native speakers. Hynninen (2013), observes therefore that a speaker may negotiate correct usage in interaction, and use it as basis for challenging or accepting prescriptive norms. According to Van der Stel and Veenman (2014), when learners take part in the regulation process because of their individual learning, their performance increases and therefore recommends that language regulation should be encouraged among the students.

2.5.4 Summary

According to Hynninen (2013, p. 23), language regulation is defined as “the discursive practice through which norms are reproduced and through which alternative ones emerge”. Two language regulation forms were revealed. This regulation can either be explicit or implicit. From the studies of Seedhouse (2004), it has been revealed that the focus of repair in meaning-and-fluency context is on establishing mutual understanding and meaning negotiation. Pawlack (2013, p. 135) also confirms that language correction or regulation takes place in situations where there is violation of language rules and its usage. On the issue of who does the regulation, Hynninen (2012) therefore made an observation and hence concluded that that language regulation is:

- (1) expertise-based, which relates to the professional role and subject expertise of the speaker;
- (2) L1-based, which means that the expertise is assigned to a native speaker of English,
- (3) negotiation between speakers, where any of the speakers can do the commenting, and (4) expertise of the language professional, which means that an English instructor was treated as the language expert.

2.6 The importance of language regulation

This section discusses related studies on the importance of language regulation. The duty of the teacher as cautioned by Prasad (2018) is to insist on accuracy in all aspects of language learning. This assertion by Prasad makes it clear that language regulation is important in the teaching and learning of language in the classroom.

2.6.1 For correct forms or conformity

Reformulation as a form of language regulation, according to Thornbury (1997, p. 328), may be a useful both as a tool to promote language acquisition and as a tactic to help learners improve their writing. He also argues that reformulations of learners' written output may provide an ideal opportunity for learners to "notice the gap" between their interlanguage and the target language (Thornbury, 1997, p. 326). Thus, in instances where students' texts or utterances diverged from the structure, they were re-organised and deletions or insertions were made as part of the reformulation process. Lyster (1998) asserted that providing learners in communicatively oriented contexts with signals that facilitate peer- and self-repair may draw their attention to target-non-target mismatches more effectively than merely supplying target forms in the interactional input. Samuda (2001) argues that a teacher may be able to guide learners' attention towards form. However, she found that explicit feedback involving metalinguistic comments and elicitation was needed to prompt learners into using the target features. Chandler (2003) claims that "direct correction is best for producing accurate revisions, and students prefer it because it is the fastest and easiest way for them as well as the fastest way for teachers over several drafts" (p. 267).

Agreeing with Chandler (2003) on the positive effect of outright corrections, Bitchener and Knoch (2009) recount the benefits of explicit language corrections as:

(1) explicit correction reduces the type of confusion that language learners may experience; (2) explicit correction provides language learners with information to help them resolve more complex errors (for example, syntactic structure and idiomatic usage); (3) explicit correction provides language learners with more input on hypotheses that may have been made; and (4) it is more immediate. Pawlack (2013, p. 135) also confirms by concluding that language correction or regulation takes place in situations where there is violation of language rules and its usage. Hynninen's (2013, p. 118) assertion that "language correcting and commenting show that language regulation was done in order to achieve mutual understanding, but also to define boundaries between unacceptable and acceptable (or correct) language".

2.6.2 Facilitates language development

In a study conducted by Shamiri (2016), it was evident from the findings that students learn how to respond to teachers' corrections and inform them that correction is an indispensable part of teaching and helps them to improve their English. Speaking in favour of implicit forms of correction, Ellis (1994) argues that provision of negative evidence, especially in the form of implicit types of correction, facilitates the development of L2 syntactic ability. Similarly, Long (1996) gives support to the relatively implicit use of interactional moves, including, "various input and conversational modifications, which immediately follow learner utterances and maintain reference to their meaning" (p. 452). According to the interaction hypothesis, such responses provide learners with negative evidence that in turn facilitates language development.

A similar study was by Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen (2009) investigated the effectiveness of explicit and implicit correction of developmental early vs. developmental late features. Fifty-six intermediate level Iranian learners of English

were asked to read and retell a written text during an interview. The participants were corrected on the grammatical errors indirectly (using recasts) or directly during or following the interview. Based on the corrected errors made by the learners, individualised tests were constructed and administered. Results revealed higher scores for explicitly corrected learners. It was observed that the findings tended to support the argument on the role of metalinguistic awareness in language learning. Further analysis of the scores showed that developmental early features are learned better with explicit correction and developmental late features with implicit correction. This supports Dadour's (2010) observation that, as learners engage in these self-language regulation processes their academic performance is enhanced. According to Van der Stel and Veenman (2014), when learners take part in the regulation process because of their individual learning, their performance increases; and therefore recommends that language regulation should be encouraged among students.

2.6.3 To sharpen learners' self-repairing skills

Gass and Varonis (1994) concluded from their study of dyadic interaction that supplying feedback provides the opportunities for learners to detect such discrepancies. They further note that the awareness of the mismatch serves the function of triggering a modification of existing L2 knowledge, the results of which may show up at some later point in time. The results of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study indicated that elicitation, metalinguistic correction, clarification requests, and repetition led to learner-generated repair (self-repair) more successfully. This is because these four different types of repairs made learners more aware of their errors and allowed for learner-generated repair. Seker (2015) posits that when learners use self-regulation strategies, they attain the ability and skills to plan, choose appropriate cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and evaluate the learning outcomes. In effect,

teachers, while regulating the language of their students, according to Zimmerman & Schunk (2008, p. 1), attempt to make their students “set better learning goals, implement more effective learning strategies, monitor and assess their progress better, establish a more productive environment for learning, seek assistance more often when it is needed, expend effort and persist better, and set more effective new goals when present ones are completed”.

2.7 Related studies

An experiment was conducted by Schmidt & McCreary (1977), on what forms people consider grammatically correct and whether forms that they consider incorrect are still reported to be used. The test sheds light on discrepancies between what is seen to be grammatical and correct as opposed to what is seen to be acceptable. The findings of Schmidt and McCreary (1977) suggest that grammatical forms can change but if an outdated rule persists, for instance, in grammar books, it may still linger in people’s minds and cause confusion. However, while the test enables a focus on a specific set of features, it fails to tell whether they at all become points for acceptability negotiation. This means that there is the need to turn to language regulation from an interactional perspective, and to be aware that speakers in an interaction constantly negotiate acceptable language, and in the process construct (language) norms that are relevant for them (see Mäntynen et al, 2012).

Hynninen (2013) reveals that L2 speakers take on the role of language experts in inter-group interactions. The study focused on the construction of language expertise in international, university-level English-medium courses where English is used as a lingua franca. The study indicated that it is not only the teachers or language instructors that play the role of language regulators, the learners however, participate in language regulation. As seen in the literature discussed, this thesis focuses on

instances where teachers (i.e. subject experts) and students assume the role of language experts and regulate language in the classrooms. For instance, Martirosian and Hartoonian (2015) studied the relationship between self-regulated strategies and foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and concluded that anxiety of the students affects their ability to speak well in the classroom. Samah (2016) also observes that students' anxiety may result in problems of coherence; which is the learners' ability to link sentences together in a logical sequence using appropriate cohesive devices, pronunciation; that is learners' ability to produce understandable speech, lexicon; which refers to the range and precision of the vocabulary learner use, and accuracy; which is the accurate and appropriate use of grammatical structures. Thus, as these errors are committed, other members in the community may have to correct them to ensure smooth communication.

Dadour (2010) argues that self-regulation of language constitutes an active, constructive process whereby teachers and their students in the classroom attempt to achieve their language goals through monitoring, regulating, and controlling their cognition, as well as verbal behaviours that are guided and constrained by the language goals and the contextual features in the classroom environment. Studies on language regulation (eg. Cogo, 2009; Lichtkoppler, 2007; Mauranen, 2006) have shown that repetition of linguistic items implies that the repeated form has been accepted. In a similar study, Kaur (2009) observed that the relevance of repetition in the communicative event becomes prominent when the repetition is that of self-repeat or is done by the speaker himself, because it curtails comprehension problems in communication. According to Hynninen (2013), standard language, is the variety of language that is generally seen as the yardstick to which all other varieties or usage is expected to conform. The standard variety, in this regard becomes a label for the

language variety that functions as a reference point for acceptability and correctness in language. Concerning standard language and need for other varieties to conform, this study will regularly use the notion *rule*, sometimes with modifiers as a substitute for norms to mean tools for linguistic description, such as concord rule.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed Ghana's language policy in education and the general ideologies people have about language: what they think of language and how they believe language should be used. The literature on language use, language norms and formation of living norms has also been discussed. The review has particularly discussed issues relating to linguistic conducts of people in a social group and how their language behaviour is conditioned by members of the group. Issues of acceptability, correctness, and language norms have been discussed in relation to language regulation. It was therefore observed in Garrod and Doherty's (1994) study that interactants were found to establish new practices by accommodating to specific linguistic items, which means that accommodation not only reconstructs norm perceptions but can potentially construct new ones. The Communication Accommodation Theory, the theory which underpins this study, was discussed. Language regulation has also been discussed, where discussions on language regulation practices were considered along with literature on the importance of language regulation. It has been shown from the studies reviewed that as people find themselves at a defined place, they become a community and the way they use language may form their own social dialect, though may not be too distinctive from the general norms regulating the use of the language. Hence, individual members within the community (classroom) may serve as language experts checking on other

members in ensuring conformity to language use. This is done by creating their own language norms through language regulation.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed description of the data and their collection process. It dwells hugely on data gathered from recordings of interactions in the classroom during teaching and learning and interviews. The recorded interactions are analysed for language regulatory practices and how they reflect the perspectives of teachers, students and the language policy of education in the classroom towards the construction of language norms. The interview sessions involving the teachers and the students were aimed at acquiring a fuller explanation to the reasons behind the regulation and attitudes of the participants towards the language regulation process in the classroom. The sub-sections that follow present the methods used in this study. It includes the study design, study settings, target population, sampling, and sampling techniques. In addition, it presents discussions on data collection, analysis, and ethical consideration.

3.1 Research design

The blueprint for conducting a study is the research design (Grove & Gray, 2015). This study adopts a qualitative research design. A qualitative research design is considered appropriate for the study because it is to emphasize the nature, processes of language regulation, effects of language regulation in the classroom and perspectives of teachers and students on language regulation in the classroom as well as what triggers language regulation in the classroom. These could not be experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount or frequency (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Qualitative approach is considered appropriate because of

the interest of the researcher in understanding the meanings teachers and students attach to their experiences as they engage in classroom language regulation.

Furthermore, given the fact that little is known about the phenomenon of language regulation in the Ghanaian classroom context, the research design helped the researcher to gain a deeper insight into the experiences of teachers and students of senior high schools in Ghana concerning classroom language regulation. The qualitative design enables the researcher to explore and obtain in-depth knowledge from the study participants regarding their experiences but not to generalize, even though findings can be applied to similar settings. Also, the design allowed the research participants to feel comfortable in their natural setting when sharing their experiences and this made them open up on their experiences regarding the research objectives (cf. Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

3.2 Study site

The study site is Koforidua. The town, by virtue of being the regional capital has a lot of senior high schools that fall within the category 'A' schools of the Ghana Education Service. As a result, students who attend these schools are mostly those who make them their first choices during the BECE examinations and have obtained very high grades, as failure inhibits one's opportunity to enter his or her first choice of senior high school. Thus, in terms of admission into these schools, the students are fairly of the same standard, academically. Due to the standard of these schools, students from every corner of the country are found there, and this implies that they are from diverse cultural and language backgrounds. The researcher chose to use schools in Koforidua Township because of convenience and accessibility to the study site. The selected schools are also boarding schools, which mean that the students on these campuses constitute their own community.

3.3 Target population

The term target population refers to the population that the researcher would ideally like to generalise the findings of the study to. The target population for this study consists of all students and teachers of senior high schools in the Koforidua Township. This includes teachers and students of Forms 1 and 3. Since the study is about language regulation in the classroom, the researcher considered it appropriate to involve only teachers and students, without school administrators or managers. The Forms 1 and 3 students were selected because of the time of the data collection. The data collection process ran from January to March, a period in which Form 2 students were on vacation, because of the double track system.

3.4 Sampling technique

The study adopts a purposive sampling technique to draw the participants for the study. Purposive sampling attempts to select participants according to criteria determined by the research purpose (Tuckett, 2004). It is the deliberate choice of selecting an informant for a study due to the qualities he or she possesses (Tongco, 2007). This sampling technique allowed the researcher to decisively select the study participants based on the qualities they have by satisfying the criteria determined by the purpose of the research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The researcher therefore selected from four different schools, one General Arts class and one Business class. These classes are selected without any criteria, since the class and subject of study have no significance on the issues the study intended to investigate. This means, in total, the researcher used eight different classrooms for the study. As the study focuses on language regulation in the classroom, the number of students in the class does not matter; therefore, the researcher did not need to control absenteeism of research participants. Thus, any student who was present in the class at the time of the

data collection process constituted a participant. This also means that a student could miss a previous class and still participate in subsequent classes.

3.5 Sample size

Since the classroom recording involved all the students present in class at the time of the observation, no specific number was selected; however, the number consisted of all students who belong to the specific classes. It must be noted that the number of students in a class is between 30 and 45 for both Form 1 and 3. Therefore, the total number of students for the classroom recording was 360. Out of this number, 4 students from each class were selected for the interview. The sampling for the interview was also purposive, allowing the researcher to select from among students who were directly involved in the language regulation process in the classroom. Thus, students whose languages were regulated by the teachers or colleague students were sampled for the interview. Some students were also interviewed because they regulated their own language in the classroom. Hence, a total of 32 students were interviewed by the researcher. The classroom recordings were done twice for each class: four recordings - 2 for a selected General Arts class and 2 for a selected Business class. The recordings involved English and social studies lessons.

With regard to the teachers who participated in the study, the researcher involved all teachers who handle the selected subjects; social studies and English, of the various classes that were recorded. These teachers were interviewed using structured interview guide. The responses of the teachers were recorded using audio recorders and transcribed into text for analysis. Apart from the teachers who taught the classes which were recorded, two other teachers of both English and social studies were selected for interview. In each school, there were over 5 teachers handling core subjects and therefore, the selection of the extra two teachers for the interview was

based on their availability. In total, 24 teachers were interviewed from the four selected senior high schools in the Koforidua Township to enable the researcher to gather rich data. This number was decided on as it seemed the only manageable number to work with considering the time frame available for the study. This is based on Creswell (1998), who notes that a sample size for a qualitative study should range from five to twenty-five participants to reach saturation.

3.6 Data sources and collection method

Data for the study were collected solely from a primary source. This included interviews with the research participants; both teachers and students of English language and Social Studies in the 4 selected senior high schools. The data were collected through classroom audio recordings of teaching and learning sessions, researcher observation of classroom teaching and learning, and in-depth interviews of teachers and students with the aid of an interview guide developed by the researcher. The in-depth interviews allowed participants to express themselves freely on the phenomenon under study and also aided the researcher to ask open-ended questions that called for follow-up questions. The interview guide was used to solicit information from the 24 teachers and 32 students. This also allowed participants to provide information that was relevant to the study. It was designed in English Language as English is the medium of instruction in Ghana. Each interview lasted approximately 10 minutes.

3.7 Data analysis

The recorded data were transcribed orthographically from audio to text format. The data were then analysed thematically based on Braun and Clarke's (2006) six steps in analysing qualitative data. The first step is familiarization with the data. The researcher read and re-read the data to immerse herself in and became familiar with

the data. The second step is coding, which involves generating labels for important features of the data that are important to the research question(s). After familiarizing herself with the data, the themes that emerged were identified and labelled by the researcher. This includes the strategies used to ensure that a student's language conforms to a particular norm and how students feel in class when their language is corrected in class. The next step involved searching for themes. This included looking for coherent and meaningful patterns in the data that were relevant to the research questions. As such, the researcher started searching for common patterns in the data that were relevant to the research questions. The fourth step is reviewing themes. At this point, themes in relation to both the coded extracts and full data set were checked for by cross checking the data with the research objectives. The fifth step is defining and naming themes. This required of the researcher to write and conduct detailed analysis of each theme that emerged. I went through all the themes that emerged and selected the final set of themes that would be useful in presenting the findings. With writing up the report, the final step in qualitative study, it involves weaving together the analytic narrative and data extracts for a coherent narrative about the data, and contextualizing it in relation to the literature reviewed. In this regard, the various themes that emerged were linked and discussed to make a meaningful report. The analysis was informed by the Communicative Accommodation Theory and language regulation as discussed in the literature.

3.8 Validity and ethical considerations

To ensure trustworthiness of the study, peer debriefing was employed. This was done by requesting my supervisor to review the data and make her input. According to Creswell and Miller (2000), peer debriefing is the evaluation of the information and research process by an individual who is well known in the study

being investigated. Thus, in ensuring the validity of the study, the researcher adopted a case study approach, which is considered appropriate when investigating current real-life contextual phenomena (Yin, 2003). According to Boateng, Molla and Heeks (2011), there is no universally acceptable number of cases that is considered suitable for a case-study research. A case study could therefore be based on either a single case or multiple cases. This is justified to the extent that the validity of the case has more to do with the plausibility and cogency of the logical reasoning, and less with the number of cases (Walsham, 1993). Besides, the validity of a case study can be enhanced by the strategic selection of cases rather than the number of cases involved (Boateng et al, 2011).

The use of personal observation and face-to-face interview also enhanced the validity of the study. For instance, as noted by Hasan (2015), face-to-face and telephone interviews are considered more effective than internet techniques such as emails and online correspondence; since the former enables the researcher to capture other hidden details behind the interviewee's voice such as emphasis, body language, intonation, etc. According to Dialsingh (2008), interviews are the best form of data collection since it reduces non-response and maximizes data quality by enabling the interviewer to observe non-verbal forms of communication and incorporate them into the analysis.

One of the key aspects of research involving human subjects is ethics. Research ethics, according to Polit and Beck (2014), is a system of moral values that pertain to the degree to which the researcher adhere to professional, legal, and sociocultural obligations to the study participants. In ensuring that the researcher follows ethical procedures, a permission letter was sent to the headmasters of the selected schools for their consent. The researcher discussed the purpose of the study

with the teachers whose classes were recorded and they willingly allowed her to sit in their classrooms for the recordings. Thus, the participants of the study were informed about the purpose of the study, the benefits, the risks involved and their choice to either participate in the study or quit before the commencement of the data collection. The researcher also informed them of the options available to them to withdraw from the study, should they decide to do so along the course of the study. They were made to sign a consent form before taking part in the study. To ensure confidentiality of participants, pseudonyms were used in place of actual names of the schools and the study participants.

3.9 Limitations of the study

The study sought to explore the phenomenon of language regulation in the classroom from four selected senior high schools in Koforidua. As such, views that have been presented by participants may have been limited to individuals who were involved in a classroom language regulation. Also, the study setting was Koforidua which may have a slightly different linguistic landscape from other towns; hence the views of the research participants concerning the phenomenon may not be a reflection of what happens in every town in the country. Furthermore, data loss may have occurred when interviews were being transcribed from audio to text; however, this was controlled to the best possible minimum by the researcher by reviewing the transcribed data more than twice, through the assistance of colleague students.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the methodology of the study. It has been shown that qualitative research design with case study method was used for the study of classroom language regulation. With an accessible population consisting of both English and social studies teachers and their students, the chapter has explained how

data for the study were generated: recordings and observations of classroom teaching and learning sessions, and interview of teachers and students. The discussion in the chapter has demonstrated how the researcher ensured validity of the study and adhered to ethical concerns of the researcher.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results from the analysis of the data gathered on the interactional language regulation in the classroom. The analysis focuses on the negotiation of language correctness and acceptability in the classroom as a context that forms its own micro speech community. The analysis focuses on both overt and implicit regulation of classroom language as participants in the classroom teaching and learning event negotiate for the acceptable form of English and bargain for what should be considered correct during interaction. In the discussion, the attitude of the interactants towards the regulation process is also analysed. In addition, the orientation of the teachers and students that inform their attitudes towards the regulation of language in the classroom is discussed.

