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Developing High Quality Interaction:

An Exploratory Study into Native vs. Non-native Speaking Teacher Talk in Classes of Arabic and English as Foreign Languages The Case of l'École Normale Supérieure Assia Djebbar (Constantine, Algeria) and Wellesley College (Wellesley, Massachusetts, USA)

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DEDICATION

In the Name of God, Most Merciful, Most Compassionate This dissertation is dedicated to all my family. To my lovely mother FAIZA and father LEMNAOUAR for the trust they put in me. To all my friends.

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ABSTRACT

This study strives to compare and contrast the features that characterize native speaking and nonnative speaking teachers' speech in terms of turn-taking, questioning techniques, wait-time strategy, and the treatment of oral errors. The research draws on data collected from classes of a native and a non-native English speaking teachers at l' Ecole Normale Supérieure Assia Djebbar of Constantine and a native and a non-native Arabic speaking teachers at Wellesley College, Massachusetts, USA. The data of this study rests on a series of lessons which were audio-recorded, transcribed, and then analyzed according to the modified version of Walsh's (2006) Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk Model, students' questionnaires, and teachers' interviews. First, the research findings indicate that Initiation-Response-Feedback is the most prevailing pattern of classroom interaction in at least three of the observed classes. Second, both native speaking and non-native speaking teachers share the same perspective in terms of the use of divergent questions with the aim of fostering students' critical thinking skills; however, whereas native speaking teachers strive to promote greater learner productivity through an extensive use of referential questions, non-native speaking teachers use more display questions with the aim of promoting meaningful communication. Third, native speaking teachers tend to provide minimum oral corrective feedback with the aim of fostering students' fluency, whereas non-native speaking teachers are more likely to focus on developing students' accuracy with less tolerance to students' errors. Lastly, teachers' perspective on the features that promote high quality interaction align with those of the learners in the sense that both perceive the idea of promoting students' autonomy and critical thinking skills of paramount importance. In light of these findings, some practical suggestions are put forward to generate classroom interaction based on a set of interactional features that promote the process of foreign language learning.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFL: Arabic as a Foreign Language

CA: Conversation Analysis

CBA: Competency based Approach

CF: Corrective feedback

COLT: Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching

DA: Discourse Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English language teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign language

FT: Foreigner talk

IA: Interaction Analysis

IRF: Initiation Response Feedback

L1: First language

L2: Second language

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

NAST: Native Arabic speaking teacher

NASTT: Native Arabic speaking teacher talk

NNAST: Non-native Arabic speaking teacher

NNASTT: Non-native Arabic speaking teacher talk

NEST: Native English-speaking teacher

NESTT: Native English-speaking teacher talk

NNEST: Non-native English-speaking teacher

NNESTT: Non-native English-speaking teacher talk

NS: Native speaking

NNS: Non-native speaking

NSTs: Native speaking teachers

NNSTs: Non-native speaking teachers

SETT: Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TCU: Turn constructional unit

WM: Working memory

TRANSLITERATION SYMBOLS

(Adopted from Odisho, E. 2005)

Arabic Symbols

Consonants	IPA	Phonetic Description
١	[3]	glottal stop or the long vowel [a:]
ب	[b]	voiced bilabial plosive
ت	[t]	voiceless alveolar plosive
ث	[0]	voiceless interdental fricative
د	[क]	voiced post alveolar affricate
ζ	[ħ]	voiceless pharyngeal fricative
Ċ	[x]	voiceless uvular fricative
د	[d]	voiced alveolar plosive
ć	[ð]	voiced interdental fricative
ر	[r]	alveolar trill
j	[z]	voiced alveolar fricative
س	[s]	voiceless alveolar fricative
ش	ហ	voiceless post alveolar fricative
ص	[Ş]	voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative

ض	[ġ]	voiced alveolar emphatic plosive
ط	[ţ]	voiceless alveolar emphatic plosive
ظ	[ð]	voiced interdental emphatic fricative
٤	[2]	voiced pharyngeal fricative
ż	[R]	voiced uvular fricative
ف	[f]	voiceless labio-dental fricative
ق	[q]	voiceless uvular plosive
ك	[k]	voiceless velar plosive
ل	[1]	voiced alveolar lateral
۴	[m]	bilabial nasal
ن	[n]	alveolar nasal
٥	[h]	voiceless glottal fricative
و	[w]	central labio-velar approximant
ي	[j]	central palatal approximant

Vowels

١	[a:] long counterpart of	[a]
ي	[i:] long counterpart of	[i]
و	[u:] long counterpart of	[u]

LIST OF TABLES

Page

Table 1.1. Classroom Teaching Modes	48
Table 2.2. Arguments Supporting the Importance of Talk	54
Table 3.3. The Difference between NESTs and NNESTs	115
Table 4.4. Participants' Background Information	140
Table 4.5. Corpus Obtained from EFL Classes in Algeria	140
Table 4.6. Corpus Obtained from AFL Classes in the USA	141
Table 4.7. Quantity of Teacher Talk (NEST & NNEST)	149
Table 4.8. Quantity of Teacher Talk (NAST & NNAST)	151
Table 4.9. Turn-taking and SLA in EFL Classes	152
Table 4.10. Turn-taking and SLA in AFL Classes	159
Table 4.11. Question Types in EFL Classes: Richard & Lockhart's Classification (1996)	163
Table 4.12. Question Types in EFL Classes: Walsh & Li's Classification (2016)	164
Table 4.13. Question Types in EFL Classes: Long & Sato's Classification (1983)	165
Table 4.14. Question Types in AFL Classes: Richard & Lockhart's Classification (1996)	166
Table 4.15. Question Types in AFL Classes: Walsh & Li's Classification (2016)	167
Table 4.16. Question Types in AFL Classes: Long& Sato's Classification (1983)	167
Table 4.17. Wait-time Strategy of Native and Non-native Speaking Teachers	171

Table 4.18. Types of Oral Corrective Feedback in EFL Classes	175
Table 4.19. Types of Oral Corrective Feedback in AFL Classes	
Table 5.20. Students' Experience with NESTs	
Table 5.21. Aspects of Language that Could be Best Taught by NESTs and NNESTs	189
Table 5.22. Difference between NESTs and NNESTs in Teaching Ways	191
Table 5.23. Difference between NESTs and NNESTs in Terms of Talk Organization	193
Table 5.24. Amount of NESTs and NNESTs Talk	194
Table 5.25. Students' Preferred Turn Allocation Strategies	196
Table 5.26. Preferred Strategies of Turn Allocation	
Table 5.27. Teachers' Tolerance of Overlapping Talk	
Table 5.28. Students' Perceptions about Learning Turn-taking Rules	201
Table 5.29. Students' Attitudes towards Rigid Turn-taking Organization and L2 Learnin	g201
Table 5.30. NESTs and NNESTs Wait-time Strategy	203
Table 5.31. NESTs and NNESTs Interruption	203
Table 5.32. Types of Questions According to Richard & Lockhart's Classification	206
Table 5.33. Types of Questions According to Long & Sato's Classification	206
Table 5.34. Types of Questions According to Walsh & Li's Classification	207
Table 5.35. Students' Reaction to Ambiguous Questions	208
Table 5.36. Students' Preferred Teaching Strategies	209

Table 5.37. Students' Attitudes toward Error Correction	209
Table 5.38. Types of Errors Requiring Correction	211
Table 5.39. Corrective Feedback Strategies	212
Table 5.40. Input Providing Feedback Strategies	213
Table 5.41. Output Providing Feedback Strategies	213
Table 5.42. Students' Attitudes toward Peer Feedback	214
Table 5.43. Students' Experience with NASTs	216
Table 5.44. Aspects of Language that Could be Best Taught by NASTs and NNASTs	217
Table 5.45. Difference between NASTs and NNASTs in Teaching Ways	219
Table 5.46. Difference between NESTs and NNESTs in Terms of Turn Organization	221
Table 5.47. Amount of NASTs and NNASTs Talk	222
Table 5.48. Preferred Strategies in Responding to Teachers' Questions	224
Table 5.49. Students' Preferred Strategies of Turn Allocation	
Table 5.50. Teachers' Tolerance of Overlapping Talk	226
Table 5.51. Students' Perceptions about Learning Turn-taking Rules	227
Table 5.52. Students' Perceptions about Rigid Turn Taking Organization and L2 Learning	rning 228
Table 5.53. NASTs and NNASTs Wait-time Strategy	229
Table 5.54. NASTs and NNASTs Interruption	229
Table 5.55. Types of Questions according to Richards & Lockhart Classification	231

Table 5.56. Types of Questions according to Long & Sato Classification	231
Table 5.57. Types of Questions according to Walsh & Li Classification	232
Table 5.58. Students' Reaction to Ambiguous Questions	233
Table 5.59. Students' Preferred Teaching Strategies	234
Table 5.60. Students' Attitudes toward Error Correction	234
Table 5.61. Types of Errors Requiring Correction	235
Table 5.62. Corrective Feedback Strategies	236
Table 5.63. Input Providing Feedback Strategies	236
Table 5.64. Output Providing Feedback Strategies	237
Table 5.65. Students' Attitudes towards Peer-feedback	238
Table 6.66. Strengths and Weaknesses of Tape Recording and Note Taking	249
Table 6.67. Interview Information	250
Table 6.68. Teachers' Training on Talk Organization in the Language Class	253
Table 6.69. Teachers' Experience in Recording their Talk	253
Table 6.70. Teachers' Flexibility in Terms of Turn Allocation and Overlapping Talk	254
Table 6.71. Contribution of Rigid Turn Taking Organization to L2 Learning	255
Table 6.72. Instruction of Turn-taking Rules	256
Table 6.73. Percentage of Teacher Talk in the FL Classroom	256