The chapter is organised into three sections. The first section presents the analysis of the forms of language regulation. In this regard, issues of overt and covert language regulation are given thorough attention. This discussion focuses on how participants in the classroom construct the boundaries between what is considered correct from incorrect or unacceptable language forms. The second section presents analyses of the scope of acceptability by focusing on the factors that inform the regulation of language in the classroom. In this section, the determining factors of language regulation are explored. It also takes a look at how the interactants, especially students, feel about the whole process of regulating their own language. The third and final section discusses the responsibilities for language regulation. Here, the discussion places emphasis on what the interlocutors in the classroom consider to be correct about language forms and language use. In doing this, attention is given to

what is corrected, who does the correction and the circumstances within which the correction is made.

4.1 Forms of language regulation

This section presents a discussion on the forms of language regulation in the classroom. From the analyses, two types of language regulations are identified. These are explicit and implicit forms. In the section that follows, the forms of language regulation are presented.

4.1.1 Explicit classroom language regulation

The overt or explicit judgement of an interactant's language by a participant in the interaction constitutes a kind of language correcting whereby what is considered to be the notions of language, what forms of language appear within the scope of acceptability concerning language use in the classroom are discussed. The comments which are produced in spontaneous interaction instead of interviews show the kind of language notions that are considered relevant during classroom interaction. This enables us to draw the boundary between notions that interlocutors in the classroom draw on when they are engaged in classroom communication and those that remain without grounding. Additionally, attention may be given to the relation holding between these notions and micro-level ideologies of language and its use.

As it has been argued, the principal means by which a distinction can be made between acceptable and unacceptable language in any communicative event is to correct the language of other interactants (cf. Kaur, 2009; Mauranen, 2006). As an interlocutor overtly corrects the language of another interlocutor in the communication process, they negotiate for the boundaries of acceptability. According to Kaur (2009) and Mauranen (2006), two types of explicit language regulation are observable. Other-correcting is an explicit way by which the participants negotiate the

boundaries of acceptability. Moreover, different from self-rephrasing, which according to Kaur (2009) explains how an interactants monitor and adjust their own language; other-correcting informs us about how an interactant's spoken language is assessed by a co-interactant in the same communication event, in this case in the classroom. In the quest to understand the co-construction of the acceptability boundaries in the classroom interaction, this section pays more attention to the reactions of an interlocutor (teacher or student) to a speaker's (teacher or student) language in the classroom.

In considering the demarcation between acceptable and unacceptable spoken English in the classrooms of senior high schools in Ghana, this subsection considers situations whereby an interlocutor corrects his or her own language (self-correction). The subsection also considers situations where an interlocutor corrects the spoken language of another interlocutor (other – repair) in the classroom. As an intervention strategy to repair a probable communication problem unintentionally created by an interactant, interrupting a speaker's language mirrors the one doing the correction's notions of correctness, and by that, he attempts to define what is construed as incorrect or unacceptable and correct or acceptable. That is, light is thrown on the boundaries of acceptable English in the classroom, by making it clear what is corrected and what is not, and the circumstances under which such corrections are done, as well as the one who undertakes the correction.

4.1.1.1 Self-repair

There were instances whereby the participants in the classroom communication situation undertook the task of regulation themselves. Although this kind of explicit regulation is done by the participant who has committed the error, he or she has to be prompted by the other participants in the interaction. There are cases

too that the interactant repairs his or her language without being prompted by others. For instance, in Extract 1, students involved themselves in the regulation process but in a different approach from the teacher's.

Extract 1

Teacher1: ok so we are going to look at adverb of time. So errh Beatrice, what is an adverb of time

Student2: it states, it modifies the time, ei the this one the action

Teacher1: I can't hear you speak louder.

Sudent2: it modisfy

(The class laughs and repeats the word modisfy)

Teacher1: come again

Student2: it modifies the time an action takes place.

It can be observed from Extract 1 that the students resort to laughter in registering their evaluation of their colleague student's speech as unacceptable. Thus, the speaker (a student) pronounces the word *modifies* as *modisfy*. The speaker did not only use a word that does not exist in the lexicon of English, but also failed to adhere to subject-verb agreement rule in English. This kind of identifiable error in the language of the student is considered unacceptable by the other students and that triggers the laughter. The students in an attempt to ensure that the kind of error was something the speaker could correct by herself or otherwise, repeated the wrong word the speaker uses as they laugh at the situation. This way, the student identifies the error and rechecked her English lexicon for the correct word, thus, engaging in self-repair. From the interaction, it is observed that the student who made the mistake was not helped by being provided with the correct form of the word. She was able to regulate her own language after her attention is indirectly brought to the possible error.

Involving himself in the regulation process, the teacher provides the student with an opportunity to correct the error herself by saying “*come again*”. Picking clues from the laughter from her colleague students and the call from the teacher to re-say what has already been said, the student is able to retrieve the appropriate lexeme from her lexicon for the expression to conform to what the whole class considers acceptable. Mortensen (2018) conducted a study across both written and the spoken mode of communication. The finding of the analysis indicates that language regulation practices which target language forms are virtually non-existent. In fact, in the spoken mode, the researcher was unable to find examples of explicit language regulation which targets linguistic form. On the other hand, the study identifies a single example, which represents explicit self-language correction, in the written mode. This brief exchange, as noted by Mortensen (2018), amounts to a clear example of language regulation, in this case, self-repair specifically a process through which speakers reproduce pre-existing language norms. Examples of explicit self-regulation of language are again observed in the speech of three students in one of the social studies classes. As it can be observed from extract below, the students self-regulated their own language even though some of them were prompted by either their teacher or their colleague students.

Extract 2

Student1: Sir, does African countries allow members from other African countries to enter their countries without visas?

Teacher: What do you actually want to say?

Student1: I meant, do people from one other African countries need to acquire visas before they can go to other African countries?

Teacher: Yes, has anyone any idea about his question?

Student2: Sir, I think the countries that belong to ECOWES, no ECOWAS have something like that. My mother has been going to Togo without a going to the Togolese embassy for any visa.

Teacher: I think countries like Togo, Ivory Coast and Burkina Faso do not require visas from Ghanaians before they can travel to such countries.

Student3: Then I will one day spend my birthday in one of this countries.

Teacher: One of

Student3: One of these countries.

From Extract 2, Student 1 committed a grammatical error in his utterance; he failed to observed concord rule. The teacher noted this error in his attempt to prompt the students of the occurrence of the grammatical error indicate to the students to re-state what he had said, making it look as though he (the teacher) did not understand the question of the student. Picking the teacher's question as a clue, student1 reframed his question and repaired the blunder by using *do* instead of the earlier *does*. Like Student 1, Student 3 needed the prompting of the teacher before he could identify her mistake. Even though she was prompted by the teacher, she was able to self-correct her mistake. In these two examples of extract two, we observed explicit self-regulation of language, which were triggered by other participants in the conversation. In the same extract two, we notice that student 2, in his speech, pronounced the word ECOWAS as ECOWES. However, unlike student 1 and student 3 who had to be prompted by the teacher before they could self-regulate their language, student 2 was able to regulate his own language without any prompting from any of his conversational partners.

In the extract that follows, the participant, in this case, the teacher was engaged in the language regulation process. The participant regulated her own language (self-repair) however, the regulation was not done due to an incorrect

linguistic item but to rephrase as due to the facial expressions of the students, which signalled to the teacher that the understanding didn't come clear. Extract three shows this example.

Extract 3

*Teacher: alright, I'm going to write this sentence on the board , now you are going to tell me **each element** in the sentence. Forget about **element**, we are not doing science. So you are going to tell me the **role of each word** in the sentence, because I told you the last time that each word in a sentence has its role just like all of us here, we have our roles that we play in school, at home, church, wherever. You are therefore here for a purpose, even why God brought us into this world. So if you have not even realised your own purpose, you have, that means you have a misplaced identity, go and find it. You don't know why you are even here on earth. So can one of you just tell me the role of each **word** in this very simple sentence? Yes, it could be... you could identify one and tell me. Yess, if its even one, I will take it. This, we've done already. There's no harm in trying. Yes, mhmm*

Student 1: madam please, "Ama" is the subject and it is the doer of the action .

From Extract 3, we observe that the teacher self-regulated his own language without the prompting of his interlocutors (students). The trigger for the regulation of his language is the teacher's instinct that using the word *element* may confuse the students who have been using the same word *element* in their science course, but with a different connotation. Hence the teacher needed to regulate his own language for the purpose of understanding. It was deliberately regulated to repair the probable ambiguity problem, which could have been created had he maintained the word *element*. In the framework of Communication Accommodation Theory, one would

realise from the teacher's self-regulation of his language that he was converging to the level and context of the communicative event in the classroom. According to Giles and Ogay (2007), an important reason that may cause an interlocutor to self-regulate is convergence, whereby it becomes observable that the speaker desires to gain approval and understanding from his interactants. In other words, the more similar the speaker in the communicative events is with his or her conversational partners, the more the more social rewards such as respect and acceptance he or she obtains from them. In this regard, Giles and Ogay (2007) conclude that converging to a common linguistic style and form improves the effectiveness of communication. According to Gudykunst (1995), this helps to lower uncertainties in the minds of the listeners, reduce their interpersonal anxiety, and enhance mutual understanding between the interactants.

In another interaction, it is observed that a teacher explicitly regulated his own language because he was unable to get the tense correctly. In this case, the teacher was not prompted by his interlocutors but because he was monitoring his own speech.

Extract 4 illustrates this:

Extract 4

*Teacher: We studied the arms of government last week. Who can remind us of some of the things **we talk about**; **sorry we talked about**? Just raise up your hand and I will call you. But remember, I am interested in sensible responses.*

In the Extract 4, the teacher made a mistake about the appropriate tense for the sentence. He therefore corrected his own language by replacing the earlier sentence which has the wrong tense with a more appropriate one. In other words, the verb *talk* in the first sentence has been replaced by the teacher with *talked* in the second sentence. However, the repair was prefixed with an apology. From the discussion, we

can argue that self-regulation of language constitutes an active, constructive process whereby teachers and their students in the classroom situation attempt to achieve their language goals through monitoring, regulating, and controlling their cognition, and verbal behaviours that are guided and constrained by the language goals and the contextual features in the classroom environment (Dadour, 2010). In this regard, as observed from the analysis, explicit self-regulation of a conversational partner's language constitutes a multifaceted, and recursive process that depends greatly on the individuals' purpose of communicating and his or her interactive efforts to improve his or her own language skills. According to Dadour (2010), as learners engage in these self-language regulation processes their academic performance is enhanced.

4.1.1.2 Other-repair

Language corrections refer to instances in communicative event whereby an interactant alters a linguistic detail in a previous speaker's turn (Ellis et al, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001). In other words, the speech of an interactant is modified in some kind of linguistic detail by a co-interactant within the same communication situation due to lack of conformity that the interactant undertaking the correction identifies with the previous interactant's speech. These kinds of corrections during interaction has been categorised as other-repair in communication accommodation. Sometimes, as noted by Brouwer et al. (2004), the interaction is paused by the interactants in order to solve an identified communicational 'trouble'. Concerning this, outright corrections of a conversational partner's speech forms a side sequence in the interaction between speeches of the partners within the conversation. In this regard, the conversational partners negotiate for an acceptable or correct form of a linguistic item or unit that occurs in the conversation. According to Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2003), as the interactants,

considering themselves as L2 learners, undertake the regulation activity of another's speech in the same conversation they engage in an activity through which they work together linguistically to repair or resolve impasses of communication and set a common ground by which members of the conversation come to an understanding of each other's message meaning. This means that in other-initiated language repair, the conversational partner receiving a linguistic message signals that there is a problem comprehending or perceiving what the other partner in the conversation has said, and the sender attempts to then fix it.

This kind of explicit language regulation is exemplified in the Extract 5. The extract is taken from a classroom that had a social studies lesson. The interaction is therefore between the social studies teacher and his students.

Extract 5

Teacher1: So all these things are some of the importance of a constitution. Any other? Is that all?

*Student1 : it serve as a **reference** of statehood.*

*Teacher1 : it serves as a **symbol** of statehood.*

*Student1: Yes, it serves as a **symbol** of statehood*

In the example, the student used the word reference, but that was not the expected term the teacher wanted so he corrected the student by providing the appropriate word, *symbol* for the student. In acknowledging or accepting the correction, the student repeated the sentence, this time, using *symbol* which the teacher provided instead. As the teacher got satisfied with the student's response because he has used the right terminology, he moved on to a different issue. As a conversational repair mechanism that targets troubles in speaking, hearing, or understanding as observed by Schegloff et al (1977), explicit other's repair has been

found to consist of three components: the trouble source or repairable; the repair initiation, which is the indication that there is trouble to be repaired; and the outcome, which is either the success or the failure of the repair attempt.

The extract also shows that the teacher's correction of the student has created a side sequence in the interaction whereby the interlocutor's correction triggered the student's repetition of the 'correct' structure by forgoing his word, reference and using what has been provided by the teacher. This indicates that, in the process of correcting the language of the speaker, the topic of discussion is suspended to make room for the interactants to negotiate which linguistic item to use. The illustration in the example confirms the observation by Jefferson (1987, p. 90) who intimates that in communication accommodation, "corrections are typically followed by repetition of the correction, or if the correction is rejected, repetition of the original item (also known as the 'repairable')". In Extract 6, we see that the teacher corrects the language of his students as they attempt to contribute to the discussion on the role of the constitution of Ghana.

Extract 6

Teacher1 : Next point

Student1 : it ensures periodic **selection** of presidents and MPs

Teacher : yes in Ghana, the constitution is saying every 4 years there should be general **elections** to either reject the government or renew the government or the president.

Teacher1 : next point

Student2 : custom source

Teacher1 : customary source. Sometimes we call it customs and conventions

So that is what we call custom conventions. Next point.

Student3 : judicial precedence or court law

Teacher1 : judicial precedence or case law. Now, sometimes, when we talk of the judiciary, it is made up of the courts, lawyers and the judges.

From these examples, we realise that student1 used the verb *selection* instead of *election*. Now, this is not the appropriate word for activity that goes on in choosing leaders for the country; hence, the teacher immediately corrected the student by providing the right word. It may be noted that in this instance, the response of the student was not wrong as far as the idea or meaning he wanted to convey was concerned. However, for the purpose of the topic of the discussion, the teacher corrected him by providing the proper word to describe the event. Differently from what ensued between the teacher and the same student in correcting the *reference of statehood* to *symbol of statehood*, here, the correction did not necessitate a repetition of the teacher's version by the student. The teacher's use of the word *yes* indicates that the meaning of the student's response has not been distorted, even though the appropriate word was not used. Therefore, the teacher's sentence which contains the right word, *election* was not repeated by the student.

A similar observation can be made between the teacher and student 2. In that example, the student responded *custom source* and the teacher corrected him by using the same phrase of the student, but this time replacing the unacceptable word, *custom* with *customary*. In this case, the student never repeated after the teacher. The correcting process that occurred between the teacher and student 2 is repeated between the teacher and student3, where the student's *court* in *court law* was corrected to *case law* by the teacher. In this case too, the student did not repeat the corrected form after the teacher. There are instances whereby the corrections targeted pronunciation. In the interaction below the class repaired the communication problem

triggered by a student as he responded to the question posed by the teacher. The interaction and regulation is illustrated in Extract 7.

Extract 7

Teacher: So what elements do you remember which we discussed. The elements or features of democracy. Yes!

Student1: free and firm election.

Student2: free and fair

Student1: free and fair election

Student3: the enjoyment of fundamental human right.

Teacher: fundamental human right.

Class: fundamental human right

Teacher: it is spelt "f.u.n.d.a.m.e.n.t.a.l."

Student: periodical election.

Student: the free press.

Student: the independent division.

Student: the rule of law.

In Extract 7, student 1 chose the wrong word; instead of *fair* he pronounced the word *firm*. This caused the rest of the class to help him by supplying the correct word, *fair*. Student1 who was corrected responded to the correction by repeating it after the class. In the same example, student3 wrongly pronounced the word *fundamental* as *foundamental*. The teacher corrects her by pronouncing the word for her. The word seems to be unfamiliar word for the whole class; hence, it was not only student 3 whom the teacher was correcting his language that repeated the pronunciation of the word after the teacher, but the whole class. The teacher went further to provide the spelling of the word for his class.

What has been observed in this study is consistent with the findings of McHoul (1990) as teachers in the various classrooms, though sometimes initiate the correction directly, mostly often recourse to clues such as questioning and repetition of the speech of their students. For instance, McHoul (1990), in his investigation of teacher-initiated repair in monolingual English high-school geography lessons observed that other-initiated self-repair has pedagogical implication as teachers adopt the approach to guide their students to undertake the repair of language problem in a gradual manner. The findings of the study indicated further that, as pedagogical technique, teachers employ other-initiated self-repair strategy rather than providing an answer or correction of the language trouble source as quickly as possible, they tend to practise cluing by hinting at the correction until the student they intend to regulate his language is able to self-correct the problem. The study of McHoul (1990) concludes, therefore that even though it occasionally occurs that teachers in the classroom do correct their students' language problems directly, they tend to adopt cluing type of other-initiated self-repair frequently than directly correcting their students verbal errors. The findings of this study, with regard to the dominance of other-initiated self-repair over self-initiated repair confirms that findings of Egbert (1998) who in her study of German L2 oral proficiency interviews found out that other-initiated self-repairs predominated the self-initiated repair.

It needs to be stated that as various researchers (e.g. Kasper, 1985; Jung, 1999; van Lier, 1988) attempted to compare the functions of conversational repair in classroom discourse to those in mundane interactions. It was found that even though self-initiated self-repair predominates in every day discourse, other-initiated self-repair occurred more frequently in the classroom conversations (McHoul, 1990). It is

therefore not surprising that in the context of senior high school classrooms in Ghana, teacher-initiated self-repair predominates self-initiated student repairs.

It can be observed that both self-initiated and other-initiated explicit repairs employed in the classrooms perform other functions in addition to the basic functions of simply repairing trouble in speaking, hearing, or understanding in classroom discourse. This is because these repair strategies serve as a pedagogical instrument that enables both teachers and students to communicate in the classroom and learn more effectively. This observation conforms to the findings of Jung (1999) who intimated after examining the repair strategies used by both teachers and students in the ESL classroom that the repair mechanism employed in the classroom, besides helping the conversational partners to repair trouble in speaking, hearing, or understanding in during classroom discourse it activity also serves as a teaching and learning tool that enhances effective communication, and efficient teaching and learning of both students and teachers. In the data, instances where interlocutors, especially the students, were commenting on their language after their language was explicitly regulated are identified. Most of these comments were made to express their insecurity and lack of mastery in speaking English. These expressions of insecurity and inadequate mastery of the language were done by expressly referring to the limitations of their language use. In the interaction below, a student expressed her inability to consistently stay alert so that her 'r' and 'l' do not interchange in her pronunciation of words that have these liquids. An example is given in Extract 8.

Extract 8

Teacher: yes. You know you guys are not yet ladies, so if you are one prove it. So the next time I come we will go further. Before we close, do you have any question?

Student1: Sir, can you explain free and fair elec....

Class: hahaha

Student2: free paa?

Student3: free and fair election, or?

Student1: thanks, free and fair election; Sir some people do like they don't make mistake. Have you people forgotten that our other teacher said Twi people have problem with saying free?

Teacher: free and fair election means the people who vote during election time are not forced to vote, and also, though they are not forced the constitution ensures also that they don't engage in inappropriate behaviours during the election process.

In Extract 8, a student interlocutor substituted the sound 'r' for 'l' in the pronunciation of the word *free*. This triggered laughter from the rest of the students. In what seems to be a habitual practice of the student who could not keep her free variation at bay, we note that she recourse to her ethnicity as a responsible factor to her difficulty. The use of the rhetorical question, *Have you people forgotten that our other teacher said Twi people have problem with saying free?*, indicates that the speaker is aware of the problem but her interlocutors should remember and appreciate her effort so that they can pardon her for creating such communication problems. The comment of the student about her language and why she persistently commit the same error shows her level of attachment to her native language. She indirectly made it known to her colleague students in the classroom that Twi is her language and that definitely has an influence on how she speaks English. Her response to the class, after being laughed at, indicates covertly her attitude of what should be considered a serious communication problem and what should be overlooked. The teacher, unlike

the students of the class, seemed to have understood the student1 on the problem. He chose not to comment on the problem of his student's arbitrarily transferring free variation from Twi to English. He went straight to explain the *free and fair election* without commenting on the language of the student.

In another class, the teacher was teaching his students about the role of the judiciary. As a way of introducing the topic, the teacher asked the students to describe what goes on at the chief's palace when they are settling disputes. The illustration in Extract 9 represents the interaction.

Extract 9

Teacher: we have been looking at the roles of the various organs of governance. We have seen that of the executives and the parliamentary; today, we are going to discuss that of the judiciary. But before we do that, can one of you tell the class the functions of the chief's palace at his or her village or hometown?

Student1: Sir, they pour drinks at palace.

Teacher: What kind of drink?

Student2: Akpeteshie and nsafufuo; sometimes they pour schnapps and beer.

Teacher: Let's say locally manufactured gin instead of akpeteshie.

Student1: but Sir, does it has a name?

Student: How does the white people call it?

Teacher: how do the white people

Student1: How do the white people call it?

Teacher: mhuu, the whole class, yes...

Student3: Sir, my father said, sometime ago, that it don't have any name apart from akpeteshie.

Teacher: it doesn't have

Student3: it don't have any name apart from akpeteshie.

Teacher: stop messing up with your subject verb agreement rules. When the subject is singular, and 3rd person, 's' is added to the verb, especially when in the present tense. I hope I got the explanation right though. You may confirm that from Ms Ansah. Or who is your English teacher?

Students: Yes, Ms Ansah.

Teacher: who knows the English word for nsafufuo?

Student1: Palm drink

Teacher: Palm what?

Student1: Sir, am I wrong?

Teacher: yes, Agyemang!

Students: Sir we know, palm wine, palm wine.

From Extract 9, one would observe that the teacher attempts to explain why the 3rd person singular subjects needs to agree with the singular verb, he indicated that the students could see their English teacher for explanation. This suggests that the teacher considered himself to lack the necessary expertise to handle that explanation to the students. Thus, the teacher's comment that "*I hope I got the explanation right though. You may confirm that from your English teacher*"

From Extract 9, the teacher attempts to explain why the 3rd person singular subjects needs to agree with the singular verb, he indicated that the students could see their English teacher for explanation. This suggests that the teacher considered himself to lack the necessary expertise to handle that explanation to the students. Thus, the teacher's comment that "*I hope I got the explanation right though. You may*"

confirm that from Ms Ansah” indirectly functions as a disclaimer, and covertly informs us of his evaluation of his own expertise in the area.

Language correction in communication accommodation is a form of language communication repair that is concerned with instances whereby a co-interactant substitutes an erroneous linguistic item used by a speaker. In this case the interactant undertaking the correction may consider a linguistic item erroneous when he thinks that it does not make the speaker’s utterance to conform to codified standards (cf. Brouwer et al, 2004). In this regard, repairs in communication, more generally, refer to all situations whereby a conversational partner produces an alternative version of what a speaker in the same conversation has said. In addition to the situations whereby a teacher or a student may self-initiate a language repair, the initiation may be done by a conversational partner in the same discourse; there are cases whereby other initiated repairs create an explicit negotiation of acceptability and correctness in the classroom. This occurs in the negotiation for elements that the adverb modifies in a sentence as observed in extract ten below. Thus, unlike the previous other repairs that were accepted without serious negotiation between the conversational partners, this latter kind of other-repair triggers serious negotiations. In the extract below, the students have to engage their teacher in negotiating for the acceptable or correct word/phrase that the adverb actually modifies in the sentence. The process of negotiation is illustrated in Extract 10.

Extract 10

Teacher: yes and it is qualifying what?

Student6: (student underlines “they do not do”)

Teacher: is it correct? Is this the verb?

Class: no

Teacher: yes Sandra, what is the verb?

Sandra: sir, its do

Another student: laid

It needs to be noted that the teacher is considered the language expert and, mostly, his options are considered the best and, the interlocutors accept it. From the interaction above, we observe that the students were negotiating for acceptability and correctness of the element that is being modified by the adverb in the sentence. The response that the student offered was out rightly rejected by almost students in the class. Their rejection followed the teachers request for their opinion on the answer their colleague had provided. One of the students, Sandra gave an answer as “do”. This too was contended by another student, who thought the right element the adverb modifies in that sentence is *laid*. The class needed to negotiate for the correct element in the sentence that the adverb modifies. The process is presented in the Extract 11.

Extract 11

Teacher: he says laid is a verb, is it a verb?

Student7: sir it's a verb but not in this sentence Teacher: yes. so the verb in this sentence is “do” as Sandra said. Now lets look at the verb.

Students8: Sir, the adverb

Teacher: yes and it is qualifying what?

Student7: the “do”

Teacher: is it not the “do not do?”

Student8: sir, it is not do not do oh!

Teacher: it is do not do

Student7 :sir why do not do?

Teacher: so it is going to be do?.

Student7: yes

Teacher: Are you sure?

Student7: Yes

Teacher: read the sentence again

Student: they do not do...

Student: this "do" is not part

In the course of the negotiation, the students provided reasons to support their options, why they believed their choice was correct and the class should accept it. For instance, student7 explained why *laid* could not be considered the verb that the adverb in the sentence modifies by arguing that, "*Sir, it's a verb but not in this sentence*". As student 7 mentioned "*do*" as the verb that the adverb modifies, the teacher questioned the whole class to ascertain their views; whether they were in agreement with student 7. The question of "*is it not the do not do?*" triggered student8's objection, "*sir, it is not do not do oh!*" the use of the interjection *oh* at the end of student8's utterance indicates how confident he was about what he considers to be the correct element that the adverb modifies. It also shows how he was surprised the class, including the teacher may think otherwise. With his authority as the language expert in the classroom, the teacher had to restate it, "*it is do not do.*" Even, with this, some of the students were not convinced as portrayed by one student as she asks the teacher to explain further, "*sir why do not do?*"

Although the teacher was construed as the language expert, he did not want to impose things on the students as they engage in the language negotiation process. In the interaction above, the teacher employed several strategies to make his students understand why his answer should be the acceptable one. One of the strategies, as observed in the interaction above, was to implore the student to re-read the sentence.

As the sentence was re-read, a student explained to the others why they had to accept the teacher's option. This is further supported by another student, Bernice. The negotiation is presented in Extract 12.

Extract 12

Student: if we put the do and not together it will be don't, so it is 'do not'

Teacher: is that correct? Yes Bernice, do you have something to say about it?

Bernice: Sir that was what I was coming to say. Sir, I think it is do but on second thought it is do not do because the "not" here is a negative this thing and if you say that is modifying do, here, the person is not doing. So it is do not do.

Teacher: yes, so it is "do not do". It qualifies the verb 'do not do'. So this is the verb and this is the adverb.

In the extract, the corrections were mainly triggered by the subject the teacher was teaching the class. The teacher identified the problem and called forth the whole class to negotiate for the correctness or acceptability of the form. Like all other repairs we have seen in the extracts, the whole class became language experts trying to regulate the language of one student. The interaction in extract twelve is consistent with the findings of Mazeland and Zaman-Zadeh (2004). From their study of other-initiated word-clarification repair in lingua franca interactions, they concluded that almost all cases of other-initiated repair occurred after an initial attempt at hearing repair had been unsuccessful.

Thus, as observed from the extract, the teacher attempted getting the students to repair the problem through questioning "*is that correct?*" To this effect, Seeshouse (1997) has argued that language teaching and learning takes on a more direct and overt correction on students speech. Also, we see that it makes negotiation and

correction of speech trouble in the classroom to become both “pedagogically and interactively” relevant and conditions both interaction and pedagogy to work in tandem” (Seeshouse, 1997, p. 572). As can be observed from the other-repairs in the extracts, an explicitly focused correction or language regulation tends to be particularly effective in communicatively based or content-based L2 classrooms. As the other conversational partners, especially the teacher, guide speaker to identify the probable error and correct it for the speaker explicitly, they prompt the L2 learners in the conversation (the speaker and other students in the class) into using the target language appropriately (see also Samuda, 2001; Spada, 1997).

4.1.2 Implicit regulation

During interaction between people in a speech community, correction and commenting on language involve the overt means by which the participants in the speech event draw boundaries between acceptability and unacceptability in language use. As shown in section 4.1.1, interlocutors explicitly correct the speech of co-interactants during the process of communication. However, besides the explicit correcting and commenting of one’s language, participants in the communication event may also correct the language of other participants, though this may be done subtly. Implicit or tacit regulation of an interactants language is less direct than explicit feedback in signalling to learners that an error has been committed (cf. Ellis et al, 2006).

Hence implicit language regulation, as occurs in conversations, may take the form of partial or incomplete reformulation of the expression (Lyster & Ranta, 1997); it does not offer an overt indication of a language problem concerning a speaker’s speech (Xie & Yeung, 2016, p. 59). That is, covert correcting of language during interaction occurs when the one doing the correction refuses to interrupt the speaker

to regulate but rather waits till it is his turn to speak. Thus, when the turn of the speaker who intends to do the correction comes he or she embeds the correction in his utterance. In other words, embedding repairs or correction in your speech implies that instead of outright corrections where the speaker who commits the error is interrupted so that the regulation through negotiation can take place, the regulators rather embed the repairs in their turns. This means that the items that require to be corrected in the previous speaker's utterance are amended without overtly bringing them up for the interactants to negotiate on their acceptability of correctness.

4.1.2.1 Embedded repair

It has been noted that the repetition of a form provided by a regulator in the communication process indicates an acceptance of the correction or the repeated form or linguistic item. Studies on language regulation (eg. Cogo, 2009; Lichtkoppler 2007; Mauranen 2006) have shown that from the language regulation repetition of linguistic item implies that the repeated has been accepted. In the context of English as second language communication, repetition of a corrected item is crucial because it enhances mutual understanding, and serves as evidence of cooperation among the participants in the conversation. According to Kaur (2009) the relevance of repetition in the communicative event becomes prominent when the repetition is that of self-repeat or is done by the speaker himself, because it curtails comprehension problems in communication.

Cogo (2009) intimates that unconventional forms or linguistic items are mostly repeated by the speaker, especially in a non-native speakers' environment. It has been observed that repetition is another-initiation of repair, in contrast to pointing towards acceptance, the initiator of the repair may be questioning the linguistic form of the expression, and reject the repeated item". As found in the data, repetition as

another-initiation of repair is dominant in the classroom. Thus, the teachers who are perceived to be language experts in the classroom, though employ other types of other-initiations of repair by focusing on language, have been observed to repeat ‘incorrect’ linguistic items as a strategy to prompt the student whose turn it is and is talking about the error committed so that he or she could self-repair his or her ‘errors’ (cf. Seedhouse, 2004; van Lier, 1988). Embedded correction is observed in the interaction between a teacher and the class prefect of one of the classes I observed.

Extract 13

Teacher: it seems I gave an assignment last week; you were to list a number of transitional words in English language.

Class Prefect: Sir, you told us to present [present] them before Friday, so I sent them last week Friday.

Teacher: I told you to present /pri. zént/ them before Friday?

Student: Yes, Sir.

Teacher: Ok. Does it mean all of these people are absent today?

Students: They are present /prɛsnt/

Teacher: they are present /prɛznt/, and where are they now?

From Extract 13, we observe that the teacher subtly corrected the student’s pronunciation of the word *present* on two occasions, when it was used as a verb and when it was used as an adjective. Though the student did not repeat the word after the teacher, the teacher gave the correct pronunciations during his turn to prompt the students that his pronunciation was a deviation. Though opportunity was not created for the student to repeat the corrected form, which would then imply acceptance, we can argue that from the teachers position as language expert and the representative of

the native speakers in the classroom, his model of the language is considered the appropriate and worthy of emulation by the students.

There were other instances where the teacher did not repeat the sentences of the students by supplying the correct pronunciation of the word, however, he repeated the wrong word to signal to the student his version is erroneous and, therefore must self-correct it. The example in Extract 14 illustrates this.

Extract 14

Teacher: everyone should put his or her book, No Sweetness Here, on the table. Those without the book should leave the class. Jonas! Where is your book?

Jonas: Sir, my book /bu:k/ has been stolen.

Teacher: Your book/ bu:k/? Is that how it is pronounced?

Students: book /bʊk/

Teacher: How many times do I have to tell you the word is not book /bu:k/?

Students: Sir, we are used to book /bu:k/

Teacher: Ok. Anyone who will say book /bu:k/ instead of book /bʊk/ will be punished.

From this example (above) the teacher repeated the wrong pronunciation that occurred in the student's speech. This drew the attention of the class to the correct form of pronunciation that the teacher had taught; hence the speaker was able to self-correct the error. This confirms the observation of Lyster and Ranta (1997) that if the repetition is another-initiation of repair, in contrast to pointing towards acceptance, the initiator of the repair may be questioning the linguistic form of the expression, and rejecting the repeated item". Clearly, we realise that the teacher did not accept the

pronunciation of the student, and by repeating it he was signalling to the speaker that your pronunciation of the word is wrong and you need to correct it.

Pronunciation is not the only trigger for embedded repair as observed in the data. In the data, it was observed that a student could show clearly the distinction between an adjective and an adverb therefore chose to use the adjective *nice* instead of *nicely* to modify his handwriting. The conversation is captured in the Extract 15 as follows:

Extract 15

Teacher: Please, my people, some of you have to work on your handwriting before you go and write the WASSCE. If the examiner marking your script finds it difficult to read, he would give you low marks.

Student 1: Sir, I am writing nice this time around. You can even have my book for evidence.

Teacher: you are writing nicely this time around; are you sure?

Students2: Sir, thank you. We will improve upon our handwriting before the exam starts.

Teacher: It is very very necessary, if you take my advice, it would help you. I don't want you to experience the situation whereby you know the answer but for a poor handwriting you wouldn't be given the full marks. Now, let's continue with what we are doing.

What has been observed in Extract 15 falls under recasting, according to Lyster and Ranta (1997). This refers to situations whereby a teacher shows the error in a learner's speech by substituting it with another word or using the same word but with grammatical or lexical modification. From the extract, we notice that the use of the word *nice* (an adjective) by the student does not fit the syntactic frame of the

sentence. With the adverb appearing to be a better choice in this grammatical context, the teacher in his turn repeated the sentence but corrected the problem by using the adverb *nice*ly. In an attempt to regulate another student's tense error, a teacher repeated the sentence of the students during his turn and provided the verb with its appropriate conjugated inflection.

Extract 16

Teacher: how many of you will be able to attend this Saturday's class? We need to look at the past question, the mock, your seniors wrote.

*Student: Sir, I have a suggestion. Is it not possible for this period be **extend** by 30 minutes to make up for the last week's lost periods, since this is the last period and **no teacher come after** you.*

Teacher: This is not bad, a suggestion. However, I am not sure the school will allow for

In the Extract 16, a student's tense error in using the verb *extend* was regulated by the teacher who said *extended* without eliciting students' correction. A typical example of what Lyster and Ranta (1997) call recasting, the teacher did the correction implicitly. According to Doughty (2003) and Long (2007), recasting as a form of implicit regulation is very effective in facilitating L2 learning. This is because it keeps the learner in focus and help him or her to identify the error personally, through the teacher's correction. This is probably because recasting helps learners make cognitive comparisons between the correct and the wrong forms immediately and on the spot (cf. Xie & Yeung, 2018). Smit (2010, p. 222) posits that a conversational partner's regulation in another's speech in English as Lingua Franca contexts is not used to correct linguistic 'errors' alone as observed by research on interactions in the classroom, but they are used to indicate genuine communication trouble". In this

regard and as noticed from the discussion, these kinds of language regulation in the classroom are relevant both communicatively and pedagogically.

Several research on tacit language regulations that target correction of errors in speech have shown that the process, when practised in the classroom, may be associated with a longer retention time and higher awareness by the students. This is as a result of the fact that implicit corrections offer additional benefits to L2 learning situation. For instance, Mackey and Goo (2007) and Li (2010) in their studies have shown that implicit correction is able to produce more long-term effects in terms of identification of errors and retention of the corrected errors. Concerning this assertion, Long (2007) and Ellis and Sheen (2006) assert that implicit correction facilitates L2 acquisition by drawing learners' attention to linguistic forms throughout a conversational exchange. Confirming this, one of the teachers interviewed explained that:

Sometimes, I make my corrections implicit because I believe if the student is able to identify his own mistake and how it has been corrected it helps him better than providing everything for him, both the mistake and the correction.

4.1.2.2 Reformulations

Besides what has also been described (embedded repair), another phenomenon that occurred in the data is reformulation. This has been defined as any “process of restating a previous statement which maintains, in the reformulated statement, an invariable part to which the rest of the statement which could be different from the source statement is attached” (Martinot, 2015, p. 3). The phenomenon of reformulation, in communication, refers to the interactional feedback a conversational partner offers by way of rephrasing a speaker's erroneous utterance into a target like form (e.g. Ellis et al, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Nassaji,

2007). This means that reformulation compels the speaker to implicitly or explicitly repair his or her own errors. However, this forms an aspect of other-initiated repair (Nassaji, 2007).

Two defining characteristics of the phenomenon of reformulation have been observed; firstly, the reformulated extract must have its origins in a previous statement, and secondly, there must be similarity of content and/or form for it to be called a reformulation of the source statement. Commenting on the attributes of reformulation, Martinot (2015) indicates that the definition of the concept makes room for paraphrastic reformulations, non-paraphrastic reformulations, and repetitive reformulations. It also enables one to situate the linguistic level of the invariable part of the statement – whether it is lexical, syntactic or semantic – and also the linguistic level of the modified part that is introduced into the reformulated statement.

In this regard, reformulation is the summation of a prior speaker's turn as a language-regulatory mechanism (cf. Lyster & Mori, 2006). Thus, reformulation is the rephrasing of what a speaker has said during his turn in the conversation or restating part or the interlocutor's speech. It can therefore be argued that interlocutors adopt the strategy of reformulation to make their sense of 'what we are talking about', or 'what has just [been] said' clear to other interactants. As a repair strategy, reformulations may be considered as the rephrasing of a speaker's utterance by another interlocutor, not speakers' self-reformulations, as a response to interactional trouble (cf. Bremer & Simonot, 1996). From the observation of Kurhila (2003, pp. 218-221), reformulations indicate a confirmation or rejection by another participants of the previous speakers language. In a study conducted by Drew (1998), reformulations are noted to signal varied intentions of the interlocutor who reformulates another's

speech. In the data, the reformulation occurred in two different ways: mediation and lexical accommodation (cf. Knapp-Potthoff & Knapp, 1986).

4.1.2.2.1 Mediation as a reformulation process

According to Knapp-Potthoff and Knapp (1986), mediation is a term used to describe an interlocutor who, during the communicative event assumes the role of an interpreter, by making the utterance of a previous speaker clearer to another interlocutor who is also involved in the speech event. In the context of the classroom, mediation may occur when a student attempts to restate the statement of another student to the whole class, the teacher or a student. In this regard, Knapp-Potthoff and Knapp (1986, pp. 156-160) explain that “the interpreters often end up dealing with two discourses: on the one hand, they worked as intermediaries between the other speakers, and on the other, as participants in the interaction”. What makes mediation different from interpretation is that in mediation all the participants in the communicative event have a common language, are able to use that language and the shared language is what is being used in the interaction. The discourse in Extract 17 illustrates mediation in the data.

Extract 17

Student1: Sir, Ghana became Ghana in which year?

Teacher: Ghana became Ghana? What do you really mean?

Student2: Sir in which year was the name of our country changed from Gold Coast to Ghana.

Student1: Yes, yes

Teacher: Ok. I now understand. The name of the country was changed from Gold Coast to Ghana on the day of independence. And that year is?

Students: 6th March, 1957

From the interaction, we observe that the target of the question student 1 posed was to the teacher. However, the teacher could not understand the question as it was not clear enough for him to be able to provide the needed response. This compelled the teacher to demand clarification by asking for it. As a way of helping the student who asked the question, student 2 acted as a mediator by clarifying the question for the teacher to understand. The role of mediation in the communicative event is for a participant to understand another's utterance better. In Extract 18, the teacher reformulated the utterance of a student for the rest of the class to understand.

Extract 18

Teacher: *has someone any more questions for the class?*

Student1: *I would want to know whether we the people of Ghana speak the same English as those in Nigeria, it appears their intonation is different from our intonation.*

Teacher: *it is their accent that is different from our accent. Accent refers to how we speak through our way of pronouncing words. Intonation is rather a technical term that refers to how sentences are said to give different interpretations, including questions, statements and commands.*

Student2: *Yes, I think they have their special way of pronouncing their words, and that is different from how we pronounce words in English.*

Student1: *Does it mean that there are different types of English based on the accent of the speakers?*

Student3: *I don't think so. Every English is English.*

Teacher: *English is one language. Just that we have what is called dialects. This refers the different kinds of the same language spoken by different people at different geographical areas. Have you heard of things like British English,*

American English, and Australian English? These are not different languages but dialects of English.