Table 6.74. Types of Interaction Prevailing in Teachers' Classes	258
Table 6.75. Types of Questions Frequently Asked by AFL Teachers	261
Table 6.76. Teachers' Strategies in Scaffolding Learners	264
Table 6.77. Types of Errors Indicated during Correction	270
Table 6.78. Teachers' Corrective Feedback Strategies and their Effectiveness in Pr	romoting
Learning	271

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

Figure 1.1. Teacher-Students Interaction in Class	
Figure 2.2. Turn-Taking Classification	64
Figure 2.3. Types of Questions	
Figure 3.4. The Linguistic Situation in Algeria	126
Figure 4.5. Quantity of the NEST Talk	
Figure 4.6. Quantity of the NNEST Talk	
Figure 4.7. Quantity of the NAST Talk	
Figure 4.8. Quantity of the NNAST Talk	

Gene	ral Introduction	1
1.	Statement of the Problem	1
2.	Significance of the Study	3
3.	Aims of the Study	5
4.	Research Questions	6
5.	Research Design and Methodology	8
6.	Structure of the Thesis	9
Chap	pter One: Classroom Discourse, Communication, and Interaction1	2
Intro	duction1	2
-	1.1. Classrooms: Facts and Characteristics1	3
	1.1.1. Pedagogic and Institutional Nature of Classrooms1	4
	1.1.2. Sociocultural and Psychological Nature of Classrooms1	4
	1.1.3. Different Goals and Pressures in Classroom Activity1	5
	1.2. Historical Perspectives about the Study of Classroom Discourse and Interaction1	6
	1.3. Classroom Discourse and Communication2	0
	1.3.1. Classroom Discourse vs. Naturalistic Discourse2	0
	1.3.2. The Significance of Classroom Communication2	2
	1.3.3. Characteristics of Second/ Foreign Language Classrooms2	3
	1.3.4. Characteristics of Language Lessons2	6
	1.3.5. Teacher's Action Zone2	9
	1.4. Approaches to the Study of Classroom Discourse	1

CONTENTS

Page

1.4.1. Interaction Analysis Approaches
1.4.2. Discourse Analysis Approaches
1.4.3. Conversation Analysis Approaches
1.4.4. A Variable Approach to the Investigation of Classroom Discourse
1.5. Classroom Interaction
1.5.1. Modes of Participation in Classroom Interaction
1.5.2. Aspects of Interaction Management40
1.5.3. Interactional Patterns40
1.5.3.1. Teacher Monologue41
1.5.3.2. Initiation Response Feedback
1.5.3.3. Dialogic Exchanges42
1.5.3.4. Participatory Exchanges44
1.5.4. Classroom Interactional Competence45
1.6. Language Use vs. Pedagogical Purpose in Second Language Classes
Conclusion
Chapter two: Teacher Talk in Language Classes
Introduction
2.1. Roles of the Teacher in Language Classes
2.2. Importance of Teacher Talk in Language Classes
2.3. Features of Teacher Talk
2.4. Turn- taking in L2 Classrooms

2.4.1. What is a Turn?	58
2.4.2. What is Turn-taking?	60
2.4.3. Turn-taking Rules in L2 Classrooms	61
2.4.4. Classification of Turn-taking in L2 Classrooms	63
2.4.4.1. Prospective Turn-taking	64
2.4.4.2. Retrospective Turn-taking	67
2.4.4.3. Concurrent Turn-taking	70
2.4.4.4. Neutral Turn-taking	72
2.4.5. Relationship between Turn-taking and Pedagogical Focus	72
2.4.5.1. Form and Accuracy Contexts	72
2.4.5.2. Meaning and Fluency Contexts	74
2.4.5.3. Task-oriented Contexts	75
2.4.5.4. Procedural Contexts	75
2.5. Questioning in L2 Classrooms	76
2.5.1. Significance of Questioning Behavior	76
2.5.2. Functions/ Purposes of Teachers' Questions	79
2.5.3. Types of Questions	80
2.5.3.1. Richard & Lockhart Classification	81

2.5.3.1.1. Convergent Questions	81
2.5.3.1.2. Divergent Questions	82
2.5.3.1.3. Procedural Questions	82
2.5.3.2. Echoic Questions	83
2.5.3.2.1. Confirmation Checks	83
2.5.3.2.2. Comprehension Checks	84
2.5.3.2.3. Clarification Requests	84
2.5.3.3. Epistemic Questions	85
2.5.3.3.1. Referential Questions	85
2.5.3.3.2. Display Questions	85
2.5.3.3.3. Expressive Questions	85
2.5.3.3.4. Rhetorical Questions	86
2.5.4. Questioning Strategies	88
2.6. Feedback in L2 Classrooms	89
2.6.1. What is Feedback?	89
2.6.2. Should Teachers Correct Learners' Errors?	90
2.6.3. Strategies of Corrective Feedback	93
2.6.3.1. Input- providing Feedback	93

2.6.3.1.1. Recasts	93
2.6.3.1.2. Explicit Correction	94
2.6.3.1.3. Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Explanations	94
2.6.3.2. Output-prompting Feedback	94
2.6.3.2.1. Repetition	94
2.6.3.2.2. Clarification Requests	95
2.6.3.2.3. Metalinguistic Clues	96
2.6.3.2.4. Elicitations	96
2.6.3.2.5. Paralinguistic Signals	96
2.6.4. Factors Impacting the Effectiveness of Feedback	97
2.6.4.1. Linguistic Targets	97
2.6.4.2. Individual Differences	98
Conclusion	99
Chapter three: Native vs. Non-native Speaking Teacher Talk in AFL and EFL Classes	101
Introduction	101
3.1. Language Classrooms and Teacher Talk across Cultures	101
3.1.1. Classroom Cultural Differences	101
3.1.2. Classroom Talk across Cultures	103

3.2. The Native Speaker and Foreigner Talk104
3.2.1. Defining a Native Speaker102
3.2.2. The Concept of Foreigner Talk10
3.3. Foreign Language Teaching and the "Native- speakerism" Conundrum10
3.3.1. What is "Native-speakerism"?10
3.3.2. Native vs. Non-native Speaking Teacher Dichotomy110
3.3.3. Students' Attitudes towards Native and Non-native Speaking Teachers
3.4. Native vs. Non-native Teacher Talk
3.5. Perspectives on AFL Teaching and Learning in the USA12
3.6. Perspectives on EFL Teaching and Learning in Algeria12
Conclusion129
Chapter Four: Analysis of EFL and AFL Classroom Recordings
Introduction130
4.1. Ethnographic Study as a Methodological Approach
4.1.1. Classroom Observation and Recordings134
4.1.2. Social Context and Sampling130
4.1.3. The Corpus14
4.1.4. Data Reliability142

4.2. Data Analysis142
4.2.1. The Choice of Self- Evaluation of Teacher Talk Framework142
4.2.2. Description of Self- Evaluation of Teacher Talk Framework143
4.2.3. Procedures of Data Analysis144
4.3. Research Findings of the Study145
4.3.1. Description of Classroom Setting in the Algerian and the US Context145
4.3.2. Analysis of Native and Non-native Speaking Teacher Talk in EFL and AFL Classes
4.3.2.1. Amount of Teacher Talk in EFL Classes
4.3.2.2. Amount of Teacher Talk in AFL Classes150
4.3.2.3. Analysis of Turn-taking according to SETT Model152
4.3.2.3.1. Turn-taking and SLA in EFL Classes152
4.3.2.3.1.1. Teacher's Interruptions152
4.3.2.3.1.2. Extended Teacher-turn
4.3.2.3.1.3. Turn Completion157
4.3.2.3.2. Turn-taking and SLA in AFL Classes
4.3.2.4. Questioning Strategies of Native and Non-native Speaking Teachers163
4.3.2.4.1. Questioning Strategies of Native and Non-native Speaking Teachers in
EFL Classes

4.3.2.4.2. Questioning Strategies of Native and Non-native Speaking Teachers
in AFL Classes
4.3.2.5. Wait-Time Strategy of Native and Non-Native Speaking Teachers171
4.3.2.6. Oral Corrective Feedback of Native and Non-native Speaking Teachers
4.3.2.6.1. Types of Oral Corrective Feedback in EFL Classes
4.3.2.6.2. Types of Oral Corrective Feedback in AFL Classes
Conclusion
Chapter Five: Analysis of the Students' Questionnaire Findings
Introduction
5.1. Students' Questionnaire
5.1.1. Piloting the Questionnaire
5.1.2. Administration of the Questionnaire
5.1.3. Description of the Students' Questionnaire
5.2. Analysis of the Students' Questionnaire Findings
5.2.1. EFL Students' Questionnaires
5.2.2. AFL Students' Questionnaires
5.2.3. Comparison and Interpretation of the Findings Obtained from EFL
and AFL students' Questionnaire