From the extract, the teacher reformulates the student's utterance by providing the appropriate word, *accent*. When the turn came for the student whose utterance was regulated by the teacher to speak, he used the correct form as he abandoned the word *intonation* and opted for *accent* "Does it mean that there are different types of English based on the accent of the speakers?". It can be observed that by providing the student with the correct form through remediation, the student got access to the correct model of the target language. This observation is consistent with the assertion of Nassaji (2007) that when the teacher or conversational partner reformulates a speaker's erroneous utterance, the correction that is provided gives the interactant positive evidence. Additionally, the reformulated utterance tends to shift the conversational partner's attention from the message she or he is transmitting to the linguistic form by indicating that speaker's speech contains an error and the reformulator is correcting that error (cf. Doughty, 2001; Gass, 2003). In such cases, the regulation might result in what Nassaji (2007, p. 514) describes as "noticing the gap". This is a process that occurs "when the learner compares his or her original output with the teacher's output and then realizes that his or her interlanguage differs from the target language" (p. 514). Reformulation does not prompt the speaker to pause so that he could be corrected and continues his speech but occurs during the other speaker's turn. It has a pedagogical advantage to the second language learning context as it helps the learner to undertake a cognitive comparison of his erroneous speech and the regulated one (cf. Long & Robinson, 1998).

4.1.2.2.2 Lexical accommodation

Lexical accommodation is a kind of language regulation practice whereby a speaker adjusts his or her own language. According to Hynninen (2013, p. 141), lexical accommodation “can show how speakers take up others’ linguistic usage, and thus sheds light on the ways that a co-interactant’s language can affect a speaker’s language”. Thus, speakers in an interaction can take and reuse a lexical item that has been used by a previous interactant or co-interactant, which by that the speaker reusing the lexical item is seen as accommodating to the other speaker. It can also happen that the speaker may reject the item used by the previous speaker in the interaction. In this case, the speaker rejecting the lexical item is construed to be diverging from the interlocutor whose lexical item has been rejected (cf. Gallois et al, 2005).

In the data, lexical accommodation occurs in the English classroom where a student has been found describing adjectives as words that show how things look like. In the interaction the teacher rejected the student’s description of adjectives as words that show how things are by providing the appropriate terminology for the student. As a way of regulating the student’s language, he repeated the utterance of the students and modified aspects that he wanted to regulate. He said that *adjectives are words that describe nouns*. Here, the student’s form *to show the way things look like* has been replaced with *that describe nouns*. It can be seen that the teacher showed divergence from the student’s speech by using the terms that reflect the context as an English language classroom. As students learning English, the teacher wanted to tell the students that it is more appropriate to use *nouns* instead of *things*. The correction was accepted by the student who repeated the utterance of the teacher to confirm his acceptance of the correction.

In another classroom, it was observed that the teacher was not happy with the choice of a student's word. The teacher did not interrupt the student's speech in order to negotiate for the preferred choice of word. However, he waited after the student had finished his turn and then started his turn with a repetition of the student's sentence within which the lexical item he intended to regulate was found. He replaced that word with what he considered more appropriate without any overt hint to the students in the class that the student's choice of word was not appropriate for the contexts. As noted by the researcher's observation, the students who spoke subsequently after the first speaker never used the word the teacher regulated but rather the teacher's own. It therefore, appears to mean that as a usual practice in the classroom, the students have become accustomed to the teacher's manner of correction and therefore are able to pick this clue when it presents itself in the interaction with the teacher in the classroom. The illustration in Extract 19 presents the data from which such a lexical accommodation occurred.

Extract 19

Teacher: Do you know that sometimes, we rely on other word classes to derive others? Sometimes, we don't add affixes to words in order to form new words.

What we simply do as speakers of English language is to use the word as though it belongs to the word class we have used it for in the sentence. Now, tell me.

What is the word class or part of speech for the word water?

Students: Water is a noun.

Teacher: Alex, can you tell us why you think water belongs to the group called nouns?

Alex: This is because water is a name of a substance

Teacher: *That is excellent. Now, let's look at how water is used in these sentence.*

(a) The gardener will water the flowers.

(b) Agric students water their nursery every morning.

Teacher: *Now, looking at how the word water has been used in these two sentences, can we say it names a substance? Yes, who is helping us with a response?*

Student 1: *Sir, water in the sentences is the event that is happening.*

Teacher: *Yes, water is the action that students and the gardener perform. What then is the word the word class or part of speech for water as used in the sentences?*

Student2: *Sir, I think water this time around is a verb.*

Student3: *Water is a verb in the sentences.*

Teacher: *Yes, your observation is correct, water in these two sentences has been used as verbs. This explains my earlier statement that we can use words that belong to different parts of speech as though they belong to other parts of speech. The process that enable us to use words in this way is called conversion. Conversion allows us to change the part of speech of words in sentences without adding affixes. We have other examples like “don't dirty your shirt” where dirty, an adjective now becomes a verb, and “we are going for a walk” where walk, a verb is now used as a noun.*

Student4: *Sir, conservation is very interesting*

Student5: *Conversion is really interesting.*

Student4: *Sir, please do we have conversion in the sentence “the teacher marks the test and then recorded the marks”*

Teacher: Exactly, mark can be a verb and a noun depending on how the speaker uses it in the sentence.

In the extract, the teacher's choice of using the terms, *parts of speech* and *word class* with the conjunction *or* was intended to accommodate the problem of comprehension or understanding. Both phrases have been used by the teacher to make the students understand as they both meant the same thing. In terms of the lexical accommodation, we notice the kind that has been described as divergence, where the teacher did not use the term the student used but a different one. The teacher thus replaced the student's word *conservation* which is a term in science and with the contextually appropriate term, *conversion*. It can be realised that as the teacher accommodates the students' language by diverging, as seen in the teacher changing the word *conservation to conversation*, the boundary of acceptability is narrowed and this in turn increases communicative effectiveness by enhancing explicitness in speech. This observation contrasts with the findings of Cogo (2007). In her study, she found that speakers of English as a second language context accommodate through convergence by repeating forms from others' turn in the conversation. This actually indicates flexibility of the linguistic form, and in effect broadens the boundaries of acceptability beyond English as first language norms in the interaction.

Although the teacher repaired the language problem by supplying the correct word, he did not interrupt the student to deal with the communication problem that has been created before allowing the student to complete his turn. However, when it was the turn of the teacher to speak, he took the opportunity to repair the problem created by the student's wrong choice of word. It is observed that the rest of the students in the class did not raise any objection to the word *conservation* that student 4 used. This is probably because the teacher did not write the word *conversion* on the

board and so the other students were thinking they probably did not hear the exact word. Therefore, the repetition of the sentence by student 5 is not to just regulate the previous student's word, but also to confirm whether what he heard was indeed correct.

Student 4 then accepted the correction of student 5 or probably, based on how his perception of student 5 on grounds of academic performance, chose to concur with his word, *conversion* rather than continuing with his word, *conservation*. This occurred in his subsequent question: *Sir, please do we have conversion in the sentence "the teacher marks the test and the recorded the marks"*. The process of convergence in communication accommodation is then established between student 4 and student 5. In his speech after that of the students, the teacher repeated the word twice; this was done to bring clarity and to assure student 5 and the other students in the class who probably unlike student 4, also heard the word as *conversion*. Thus, in making sure the students get the right word, the teacher repeated it in the sentences *"The process that enables us to use words in this way is called conversion. Conversion allows us to change the part of speech of words in sentences without adding affixes"*

4.1.3 Summary

This section has discussed the two main types of language regulations in the classrooms of Senior High schools in Ghana: explicit or overt regulation and implicit or tacit regulation. It was found that the speaker's addressees may regulate his classroom language, a situation that has been described as other-repair; while the speaker can also regulate his own language, termed self-repair. In the course of the regulation, the study found that whether the regulation is done by the speaker or other conversational partners, it is sometimes initiated. The initiation of the regulation, according to findings discussed, may be done by the speaker, self-initiated regulation

or by his or interlocutors, others' initiation. On the issue of lexical accommodation, it was observed that teachers always diverge from their students' speech, and this tends to narrow the scope of acceptability in the classroom language use. This contrasts with results of the studies of researchers such as Cogo and Dewey (2006) and Cogo (2007) who considered what happens in the group discussions of non-native English speakers. In such context, the learners are assumed to be of the same level and therefore no one sees the responsibility of making one's language conform to native-speaker version. However, in the classrooms of the Senior High Schools in Ghana, the teacher would always want to be professional and one way of demonstrating this is regulate the language of his or her students.

4.2 Factors that trigger language regulation

This section discusses the factors that determine the regulation of language in the classroom. It considers the views of both teachers and their students with regards to what trigger the regulation in the classroom. The interview responses from both the teachers and students were considered for the purposes of analysis. According to the teachers who participated in the study, there are several factors that determine language regulation. The subsections that follow discuss these factors in detail.

4.2.1 The need for the regulation

From the data, all the participants, including the students were of the view that language regulation is very crucial. They further argued that since inappropriate use of language hinders smooth communication between interlocutors, it is appropriate that interlocutors regulate the language of their fellow interlocutors. In their responses to what triggers language regulation, the teachers agreed that they had to intervene in the language of their students when they realised that the language of their student did not conform to what they expect from them. Sometimes, the call to regulate a

student's language may not necessarily be triggered by ambiguity or failure to understand the student; but due to the fact that they (teachers) have their expectation of how the language should be spoken, which is based on their (teachers) knowledge of the language.

That is, since British English is the required language in the classroom, the teachers expect their students' language in the classroom to conform to Standard British English. A teacher explained that

I regulate the language of my students when their mistakes or they say something that does not conform to British standard.

This teacher explained further that:

What I mean by British English is that, the students sometimes place stress on the words wrongly, they have concord problem, and the crucial one is their pronunciation; so when the students deviate in any of these aspects, I come in to help by regulating their language.

Another teacher was of the view that various factors compel him to regulate the language of his students. He identified these as context, pronunciation and grammatical errors. Making his point clearer, the teacher asserted that:

Different factors require me to interrupt a student's speech, and these include context, mostly grammar and mostly pronunciation.

4.2.2 Nonconformity

In the words of another teacher (a social studies teacher), she usually intervenes in the speech of her students when she realises that their language deviates from the standard language. This is seen especially in areas such as grammar, inappropriate choice of vocabulary and context of use. She indicates that:

Yes I do intervene when they use the language wrongly, be it vocabulary, grammar or context. And I do this during both written and oral. The written one, I do it by underlining the wrong words or expression and I try to write the correct thing at the top of the wrong ones. But for the oral, I come in to correct instantly or sometimes their colleagues do the corrections

Almost all the teachers agreed that regulation is a must in the classroom. One teacher remarked..

The teacher must always regulate the students in his class to ensure their language conforms to expectation to enhance effective communication in the classroom.

A teacher also lamented on the use of Pidgin English in the classroom by students. According to her, the language of the classroom must always be Standard British English. Hence, she monitors her students in the classroom to ensure that their language does not exhibit characteristics of Ghanaian Pidgin English. She explained that:

I try as much as possible not to tolerate pidgin in my class. I make sure I stop them and help them reconstruct the sentences so they get correct vocabulary for their construction”

4.2.3 To establish the boundaries between acceptable and unacceptable language

In the opinion of one English teacher, his role as their English teacher places on him the responsibility to monitor the students’ language. He noted that teaches not only for the students to understand but also to ensure that the language of his students is consistent to British English. He emphasised his role as a language expert in the classroom and how that compels him monitor and regulate the language of his students who are understudying him in terms of their language use. He stated that:

I do it [language regulation] often. When a child speaks and there's an error, I will not let you land. I make sure you reconstruct whatever you said because as an English teacher, if you don't do that, there's no way you will get them come out with good presentations.

4.2.4 The need for comprehension and mutual understanding during communication

According to the teachers, a speech that is full of errors and language deviations hinders communication, by complicating the comprehension ability of the listeners of the speaker. One teacher asserted that:

Grammatical errors and wrong use of vocabulary makes it difficult to understand them.

A social studies teacher was of the view that effective communication in the classroom is very important and teachers need to ensure that it prevails in the classroom always:

Therefore, when a student does not know the content of what he or she is presenting to you, he ends up confusing others. When they don't have command over what they are presenting. When they can't construct correct grammatical sentences and sometimes when they use wrong vocabularies, when they exhibit wrong choice of words in some contexts, and sometimes pronunciation. When a student has good grammar, and uses simple words, it makes it easy to understand.

Concerning the regulation of their own language, the teachers concur with one another that they sometimes have to do it because there is the need for it. Sometimes, self-regulation of language becomes necessary because the students are unable to understand the teacher. This means that it requires the teacher to regulate his own language by making it simple, to the standard of their students. Sometimes, this calls

for the use of a different sentence structure, change of vocabulary or lowering of the tempo with which the sentence is uttered or a word is pronounced. According to the teachers, they employ synonyms and antonyms to make themselves understood by their students. A social studies teacher commented that:

You know these young ones; sometimes when they bore [annoy] you, you use big language to deter them, but when you actually mean business to teach them you have to, when you start [teaching them]; you know that's why we have synonyms. You keep varying them based on the performance of the students. Hence I take their background into consideration.

From the discussion on correction of interlocutors' language and commenting on them, we observe that the regulation of language, as shown in the data, was practised by the interactants to enable mutual understanding during communication. Not only does it enhance understanding, sometimes the correction of one's language is triggered when the need to establish the boundaries between acceptable and unacceptable language arises. This observation is consistent to Hynninen's (2013, p. 118) assertion that "language correcting and commenting show that language regulation was done in order to achieve mutual understanding, but also to define boundaries between unacceptable and acceptable (or correct) language". Another factor we observe as shown in the responses of the teachers, is the assumption of responsibility. The teachers feel that they are in the classroom to monitor and ensure that their students use language that conforms to the Standard English. In this regard, teachers who hold this view see language regulation as a professional responsibility and also the need to make classroom language conform to Standard English. As the teachers assume the responsibility of making classroom language conform to the

Standard English, they indirectly establish the boundary between acceptability/correctness and unacceptability.

Moreover, some teachers appear to have subscribed to the behaviourist paradigm to language learning. According to these teachers, they have to regulate the language of their students because they do not want their undesired verbal behaviours of their students to become a habit. They therefore correct every mistake of their learners. On the idea that language should be regulated always, some teachers hold the view that, in the classroom, they have the responsibility to model students' speech to conform to the Standard English; language regulation is therefore considered part of the teachers' duties in the classroom. This perspective of the teachers conforms to what Chandler's (2003) assertion that teachers' feedback on students' grammatical and lexical errors significantly improves both accuracy and fluency of their language. On whether they always regulate the language of their students, some of the teachers observed that:

Teacher1: Yes, I regulate my students' language. I try as much as possible not to tolerate pidgin in my class. I make sure I stop them and help them reconstruct the sentences so they get correct vocabulary for their constructions

Teacher2: Yes I do intervene when they use the language wrongly, be it vocabulary, grammar or context. And I do this during both written and oral.

The written one, I do it by underlining the wrong words or expression and I try to write the correct thing at the top of the wrong ones. But for the oral, I come in to correct instantly or sometimes their colleagues do the corrections

Teacher3: Yes, I regulate anytime I spot an error. You see, whatever a teacher teaches the child, that is what the child adopts and it becomes a part of him or her. Hence if a teacher teaches the wrong thing, the child adopts it and uses the

wrong thing for the rest of his or her life; so if the child says something erroneous without interrupting him to correct that error, he assumes it is fine and moves.

Teacher4: Yes, I do it often. When a student speaks and there is an error, I will not let him land. I make sure you reconstruct whatever you said because as an English teacher, if you don't do that, there's no way you will get them come out with good presentations

Contrary to the views expressed by the English teachers on the idea that they must always regulate their students' language, one of the social studies teachers claimed that he does not always regulate the language of his students, especially when the error does not affect the communication or the idea being conveyed. He responded that:

No, not always, sometimes I ignore petty mistakes, hoping that the students will identify them and self-correct. I think as teachers, we must not do all the work, the students should learn to edit their own speech.

This view of the teacher supports the argument of Ferris that students can be successfully taught to self-edit their own texts if they are (a) focused on the importance of editing; (b) trained to identify and correct patterns of frequent and serious errors; and (c) given explicit teaching as needed about the rules governing these patterns of errors (Ferris, 1999, p. 5).

4.2.5 Summary

The discussion has looked at the views of the interviewees (teachers and students) on the triggers of classroom language regulation. It therefore occurred that the teachers needed to regulate their students' language as part of their professional duty. This conforms to the view of Sinclair (2000). That is, in order for students to be

able to initiate and regulate their own language learning behaviours, they need to develop consciousness of the learning process and its effect, as this is required to make them make informed decisions, and to acquire experience in executing and managing learning their own learning outcomes. Thus, according to some of the teachers, when learners use self-regulation strategies, they attain the ability and skills to plan, choose appropriate cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and evaluate the learning outcomes (see also Seker, 2015).

From the discussion, both self-regulated and other-regulated regulated language learning have both communicative and pedagogical implication as the process develops learners' cognitive, behavioural, affective, and social features and make them active, independent, and constructive learners. Thus, according Zimmerman & Schunk, (2008, p. 1), teachers attempt to make their students "set better learning goals, implement more effective learning strategies, monitor and assess their progress better, establish a more productive environment for learning, seek assistance more often when it is needed, expend effort and persist better, and set more effective new goals when present ones are completed". In effect, language regulation in the classroom is part of the effort in ensuring that all of these are achieved.

4.3 Responsibility for language regulation in the classroom

Language regulation in the classroom and its associated issues like attitudes the participants have concerning the regulation and who has the responsibility to regulate language has been informed by the ideologies people hold about language, especially classroom language. Language ideology has been seen as a set of beliefs about language and its use in society (Kroskrity, 2004; Lippi-Green, 2004). In the classroom, language ideologies shape and inform participants in their notion of language, how language should be learnt, and the conditions that will enhance its

acquisition and learning. The analysis showed instances in which teachers ignored the errors of their students, especially in cases where the teachers involved were not English teachers. Thus, whether a teacher may interrupt a student's speech and regulate his or her language depends on two factors: whether the teacher considers the error as serious by causing a communication problem, where it impedes understanding of the utterance of the student or what the teacher's orientation is pertaining to how language should be used, especially, in the context of the classroom. Many studies including Friedman (2010), Moore (2006) and Griswold (2011, p. 412) have also proven that through selective error correction, "teachers express their own cultural biases and specific language ideologies".

These two positions bring the idea of ownership; "who can take on the role of language expert, and thus decides on the norms others are supposed to follow" (Hynninen, 2013, p. 219). It is seen from the analysis that in the classroom, language correction and commenting was not reserved for the teacher alone, who is perceived as the representative of the native speaker and therefore functions as a language expert. The analysis showed that the students and their teachers, in the classroom, ensured that language is used in an acceptable manner. Without the presence of any native speaker, the responsibility of correction and commenting was assumed by both teachers and students, though teachers were accorded the role of experts with their language use considered acceptable. Thus, as intimated by Knapp (2002), non-native speakers of English, in the context of English as a second language settings, reject the idea of 'anything goes' and always crave to draw the boundary between acceptability or correctness and unacceptability. The analysis has also shown that, in terms of the correction, four language experts have been observed.

4.3.1 *The native speaker of English*

The highest level of expertise is reserved for native speakers, whose position, in the context of the Ghanaian schools, is taken by dictionaries. Hence, it occurred that instances whereby both teachers and students are unable to establish a definite form or usage in terms of correctness, the dictionary is consulted. The dictionary is often consulted in the classroom for the correct pronunciation of words as shown in the previous data. Therefore, in situations whereby the teacher thinks that he is not sure about the acceptable form he calls for the help of a native speaker of English, which in the contexts of the classrooms and in most of the schools visited, is the dictionary. There were instances where teachers requested for dictionaries to confirm the correctness or otherwise of a linguistic form. Thus, without the physical presence of a native speaker of English in the classroom, the dictionary which is assumed to have been written by the native speakers and therefore its realisation and use of an expression, is considered a model for the learners as it functions or plays the role of native English language speaker in the classrooms.

4.3.2 *Language expert by profession*

After the dictionary is someone considered language expert by profession. In the analysis, we observed a situation where the teacher teaching social studies considered himself lower in terms of professional role and accorded the English teacher as an experts with the requisite expertise in addressing the encountered language problem. There were instances also where teachers who teach different subjects had asked their students to resort to their English teachers for clarification. This implies that even among the teachers, English teachers are considered to have higher expertise in determining the correctness or otherwise of a particular linguistic unit in the classroom. The social studies teachers' recommendation of the English

teacher to the students is therefore based on the English teacher's professional role and subject expertise as a speaker of the language.

4.3.3 *Other teachers' expertise*

Another instance of expert that was brought into the interaction to help in the regulation of language is other teacher's expertise. From the data, it is evident that all the teachers in the classrooms in which the study sampled the data were Ghanaians. We realised from the analysis that every teacher in the classroom has some level of expertise in correcting language of their students. This was evident in the social studies classrooms, where the teachers were regulating the language of their students. This makes the regulation of classroom language a duty of all teachers and not only those who teach English alone.

4.3.4 *The students*

At the bottom of the hierarchy are the students. We also observed from the analysis that the students who were part of the interaction were actively involved in the negotiation of acceptability of an interactants language. In this case, we noted that the speakers were freely commenting on the language of other students in the classroom. It occurred in the data, that there were instances that teacher who is construed as expert allows the students to engage in the negotiation of acceptability among themselves. Though the teachers have been observed to offer their expert knowledge which then becomes the form the class accepts as correct, there were other instances that the teacher pays less attention the debate of the students as they attempt to establish the correctness of speakers' language. The instances where the teacher ignores the negotiation process of the students in their attempt to establish the acceptable form were observed in the social studies and business classrooms.

The findings, therefore, conform to the observation of Hynninen (2013) that language regulation is:

(1) expertise-based, which relates to the professional role and subject expertise of the speaker, (2) L1-based, which means that the expertise is assigned to a native speaker of English, (3) negotiation between speakers, where any of the speakers can do the commenting, and (4) expertise of the language professional, which means that an English instructor was treated as the language expert.

(p. 119)

In studies conducted by Knapp (2002), it was observed that native speaker students usually abstain from correcting the language of their fellow native speakers. Hynninen (2013, p. 119) observes that it appears inappropriate for native speakers of English to attempt to draw attention to language or the differences in the command of English during interactions in the contexts of English as a Lingua Franca. In a similar observation, Knapp (2002) maintains that native speakers of English undertake the responsibility to correct the language of their fellow native speakers on rare occasions when, of course, they have been tasked with the responsibility to undertake such duty or have been appointed by an institution to play role of a linguistic authority, where they are regarded as instructors of English language courses.

4.3.5 Summary

It may be right in assuming that the native speakers perceive their fellow native speakers that their level of command over the language is great and therefore does not need to be regulated during interaction, hence their reluctance in correcting their fellow students during conversations. However, Hynninen (2013, p. 120) explains that the native speakers of English feel reluctant correcting their fellow

native speakers because they “were not comfortable taking on the role of language expert.” In the context of Ghanaian classrooms, students and teachers are both alert in regulating language. Although the students do not regulate the teacher’s language, they are often seen to be on alert hoping a student commits errors so that they can correct him. This act could be explained that they understand the contexts and the level of competency they have in the language to be inadequate. To them, this means they are prone to making mistakes and errors in their speech.

The analysis showed that there were instances where the teachers appeared to have ignored the errors in the student’s utterance. However, the students did not allow the errors pass without regulating. To this effect, the students have mutual concern for one another’s language and have conceived the idea that the responsibility of ensuring that every student’s language is consistent to what the micro community (school or class) considers appropriate is collective. The idea of collective responsibility in language regulation makes every student a language expert with the implicit responsibility of ensuring that his or her fellow students speak English devoid of observable errors. The discussion so far has indicated that in the classroom, students grant the ownership of English to native speakers of the language and therefore consider and use them as the highest authority in determining the correctness (and also acceptability) of their usage of the language. Hence, creating the boundaries between correctness incorrectness is not reserved to the micro-community; the classroom also, but also the macro-community.

4.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, the findings from the analysis of data based on the research objectives have been presented. The different results from all the research instruments used have been discussed. As a result of this, the study found both teachers and

students in the Eastern Region of Ghana engaging in various language regulatory practices in the classroom. Some of these practices involved taking on expertise roles where both teachers and students take on expertise roles. Additionally, the native speaker was also observed to be at the peak of the hierarchy of language regulation in the classroom classrooms of senior high schools in Ghana. These experts regulate language either explicitly where the conversation is interrupted to repair a linguistic error or implicitly where interactants do not interrupt conversation but wait for their turn to regulate. In this case, interactants either engage in embedded repair or reformulation. With all these language regulatory practices happening in the classrooms of senior high schools, various factors for which the language experts take on these expertise roles have been enumerated. These included nonconformity, lack of comprehension and even the need to regulate the language of their students as their profession demands.

The findings from the study revealed that the language regulatory practices were aimed at increasing chances for mutual understanding. In this light, alternative ways of expressing the same thing were observed (e.g. reformulation and embedded repairs). This means that the regulatory practices inform us how to achieve successful communication through negotiating acceptability and also correctness in interaction. This lends support to Yule's (1996) assertion that when there is inappropriate use of language, speakers can be misled, leading to miscommunication. Again, participants, as can be seen from the findings, used the language accurately and with confidence. This conforms to what Chandler's (2003) assertion that teachers' feedback on students' grammatical and lexical errors significantly improves both accuracy and fluency of their language.

We also observed that participants especially the interactants were always alert to correct the language of other interactants. This actually made some of the participants coil back into their shells for fear of being laughed at by other interactants before the correction. In cases like these it would be very beneficial if learners are oriented on the need for language regulation and guided to self-regulate their own language, learners' confidence will be built to participate effectively in interactions. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study indicated that elicitation, metalinguistic correction, clarification requests, and repetition led to learner-generated repair (self-repair) more successfully because these four different types of repairs made learners more aware of their errors and allowed for learner generated repair.

On the issue of implicit language regulation, it was observed that the one who produced the incorrect linguistic item was not given any chance to repeat the corrected alternative. In this case, there is nothing to prove that the other interactant has recognised the embedded repair done by the teacher. This may imply that there may be no regulation at all on the part of the one who produced the incorrect linguistic or grammatical form. This lends support to Chandler's (2003) argument that learners whose errors are corrected indirectly (implicit) do not know whether their own hypothesized corrections are indeed accurate or not. This delay in access to the target form might level out the potential advantage of the cognitive effort associated with implicit corrective feedback.

The teachers were seen as the highest in the hierarchy of language expertise after the dictionaries which took the place of native speakers. As it was evident in the findings, the students regulated their own language and that of other students but not that of the teacher. This implies that the students see the teacher as an epitome of correct form of the language at all times. In this regard, a form that a teacher gives is

always seen as correct and acceptable to be repeated without comment or negotiation. Samuda (2001) argued that a teacher must be able to guide learners' attention towards form through elicitation to prompt learners into using the target features. Also, in a few cases, the regulation was done simply by indicating that a problem exists. In such a case, it was left to the one who produced an erroneous form self-regulate. Meanwhile it is the duty of the higher language expert (in this case, the teacher) to do the repair. To this effect, Leeman (2003) cautions that explicit correction that consists of simply indicating that a problem exists does not appear to be helpful.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusion of the study. It summarises the key findings of the research and some recommendations for further studies. With the main objective of the study seeking to understand the notion and practice of language regulation in the classrooms of senior high schools in Ghana, the study took a systematic approach to study the phenomenon. Thus, the researcher was interested in language-regulatory practices of managing and monitoring language in interaction, and speakers' notions of acceptability and correctness in language. It therefore aimed at investigating the practices of language regulation in the classroom; understanding the factors that inform the regulation of language in the classroom and how teachers and students take on the responsibility for language regulation in the process of negotiating for correctness and acceptability.

A qualitative design was chosen for the analysis of the data from 376 participants in the Eastern Region of Ghana. With the help of classroom recording, guided interview and observation, it has shown that basically, two language regulation forms exist; explicit and implicit. Both teachers and students take on the responsibility for language regulation but in a hierarchical order. Factors such as comprehension, nonconformity, the need for regulation and acceptability were identified to trigger the regulation of language in the classroom. A summary of the findings for each objective is presented in the next section. The third section discusses the role of language regulation in teaching and learning of English language. The fourth section discusses

the pedagogical implications of the results. The fifth section presents suggestions for future research and the chapter ends with a conclusion.

5.1 Summary of findings

The findings of the study are presented in accordance with the specific objectives of the study which are to investigate the forms of language regulation in the classroom of senior high schools in the eastern region; understand the factors that inform the regulation of language in the classrooms of Senior high schools in the eastern Region and to determine who takes on the responsibility for language regulation in the classrooms. The findings on each of these objectives are discussed in the sections that follow.

5.1.1 Findings on forms of language regulation

The first objective concerns forms of language regulation in the English language classroom. The findings revealed that two forms of language regulations exist. These are explicit and implicit forms. It was found that the speaker's addressees in an explicit language regulation may regulate others' classroom language, a situation that has been described as other-repair; while the speaker can also regulate his own language, termed self-repair. In the course of the regulation, the study found that whether the regulation is done by the speaker or other conversational partners, it is sometimes initiated. The initiation of the regulation, according to findings discussed, may be done by the speaker; self-initiated regulation or by his or her interlocutors, others' initiation.

On the notion of implicit regulation which takes the form of an incomplete reformulation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), it occurs when the one doing the correction refuses to interrupt the speaker to regulate but rather waits till it is his turn to speak. The findings revealed two types of implicit regulation. These were embedded repair

and reformulation. In embedded repair, the speaker who intends to do the correction embeds the correction in his utterance during his turn. In the case of reformulation, a student attempts to restate the statement of another student to the whole class (mediation), while the teacher or a student lexically accommodates where speakers take up others' linguistic usage. In this case, teachers always diverge from their students' speech, and this tends to narrow the scope of acceptability in classroom language use.

5.1.2 Factors that trigger language regulation

With respect to ideology, it has been revealed in the discussion that while some teachers have the perception that they have to always regulate their students' language to ensure that their verbal performances do not deviate from the way they think the language should be spoken, other teachers overlook some errors because they think it is not everything about language that has to be corrected. The latter usually prevails when the teacher does not consider the error as "too serious" with the potential of affecting the message being conveyed. Hence, as teachers become selective in the activity of language regulation, they express their own cultural biases and specific language ideologies. It also showed that there are classrooms where both teachers and students perceive language regulation as a collective responsibility. In this regard, the activity of language regulation is shared between both teachers and students.

It was revealed in the analysis that the teachers needed to regulate their students' language as part of their professional duty. This conforms to the view of Sinclair (2000). From the findings on correction of interlocutors' language and commenting on them, we observe that the regulation was practised by the interactants to enable mutual understanding during communication. Not only does it enhance

understanding, sometimes the correction of one's language is triggered when the need to establish the boundaries between acceptable and unacceptable language arises. This observation is consistent with Hynninen's (2013, p. 118) assertion that "language correcting and commenting show that language regulation was done in order to achieve mutual understanding, but also to define boundaries between unacceptable and acceptable (or correct) language". Lastly, it was shown that teachers usually intervene in the speech of their students when they realise that their language deviates from the standard language. In effect, language regulation in the classroom is part of the effort in ensuring that all of these are achieved.

5.1.3 Responsibility for language regulation

Concerning the correction of spoken language in the classroom, the findings of the study showed that an interlocutor's language may be corrected by another interlocutor, whereby the demarcation of acceptability is established. The interlocutors in the speech event can at any time regulate another's language, with the regulator's role played by both teachers and the students. The analysis showed that the speaker in the classroom, which could be the teacher or a student, can regulate his or her own language or others. It was evident that in the case of others', the acceptability or otherwise of the regulation is negotiated between the participants of the interaction. The negotiation becomes intense when it occurs among the students, with the teacher trying to allow them settle on their own norm.

The study showed that the debate among the students in negotiating for the correctness and acceptability of a linguistic form is caused by the horizontal relationship holding between them. In other words, the level of expertise with regard to language is considered relatively equal among the students and, therefore the acceptability of a regulated linguistic unit is sometimes a matter of majority. On the

other hand, the teacher is construed to have higher expertise in the language and therefore his decisions concerning the regulation of a student's language is considered final. In this regard, the teacher is perceived as the best representative (prototype) of the native speaker of the language in the classroom.

The findings of the study also showed that teachers who teach different subjects sometimes refer their students to those who teach English for confirmation of a regulated linguistic unit. However, with the English teachers functioning as representatives of the native speakers, they sometimes also need a confirmation for the correctness of language. In such situations, dictionaries are consulted. Regulation of language in the classroom, therefore, is not reserved for the speech of the students alone. In the study, it was revealed that teachers, irrespective of the subjects they teach, regulate their own language as well as that of their students. What appeared to be a one-way affair is that the data did not show instances where students were regulating the language of their teachers. This is usually the case because the teacher is perceived as being of the highest expertise in the classroom and this makes whatever he says in terms of regulating students' language ideal.

5.2 The role of language regulation in the teaching and learning of English

The main purpose of using language is communication. For this reason, an interlocutor's speech must be intelligible to others. This means that he must acquire the right pronunciation and intonation. This can be possible when a person's speech or language is regulated. After all, 'to regulate' is to control or to direct by a rule, method or principle (Prasad, 2018). It is an undeniable fact that communicative language teaching (CLT) is the ultimate goal of language teaching and learning. The most important goal of CLT is to enable learners to communicate in the target language. In all this, the teacher of the language is to be seen as a facilitator and not an instructor.

This will surely create the enabling environment for the teacher to regulate the language of his students and for students to regulate their own language and that of others in the classroom. Prasad (2018) asserts that the teacher should insist on accuracy in all aspects of language learning. Prasad's assertion makes it clear that language regulation has a special role in the teaching and learning of language in the classroom.

Speaking in favour of implicit forms of correction, Ellis (1994) argues that provision of negative evidence, especially in the form of implicit types of correction, facilitates the development of L2 syntactic ability. Similarly, Long (1996) lends support to the relatively implicit use of interactional moves, including, "various input and conversational modifications, which immediately follow learner utterances and maintain reference to their meaning" (p. 452). According to the interaction hypothesis, such responses provide learners with negative evidence that in turn facilitates language development. Along these lines, Lyster (1998) notes that providing learners in communicatively oriented contexts with signals that facilitate peer- and self-repair may draw their attention to target-non-target mismatches more effectively than merely supplying target forms in the interactional input. Implicit repair or correction as a form of language regulation has been proven to facilitate language development. However, it is important that teachers of the English language know how and when to implicitly regulate the language of their students in order to achieve the desired goal.

The results of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study indicate that elicitation, metalinguistic correction, clarification requests, and repetition lead to learner-generated repair(self- repair) more successfully. This is because these four different types of repairs make learners more aware of their errors and allow for learner

generated repair. Explicit language regulation can never be sidelined in the language regulation process. Similarly to the implicit, the explicit plays a significant role in the teaching and learning of English. This study may have some implications for language teachers. In the context of communicative activities, teachers should not hesitate in providing explicit correction; however, whenever the situation arises they should supply explicit repair. In whichever form language regulation takes, it is important to indicate that an error has been committed. However, Leeman (2003) cautions that explicit correction that consists of simply indicating that a problem exists does not appear to be helpful. A more detailed metalinguistic correction works better (e.g. Nagata, 1993; Rosa & Leow, 2004). In this regard, Samuda (2001) argues that a teacher may be able to guide learners' attention towards form-meaning relationships using either implicit or explicit techniques. On the other hand, but she found that explicit feedback involving metalinguistic comments and elicitation are needed to prompt learners into using the target features.

Gass and Varonis (1994) conclude from their study of dyadic interaction that giving feedback provides the opportunities for learners to detect such discrepancies. Thus, the awareness of this mismatch serves the function of triggering a modification of existing L2 knowledge, the results of which may show up at some later point in time. It has seriously been argued by Chandler (2003) that whereas explicit correction enables learners to instantly internalize the correct form as provided by their teacher, learners whose errors are corrected implicitly do not know whether their own hypothesized corrections are indeed accurate or not. This delay in access to the target form might level out the potential advantage of the cognitive effort associated with implicit corrective feedback. In support of this, Bitchener and Knoch (2009) recount the benefits of the explicit corrective feedback: (1) reduces the

confusion that language learners may experience; (2) provides language learners with information to help them resolve more complex errors (for example, syntactic structure and idiomatic usage); (3) provides language learners with more input on hypotheses that may have been made; and (4) it is more immediate.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

After investigating language regulation in the English language classroom, it is necessary to suggest some implications that these results may have on English language teaching. The observation of the lessons revealed that some students become quiet in class because they feel shy that their language is not good enough and may feel embarrassed by others when they are corrected. It was witnessed that some students were not happy about the fact that their colleagues were trying to regulate their language. In this regard, it is suggested that teachers, especially form masters, orient their students on the need and manner of regulation of language in the classroom. This will enable students to develop positive attitude towards the regulation process, especially when it involves horizontal regulation. The findings also revealed that in the process of language regulation, learners are given the opportunity to negotiate for correct and acceptable language while they interact with other learners in the classroom. It is therefore crucial that teachers and other stakeholders in education design a system that provides learners opportunity to practice English in the form of negotiating for correctness and acceptability in the class as well as outside, even as it is important for them to have time to digest, reflect and analyze what has been exposed to them.

It was also evident during the observation sections that one of the classrooms did not have a dictionary to consult as the class prefect had to run to the library to get one. This interrupted the flow of the teaching and learning process. It is therefore

recommended that teachers, especially those who teach English, make their class prefects provide a dictionary in the classroom before the lesson begins. On the implication of Communication Accommodation Theory, the theory has revealed that teachers in the classroom must regulate their own speech so that their utterances will reflect the level of their students (or convergence). This will enable comprehension and mutual understanding. Teachers, in the course of teaching and learning, should never neglect the importance of language regulation in the classroom. Owing to this, they should integrate both explicit and implicit forms during the regulation process. Hence, teachers should be knowledgeable in these two forms of language regulation in order to benefit from it.

5.4 Suggestion for future research

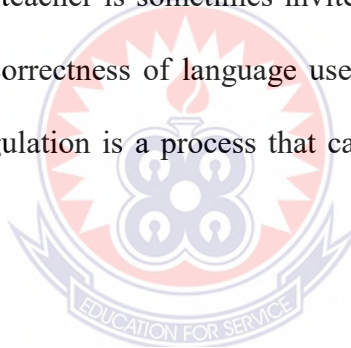
Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that the study is replicated in other areas of the country. This has become necessary because this current study occurred in a Twi speaking area. It will be appreciated if other social variables in relation to language regulation in other locations that may be examined result in different findings. This will ensure external validity of the findings of the study. In this regard, the research could be a mixture of quantitative and qualitative to ascertain the facts.

5.5 Conclusion

The conclusions are made in relation to the research objectives. With regard to the findings of this study, it is possible to deduce that language regulation in the classrooms of senior high schools in Ghana is undertaken as a shared responsibility between teachers and their students. Teachers regulate their own language in the form of restatement, restructuring of their sentences and the use of synonyms or antonyms. Teachers are able to feel the urge to regulate their own language by observing the

facial expressions of their students in the classroom when an utterance is produced. There are also instances whereby the students explicitly request their teachers to explain what has been said. The teacher may also regulate the language of his students by replacing an inappropriate word (based on context or pronunciation) in their utterance.

Sometimes, the teachers leave the correction for the students to make it themselves. In such cases, the teacher deliberately repeats the utterance of the student, and the tone with which he or she repeats it gives the student a clue that there is a problem that needs to be corrected. There are also instances whereby the students undertake their own correction and negotiate for the acceptability of a linguistic form or unit. In this case, the teacher is sometimes invited into the negotiation to provide his expert view on the correctness of language use in the class. In conclusion, it is argued that language regulation is a process that cannot be neglected in the English language classroom.