Conclusion
Chapter Six: Analysis of Teachers' Interviews and Results Obtained from Triangulation.245
Introduction
6.1. Teachers' Interviews
6.1.1. The Sample246
6.1.2. Piloting the Interview
6.1.3. The Interviewing Process
6.1.4. Description of the Interview
6.2. Analysis of Teachers' Interviews Findings252
6.3. Comparison and Interpretation of the Findings Obtained from EFL and AFL Teachers'
Interview
6.4. Findings Obtained from the Three Data Collection Methods
Conclusion
Chapter Seven: Summary of the Results, Implications and Suggestions for Further Research
Introduction
7.1. Summary of the Results
7.2. Contribution of the Study
7.2.1. Contribution of the Study to the Literature on Classroom Interaction309

7.2.2. Contribution of the Study to Practice	.310
7.3. Pedagogical Recommendations	.310
7.4. A Suggested Lesson Plan	316
7.5. Limitations of the Study	.319
7.6. Suggestions for Further Research	.320
General Conclusion	.322
References	.326
Appendices	
Appendix 1: The Original Version of Walsh's (2006) SETT Model	
Appendix 2: The Modified Version of Walsh's (2006) SETT Model	
Appendix 3: Transcription Conventions	
Appendix 4: Transcripts of a Sample Arabic Lesson Taught by a Native Speaking Teacher	
Appendix 5: Transcripts of a Sample Arabic Lesson Taught by a Non-Native Speaking Teacher	er
Appendix 6: Transcripts of a Sample English Lesson Taught by a Native Speaking Teacher	
Appendix 7: Transcripts of a Sample English Lesson Taught by a Non-Native Speaking Teach	her
Appendix 8 : AFL Students' Questionnaire	
Appendix 9 : EFL Students' Questionnaire	

- Appendix 10: Teachers' Interview Questions
- Appendix 11: Interview Transcripts of the NAST Teacher

Appendix 12: Interview Transcripts of the NNAST Teacher

Appendix 13: Interview Transcripts of the NEST Teacher

Appendix 14: Interview Transcripts of the NNEST Teacher

General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

The increasing importance of English and Arabic among other foreign languages, combined with the current vogue of maximizing their instruction worldwide are certainly two immediate consequences of globalization. This fact is simultaneously combined with the shift from teacher to learner-centered approaches as a significant measure for the cultivation of autonomous learners and global citizens who are equipped with the competencies, ideologies, skills, values, and attitudes required to deal with the challenges of the 21st century. In essence, any SL/ FL classroom is deemed to be a setting where interaction is paramount for the acquisition and the mastery of the target language; a need which is even more accentuated in contexts where the target language is barely used outside the classroom. For instance, there are three parameters which affect the success of second language (L2) learning: the teaching method that students encounter, the environment in which they are learning and the language they are exposed to (Cook, 2008).

In terms of the target language exposure, the features that portray classroom interaction in general, and teacher talk in particular, are believed to have a momentous impact on the learning process. More specifically, interactional features which we implement in our classes, ranging from turn allocation, questioning techniques and feedback are very likely to influence students' production of the target language. Based on their observations, Walsh & Li (2016) noted that little time and less attention have been devoted to raising teachers' awareness of the importance of classroom interaction as most teacher education programmes embrace either a language awareness strand or classroom methodology/ pedagogy strand. Subsequently, they highly recommended a

'third strand' on language teacher education programmes focusing mainly on the relationship between interaction, participation, collaboration, and learning.

Throughout the researcher's experience as an EFL student and a university lecturer, it has been noticed that there is no satisfactory understanding of the patterns of classroom interaction among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Algerian teachers despite the tremendous importance of spoken discourse taking place in EFL classes. While teachers are supposed to maximize students' contribution in light of education based on student centeredness, teachers are observed to dominate the interaction and they are less likely to allow EFL students'-initiated talk. To put it another way, there is a conflict between what needs to happen in today's language classrooms, namely, that learners talk as much as possible, and what actually happens in traditional classrooms, where the teacher lectures and the students are silent, and usually discouraged even from asking questions. Moreover, due to the very nature of the target language that is scarcely practiced outside the EFL class, misunderstanding, breakdown in classroom discourse and difficulties to stimulate students' involvement tend to occur especially with novice teachers.

Furthermore, the researcher's experience as an instructor of Arabic as a Foreign Language (AFL) to non- native speaking learners in Wellesley College, Massachusetts, the USA, stimulated her curiosity towards exploring the features that characterize the talk of native speaking and nonnative speaking teachers of AFL in the American context; hence, comparing it to the talk of native speaking (NS) and non-native speaking (NNS) teachers of EFL in the Algerian context. It is the fact that matches with Long's (1980) note about the dearth in research on the characteristics of NS-NNS interaction which is considered as a rewarding area of study. Therefore, this study aims at raising teachers' awareness of the features that characterize teacher talk through approaching it from the perspective of native speaking teachers (NSTs) and non-native speaking teachers (NNSTs) of both AFL and EFL. The mastery of effective classroom interactional features will probably contribute to the improvement of their teaching practice; hence, creating learning opportunities in which students' acquisition and production of the target language are maximized. The analysis is conducted by addressing the following interactional features: turn-taking, questioning techniques, wait- time, and the treatment of oral errors.

2. Significance of the Study

The importance of researching classroom interaction is acknowledged by many scholars. Mehan (1979), for instance, stressed the importance of devoting time to a careful description of what takes place inside the classroom instead of calculating the long-term effects of schools on pupils. Since they are the core of the teaching process, foreign language teachers are certainly responsible for either conducting a successful or unsuccessful language interaction. Therefore, analyzing language teachers' talk would probably raise their awareness of the different interactional features employed in classroom discourse; hence, it will guide them in conducting effective instruction that is devoid of misunderstanding.

Alerting teachers to the need, for example, to clearly "mark" a mode by the use of appropriate transitional and interactional features could be one of the ways of avoiding communication breakdown and reducing the confusions that so frequently occur, especially in contexts where the medium of instruction for a significant proportion of learners is a second language. (Walsh, 2006, P.116)

In the Algerian context, it has been noticed that there is a tendency to focus on EFL learning by either exploring learners' difficulties or testing the effectiveness of different language teaching methodologies and their impact on learners' performance; however, less attention has been paid to teachers despite the fact that they are the core of the learning/teaching process, and everything related to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is based on the speech addressed to EFL learners. Hence, analyzing foreign language teacher talk according to turn-taking, types of questions and corrective feedback directed to students would probably raise teachers' awareness of what makes an effective distribution of interactional features of teacher talk leading to an effective language input and language output. The results of the study, then, will be integrated as part of teacher training programs which are mostly focused on teaching methodologies.

In fact, conducting an international/ comparative study on the interactional features that characterize teacher talk provides us with more insights about two different cultural contexts. Additionally, supplementing the research with data from both native and non-native speaking teachers' classes makes it a worthwhile task which would probably contribute to the literature on foreign language pedagogy. Medgyes (1996) puts it:

The differences between NESTs and non-NESTs should not be blurred or ignored. On the contrary, we as ELT professionals should strive to highlight those divergences and place them under close scrutiny. We should sensitize teachers both to their limitations and potentials, and suggest ways they could make progress within their own constraints. (P.42)

In this respect, it would be more effective to highlight rather than disregard the differences that exist at the international level on the one hand and among native and non-native speaking teachers on the other hand. Investing in these differences is what guides us in the process of improving foreign language teaching in different local contexts.

4

3. Aims of the Study

Interaction is central to the teaching and learning of any subject; however, its role tends to be eminent in language classes where teachers' language is not only considered as the main objective of the course, but also the medium to accomplish this objective. Based on this principle, this study sets out to examine what is going on in face-to-face classroom interaction. It is a comparative study whose primary aim is to analyze and evaluate the features of native and non-native speaking teacher talk in EFL and AFL classes in the Algerian and American contexts, respectively. In this respect, it seeks to find out the extent to which they meet the requirements of an effective talk that advances students' contribution. It is also believed that comparing classroom discourse in two countries discloses different pedagogical traditions and their fundamental social rules (Strobelberger, 2012). Although teacher talk involves many aspects, this research will focus on the interactional features which are closely related to language learning and frequently used in advanced EFL classes by following a modified version of the framework provided by Walsh (2006), i.e., turn-taking, questioning, wait-time, and feedback.

In addition to the analysis of actual teacher talk, interviews are used as a subsidiary research tool to probe into teachers' views and perceptions about their talk to back up the research findings from the participants' perspective. Moreover, students' views about what makes an effective teacher talk that advances their contribution in the target language will be explored to ensure the triangulation of the research methodology. Since this study attempts to compare two different educational settings, it is worth integrating details pertaining to classroom layout, classroom activities, the language focus, students' participation, and teaching materials as they may contribute to the understanding of classroom interaction in both contexts. The ultimate aim of the researcher is to evaluate the features of teacher talk in different contexts along with pinpointing the similarities and differences between NSTs and NNSTs.

4. Research Questions

To achieve the aims of the study, three main research questions and multiple sub-questions are framed:

Research question one

To what extent do native and non-native language teachers diverge from each other in the observed classes of EFL and AFL?

Sub-questions

1.1.What is the amount of teacher talk of both native and non-native speaking teachers?

1.2. Following Walsh's (2006) SETT model, how is turn taking organization planned in the classes of native and non-native speaking teachers?

1.3. What types and frequency of questions asked by native and non-native speaking teachers?

1.4. How is the wait-time strategy planned by native and non-native speaking teachers?

1.5. What are the different types of feedback provided by native and non-native speaking teachers?

Research question two

From the students' standpoints, what makes high quality interaction that boosts up students' production of the target language?