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APPENDIX A

Interview

Teacher A -

SECTION A: Background

1. Interviewer : Could you start by briefly telling me about your background as a teacher? Interviewee: i went to the University of Education Winneba and after completion, was posted to the New Juaben Senior high. I have taught for just a year.
2. Interviewer : Are you a trained teacher?
Interviewer: Yes. From the university of education, Winneba
3. Interviewer: Do you have a degree in English language? Did you specialise in the teaching of English language?
Interviewee: no, i don't. I did not specialise in the teaching of English language. I specialised in twi.
4. Interviewer: How long have you been teaching English?
Interviewee: Since i was posted into this school, so a year ago
5. Interviewer: Are you happy being an English teacher? Can you share any advantage you think your subject of teaching has offered you over other teachers in other areas?
Interviewee: No, I'm actually not so happy because i didn't specialise in English
6. Interviewer: How many schools have you taught English?
Interviewee: this is my first school
7. Interviewer: Which language teaching methods are you aware of?
Interviewee: discussion, lecture method, etc
8. Interviewer :Which language teaching method(s) do you employ in teaching your students
Interviewee: discussion
9. Interviewer: How effective is this method?
Interviewee: I think it is very effective.

10. Interviewer: What is your philosophy of teaching?

Interviewee: that i do my best as far as the teaching of the language is concerned so every student who pass through my hands will be able to express him or herself well i the language

SECTION B: Teachers View on his students

11. Interviewer: Can you tell us about your students' communicative performance in English?

Interviewee: my students' communicative performance is not bad at all. They are able to communicate well for both teachers and their colleagues to understand them.

12. Interviewer: Do you sometimes find it difficult to understand what your students say in English?

Interviewer: not really.

13. What do you do if you do not understand what your students say in English?

Interviewer: i tell them to come again or sit down and reorganise their thoughts and come back again. Sometimes some students try to reconstruct the sentence for them.

14. Interviewer: What do you do if you notice that other students do not understand you in class?

Interviewee: I try as much as possible to explain or reframe what i said.

15. Interviewer: How would you describe a successful language learner?

Interviewee: one who is able to express him or herself well both written and oral.

16. Interviewer: Is there something you would like to add? Anything you think we should know about teaching English, but have not asked?

Interviewer: no.

SECTION C: Teacher's own language use in the classroom

1. Interviewer: What means do you use to ensure your message is understood by your students?

Interviewee: by sing simple and easy to understand words

2. Interviewer: What means do you use to ensure that you have understood your student' message?

Interviewee: by sometimes repeating it in other words and asking if they understand

3. Interviewer: Do you consciously change your language according to the person you are speaking to? If yes, in what ways?

Interviewee: no i don't consciously do that

4. Interviewer: What kinds of language related difficulties have you encountered during your teaching career? How have you overcome them?

Interviewer: as a specialist in the twi language who teaches twi, i sometime get tempted to make the students understand using the local language which is totally not the best. I therefore try my best to say it in other words or reframe it for students to understand.

5. Interviewer: Have you noticed that you have a tendency to explicate questions posed by a student to another student?

Interviewee: yes, i sometimes do

6. Interviewer: In what ways do you adapt your language to make the other person understand you? Do you use some particular means to do that?

Interviewee: by explaining using down to earth words or sometime use the last resort, the L1.

7. Interviewer: What qualities and/or skills do language learners need to develop to be successful in learning?

Interviewee: reading skills, writing skills are speaking skills

8. Interviewer: How do you assist your learners in gaining these qualities and/or skills?

Interviewer: through a lot of reading activities, writing. In the process, i correct them whenever they make a mistake.

SECTION D: Classroom Language Regulation

1. Interviewer: Can you tell us how you regulate your student language in the classroom?

Interviewee: By underlining the essays and coming in to correct when they make mistakes.

2. Interviewer: What triggers the regulation, culture, context, topic or grammar?

Interviewee: context , mostly grammar and mostly pronunciation

3. Interviewer: Do you sometimes feel you must always regulate classroom language?

Interviewee: no, not always

4. Interviewer: What challenges do you encounter in regulating your students language in the classroom?

Interviewer: the L1 of students influences students' language learning

5. Interviewer: Do you think the L1 of your students adversely affect your success in regulating your students' language in the classroom?

Interviewee: yes, it does

6. Interviewer: What is it like to teach English to students with very different linguistic and cultural Backgrounds?

Interviewer: it is a big challenge

7. Interviewer: What challenges do you see in teaching linguistically and culturally heterogeneous groups?

Interviewee : as i earlier said, their L1 always influences their learning of the language.

8. Interviewer : In your opinion, does a teacher also have a responsibility over a student's language? In what ways?

Interviewer : yes .whatever a teacher teaches the child , that is what the child adopt which becomes a part of him or her. Hence if a teacher teaches the wrong thing, the child adopts it and uses the wrong thing for the rest of his or her life.

9. Interviewer : Do you experience difficulties in teaching due to language?

Interviewee : no

10. Interviewer :Could you think of a situation where it was difficult to understand a student? What did you do in such situations?

Interviewee : yes, but the student tried to explain by using other words with the help of his colleagues.

11. Interviewer :What makes a student's speech difficult to understand? What makes it easy to understand?

Interviewee : wrong choice of words in some contexts and sometimes pronunciation. When a student has good grammar, and uses simple words, it makes it easy to understand

12. Interviewee : What makes a student's writing difficult to understand? What makes it easy to understand?

Interviewee : when a student uses complex word in wrong contexts. And then when a student uses complex sentences instead of simple

13. Interviewer : Have you noticed that a student would not understand you? How have you noticed it?

What do you do in such situations?

Interviewee : yes. The facial expression made me know. Also the answer that came out made me know that the student did not understand me. Hence, i immediately came down to the level of the student by reframing the utterance.

14. Interviewer : When do you intervene in a student's language (spoken/written)? Why? /Why not?

Interviewer : when they make mistakes or say something that does not conform to the British standard

Teacher B

SECTION A: Background

17. Interviewer: Could you start by briefly telling me about your background as a teacher?

Interviewee: i started the teaching service in the of the junior secondary schools in the Volta Region as a pupil teacher. I went to Winneba in 2011, from there, I've been in the classroom till now.

18. Interviewer: Are you a trained teacher?

Interviewee: Yes of course, from the University of Education Winneba.

19. Interviewer: Do you have a degree in English language? Did you specialise in the teaching of English language?

Interviewer: Yes

20. Interviewer: How long have you been teaching English?

Interviewee: 5 years

21. Interviewer: Are you happy being an English teacher? Can you share any advantage you think your subject of teaching has offered you over other teachers in other areas?

Interviewee: yes, why not, I am very very happy . Well, all the subjects, we use English to teach so somebody like me who studied English i have a bit advantage over them because the language they will use to communicate effectively, they might not have that one

22. Interviewer: How many schools have you taught English?
Interviewer: 3 schools
23. Interviewer: Which language teaching methods are you aware of?
Interviewer: question and answer method
24. Interviewer: Which language teaching method(s) do you employ in teaching your students?
Interviewee: as a language teacher, i normally use the question and answer method. That is what i prefer.
25. Interviewer: How effective is this method?
Interviewer: very effective
26. Interviewer: What is your philosophy of teaching?
Interviewee: that teaching is a reciprocal relationship between the teacher and the learners such that the teacher acts as a guide or facilitator

SECTION B: Teachers View on his students

27. Interviewer: Can you tell us about your students' communicative performance in English?
Interviewer: it is not as good as i do anticipate. But it is also impossible to also have them communicate as effective as i do. So i think at their level, it is very good
28. Interviewer: Do you sometimes find it difficult to understand what your students say in English?
Interviewer: no
29. Interviewer: What do you do if you do not understand what your students say in English?
Interviewer: i have not come across such a situation since i started teaching in the S.H.S.
30. Interviewer: What do you do if you notice that other students do not understand you in class?
Interviewer: Sometimes, it might be due to language, so i have to come down to their level sometimes too, the structure i put on the board they find it difficult. So what i do is to put them into groups and select a leader for each groups, i call all the leaders and take them through the structure and make sure

the leaders understand the structure and i do peer teaching for the group
leaders to teach their colleagues

31. Interviewer: How would you describe a successful language learner?

Interviewer: That is a teacher whose students perform well and communicate well in the language. By doing that, it means the students understand what the teacher is teaching and they are going to communicate effectively.

32. Interviewer: Is there something you would like to add? Anything you think we should know about teaching English, but have not asked?

Interviewer: no

SECTION C: Teacher's own language use in the classroom

9. Interviewer: What means do you use to ensure your message is understood by your students?

Interviewee: well after my lesson, i ask students if there is any question, and i sometime also ask them questions and give them assignments in the form of exercises and through my marking, i will know whether they understood or not

10. Interviewer: What means do you use to ensure that you have understood your student' message?

Interviewer: i don't encounter situations where i do not understand my students

11. Interviewer: Do you consciously change your language according to the person you are speaking to? If yes, in what ways?

Interviewer: yes. Sometimes when you realise that the students find it difficult understanding you based on the language, i consciously come down to their level

12. Interviewer: What kinds of language related difficulties have you encountered during your teaching career? How have you overcome them?

Interviewer: the sound identification (orals) in the English language is a big problem to students. Sometimes when you are teaching sounds, they perceive the letters. To overcome this challenge has not been easy and is not fully overcome but as i keep on making them realise that sounds are different from letters, and through regular exercises, i have been able to overcome it partially.

13. Interviewer: Have you noticed that you have a tendency to explicate questions posed by a student to another student?

Interviewee: yes sometimes i do

14. Interviewer: In what ways do you adapt your language to make the other person understand you? Do you use some particular means to do that?
Interviewee: sometimes when you are introducing a new structure to them, they behave as if they have understood you but when you throw the question to them, you realise they haven't understood you well so i reframe my statement to make them understand.
15. Interviewer: What qualities and/or skills do language learners need to develop to be successful in learning?
Interviewer: reading ability and comprehension ability
16. Interviewer: How do you assist your learners in gaining these qualities and/or skills?
Interviewer: as a teacher, those who have difficulty, we give them extra work. Sometimes we ask their colleagues who have understood to help them.

SECTION D: Classroom Language Regulation

15. Interviewer: Can you tell us how you regulate your student language in the classroom?
Interviewee: since we use the British standard, sometimes when marking their exercises, i try to write the correct form as a way of correcting them based on the standard from grammar books and dictionaries.
16. Interviewer: What triggers the regulation, culture, context, topic or grammar?
Interviewer: context and wrongful use of the rules of the language.
17. Interviewer: Do you sometimes feel you must always regulate classroom language?
Interviewee: sometimes it is not necessary
18. Interviewer: What challenges do you encounter in regulating your students language in the classroom?
Interviewee: when someone develops something for a long time, it's very difficult to correct, and that has been the biggest challenge.
19. Interviewer: Do you think the L1 of your students adversely affect your success in regulating your students' language in the classroom?
Interviewer: yes, for example the Akans, their "L" and "R" is a problem and so Ewes have with their intonation

20. Interviewer: What is it like to teach English to students with very different linguistic and cultural Backgrounds?
Interviewee: the L1 always influences their learning of the English language which makes it very difficult to teach the language.
21. What challenges do you see in teaching linguistically and culturally heterogeneous groups?
22. Interviewer: In your opinion, does a teacher also have a responsibility over a student's language? In what ways?
Interviewee: yes as a language teacher, you have the responsibility over their language. In a way that they will become perfect in that language.
23. Interviewer: Do you experience difficulties in teaching due to language?
Interviewer: no
24. Interviewer: Could you think of a situation where it was difficult to understand a student? What did you do in such situations?
Interviewer: No
25. Interviewer: What makes a student's speech difficult to understand? What makes it easy to understand?
Interviewer: grammatical errors and wrong use of vocabulary makes it difficult to understand them. However if they use simple sentences and vocabularies, it makes it easy to understand
26. What makes a student's writing difficult to understand? What makes it easy to understand?
27. Interviewer: Have you noticed that a student would not understand you? How have you noticed it?
Interviewee: oh yes. Based on the answer they give to the question you ask and sometimes their facial expressions
Interviewer: What do you do in such situations?
Interviewee: i explain further or change my language and use a more clearer expression or change my method entirely.

Teacher C

SECTION A: Background

33. Interviewer: Could you start by briefly telling me about your background as a teacher? Interviewee : i have been teaching for the past 18 years now. I started with the J.H.S, then J.S.S and then i went back to school after which i came here Juaben. This is about 12 years in Juaben. I have been teaching English since, sometimes with literature.
34. Interviewer: Are you a trained teacher? Interviewee : yes. I completed Gyasikan training college
35. Interviewer: Do you have a degree in English language? Did you specialise in the teaching of English language? Interviewee : yes i have a degree in English from the university of Ghana Legon
36. Interviewer: How long have you been teaching English? Interviewee : 12 years
37. Interviewer: Are you happy being an English teacher? Can you share any advantage you think your subject of teaching has offered you over other teachers in other areas? Interviewee: Oh yeah, i am very happy teaching the language. Just that we have a few challenges here and there which sometimes make the English language very difficult for you. Sometimes you feel when you have the opportunity to go back to school, you will not go and read English as a subject any longer. It has given me a lot of advantages over my other colleagues in the sense that if there is any programme that has to do with communication, i will be called over many other teachers on my staff. So as long as u can carry yourself as an English teacher, u are blessed.
38. Interviewer: How many schools have you taught English? Interviewee: after University of Ghana, since 2007, I've not moved yet. I'm planning to and it will come soon
39. Interviewer: Which language teaching methods are you aware of? Interviewee: well if the ones i know or use are correct, then i use discussion method, we have group work
40. Interviewer: Which language teaching method(s) do you employ in teaching your students?

Interviewee: yeah, discussion i discuss with the student. Sometime it becomes so difficult for them to help u out so you give them a little bit lecture after which you bring them on board through activities. We normally also have activity based form of teaching the language.

41. Interviewee: How effective is this method?

Interviewee: It is effective because as for the discussion, when you are done, the only time u are able to access the understanding of the child is by asking questions. So you ask questions, their response tells you that it effective. And then the activity method too, they also sometime suggest other things that could be used as you have given example. So all these things work out.

42. Interviewer: What is your philosophy of teaching?

Interviewee: is to teach the child such that no teacher the child will meets in life or history, would have been the best teacher in English for him or her.

SECTION B: Teachers View on his students

43. Interviewer: Can you tell us about your students' communicative performance in English?

Interviewee: well, since i teach English as a subject, there's no way i will allow you in my class to use any other language, the vernacular for example the Akan, Ewe, etc. If you do it that way, then it means that the child or student u are helping will not come out very well because you have to use the language for the child to be able to response and give you feedback to communicate back so the language is always used in class. I think they are doing very well, except lately where we have the free S.H.S. staff and all have been brought into the system. That is where we have more challenge, though in the past we still had that challenge, they were few but today we have them in ascendancy.

44. Interviewer: Do you sometimes find it difficult to understand what your students say in English?

Interviewer: on rear occasions because as much as possible i think they explain themselves or communicate to my understanding. It's only a few cases

45. Interviewer: What do you do if you do not understand what your students say in English?

Interviewee: i lead them. I give them leading questions till we hit the nail on the head.

46. Interviewer: What do you do if you notice that other students do not understand you in class?

Interviewee : i still break my language down because i find it find difficult or it will be disgracing or disgraceful for someone to enter the English language class for you to be using the Ghanaian language to explain the English language you are teaching. I think it will not be the best. I don't do it. I try to communicate or bring the work down to a level that they will understand

47. Interviewer: How would you describe a successful language teacher?

Interviewer: a successful language teacher is not one who only teaches for students to pass they go and that ends it. If it's about teaching and passing which is the optimum goal for a teacher and a student, fair. But the deeper understanding of the language is also very paramount. The child should be able to express him or herself even outside the co-curricular of the English language. The child should be able to stand anywhere after going through the system or my hand to be able to communicate, to be able to express him or herself. When all that is done, when a question is asked and you are supposed to use the English ;language and you are able to use it very well. When all this is done and done very well, then you are a successful English teacher.

48. Interviewer: Is there something you would like to add? Anything you think we should know about teaching English, but have not asked?

Interviewer: no

SECTION C: Teacher's own language use in the classroom

17. Interviewer: What means do you use to ensure your message is understood by your students?

Interviewee: by question and answers, by test items, and sometimes by asking them to give a summary of what I've done i class.

18. Interviewer: What means do you use to ensure that you have understood your student' message?

Interviewee: i probe a lot to find out what the child actually wanted to say to me and by so doing i keep asking even though they fumble because of the usage of the language, sometimes some of them find it difficult to communicate but then when you keep pressing, you force them out of their elements, at the end, you are able to establish a fact out of what they have given you.

19. Interviewer: Do you consciously change your language according to the person you are speaking to? If yes, in what ways?

Interviewee: exactly . i do. I do that per the choice of my words. You know these young ones sometimes when they bore you, you use big language to deter them, but when you actually mean business to teach them you have to, when you start, you know that's why we have synonyms. You keep varying them based on the performance of the students. Hence i take their background into consideration.

20. Interviewer: What kinds of language related difficulties have you encountered during your teaching career? How have you overcome them?

Interviewee: this synonyms and antonyms is one side. They have a lot of problem with vocabulary. Pronunciation is worse, hence teaching of oral work is very difficult. Spelling and punctuation is also a challenge. To overcome these challenges, for spelling, we do a lot of dictation and ask them to go and look for the part of speech of two of the words and use them in sentences

21. Interviewer: Have you noticed that you have a tendency to explicate questions posed by a student to another student?

Interviewer: sometimes yes. Simply because maybe the structure of the question was not understood or the way the student framed the question was so bad that the colleague couldn't understand. In such a case, you will have to reframe it for the others to understand what he or she meant. Sometimes i ask the child to reframe it himself, they do and sometimes their own colleagues help them out. But then if i don't also get it at all then i go by asking, what do u mean so that we together bring out the understanding while i help with the vocabulary.

22. Interviewer: In what ways do you adapt your language to make the other person understand you? Do you use some particular means to do that?

Interviewee: reframing

23. Interviewer: What qualities and/or skills do language learners need to develop to be successful in learning?

Interviewee: writing, reading, spelling, masters their synonyms and antonyms

24. Interviewer: How do you assist your learners in gaining these qualities and/or skills?

Interviewee: i ask them to get novels, sometimes i ask them to go and read the news papers. Then as we do dictation, they learn how to spell and use them. I tell them to read silently n aloud.

SECTION D: Classroom Language Regulation

28. Interviewer: Can you tell us how you regulate your student language in the classroom?

Interviewer: Yes i regulate my student's language. I try as much as possible not to tolerate pigeon in my class. I make sure i stop them n help them reconstruct the sentences so they get correct vocabulary for their construction

29. Interviewer: What triggers the regulation, culture, context, topic or grammar?

Interviewee: sometimes it's contextual, other times, its grammar

30. Interviewer: Do you sometimes feel you must always regulate classroom language?

Interviewee: no, sometimes or ones a while you allow them to flow and i overlook it sometimes.

31. interviewer: What challenges do you encounter in regulating your students language in the classroom?

Interviewee: some coil into their shells, others will not like to talk at all or communicate at all in class because they maybe laughed at by their colleagues. Sometimes you ask them question, they don't want to speak

32. Interviewer: Do you think the L1 of your students adversely affect your success in regulating your students' language in the classroom?

Interviewer: yes but not very much because a lot of the children come from different regions and communities you will have the Gas, who will have problem with the "H", Akans with their "L" and Ewes with their tone.

33. Interviewer: What is it like to teach English to students with very different linguistic and cultural Backgrounds?

Interviewer: very difficult. Challenging but interesting because you get to hear all the linguistic background in what they say to you

34. What challenges do you see in teaching linguistically and culturally heterogeneous groups?

35. Interviewer: In your opinion, does a teacher also have a responsibility over a student's language? In what ways?

Interviewer: Yes. Because mostly the child learns from the teacher. Teacher who speaks good English gets students who will want to speak and be like you.

36. Interviewer: Do you experience difficulties in teaching due to language?

Interviewee: yes. There are students who will not talk in class at all because of language barrier.

37. Interviewer: Could you think of a situation where it was difficult to understand a

student? What did you do in such situations?