6

Sub-questions

2.1. What is the best turn-taking organization that FL teachers should implement in their classes?

2.2. What are the most effective questions that should be asked by FL teachers to trigger learners' responses and to encourage L2 development?

2.3. What are the most effective questioning techniques that should be implemented by FL teachers to promote students' responses?

2.4. What are the types of feedback that should be provided by FL teachers to encourage SLA?

Research question three

From the FL teachers' standpoints, what makes high quality interaction that boosts up students' production of the target language?

Sub-questions

3.1. What is the best turn-taking organization that FL teachers should implement in their classes?

3.2. What are the most effective questions that should be asked by FL teachers to trigger learners' responses and to encourage L2 development?

3.3. What are the most effective questioning techniques that should be implemented by FL teachers to promote students' responses?

3.4. What are the types of feedback that should be provided by FL teachers to encourage SLA?

5. Research Design and Methodology

To provide an answer to the previous research questions, a qualitative and quantitative research design is conducted. First, the primary source of data rests on systematic observation schedule along with audio-recorded lessons which were transcribed and submitted to analysis to identify the different interactional features existing in the observed classes. In addition to that, questionnaires are designed as a subsidiary research tool to offer more insights about students' views and perceptions regarding their teacher talk by pinpointing the features that enhance their participation and contribution in foreign language (FL) classes. This is accompanied with teachers' interviews which elicit data concerning the participating teachers' perceptions and views about their talk and their beliefs about what makes an effective teacher talk that advances students' contribution of the target language.

In the USA context, Wellesley College was selected for the study. It is a women's only Liberal Arts College located in the city of Wellesley, Boston Area, and it provides excellent standards of education. The college is highly valued with an acceptance rate of 28%, which makes admissions extremely competitive. Popular majors include Economics, Biology, and Research and Experimental Psychology (Niche universities website). The field work was conducted in this college since it was the host instituting during the researcher's Fulbright experience as a teaching assistant during the academic year 2017-2018; hence, being part of the institution facilitated the access to different Arabic classes. Another reason pertains to the good program of Arabic language and culture that is offered at the Department of Middle Eastern studies at the college. Two different classes took part in the study. The first class is composed of students aged between 18 and 20 years old taking intermediate Arabic. The students came from different ethnic, cultural, and religious backgrounds and have been already instructed in AFL either in Wellesley college, secondary

schools, or as part of a study abroad program in Arabic speaking countries. The class meets two times a week, and it is taught by a male Moroccan teacher in his forties who is a native speaker of the language. The second class is also composed of students aged between 18 and 20 years old taking elementary Arabic; So, they have never been previously exposed to the target language. The students also came from different ethnic, cultural, and religious backgrounds. The class meets three times a week, and it is taught by a male American teacher in his thirties who is a non-native speaker of the language.

In the Algerian context, two EFL teachers at the Department of English at Teachers' College, Constantine have been observed. One class of 2nd year students taking Oral Expression course. The class meets two times a week, and it is taught by a female American teacher in her fifties who is a native speaker of the language. This is compared with another class of 2nd year of the same subject taught by an Algerian teacher in her forties who is a non-native speaker of the language. The NNS teacher class also meets twice a week. The students are aged between 19 and 20 years old, and they have already had eight years of experience in EFL learning. They joined the college to get a certificate to teach EFL either at the middle or the secondary school. All students are Algerians who came from different states in the eastern part of Algeria. Enrollment in Teachers' College is competitive since students are selected based on their Baccalauréat exam score and an additional entrance exam.

6. Structure of the Thesis

The main body of the thesis is divided into seven chapters, a general introduction, and a general conclusion. Chapter one describes major aspects related to language classrooms with a specific focus devoted to the features of second/ foreign classroom interaction and the different tools employed for its analysis. Chapter two offers a theoretical background which lends support

to the significant role played by the interactional features that characterize teacher talk and contribute to advancing learners' SL/ foreign language development. To this end, it offers an indepth account of three features of teacher talk, namely turn taking, questioning techniques and oral corrective feedback. Chapter three sets up the context for the comparative study. Therefore, in addition to the discussion of classroom cultural differences, it highlights the similarities and differences between native speaking and non-native speaking teachers in general. The chapter proceeds with portraying the way native and non-native speaking teachers diverge in their talk in terms of their questioning strategies and feedback. It ends up with a brief presentation of the teaching of AFL and EFL in the American and Algerian contexts, respectively. Chapter four presents the results obtained from data gathered through systematic observation and classroom audio-recordings of both native and non-native speaking teachers in EFL and AFL classes. The analysis is conducted by considering the foreign language classes separately. However, the discussion of AFL classes is made with reference to the findings achieved from EFL classes to pinpoint the similarities and differences between both categories of teachers. The discussions are also supplemented with transcribed excerpts from the observed lessons. Chapter five presents the findings achieved from data gathered through the analysis of the questionnaires designed to both EFL and AFL students. The analysis of learners' responses is presented separately, and then followed by a comparison of the findings obtained from both categories of learners. Chapter six discusses the findings achieved from the analysis of teachers' interview transcripts. Additionally, it offers an overall analysis of the findings gathered from the three research methods considering the research questions. Chapter seven wraps up the findings of the study. This summary is followed by the contribution of the study to both the literature on classroom interaction and to practice in the foreign language classroom. A list of pedagogical recommendations is also provided along

with the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research. The thesis ends up with a general conclusion which provides a synopsis of the main findings of the study.

Chapter one: Classroom Discourse, Communication, and Interaction

Introduction

The achievement of effective foreign language teaching/learning is probably based on successful classroom interaction which could be either between the teacher and the students or among the students themselves. This fact probably makes the study and analysis of classroom discourse as one of the areas that deserves consideration as it contributes to the improvement of foreign language teaching/learning. Since the study focuses on the interactional features that characterize teacher talk in AFL and EFL classes, this chapter is divided into six sections which discuss all aspects related to language classrooms with a specific focus on the discursive features and the different tools employed for their analysis. Section one is devoted to the description of some facts and the characteristics of classrooms, in general. Section two presents a brief historical background on the study of classroom discourse and interaction. Section three offers a thorough description of classroom discourse and communication. As the study focuses on classroom discourse, a delineation between naturalistic and classroom discourse is presented to picture the characteristics of the latter from another lens and to offer more insights about the uniqueness of classroom discourse. Keeping on the same topic, the section is progressed with spelling out the importance ascribed to classroom communication, in general and the properties that characterize foreign language classes, in particular. Since the language teacher is our focal point, section three ends up with identifying the characteristics of language lessons and teacher's action zone. Section four is designed to cover the different approaches adopted by scholars in their analysis of classroom discourse, namely Interaction Analysis, Discourse Analysis, Conversation Analysis, and a suggested variable approach to the investigation of classroom discourse. Section five offers

an overview of classroom interaction and the different topics which offer a framework for discussing teacher talk. The chapter concludes with pinpointing the close association that exists between language use and pedagogical purpose as a distinctive feature of language classes. This is achieved throughout providing a brief explanation of Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) instrument designed by Walsh (2006, 2011).

1.1. Classrooms: Facts and Characteristics

As an academic setting, classrooms involve participants with varying degrees of knowledge and experiences; yet they are all taking part in what is called classroom discourse. Hicks (1996) defines classrooms as crowded and energetic environments with the teacher playing the prominent role of facilitating classroom discourse. Cook (2008) elaborates on this definition by viewing the classroom as "a variable, not a constant" context since teachers work toward shaping it to satisfy students and course objectives within the boundaries set by their school or the educational system. Like Hicks, Cook (2008) assigns the role of "leader" to the teacher as he/ she is the one who guides the exchange of turns between listeners and speakers, either overtly or covertly. Due to this reason, teachers' speech occupies around 70 percent of utterances taking place in the classroom (p.162).

Wright (2006) describes classrooms as both simple and complex contexts. They are considered as simple if we suppose that they are places where teaching and learning transpire. That being said, reality divulges that any person who is directly involved in classroom life would acknowledge that they are complex and problematical. To back up her claim, she mentions the challenges faced by teachers, mainly being "confronted with the complexity of language, learning and language learners every day of their working lives" (Larsen- Freeman, as cited in Wright, 2006, p. 66). Similarly, the fact that classrooms make unique and complex environments is

supported by three different arguments: *Pedagogic and institutional, sociocultural and psychological and goals and pressures in classroom activity*.

1.1.1. Pedagogic and Institutional Nature of Classrooms

Regarding the pedagogic and institutional nature of classrooms, Wright (2006, p.66) refers to the experience of Doyle (1986) and the meticulous observation and analysis of classroom life that guided her to detect several classroom properties which contribute to its complexity. These properties are classified as *multidimensionality* referring to the quality and variety of tasks conducted in the classroom; *simultaneity* representing the things which happen at once in the classroom; *immediacy* denoting the rapid pace of events in the classroom; *unpredictability* of classroom events; *publicness* since classrooms are places where everyone is potentially a witness of others' actions; and finally, *history* as classes have a temporal history of activity together. These properties serve as a starting point if one wishes to understand classrooms since they provide the basis for observation. Having said that, however, they give insufficient knowledge about the social and psychological realities of people gathering in a classroom to engage in learning (Doyle, as cited in Wright, 2006).

1.1.2. Sociocultural and Psychological Nature of Classrooms

As opposed to Doyle's descriptive categories, Breen (as cited in Wright, 2006) considers the classroom as a 'culture' which has the following characteristics:

- An interactive space in which participants use verbal and non-verbal language;

- Classroom events have different interpretation by different participants at different times;

- A collective space where each learning group has a collective psychological reality;

- A normative environment in which participants are evaluated as learners and as people;

- There is an asymmetrical relationship between teachers and learners who have different rights, duties, and identities;

- Conservative with reluctance to change to maintain security and regularity;

- Content and process are jointly constructed by teachers and learners;

- Participants' consensus as part of ongoing activity.

These characteristics contribute to the solidification of the complex nature of classroom life; however, the extent to which teachers and learners would recognize them is questionable. Wright (2006, p.67) contends:

As participants in a complex social and cultural world, it is unlikely that teachers and learners have articulated these features in any meaningful way, although they are likely in their different ways to be very aware of, for example, the power dimension in classrooms.

1.1.3. Different Goals and Pressures in Classroom Activity

Recently, scholars have devoted attention to the idea that classrooms are inevitably complex due to potential conflicting goals. According to Wright (1996 cited in 2006), any teacher deals with the conflict that exists between the *pedagogic* and *social goals*. This conflict is attributed to the divergence between the pedagogic goal of providing new learning material on the one hand and the social goal of avoiding embarrassment to both teachers and learners on the other hand. That being said, pedagogy tends to embrace other social considerations in many cases.

In their book, Brumfit & Mitchell (1989) highlight the equal importance of researching language learning and teaching; however, they placed more emphasis on the latter as a more manageable area of study than the former. In this respect, teaching is underscored since understanding its mechanisms would, without doubt, leads to an effective education.

It is unnecessary to persuade readers of this book that language learning is a crucial phenomenon that deserves study. However, it is worth also emphasizing that, for many learners, teaching provides the context for the learning process, and deserves analysis in its own right...Particularly, we have a greater chance of controlling processes of teaching than of learning, so understanding how it works in practice, and how its workings relate to successful language development, is a necessary adjunct to effective education. (Brumfit & Mitchell, 1989, p.3)

1.2. Historical Perspectives about the Study of Classroom Discourse and Interaction

Research on classroom interaction dates to the late 1930s, yet it has expanded since the 1960s. That period witnessed societal changes and growing of student diversity in classrooms which, in turn, created a need for new ways of understanding teaching, learning and classroom interaction (Skukauskaite et al., 2015). Despite the different approaches adopted for the investigation of classroom discourse, one common theme that has been shared with all researchers is the compelling need to find out the relationship that exists between the teacher, learner talk and learning (Walsh & Li, 2016).

Strobelberger (2012) identifies two traditions in the study of Classroom Interaction Analysis: Studies on SLA vs. studies on classroom discourse. Regarding the tradition of SLA, Allwright & Bailey (1991) assume that there is a close association between classroom interaction and L2 learning. Therefore, "What any one learner can learn from each lesson will depend on what happens in the course of classroom interaction, and whether or not that learner bothers to pay attention to the different learning opportunities that arise" (p.21). On the other hand, studies on classroom discourse focus solely on the nature or characteristics of foreign language classroom interaction. In this respect, aspects like turn-taking, teacher talk, participation patterns, types of interaction and topics of development are highlighted. Therefore, researchers' task mainly revolves around the management of interaction, which is made for the sake of giving every student the best possible opportunities for learning the language (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

Research on classroom discourse was initially triggered by the search for an objective evaluation of classroom teaching through obtaining a factual record of pedagogical events which could, in turn, equip students' teachers with feedback on their teaching competence. The evaluation and feedback were mainly focused on aspects of teacher behavior related to learner performance. To this end, tools for systematic observation of classroom interaction were proposed; Flanders's (1960) *Interaction Analysis Categories* (FIAC) is one of the most widely adopted tools, which serves as a framework for the analysis of classroom talk including both *teacher talk* and *student talk*. Whereas the former focuses on the direct or indirect control that is exerted by the teacher over his students' behavior, the latter is mainly about learners' responses which could be either expected or unexpected (Tsui, 2011).

Shortly after, there was a paradigm shift from prescriptive to descriptive analysis of classroom interaction. To elaborate more on this new perspective, Coulthard (1977) reports the work done by Bellack et al. (1966) on the analysis of L2/FL classroom discourse with the aim of finding out the role played by language in building a classroom learning environment. On this

basis, Bellack et al. (1966) identified four different moves of interaction that characterize any classroom discourse. The first category is called 'structuring moves', and it plays the pedagogical role of setting up the context through initiating or ending the interaction between the instructor and the learners. The second category is called 'soliciting moves', and it is mainly about obtaining verbal, cognitive, or physical response from the addressees. This category could be in the form of questions, commands, or requests. The third category is termed the 'responding moves' which is not very different from soliciting moves in the sense that both focus on students' answers to teachers' questions. The last category is the 'reacting moves', which has the pedagogical function of modifying the previous discourse. Coulthard (1977) provides the following example to illustrate the integration of the four moves in a piece of classroom discourse.

Extract 1

(T stands for the teacher and p for the pupil).
"T: STR: Let's turn to American investment abroad.
SOL: you suppose we do invest much money outside of the U.S?
P: RES: yes." (p. 97).

In addition to the previously mentioned moves, Sinclair in collaboration with Coulthard came up with an analogous system during their research on the grammar of spoken discourse. Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) found out that 'exchange' could be considered as the basic unit for the organization of classroom discourse. This unit is, in turn, divided into the three different moves of 'initiating', 'responding' and 'feedback'. To put it another way, the teacher initiates the discourse through asking questions; the learner proceeds by offering a response; and finally, the teacher concludes the discourse with feedback on the learner's response.

The descriptive analysis of classroom discourse was followed by another type of research which departed from the investigation of what is observable in the classroom to the analysis of the unobservable facts which shape classroom discourse. In fact, this change in focus which took place in the late 1980s and early 1990s resulted from teacher's investigation that learners' participation in the classroom can be influenced by their learning styles, psychological states, cultural backgrounds, and beliefs about classroom behaviour (Tsui, 2011). As a result, the descriptive tools which take an *etic* or non-participant perspective were considered as unreliable; instead, there was a focus on research methodologies from other disciplines, namely ethnographic approach. This new type of research approach takes an *emic* perspective in the sense that it involves the researcher's involvement and participation in people's lives for a long period of time either explicitly or implicitly. This approach also rests on the collection of different types of qualitative data including but not limited to lesson plans, reflective journals, surveys, and audio/video recordings of classroom interaction. One concrete example is the research done by Seedhouse (2004), which demonstrates the ability of Conversation Analysis to explain the complicated relationship that exists between pedagogical goals and language use.

Recently, research on classroom discourse focuses on classroom interaction as a basic tool or in Walsh & Li's (2016) words "a lens" to explore issues pertaining to language learning. More specifically, Walsh (2002, 2006) develops a framework to examine interactional features of teacher talk and to evaluate them according to the features that either construct or obstruct learning. Walsh's fundamental aim is to raise teachers' awareness of the role played by classroom interaction as a means of improving both teaching and learning.

1.3. Classroom Discourse and Communication

The discussion of classroom discourse and communication is unfinished topic. This is probably due to the fact of the existence of different classroom subjects, learners with different learning goals, and most importantly teachers and students with different cultural background. Since the focus of the study will be on foreign language classes, this section will address the features of discourse and communication in these classes and how the latter is distinguished from other subject classes as well as naturally occurring discourse that is non-academic.

1.3.1. Classroom Discourse vs. Naturalistic Discourse

Classroom discourse is used to cover any element that occurs in the classroom, and it could be either linguistic or non-linguistic (Tsui, 2011). From another perspective, it is associated with any type of discourse taking place in the classroom between teachers and students or among students with or without the presence of the teacher. There are different functions which are associated with classroom discourse depending on the context. For instance, teachers can use the discourse to maintain control of the topic or patterns of classroom interaction, to establish social relationships with their learners, and finally to convey knowledge (Pontecorvo, 1997).

In highlighting the differences between classroom discourse and naturalistic discourse, Ellis (2008) notes that the former is relevant when the focus is on trying to learn a language, whereas the latter is appropriate when the focus is on communication itself. In the same way, studies which investigated repair in naturally occurring conversations have shown a preference for self-initiated and self-completed repair. In reverse, classroom settings are characterized by discourse rights that belong to the teacher; hence, other- initiated and other- completed repair are prevalent. To note the difference between classroom and naturalistic discourse, Hellermenn (as cited in Strobelberger, 2012) focuses on the prosody with which IRF exchanges (I stands for teacher initiation, R is the learner response and E/F is the evaluation or feedback of the teacher) are accomplished. According to him, what distinguishes institutional discourse, like that of the classroom, from everyday conversation is the use of different intonation contours. More specifically, the use of intonation in the third turn of the IRF exchange is the feature that characterizes classroom discourse. This point is confirmed by Strobelberger (2012) who states: "whereas teachers use falling and rising intonation contours in their feedback to differentiate between correct and incorrect assessment, this is not an option in everyday conversation" (p.14).