Interviewer: yes. There was this student from Kibi whose English language was bad but i helped her gradually n he was able to even become the school prefect

38. Interviewer: What makes a student's speech difficult to understand? What makes it easy to understand?

39. Interviewer: when the student does not know the content of what he or she is presenting to you. When they don't have command over what they are presenting. When they can't construct correct grammatical sentences and sometimes when they use wrong vocabularies, when they

Interviewer: What makes a student's writing difficult to understand? What makes it easy to understand? It is seen in their spelling, expressions vocabulary

40. Interviewer: Have you noticed that a student would not understand you? How have you noticed it? Sometimes yes an sometimes per the work i give out, the feedback show that they don't. Sometimes when they need you to come again. Sometimes, their facial expression show.

Interviewee:

What do you do in such situations?

41. When do you intervene in a student's language (spoken/written)? Why? /Why not?

I do it often. When a child speaks and there's an error, i will not let you land. I make sure you reconstruct whatever you said because as an English teacher, if you don't do that, theres no way you will get them come out with good presentations

APPENDIX B

Classroom Recordings

Sch. A – Lesson 1(English)

Teacher: Odei Mary, “what is an adverb”?

Student: an adverb describes or modifies verbs

Teacher: Ok, So we use adverbs to describe, qualify or modify verbs. Example of verbs, Jessica yes?

Student: eat, jump, cry

Teacher: Yesss! So we are coming to read the notes I gave you the other day. So you read it for us

Student: yes sir! Adverbs mainly modify verbs. They can also modify adjective, other verbs, a whole sentence and can be complements of main verbs. When adverbs modify verbs, they usually tell the time the time the action expressed by the verb which takes place, the manner in which the action occurred, the frequency of the action, the extent(degree) of the action.

Teacher: Ok, now wait; now tell us one example of eerr adverb! Yess!

Student: sir, I should give you in sentence form?

Teacher: no

Student: eventually

Teacher, The Type, the type!

Student: I think errm Adverb of manner

Teacher: adverb of manner, we have adverb of manner. Yess!

Student: sir, adverb of place

Teacher: time , we also have adverb of place

Student: Place

Teacher : Place. ehe?

Student: Adverb of degree, quality.

Teacher : ok so we are going to look at adverb of time. So errh Beatrice, what is an adverb of time

Student: it states, it modifies the time, ei the this one the action

Teacher: I cant hear you speak louder.

Sudent: it modisfy

(The class laughs and repeats the word modifies)

Teacher: come again

Student: it modifies the time an action takes place.

Teacher: so give me an example. yes

Student: he came on time.

Teacher: He came ...

Student: he came in time (he repeats after another student behind him)

Teacher: he came on time. So Asante what is the adverb in this case

Student: in time

Teacher: and it is modifying what?

Student: came

Teacher: so in time is modifying the verb came. Ok. So read what you have

Student: it indicates a word or a group of words that modifies

Teacher: read the examples

Students: They met after 2pm

Teacher: The second one

Student: More than 2000 years ago, a very special child was born.

Teacher: the first one said they met after 2pm. Before we look at the adverb, let's look at the verb in the sentence. Dennis, what is the verb in the sentence?

Dennis: met

Teacher: met is the verb. Dennis, so if met is the verb, what will be the adverb?

Dennis: after 2pm

Teacher: after 2pm and it is qualifying what?

Student: met

Teacher: yes. It is telling us the time they met. Then the second sentence: more than 2000 years ago, a very special child was born. Ruby, what is the adverb in the sentence?

Ruby: 2000 years ago the adverb

Teacher: and it is qualifying what?

Student: was born.

Teacher : yes it is qualifying was born. So two thousand years ago a very special child was born.

Student : sir question, oh sir question

Teacher : yes what is your question

Student: sir but if you bring two thousand years ago, are you wrong?

Teacher: you start from 'more than two thousand years ago', oh no you are not wrong.

Teacher: ok, any question on adverb of time? Ok if there is no question then give us one example Gifty. In sentence

Gifty: yesterday Jessica arrived exactly 2pm

Teacher: so the adverb of time in it is what?

Student : 2pm

Teacher: yes 2pm and its qualifying what?

Student: arrived

Teacher: ok (students murmuring "exactly 2pm" but teacher ignores or did not hear)
yess another example

Student: He let home exactly 12o'clock .

Teacher: you will not use exactly 12, exactly what and wht again

Student: he left to school at 7 am

Teacher: no, I don't like at 7 am, 12pm,etc again

Student: he left to school early this morning

Teacher ok the adverb of time in it is what?

Student : this morning

Another student: (corrects) early this morning

Teacher: ok ! and its qualifying what?

Student: Left

Teacher: yes, its qualifying "left". Another sentence?

Student: he eat tonight.

Teacher: he...

Student: eat tonight

Teacher : (reframes the student's sentence) He will eat tonight. Ok the adverb of time is what?

Student: tonight

Teacher: qualifying this.

Student: sir is this one correct? The book spoilt two days ago.

Teacher: yes it is depending on the time the book spoilt. So yes two days ago. Ok so lets look at the second one. The second one is what?

Student: adverb of manner

Teacher: ok read the adverb of manner

Student : (reads)it modifies the verb in terms of how the verbal action takes place.

Example 1 He drives in a reckless way

Teacher: the second one.

Student: he talked with authority but not as the scribes

Teacher : the last one.

Student: they do not do things differently from the laid down rules.

Teacher: ok lets look at the adverb of manner. The first one is he drives in a reckless way. What other word can you use for careless.

Student: careless

Teacher: yes. So he drives in a reckless way. Ok so reckless is what, adverb of what?

Students: manner

Teacher: modifying..

Student: drive

Teacher: he talk with authority but not like the scribes. Angela, the verb in this sentence is what?

Student:talks

Teacher: and the adverb is what?

Student: authority

Teacher: only authority? no. I want the adverb, the whole adverb

Student: authority not as the scribes

Teacher: authority not as the scribes. (teacher repeats the whole sentence)and moves on to the second sentence. Yess

Student 1: she spoked in a polite way.

Student 2: she spoke, u don't say she spoked

Student 1: sir she spokes is wrong

Teacher : she spoke in polite manner

Students : sir, in a polite way,

Sudent: article /a/ , erm article 'a'

Teacher: so the adverb of manner will be what?

Student: polite way.

Student: sir let me give u mine. She walks briskly

Teacher: huh she walks what

Student: briskly

Another student: briskly is correct

Other students: briksly

Teacher: briks??

Another student: briksly briksly

Teacher: briks huh

Student: briskly, briksly, quickly sir

Teacher: aaah ei and so the verb in it will be what?

Student: walk

Teacher: the adverb of manner will be what?

Student: briskly

Teacher: ok. Bentum yess

Student: She looks gentle in class

Teacher: come again

Student: she behaves decently in class

Teacher: so what is the adverb of manner in the sentence

Student: decently

Teacher: and it is qualifying what?

Student: looks

Teacher: ok. Another sentence

Student: she cries like no ones business

Teacher: so what is the adverb of manner?

Student1: no ones business

Student 2 : like no ones business

Teacher: and it is qualifying what?

Student: cries.

Teacher: its corrects. Like no ones business

Student: sir, the fisherman is very furious on the fishes

Teacher: so what is adverb of manner in the sentence student

Student: furious.

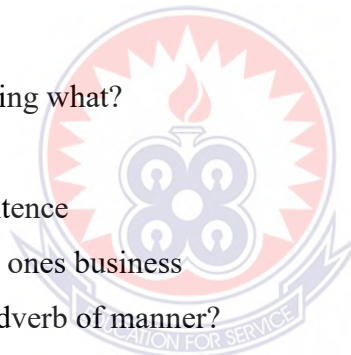
Teacher: so what the verb in it?

Student: fishermen

Class :laughs

Student: sir she is from

Another student: is he a girl?



Teacher: teacher remains quite on student's submission. Ok lets continue. The 3rd one is what?

Student: adverb of degree

Teacher: read Joshua

Student: It shows the extent the action expressed by which the verb takes place

Teacher: it shows the extent by which the

Student : Action express by which the verb takes place.

Teacher: yes. Examples

Student: until death, job did not take away his intergrity

Teacher: next sentence

Student : children must obey their parents

Teacher: next sentence

Student: for how long will you remain silent

Teacher: ok, the first one says. Micheal, read the first sentence.

Muicheal: until death, job did not take away his intergrity

Student:Job

Teacher: why do you say job /jɒb/, I used the capital letter. Its a name, Job

Micheal: says the correct one.

Teacher: so what is the verb in the sentence?

Student: its intergrity

Teacher: I want the verb, verb

Student: death

Teacher: ok give us the adverb of degree Stephen

Job Stephen: did not take away his intergrity

Teacher: do you mean the whole sentence is adverb of degree? Yes Mary, the adverb of degree

Mary : until death

Teacher: modifying what?

Mary: take away

Teacher: take away

Second Lesson (Soc. Studies Lesson)

Teacher: so we are saying that the last time we met we were talking about democracy and nation building. So we are going to discus and move on with our topic. So today the issue is the other day we were looking at features of democracy or elements of

democracy or some characteristics of democracy. So what elements do you remember which we discussed. The elements or features of democracy. Yes!

Student1: free and firm election.

Student2: free and fair

Student1: free and fair election

Student3: the enjoyment of fundamental human right.

Teacher: fundamental human right.

Class: fundamental human right

Student: periodical election.

Student: the free press.

Student: the independent division.

Student: the rule of law.

Teacher: Who again because we are looking at the characteristics or the features of democracy that we looked at. Yes!

Student: the supreme law of the constitution.

Student: meeting the needs of the people.

Teacher: so we are saying that we can only say what the system of governance we are practicing is actually democracy if all these things we have already mentioned are seen or experienced in it. Is that okay! Today I want us to move on and look at the importance of the constitution in nation building. Now we all know what a constitution is, what is a constitution? Constitution! Oh! We have looked at constitution already. Yes! Enoch, what is your name? Enoch, you are not even properly dressed. Enoch, what is a constitution?

Enoch: they are the rules and regulation for governing a country.

Teacher: so we said they are the rules and regulations for governing a nation while nation building is the uninterrupted efforts attaining the unity and togetherness of a country. Right and maintaining or improving the standard of life of the people so we are looking at how the constitution is helping to bring about improvement in the people. Does it make sense! We want to look at the combination between a constitution and nation building. So how can a constitution be governed for us to achieve nation building. So let me see how we are asking ourselves to do. Anybody with an opinion or answer on how the constitution can help in the achieving of nation building. That means you still don't understand constitution.

Student: it protects the rights of people.

Teacher: in other words it ensures and protect the right of people. And we are saying that one of the things one of the importance of the constitution in nation building is that it protects the right of the people and our right have been written in the constitution so we all have the right to do everything including the right to live. You have the right to express your views. So we are saying that one importance of constitution is to protect our right. And all of you are bounded by the constitution. That is why should I inflict pains on you or any cane on you without any justifiable cause. I can be punished. Do you understand me. I hope you will set us an example. Being your teacher, I have some small authority over you, is that true, should I abuse my authority and start making physical advance towards you, I am infringing upon your right and as long as you are less below eighteen or seventeen years you will call it what defilement so far as you are a boy or a girl and I come and I will be using my hand to touch your ear and I am tingling your ears and you are there doing(iheiihe).Or you are a lady ,I come to class and I touch certain place I am not supposed to touch I am abusing your rights. As such, should you take me will be in serious trouble because your rights are protected to any law court, I within the constitution. Are we at the okay! Does it make sense, we are looking importance of constitution in nation building so aside the fact that our rights are important, they also help us in our daily bases. so when you are coming to school, nobody will take a knife and stab you because you are protected by our rights. So the constitution stipulates peace in our background by giving us the mandate by voting every four years. We are looking at the importance of the constitution.

Student: ensures the duties and responsibilities of an individual.

Teacher: you have the idea.

Student: it establishes relationship.

Teacher: how! Any other point. Now, how many of you are in relationship? So you mean you do not have any relation with your parents. So based on the relationship with your parents what are your parents expected to do for you what are you expected to do in return. now, the question is how do you deal with these types of relationship? Who and who are in this relationship, those who are in the relationship are termed as the road, is that okay? so we are saying that the reason for the constitution is a relationship that Is established between the rulers. How is the citizens who vote for the rulers now, our main duty is to make sure that we exercise our vote, we are supposed to vote? What is the responsibility of the rulers because they are supposed to

be accountable for their stewardship so if at the end of the day, they are saying that I spent twenty Ghana cedis they must be able to account. So you have realized that this relationship is telling each and everyone of us their responsibility they have to play.

Are you with me?

Students: yes we are.

Teacher: Some of you are seeing stars, who is at sea with all that I said. Who is lost? We are saying that the constitution is the relationship between who? The rule and rulers. Are we okay?

Students: Yes sir.

Teacher: there is a relationship that is established, between the rule and the rulers. Now, what is the duty for every person. So, at the end of your stewardship, were you able to do.

Student: I was able to construct roads.

Teacher: okay! So that is the responsibility of rulers to rule. Now, our duty as the rule is to for commitment. We are supposed to demand. Mr. President what have we been able to deliver.

Students: rules!

Teacher: Provision of leadership. Now, we need to first and foremost identify the fact that the provision is needed, am I right,

Students: yes sir.

Teacher: that is why almost every institution does this so in that same way it cannot be developed. Now, how is the provision leading to leadership.

Student: through the conference of the constitution.

Teacher: one can become a leader, through election. so once you have been voted for, then you can become a leader. so the constitution is providing leadership. So we are saying that the various presidents who have served Ghana passed through a lot of difficulties so every president was chosen based on the difficulties in the country through vote by the majority side. So the constitution says when you are eighteen years and above, you have to vote. That is why in the year 2000, I don't know if most of you were born. So as at the first election, it was between J.A. Kuffur and Atta Mills. So after the first round, the N.P.P. had so much followed by N.D.C. Then the other parties. So because none of them was able to win, then it meant that we had to reorganize the voting. So it was organized again and the N.P.P. won. in 2008, a

similar thing happened. So all the government we have were provided by the constitution. Now, do you have any question?

Students: no sir.

Teacher: so let us look at the important of constitution in Ghana. The constitution also suggest programmes and ideas. Some is to clear poverty. The other is to decrease child mortality. Now, in order to achieve this, things must be followed. We must see to it that everybody is now educated. It also provide some developmental aims or achievement. It stipulates how you are going to achieve your goals. So, free S.H.S is supposed to give the child quality education.

Students: okay sir.

Teacher: so free S.H.S is there for children like you guys like you weather you like it or not is a must so you have to go. I don't know if you understand my point. (teacher breaks). So I am going to let you stand up and the last person who stands will receive a heavy knock from me. Stand! Sit! Okay, lets move on so I am saying that the constitution also stipulates ideas. So one is called the edition 2020. So by 2020 we will sit back and ask ourselves can we be able to reduce all the mortality in that year. So we are talking about the rate of death within an enclosed background or society per every 1,000 child in Ghana our child mortality is around 5% so that means every thousand child are reduced. Because our aim is to reduce it, One of the things we also want to create is that we want to reduce illiteracy level so that people who cannot read can read better in their normal bases, now what we are improving is free tuition of which most of you are involved. So these are some of the things we are talking about are within the constitution. Now, another thing that the constitution demand in nation building is that it also demands the functions of the organs of government. So how many organs of government do we have

Students: three!

Student: legislature, executive and judiciary.

Teacher: so we have the legislature, executive and judiciary. We are saying that the constitution is helping us to achieve our goal in nation building because it has clearly defined the functions of the various organs of government. So what is the function of the legislature

Student: making of law.

Teacher: what about the judiciary?

Student: interpretation of the law.

Teacher: what about the executive?

Student: implementation of the law.

Teacher: so if you see a member of the executive trying to make the law, is it correct?

Student: no sir.

Teacher: because it is not part of the mandate. So it should not happen that any member will come within the others limit that is why we have separation of powers. There was a video circulating on social media where an N.P.P. official told a police man that he will arrest him, in this case he is crossing his limit by going beyond his bound. The constitution site on checks and balances. Se we can see these checks and balances by identifying them. so we are saying that the constitution is helping in nation building so in the nut shell the constitution is a set of rules that governs a country. And it is also helping in nation building. And we said all our right are protected and found within our constitution. So we are safe and secured. Your right are protected through the constitution. So if I come to class and I slap you, then I can be in serious trouble so we know that the minimum years for a president is four years and the maximum year is eight years. Since Ghana was owning, president Kuffur signed an agreement with the foreigners.

Student: Is Ghana owning?

Teacher: yes. You know you guys are not yet ladies, so if you are one prove it. So the next time I come we will go further.

School B (English Language)

Teacher : alright, I'm going to write this sentence on the board , now you are going to tell me each element in the sentence. Forget about element, we are not doing science. So you are going to tell me the role of each word in the sentence, because I told you the last time that each word in a sentence has its role just like all of us here, we have our roles that we play in school, at home, church, wherever. You are there fore a purpose , even why God brought us into this world. So if you have not even realise your own purpose, you have, that means you have a misplaced identity, go and find it. You don't know why you are even here on earth. So can one of you just tell me the role of each word in this very simple sentence? Yes, it could be... you could identify one and tell me. Yess, if its even one, I will take it. This, we've done already. There's no harm in trying. Yes, mhmm

Student 1: madam please, "Ama" is the subject and it is the doer of the action

Student 2 : action, action , action,..

Student 1: ei the instruction

Teacher : please, he's is on the floor

Student: madam please she is theeeeeee....

Teacher: you are making him confused. You were saying something , its alright, forget about them..

Student : it is the doer of the action

Teacher : yeah, so you've been able to identify one, "Ama", as the subject because he is performing the action. Are we ok with that? So lets say the who statement is about "Ama" so it will be the subject. Ok, what about the rest, can somebody also help us?

Yes , another element an its function.. yesss, anybody?! Yesss

Student : " beautiful", it is describing "Ama".

Teacher :aha! So it is what?

Student : adjective

Teacher : ok, that's it because it's talking about Ama, giving more information about Ama. Now we are still left with something there. Yess Lizy...

Student: "is" is serving s a helping verb

Teacher : mmhmmm, "as a helping verb"... alright , you know what? For now you know what, is standing on it own. Lets say now it's a main verb. If there were to be an added verb, it will be a helping. In a sentence lie " He is walking home", the "is" will be a helping verb but in this sentence, "is" is on its own so it's the main verb. So that's the verb in there. That's very good. So I want our focus to really be on that. Somebody should give me an explanation to what an adjective is.

Student : it is use to modify a noun.

Teacher : yes, that's it. Does somebody has another idea about what adjectives are?

Student : they are used to modify pronoun

Teacher : ok, so pronouns and nouns, can someone put them together for me? Put them together, pronoun, nouns, what does the adjective does to the pronoun, noun.

Yesss... in a nut shell, it is the explanation of what qdjectives are but they gave different... I want somebody to put them all together,that's all.

Student : they describe or modify nouns

Teacher : noun, pronouns. Yes he said nouns, she said pronouns .so I want you to... alright. They describe, they add more information to a noun, pronoun. So "the black monkey"..

Class: giggles

Teacher : why, is a monkey white? They are all black. Aren't they?

Students :some. Some are white

Teacher : white? Grey not white. Ok with what I have written on the board, what will be the adjective in there? What is describing what?

Students : the "black"

Teacher: "black is describing what?"

Class: monkey

Teacher : yes monkey which is a noun. So we will say that adjectives describe, they qualify. I think that will be the appropriate word to use rather than modify. Now they are trying to accept that it modify, but we don't know what will happen, they could have a twitch of mind and they could say they don't want it to modify but they want modify or describe. So if i underline that and I ask what is the grammatical name of the underlined then you can tell me its an adjective. What is its function?

Student : it describes the noun monkey

Teacher : yes. So officially, that is its function. So "the chewing girl" that means the girl who always likes chewing . now, "chewing" here when you see it in isolation , you are going to say it is a verb right but now, there I something added and no it is also assuming the role of another. So right now i want someone to assume the role of a father and at the same time that of a mother. Yes that's what is happening here. Now it has changed from being a verb to an adjective. Because it is describing who?

Students : the girl.

Teacher : yes. So now, just as we have an example, " walking stick". That is why I always want you to look at what it is doing in the sentence. When you take the word in isolation, for example oh because its ending in "ing", you say it's a verb, that will be wrong. Now, "walking" in "walking stick", its role is that it is describing the stick. So it loses its effect of being a verb to an adjective. Can somebody give me an example of such verbs which act as an adjective?

Student: Ama is a slow girl.

Teacher : slow girl, is slow a verb?

Student : no! like seriously?