Van Lier (1988) discusses the difference between classroom and naturally occurring conversation in terms of turn-taking as a distinctive feature of any classroom. He set up a basic rule stating that there is only one speaker who speaks at any one time; meanwhile, there are instances in which many participants can speak at the same time if they say the same thing, or at least the simultaneous talk is intelligible. When this is not achieved, repair work is more likely to take place. Van Lier adds that the contribution of participants must follow the pedagogical orientation, i.e., the purpose of the interaction (p.139-40).

Keeping on the same line, McHoul (1978) expresses his interest in the difference of turntaking in both classroom and ordinary conversation. Based on classroom data, he concludes that "only teachers can direct speakership in any creative way"; It is a rule which is based on two observations. The first observation holds that learners do not have the choice to decide who the next speaker will be as the teacher is automatically the next speaker. The second observation holds that a learner is observed to speak due to the turn allocated to him/ her by the teacher (p.188).

1.3.2. The Significance of Classroom Communication

Classroom communication has long been considered unique due to the features that characterize it from other types of communication. Needless to say, there are myriad pedagogical benefits that learners would gain from discourse taking place in classroom which ultimately impacts their real-life communication. This could be demonstrated by the talk of literate vs. illiterate people in any conversation outside the classroom.

Walsh & Li (2016) maintain that classroom discourse is a worthwhile topic to be studied by teachers, teacher educators, or researchers due to the strong relationship that exists between talk, interaction and learning which is essential to any classroom practice. Eventually, a closer understanding of this relationship guides teachers in making the right decision in their classrooms; hence, it fosters learning. In this respect, they noted: "good interactive decisions are ones which promote learning and learning opportunities, and which reflect the pedagogic goals of the teacher, the goals of the learners, and the opportunities or constraints imposed by the context" (p.487).

Similarly, Allwright (1984, p.156) acknowledges the importance of interaction in the pedagogical acts evolving in classrooms because "everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person-to-person interaction". She goes further to claim that employing a means of communication toward solving communication problems, two immediate aims are accomplished simultaneously: practicing communication and improving the mastery of the means of communication, i.e., the language itself. Several reasons are highlighted to justify the importance of communication practice:

- Offering an essential stage in the transmission of classroom learning to the outside world;

- Providing learners with the opportunity to practice the language they might need in real life;

- Equipping learners with the skills to deal with communication problems;

- Assisting learners in communicating ideas that interest them.

Johnson (1995) approaches the significance of SL classroom communication by pointing to the challenging nature of its investigation due to its complexity. In return, she advises teachers to familiarize themselves with what she calls "dynamics" of classroom communication and their impact on students' contribution. According to her:

If teachers understand how the dynamics of classroom communication influence second language students' perceptions of and participation in classroom activities, they may be better able to monitor and adjust the patterns of classroom communication in order to create an environment that is conductive to both classroom learning and second language acquisition. (P.3)

In the same vein, Cazden (2001) highlights the importance of classroom communication by pointing to its convolutedness; hence, a topic that needs to be considered by both learners and educators. He notes: "it is essential to consider the classroom communication system as a problematic medium that cannot be ignored, or viewed transparent, by anyone interested in teaching and learning" (p.3).

1.3.3. Characteristics of Second/ Foreign Language Classrooms

Unlike content classrooms (physics, chemistry, mathematics...), second/ foreign language classrooms hold a unique status due to the various functions accomplished with language. Cook (2008) justifies the uniqueness of L2 teaching classrooms by the dual function of language. In any L2 classroom discourse, the language is considered as a means of organizing and controlling the classroom on the one hand and the actual subject matter that is being taught on the other hand;

hence, a property which does not exist in other content classrooms. In physics classroom, for instance, teachers' speech is adapted to suit the learners' comprehension level which makes their talk only indirectly associated with the subject matter. In this respect, the students are not exactly learning the physics teacher's language. Conversely, in adjusting their speech, language teachers directly affect the subject matter: the language itself. This dual role that is played by language is the main reason that turns FL teaching into a challenging task. Cook (2008, p.157) notes:

This twofold involvement of language creates a particular problem for L2 teaching. The students and teachers are interacting through language in the classroom, using the strategies and moves that form part of their normal classroom behavior. But at the same time the L2 strategies and moves are the behavior the learner is aiming at, the objectives of teaching. The teacher has to be able to manage the class through one type of language, at the same time as getting the student to acquire another type.

Walsh & Li (2016) also recognize the unique nature of L2 classrooms as social contexts which is attributed to the centrality of talk and interaction. Walsh (2011, p.168) further elaborates on this stating:

In the rapid flow of classroom interaction, it is difficult to comprehend what is happening. Not only is the interaction very fast and involves many people, it has multiple foci; the language being used may be performing several functions at the same time: seeking information, checking learning, offering advice and so on.

Walsh adds that this intricacy makes it safe to argue that there is no single L2 classroom context. Rather, participants locally construct contexts through and in their interaction in the light of overall institutional goals and immediate pedagogic objectives.

Long & Sato (1983) maintain that like native speaker-nonnative speaker conversation, classroom second language instruction is characterized by a tendency toward the "nowness" of the discourse, i.e., using the simple present tense to talk about the immediate time and environment. This fact is stressed in SL classes due to several reasons. first, the language background of recipients as non-native speakers of the language. Second, the contextualization of classroom talk by SL teachers through reference to people, objects, and events within the immediate classroom environment. Third, the frequent orientation of conversation toward what teachers say to students and the absence of conversational topics which are naturally slanted towards non-present temporal reference.

Along the same line, Walsh (2006) comes up with three features which characterize L2 classroom discourse. First of all, there is an asymmetrical relationship that exists between teachers and learners in the sense that it is the teacher who maintains control over the interaction through his/ her management of the topic of conversation and turn-taking. The Initiation-response-feedback (IRF) pattern of interaction proposed by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) illustrates this point as two thirds of classroom interaction are made by the teacher, namely the initiation (I) and feedback (F) turns. Chaudron (1988) also supports this fact through an empirical evidence which shows that teacher talk covers 77 percent of the time in bilingual classrooms in Canada, 69 percent in immersion classes and 61 percent in foreign language classes. Along the same line, Nunan (1989) refers to another evidence revealing that teacher talk in language classes occupies up to 89 percent of the available time. Although the question of teacher's domination of classroom talk remains to some extent problematic, Nunan (1989) believes that judging the effectiveness of teacher talk depends on the role of language input in acquisition. For instance, if learners learn better through practicing the target language, classroom activities should be structured in a way in

which learner talk is maximized. Conversely, if teacher talk is supposed to be a source of comprehensible input, teacher dominance should not be then regarded as an issue. The second feature is related to teachers' control and dominance of classroom discourse through elicitation techniques. This is related to teachers' authority to direct questions to their students at any moment during the lecture. Chaudron (1988) claims that all types of questions employed by teachers play a significant role in classroom discourse in the sense that they initiate the IRF sequence. This could be achieved by attracting learners' attention, initiating their verbal responses, and evaluating their progress in the target language. The task of the teacher, then, is to construct questions which are less vague and less restrictive. In addition to the activity of questioning, the third feature that characterizes language classrooms is the activity of *repair*. It refers to the different strategies adopted by teachers in dealing with learners' errors and the different ways of pinpointing these errors in the discourse (Walsh 2006). In fact, there are different strategies which could be used by teachers to address learners' errors: a complete ignorance of the error; an indication and correction of the error; an indication of the error with a follow up correction by the mistaken learner; and finally, an indication of the error with a follow up correction by other learners. This activity of error correction, however, depends on the task. For instance, there is an extensive correction of errors in controlled practice versus a minimum correction in oral fluency tasks (Walsh, 2011).

1.3.4. Characteristics of Language Lessons

Richards & Lockhart (1996) define the term "lesson" as a speech event with an identifiable structure including an introduction, a series of teaching/learning activities and a conclusion. This pattern of structure or organization is considered as "a result of the teacher's attempt to manage the instructional process in a way which will optimize the amount of learning that can take place in the time available" (p. 113).

Sinclair & Coulthard (1992) maintain a different perspective in their definition of the term "lesson". They developed a system of discourse analysis by proposing the following units: *acts-moves-exchanges-transaction-lesson*. In this classification, lessons are regarded as the highest units of classroom discourse which comprise a series of transactions. They proposed two potential plans through which lessons are proceeded. In the first case, the teacher may start off by presenting some pieces of information, finding out whether they have been assimilated, and then getting the learners to use them in their own work. Alternatively, the teacher starts with a series of elicit exchanges to move the learners towards conclusions which will later be elaborated in an informing transaction. In terms of structure, lessons are influenced by several performance features including teachers' own memory, ability to order speech, and more specifically the need to account for unexpected reactions, misunderstandings, or contributions on the part of learners.

Richards & Lockhart (1996) highlight two sets of characteristics which come into sight to distinguish language classes from other classes. Whereas the first set of characteristics is concerned with the way classes are structured or organized for instruction, the second set of characteristics is about the way language is used in lessons. According to a research study conducted by Rosenshine & Stevens (1986) on teaching mainstream classes, teachers employ different strategies to structure their lessons effectively. Some of these strategies include reviewing previously discussed material; statement of goals of the lesson, presentation of new material that is structured through different steps, offering detailed instructions and guiding learners to practice, and managing classroom interaction through eliciting students' responses (as cited in Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p.113- 114)

In addressing the relevance of lesson structure to the study of classroom interaction, Mehan (1979) states: "for a theory of interaction, knowledge about the structure of classroom lessons will

be instructive for understanding the negotiation of meaning, the use of language, and the construction of behavior in a social context" (p.33). Similarly, he assigns two types of organization to classroom lessons: sequential and hierarchical. Whereas the former refers to the flow of the lesson as it is revealed through time from beginning to end, the latter is about the arrangement of the lesson into its component parts.