Teacher : Yeah check it. "We have a reading room". That means the roo is olny for reading. Don't go there and do any other thing. Now the reading there is describing the Students : room.

Teacher : yes , do you get it my point now? Ahaaa, that is why I what some of the examples with the verbs which have now turned into an adjective because it qualify a now or a pronoun. Yes Obed..

Student :standing room

Teacher : yes, standing room .that's it . yes another example

Student : sleeping dog

Student : punching bag

Teacher : another example, yeesss

Student : laughing stalk

Teacher : yes. So you should always check what it is really doing in there. That is where we bring in this . “when the single tea spoon became very ineffective, Ato increased the dosage”. And the “very ineffective “is underlined, then check what its really doing in the sentence, before you give an answer. Now you give the grammatical name of the underlined, then its function

Student : the very effective is an adjective and its describing the single teaspoon.

Teacher : so adjective only?

Student : adjectival phrase

Teacher : phrase you have forgotten so soon and you are messing up. That's it .if its more than one and it doesn't really have a finite verb then it's a phrase. You were taught this, meanwhile some of you were doing some things I didn't even understand. I will bring the scripts and deal with you personally. I will deal with you for that alone, having it wrong. Yes , adjectival phrase, that's it. Now what is it doing in the sentence? Yes , what is its role in there? What is its function, simply put.

Student : it is describing the teaspoon

Teacher : well, is anybody having a different opinion about what he said? What is being ineffective? What is it talking about ? that is what you should be asking your small brain

Student : Madam, it is talking about “ single teaspoon”

Teacher : teaspoon ...

Students : full

Teacher : yea, so it's the single teaspoon full that became ineffective. And some of you were writing some things, some things. So as I always tell you, please just look at what the underlined is doing I the sentence. Ask yourself, what is it talk about. Is it talking about more of the verb. If its talking more if the verb, then you know its an

adverb. If its talking more if the noun or pronoun, then you know its an adjective. Then you are coming to check whether it's a phrase or a clause. Do you get it? So if I write "the tall..." now, they will try to underline all this, remember that the length of the words doesn't give you the clue to whether its an adjective, sorry, a phrase or a clause. Some people take it that phrases should be 2, maximum 3 words put together, string of words put together. It could be more but what you should check is does it have a finite verb? Does it contain any subject? If it doesn't, then it's a clause. If it doesn't, even if it is a thousand sting of words put together, and it does not have a single verb in it, finite verb in it, or maybe a subject, then it does not qualify to be clause, it's a phrase. So we underline that; " tall old blondy rabbit looking buffoon is sick." Now we underline all that. Check, ak yourself , what is it doing in there? That will give you the grammatical name. Then you check whether it has a finite verb or it doesn't. That will give you whether it's a phrase or a clause. Now can someone give me the grammatical name of the underlined and its function? After all that I've explained I should see more hands up.

Student : madam please it's an adjective

Teacher : it's an adjective. Now check whether it's one word or a string of words. Do you get it?

Class : yes

Teacher : ahaa! So if its one word, then I will take your adjective but if it's a string of words, then you should add something to it

Student : adjectival phrase

Teacher : adjectival phrase. Do you all agree that it's a phrase?

Class : yes

Teacher : why? Rashid, tell me why it's a phrase. Your reason you give me, your explanation will tell me whether it's a clause or a phrase

Student : it doesn't have a subject

Teacher : then what again? Sometimes it might not have the subject but it might have something else. It doesnot have a subject or what? Really ?? You are not here, because most of you are acting like a "hermit" . when you go, look for the word "hermit" ' I will ask you when I come. Sometimes it might not have the subject bt it may hay the other. Somebody was saying it. I don't want to say the it . yesss

Student : madam finite verb.

Teacher : that's it. So if these two are really absent, then it's a phrase. What's so difficult about this? Is it hard to get? Alright, you say it's an adjectival phrase then what is its function in there? What is it doing there?

Student : madam it is describing the noun "buffoon",

Teacher : it is describing the noun "buffoon", then you put it into quotation marks because you took it from there. One person should give me an example of an adjectival phrase in a sentence

Student : the red luxurious car

Teacher : ok, where is our adjectival phrase in there?

Student : the red luxurious

Teacher : "red luxurious". Forget about the "the". The "the" is not part. So red luxurious will be our adjectival phrase. The "the" there is added to the car so it not part of the adjectival group of words. Now what is its function?

Student : its describing the noun "car"

Teacher : yes. So you knew this but you were trying to be lazy by appointing somebody. I think we will end here but before I do, I will give you a home work.

Write 3 adjectival phrases in sentences

Student : 3 different sentences?

Teacher : yes, in three sentences means 3 different sentences and underline the adjectival phrases and then you write its grammatical name and function.

Second Lesson (Social Studies)

Teacher: we have been looking at the roles of the various organs of governance. We have seen that of the executives and the parliamentary; today, we are going to discuss that of the judiciary. But before we do that, can one of you tell the class the functions of the chief's palace at his or her village or hometown?

Student1: Sir, they pour drinks at palace.

Teacher: What kind of drink?

Student2: Akpeteshie and nsafufuo; sometimes they pour schnapps and beer.

Teacher: Let's say locally manufactured gin instead of akpeteshie.

Student1: but Sir, does it has a name?

Student: Howdoes the white people call it?

Teacher: how do the white people

Student1: How do the white people call it?

Teacher: mhuu, the whole class, yes...

Student3: Sir, my father said, sometime ago, that it don't have any name apart from akpeteshie.

Teacher: it doesn't have

Student3: it don't have any name apart from akpeteshie.

Teacher: stop messing up with your subject verb agreement rules. When the subject is singular, and 3rd person, 's' is added to the verb, especially when in the present tense. I hope I got the explanation right though. You may confirm that from Ms Ansah. Or who is your English teacher?

Students: Yes, Ms Ansah.

Teacher: who knows the English word for nsafufuo?

Student1: Palm drink

Teacher: Palm what?

Student1: Sir, am I wrong?

Teacher: yes, Agyemang!

Agyemang: Sir, its palm wine.

Students: Sir we know, palm wine, palm wine.

Teacher: now, how is the pouring of wine called? Obeng (student1) you said "they pour drinks", how is that called?

Student4: Sir, it is called pouring of liberation.

Teacher: No, no. the word is similar to what you just mentioned, but not it.

Student3: Sir, is that what they called libation?

Teacher: Great, libation is the word. Not liberation. You may check the meaning of liberation from your dictionary later.

Teacher: so apart from the pouring of libation, what else occurs at the chief's palace?

Student: Sir, they address issues.

Student: they settle disputes; my father said that they took sheep and schnapps from my uncle for disrespecting the chief.

Student: Sir, I learnt they found a woman at my village for doing something.

Teacher: it is a fine, and when used as a verb, its past tense form is fined, not found.

Student: Sir, are we going to learn chieftaincy this term? When we do, we will know all these terms and everything that happens at the chief's palace.

Teacher: now that we have understood that at the chief's palace, the fine people and settle disputes, let's transport that knowledge to what we were about discussing today, the judiciary.

School C (English Lang.)

Teacher: it seems I gave an assignment last week; you were to list a number of transitional words in English language.

Class Prefect: Sir, you told us to present [present] them before Friday, so I sent them last week Friday.

Teacher: I told you to present /pri. zént/ them before Friday?

Student: Yes, Sir.

Teacher : so why didn't u bring them to me?

Student :sir, they just brought them to me.

Teacher: ok, bring then to me now

Student: here they are sir

Teacher: Ok. Does it mean all of these people are absent today?

Students: They are present /present/

Teacher: they are present /prezent/, and where are they now?

Teacher: now, everyone should put his or her book, No Sweetness Here, on the table. Those without the book should leave the class. Jonas! Where is your book?

Jonas: Sir, my book /bu:k/ has been stolen.

Teacher: Your book/ bu:k/? Is that how it is pronounced

Students: book /buk/

Teacher: How many times do I have to tell you the word is not book /bu:k/?

Students: Sir, we are used to book /bu:k/

Teacher: Ok. Anyone who will say book /bu:k/ instead of book /buk/ will be punished.

Class: yes sir.

Teacher: now take your exercise books and summarise the short shory "in the cutting of a drink".

Teacher: Please, my people, some of you have to work on your handwriting before you go and write the WASSCE. If the examiner marking your script finds it difficult to read, he would give you low marks.

Student 1: Sir, I am writing nice this time around. You can even have my book for evidence.

Teacher: you are writing nicely this time around; are you sure?

Students2: Sir, thank you. We will improve upon our handwriting before the exam starts.

Teacher: It is very very necessary, if you take my advice, it would help you. I don't want you to experience the situation whereby you know the answer but for a poor handwriting you wouldn't be given the full marks. Now, let's continue with what we are doing.

Second Lesson (Social Studies)

Teacher: Do you know that sometimes, we rely on other word classes to derive others? Sometimes, we don't add affixes to words in order to form new words. What we simply do as speakers of English language is to use the word as though it belongs to the word class we have used it for in the sentence. Now, tell me. What is the word class or part of speech for the word water?

Students: Water is a noun.

Teacher: Alex, can you tell us why you think water belong to group called nouns?

Alex: This is because water is a name of a substance

Teacher: That is excellent. Now, let's look at how water is used in these sentence.

(c) The gardener will water the flowers.

(d) Agric students water their nursery every morning.

Teacher: Now, looking at how the word water has been used in these two sentences, can we say it names a substance? Yes, who is helping us with a response?

Student 1: Sir, water in the sentences is the event that is happening.

Teacher: Yes, water is the action that students and the gardener perform. What then is the word the word class or part of speech for water as used in the sentences?

Student2: Sir, I think water this time around is a verb.

Student3: Water is a verb in the sentences.

Teacher: Yes, your observation is correct, water in these two sentences has been used as verbs. This explains my earlier statement that we can use words that belong to different parts of speech as though they belong to other parts of speech. The process that enable us to use words in this way is called

conversion. Conversion allows us to change the part of speech of words in sentences without adding affixes. We have other examples like “don’t dirty your shirt” where dirty, an adjective now becomes a verb, and “we are going for a walk” where walk, a verb is now used as a noun.

Student4: Sir, conservation is very interesting

Student5: Conversion is really interesting.

Student4: Sir, please do we have conversion in the sentence “the teacher marks the test and recorded the marks”

Teacher: Exactly, mark can be a verb and a noun depending on how the speaker uses it in the sentence.

School D (English Language)

Teacher: it seems I gave an assignment last week; you were to list a number of transitional words in English language.

Class Prefect: Sir, you told us to present [present] them before Friday, so I sent them last week Friday.

Teacher: I told you to present /pri. zént/ them before Friday?

Student: Yes, Sir.

Teacher: Ok. Does it mean all of these people are absent today?

Students: They are present /prézent/

Teacher: they are present /prézent/, and where are they now?

Teacher1: ok so we are going to look at adverb of time. So errh Beatrice, what is an adverb of time

Student2: it states, it modifies the time, ei the this one the action

Teacher1: I can’t hear you speak louder.

Sudent2: it modisify

(The class laughs and repeats the word modisify)

Teacher1: come again

Student2:it modifies the time an action takes place.

Teacher1: yes, its qualifying “left”. Another sentence?

Student3: he eat tonight.

Teacher1: he...

Student3: eat tonight

Teacher1: (reframes the student's sentence) He will eat tonight. Ok the adverb of time is what?

Student4: tonight

Teacher: The eeerr authority not as the scribes. (teacher repeats the whole sentence and moves on to the second sentence)-. "they do not do things exceptionally eeerr differently from the laid down laws; sorry, rules". Mawusi, the verb in this sentence is what? Come to the board and underline it.

Teacher: (teacher reads the sentence again) Walanyo tell us the adverb in the sentence.

Walanyo: differently from the lay down rules

Teacher: yes and it is qualifying what?

Student5: the "do"

Student6: (student underlines "they do not do")

Teacher: is it correct? Is this the verb?

Class: no

Teacher: yes Sandra, what is the verb?

Sandra: sir, its do

Another student: laid

Teacher: he says laid is a verb, is it a verb?

Student7: sir it's a verb but not in this sentence

Teacher: yes. so the verb in this sentence is "do" as Sandra said. Now lets look at the verb.

Students8: Sir, the adverb

Teacher: yes and it is qualifying what?

Student7: the "do"

Teacher: is it not the "do not do?"

Student8: sir, it is not do not do oh!

Teacher: it is do not do

Student7 :sir why do not do?

Teacher: so it is going to be do?.

Student7: yes

Teacher: Are you sure?

Student7: Yes

Teacher: read the sentence again

Student: they do not do...

Student: this "do" is not part

Student: if we put the do and not together it will be don't, so it is 'do not'

Teacher: is that correct? Yes Bernice, do you have something to say about it?

Bernice: Sir that was what I was coming to say. Sir, I think it is do but on second thought it is do not do because the "not" here is a negative this thing and if you say that is modifying do, here, the person is not doing. So it is do not do.

Teacher: yes, so it is "do not do". It qualifies the verb 'do not do'. So this is the verb and this is the adverb.

Second lesson

Teacher: Okay so now let's start. The last time we are able to look at the meaning of constitution we also discussed about the forms of constitution that is the types of constitution and we said we have two main types of constitution and one is what.

Students: written and non written constitution

Teacher: And apart from these two main types of constitution we also have other two that one too is the rigid constitution and the flexible constitution. So what is flexible constitution? What is the meaning of flexible constitution.

Student: Sir, it's a type of constitution the law are obtained by the people .

Teacher: The two types, all of them and the constitution can be part of merged but the flexible one we have how to amend it that is the way of amending it in the constitution with the difference. Yes so the rigid constitution is when it is usually amended or they can be easily what amended but it should be through the usual participation of parliamentary procedures. Is that okay, And then the rigid one it is where it is not easily amended it can only be amended through the what, special process called referendum where every individual view is brought onboard both yes or no, is that okay if they all accept it then it is going to be amended we also discussed about the importance of constitution one is what,

Student: Sir, it helps in promoting unity among an individual.

Teacher: That is okay. We have to talk about those we discussed. So I think that is where we reached and we described the types of constitution and the governance issue and views. So when we talk about the types of constitution of

government we are talking about we have two types of governance we have the presidential system and the parliamentary system. When talking about parliamentary system of government where it is a situation where two individuals ruling the country as the person being the head of state and the other being the head of government so in this case we have the prime minister performing ceremonial functions and then we have the queen performing the executive function I hope u are clear we also have the presidential system that one only one person is performing that function so the head of state and as well as the head of government I hope we are clear

So in the olden days during the colonial system the people were ruled by the colonial master that is the British and they were ruling Ghana which was called Gold Coast but now that system is over but at first we were having series of governors in the country and those governors were reporting to the queen. So it means Ghana was also ruled by another country so it means we were using the parliamentary system we knew that Dr. Kwame Nkrumah was a prime minister. So the next point is that the constitution also ensures certainty. Which means it serves as a reference document .The constitution contains all the law the laws that are meant to regulate the earth. So if somebody go against the law he or she would be punished is that okay, so all the people have to abide by the law and no one is supposed to inflict the right of an individual and if we go to the court they are going to refund it back that is why the constitution is saying that no one is supposed to take the life of another person is that okay so if u kill somebody the law is going to refer the constitution. So the constitution is used as a reference of a doctorate. Now any question. Then let's move to the next point. It establishes organs of organs and their institution. Now the constitution, it also what are the organs.

Students: Legislature, Executive and Judiciary.

Teacher: These are the three arms of government that we have and all these types or arms of government are not just there because it should be there but it has been written in the constitution. So the constitution establishes all the arms of government. So when we go to the constitution chapter eight is talking about the establishment of the executive so it means that chapter eight is talking about establishing the executive in person. And chapter nine is talking about the legislature and chapter ten is also talking about legislature and chapter eleven is talking about the judiciary so it means that all these are in the constitution and we have to abide by it very well. We can also have people with disability or let us say people without legs

and hands. We also have people with mental disorder, so the mind is not functioning well so all these people they are the minority so the constitution helps the provision of the people and the law or in the constitution. So if you are building a house one has to make provisions for the tools and the equipments in the house this also goes for this one too so it also inquires that those with the disability have their own freedom and liberty. So the law is protecting the people because they have disabilities. So are you all understanding what am saying? So that is why if you allow yourself to be killed by a mad person nothing is going to happen to the mad person because the mind is not functioning well. When death is coming you would run away but the mad person will even welcome the death.

Students: Yes Sir.

Teacher: So the law is protecting all these people. And it also protects the individual in the country. So what is the next point.

Student: It educates the people on right and obligation and also on their freedom as living as an individual.

Teacher: So it educates the individual on how the constitution implies an individual to perform his or her responsibilities. So after this topic everyone is supposed to know his or her right and obligations. So after this topic we are going to learn about the right and responsibility of an Individual. So their say that the constitution so what we are saying is that the constitution is a set of rules used for governing a country. So it is teaching the individuals and educating them on how we are supposed to live and benefit from the country and is teaching them on their rights and responsibilities so we have the various rights and responsibilities also. So we have the right to vote that is the political right, we also have the right to be voted for which also falls under political rights so the individuals will also have to be engaged on all this thing. So all these people came to our country to colonize us and our country and they all came with their constitution such as Allan Burns constitution and so on. This is because Ghana was having its own constitution so every governor will come with his own constitution. But after the constitution Ghana was able to draw its own constitution which makes it Ghana. Which means we have the right to rule an individual and this is Ghana. So whenever we take the constitution of Ghana it helps the individual rule the country

Students: Yes Sir.

Teacher: So it represents the country.

Students: Yes sir.

Teacher: It ensures periodic experience of government in the country. And that all the processes of elections are as follows and they also have been written in the constitution. So they go through all the processes and someone wins then it means we should hand in over power to the person who won the election. So because of the constitution we all have to abide by the rules in the country. So if after your turner of office one has to hand the power to the new flag bearer coming to the country. Is that clear?

Students: Yes sir.

Teacher: So after your turner of office the country's police will give you guide until you die. HmMMMMM! Wode3 woagyimi papa. The person is dead so what do you people want to say because am not getting you people right.

Students:(Laughter arises)

Teacher: If you stand for election and you lose it has nothing to do with what you people are saying and the residential ideas. So if you stand to be voted for and then you lose election the country has nothing to do with you. Now let's look at sources of constitution.

Students: It is normally claimed by the people.

Teacher: To be the leader there or being the flag bearer, have you seen what am trying to mean are you all trying to understand what am saying? So don't allow yourself to be manipulated by any other political party. So as we are learning all these things we also have to be very wise, so let us now look at the sources of a constitution. So the first one is talking about statistical source or the act of parliament. Now the minister or the executive whenever they come out with a policy, they send it to the parliament when the policy goes to parliament it is called a bill not a law again and the parliament will debate over the issue so if they all accept it will be sent to the president for his accent. Now in our various societies and communities we have our customs and traditions and those rules are not barked by laws but they follow the acceptable way of living in the community and the nation as a whole. So if a leader of a community says that we should so if the whole society comes to say that is a way of preserving and protecting the rights and dignity of we the individual. And if the country come together and accept that we should use all these things to guide us and that law is used to write the constitution it is called customary source so that is what we call customs and provision. Next point.

Student: The judiciary obtains peace in the society and the nation as a whole.

Teacher: Now sometimes when we talk about the judiciary, it is made up of the courts, lawyers and the judges. So whenever we have conflicts and misunderstandings it goes to court for settlement or peaceful resolutions now the outcome and the judges are sometimes used to write a constitution and they were also saying that some of the constituencies and electoral areas and also to fine the meaning of over voting. So maybe if we talk about over voting and there are hundred people registered here and after the election two hundred people voted it means there has been over voting. So clearly we can say it is over voting. So I hope we are clear?

Students: Yes Sir

Teacher: Next point, decree. And they are laws made by the military, is that okay, laws made by the military. So if milk were five cedis in our era people always find means and ways to be richer so it means they were not having a fixed price of goods and services. So if this laws are in the country then our economy won't be well in our system. So next point.

Student: Authoritating source.

Teacher: So we have some writers who have been writing about laws in the country and outside the country. We have Barron De Montesque a French political minister and he brought about the separation of powers and the principles of separation of powers. So next point,

Student: Previous constitution.

Teacher: Now if writing of a new constitution you have to consult previous constitution and constitution written by other countries or other organizations. So these are the sources of constitution and where we get our laws in writing the constitution so any question. No question thank you so I think we can end here