Richards & Lockhart (1996) suggest four components that make up a typical lesson: opening, sequencing, pacing, and closure. The opening stage consists of the procedures which are used by the teacher to focus students' attention on the learning aims of the lesson. This stage occupies the first 5 min; hence, it can have an impact on how much students learn from the lesson. Regarding sequencing, Richards & Lockhart alluded to the design of the lesson that experienced teachers conceptualize in their mind depending on the kind of lesson, such as a reading lesson, a composition class, or a listening lesson. Relating to the internal structure of an ESL/ EFL lesson, there are different principles that should be considered. For instance, simple activities precede difficult ones; receptive skills activities precede productive skills activities; grammar rules are introduced prior to their use; practice involves the use of a tense or grammar structure before the study of the underlying rules; fluency- based activities follow accuracy-based activities; and lastly a lesson involves a progression from form-based activities to meaningful-based activities. From the learners' perspective, Wong- Fillmore (1985 as cited in Richards & Lockhart, 1996) puts it:

Once [the learners] learn the sequence of sub-activities for each subject, they can follow the lesson without having to figure out afresh what is happening each day. They know what they are supposed to do and what they should be getting out of each phase of a lesson; thus, they are ahead of the game in figuring out what they are supposed to be learning each day. (p.120-121)

28

In addition to the format of the language lesson which is made up of a sequence of activities addressing the overall goal of the lesson, teachers are also recommended to consider issues pertaining to the pacing of the lesson. In Richards & Lockhart's words, it is "the extent to which a lesson maintains its momentum and communicates a sense of development" (p. 122). In this respect, time management is a very crucial aspect that should be considered when interactive decisions are made.

Decisions related to pacing are important aspects of interactive decision making, since teaching involves monitoring students' engagement in learning tasks and deciding when it is time to bring a task to completion and move on to another activity before students' attention begins to fade.

(Richards&Lockhart, 1996, p.122).

The last phase is the Closure. It is another dimension of structuring related to those concluding parts of a lesson, and it serves to reinforce what students have learned in a lesson, to integrate and review the content of a lesson and to prepare the students for further learning.

1.3.5. Teacher's Action Zone

Richards & Lockhart (1996) define an action zone as learners with whom teachers interact in the classroom. More specifically, they offer three categories of students: students who are regularly in direct eye contact with teachers; students to whom the questions are addressed; and students who are selected to take an active part in the lesson (p.139). Eventually, students who are placed within the teacher's action zone are likely to participate more actively in a lesson than students who fall outside the action zone.

According to Adams & Briddle (1970), teachers' action zone in diverse classrooms includes the middle front-row seats and the seats up the middle aisle. Therefore, if teachers are

delivering their lecture from the front of the class, students who are placed there are more likely to have the opportunity to take part actively in the lesson due to their proximity to the teacher (Cited in Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 139).

Schinke- Llano (1983) goes further to add that although there are some features which demarcate what an action zone is, these features remain context-dependent and personal. Therefore, not all teachers share the same action zone. Schinke- Llano (1983) proposes some situations describing an action zone in classroom interaction: teachers' tendency to look at the right-hand side of the class than the left; calling on girls more often than boys; calling on students of one ethnic background more often than those of another; calling on students with names that are easy to remember; and calling on brighter students more often than others. In mainstream classes comprising students with limited English proficiency, there is a tendency to focus attention on the first language speakers and relatively less on others (Schinke- Llano, as cited in Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 139). Figure 1.1 is a diagram that represents teacher's interaction with students during a lesson.

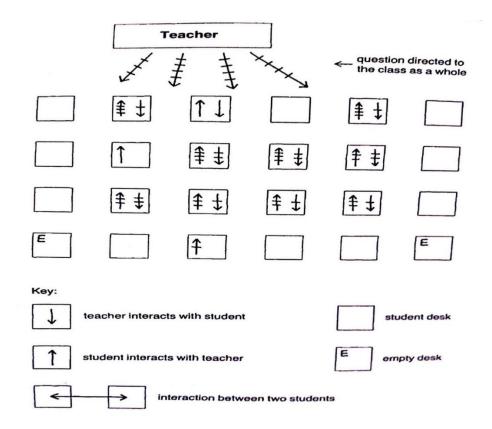


Figure 1. 1. Teacher-students Interaction in Class (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p.140)

As it is revealed in the diagram, although teacher's questions are directed to the whole class, interaction is frequently taking place between the teacher and students sitting in the middle aisle compared to students sitting in other parts of the classroom.

1.4. Approaches to the Study of Classroom Discourse

In reviewing the notable contributions of research conducted in the field of L2 classroom interaction, Yang & Walsh (2014) offer a classification along with a criticism of three approaches to the analysis of classroom discourse, i.e., interaction analysis, discourse analysis, and conversation analysis. Additionally, they propose a more flexible and dynamic approach and what follows is an in-depth discussion and evaluation of each approach separately.

1.4.1. Interaction Analysis Approaches

Interaction analysis is the first approach to the analysis of classroom discourse as suggested by Yang & Walsh (2014). It is originated from behavioral psychology, and it was widely used in the 1960s and the 1970s. As a quantitative and reliable approach, it is based on a series of observational instruments/ coding systems which are designed with the aim of recording what the observer believes to be taking place in the L2 classroom. Moreover, it offers an objective and scientific analysis of classroom discourse due to its dependence on classroom recordings and subsequent statistical analysis.

Yang & Walsh (2014, p.471) argue that what characterizes the observation instruments is their use of some system of *ticking boxes, making marks,* and *recording what the observer sees* which is done in systematic time intervals. Teacher education, for instance, is one field in which such instruments have been used successfully due to their convenience in developing competencies and raising awareness.

Although these instruments are deemed to be reliable due to their facilitation of comparison between observers and generalizability of the results, they have been criticized for assuming stimulus/ response treatment of classroom discourse. Based on Wallace (1998), Yang & Walsh (2014) alluded to some limitations to IA approaches. The first limitation is the mandatory correspondence between the occurring patterns of interaction and the categories provided living no room for events that do not match the descriptive categories. The descriptive categories based on the assumption that classroom discourse proceeds in a sequential manner (T-> S->T->S and so on); however, actual data reveal that overlaps, interruptions, back-channels, false starts, repetitions, and hesitations take place in language classrooms in the same

way they do in naturally occurring conversation. Secondly, such observation instruments do not reflect the complexity of classroom interaction as they are based on the assumption that one move takes place at once; the fact that prompts the observer to make sudden decisions about the categorization of utterances. Thirdly, since the observer is considered as "an outsider" recording the events as they occur, the events are interpreted from the observer rather than the participants perspective which is another limitation of the coding systems.

1.4.2. Discourse Analysis Approaches

Yang & Walsh (2014, p.472) allude to Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) as they are the earliest proponents of discourse analysis (DA) approaches. Through adopting a structural functional analysis, Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) listed twenty-two speech acts representing the verbal behavior of both teachers and learners participating in primary classroom communication. In this regard, they came up with a "descriptive system" integrating a discourse hierarchy where the "lesson" is considered the largest unit of discourse and "acts" as the smallest ones described in terms of their discourse functions.

LESSON TRANSACTION EXCHANGE MOVE ACT

According to Yang & Walsh (2014), teaching exchanges in both content-based and language classrooms follow an Initiation, Response, and Feedback (IRF) structure. It is made up of three moves including two teacher moves for each student move. Each move, in turn, is made up of one or more speech acts. Walsh (2011) depicts classroom researchers' attention to the limitations of Sinclair and Coulthard system. According to him, the application of IRF sequence is appropriate in traditional classrooms because the discourse had a very clear structure that was largely dominated by question and answer routines. In contemporary L2 classroom, however, it is doubtful whether the framework could adequately describe the structure of classroom interaction due to the symmetrical relationship existing between the teacher and learners.

Despite the contribution of discourse analysis approaches to the understanding of classroom discourse, they are not free from criticism. Yang & Walsh (2014) mentioned four limitations of such approaches. First of all, due to their static nature, it is difficult to have a full consideration of the complex and dynamic nature of classroom interaction. Secondly, being both descriptive and prescriptive, DA approach attempts to classify naturally occurring patterns of interaction and interprets them by reference to discourse hierarchy. Thirdly, while the analysis of classroom data is done according to their function, it is difficult to accurately allocate utterances to functions because an utterance can perform a range of functions. Walsh (2011) comments on this limitation: "in a multi-party such as a classroom, where there are so many things going on at the same time, deciding on a linguistic function maybe extremely problematic" (p.82). Fourthly, DA approach does not cover more noticeable forces such as role relations, context, and sociolinguistic norms which must be followed.

1.4.3. Conversation Analysis Approaches

Broadly speaking, Conversation Analysis (CA) is an approach which is based on the principle that social contexts are not "static"; rather, they are continuously being shaped by the participants through their use of language along with the ways in which turn-taking, opening, closures, and sequencing of acts are locally accomplished (Yang & Walsh, 2014). In the framework of this approach, the examination of interaction is achieved by considering both meaning and context as "interaction is context-shaped and context-renewing; that is, one

contribution is dependent on a previous one and subsequent contributions create a new context for later actions" (Yang & Walsh, 2014, P.473).

Although the application of CA was originated in ordinary spoken interaction, its relevance to institutional discourse cannot be ignored. In such contexts, Yang & Walsh (2014) maintain that CA methodology aims at considering the ways in which context is created for and by the participants respecting the goal-oriented activity in which they are involved. They classified CA into two different categories according to the role it plays in the analysis of data: "pure" and "applied" CA. The former deals with the study of the features of the interaction itself, whereas the latter deals with different issues evolving from educational practices and the way teachers create or restrict opportunities for learning (p.86). Classroom talk is used to accomplish a variety of tasks as summarized in the following quotation:

A classroom talk is made up of many participants; it involves turn-taking, turnceding, turn-holding and turn-gaining; there have to be smooth transitions and clearly defined expectations if meanings are to be made explicit. Topics have to be introduced and managed if there is to be any coherence to the discourse.

(Yang & Walsh, 2014, p.474).

By considering institutional talk, in general and classroom discourse, in particular, Yang & Walsh (2014) maintain that CA adopts empirical and dynamic perspective. In this respect, its prominent role is getting an interpretation from data rather than imposing pre-determined categories as it is the case with interaction analysis approaches. Regarding its limitation, it has been argued that CA approach is inadequate in terms of offering generalizations across context; the fact that makes the application of comparisons and more comprehensive observations challenging.

1.4.4. A variable Approach to the Investigation of Classroom Discourse

Before reviewing the four different variable approaches to the investigation of classroom discourse, Yang & Walsh (2014, p.475-476) initiate their discussion by highlighting researchers' assumption that "the" L2 classroom context is fixed with describable common features shared by all L2 classroom contexts attributing the following explanations to this fallacy. First, the failure of researchers to recognize classroom as a real context like any other situation that involves interaction among people. Second, the researchers' tendency to focus heavily on Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) IRF exchange. Third, the researchers' inclination to employ "reductionist research tools"; therefore, ignoring significant aspects of L2 classroom.

Yang & Walsh (2014, p.476-477) describe four studies which adopted a variable approach to the investigation of classroom discourse. The first reported study is conducted by Johnson (1995) who depended on an extensive use of classroom transcripts to demonstrate the connection between pedagogic purpose and language use and the way subsequent patterns of interaction are controlled by teachers' use of language.

The second reported study is related to Kumaravadivelu (1999) who adopts a Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis framework. It reflects the integration of sociolinguistic, sociocultural, and sociopolitical dimensions of classroom discourse to uncover what's going on in L2 classroom interaction. The researcher's conclusion is that the L2 classroom is a component of the wider society which encompasses many forms of power, domination, and resistance.

The third study is done by Seedhouse (2004) who employs a conversation analysis approach to depict the interactional architecture of the L2 classroom. Seedhouse suggests several micro-contexts which are mutually formed by teachers and learners through their interaction and according to specific pedagogic goals.

The last study is conducted by Walsh (2006) who suggests four classroom "modes". Each mode is viewed as "an L2 classroom micro-context which has a clearly defined pedagogic goal and distinctive interactional features determined largely by a teacher's use of language" (p.101). This is based on the premise that classroom interaction and classroom activity are closely related; so, a change in the focus of the lesson leads immediately to the shift in interaction patterns and pedagogic goals. The four modes identified by Walsh are 'managerial mode', 'materials mode', 'skills and systems mode', and 'classroom context mode'. The pedagogical goal of the managerial mode is the transmission of information and the organization of learning. The materials mode aims at providing language practice around a piece of material as well as checking and displaying learning. The pedagogical goal of the skills and systems mode is to enable learners to produce correct forms and manipulate the target language. Lastly, the goal of classroom context mode is to promote oral fluency. A modified version of Walsh's (2006) framework will be adopted in this study; hence, it will be exhaustively discussed in the fourth chapter.

1.5. Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction has been widely acknowledged by researchers to play a prominent role in language learning. In this respect, the investigation of what is going on in classroom discourse and what roles are played by teachers and learners come to the fore. Richards & Lockhart (1996) describe interaction as the core of second language learning as a great deal of time in teaching is devoted either to interaction between teacher and learners or among the learners themselves. Walsh (2011), for instance, maintains that "interaction underpins everything that takes place in a classroom" (p.137). Van Lier (1988) adds that any effort for the measurement of students' learning should probably be based on classroom interaction as a point of reference.

Learning as a process and as a result, may not be overtly signaled in ways that are observable by a researcher who does not intervene in the interaction. If we want to find out *how* and *why* learning does or does not take place in specific classroom settings, we need information from a variety of sources, once of them being classroom interaction. (p.91, emphasis in original)

Van Lier added that even though learners spend most of the time working separately on their own doing tasks or reading a text with the aim of processing input, at least part of the time in the classroom is taken up by a focused interaction between the participants which involve the use of the target language.

Strobelberger (2012) believes that any attempt to improve classroom instruction should be based on an analysis of its discourse. She puts it:

Analyzing classroom discourse in order to highlight its characteristic features, therefore, constitutes a worthwhile task since its findings may be used to improve teaching. In this way, teachers might become more aware of the way teachers and learners jointly create learning opportunities, and subsequently classroom discourse might be adjusted in order to enhance learning. (p. 3)

Mehan (1979) addressed classroom interaction through highlighting its dual nature: the social and the pedagogic. Whereas the social feature refers the outcome of interaction between the teacher and his/her students, the pedagogic nature refers to the process whereby teachers get their lessons "accomplished". Considering the discussion of classroom interaction in terms of pedagogy, Allwright (1984) puts it clearly that regardless of the subject taught, a successful management of classroom interaction is the key to successful pedagogy. Therefore, despite the higher status

attributed to the teacher, interaction is the outcome of the action of all participants whose presence contributes to its management which, in turn, impacts the behaviors of others.

In discussing the significance of face-to-face classroom interaction, Cazden (1986) reports the work done by Black et al. (1983), which is a comparative study of classroom interaction in a college class including two groups. The first group was instructed in a regular class, whereas the second group participated via an electronic message system. The findings reveal that unlike regular classroom, discussions via computers followed "multiple threads of discourse" rather than one at a time; it had a two-part initiation-reply structure without the third part of evaluation; it had a long time of hours and days rather than seconds between initiations and replies; and it contained a minimal number of "back channeling" responses. As a result, it has been concluded that there are particular features which are typical to the familiar classrooms.

1.5.1. Modes of Participation in Classroom Interaction

Allwright (1984) suggests four modes of participation in interaction management: *compliance, direction, negotiation,* and *navigation. Compliance* denotes co-operative learners' response to teacher's *direction. Negotiation* refers to any effort to reach decisions by consensus rather than by independent decision-making. *Navigation* refers to the efforts to direct a course between, round, or over the obstacles that the participants face in the lesson (p.160). Whereas negotiation takes place very rarely, navigation is relatively frequent representing around 20 percent of learners' turns in some cases. Therefore, it greatly contributes to the management of the whole lesson. What is also interesting about Allwright's modes is the subdivision of this contribution into individual contributions illustrating the way learners individualize the instruction they are receiving and how they work out to achieve its relevance according to their own specific needs. It is also concluded that the four modes of participation work in harmony to contribute to classroom

interaction management leading to genuine communication practice. Moreover, learners' necessary involvement puts them in a position to improve their interaction management skills and to be effective contributors to interaction management.

1.5.2. Aspects of Interaction Management

During lesson co-production, both teachers and learners are required to recognize the following five aspects of interaction as categorized by Allwright (1984): *management of turn, topic, task, tone,* and *code*. Although these aspects are complicated, they work in harmony.

- Turn-management deals with each individual contribution.
- Topic management refers to the content of each contribution.
- Task-management are those demands that a contributor may make on other participants according to the mental operation required of them
- Tone-management deals with the significant business of setting up socio-emotional atmosphere appropriate for the interaction.
- Code-management is about the management of the basic means of intentional communication, i.e., the language itself, Therefore, decisions are to be made by participants regarding language, register or regional accent (p.162).

1.5.3. Interactional Patterns

To describe the way meaning is constructed vis- a- vis the activity being conducted in ESL classes, Gibbons (2006) draws on the classification done by Van Lier (1966) and identified four major types of classroom interaction: teacher monologue, IRF, dialogic exchange, and participatory exchanges. Gibbons listed the four interactional types along a scale from the most asymmetrical interactions in terms of the rights of participants and where information is essentially

one-way to interactions which are most self-determined and symmetrical. The classification also signifies a movement from most to least teacher-centered and from least to most equality in terms of role of participants. Gibbons adds that her suggested classification should not be considered as inflexible; however, it is adopted to pinpoint the different choices teachers would make about the organization of talk in their classes. Therefore, the most important thing that matters is the degree of relevance between a specific interactional type and the educational purpose it seeks to accomplish at that point in the unit of work.

1.5.3.1. Teacher Monologue

In this type, it is the teacher who dominates classroom interaction with a total absence of students' participation. Gibbons (2006) defines it as:

Those points in the discourse where the teacher holds the floor without interruption. In these classrooms they are normally very short, varying between one and two minutes, and represent a one-way transmission of information and directives. They refer to those times when the teacher did not seek to elicit verbal responses from the students. (p.114-115)

By adopting this type of interaction, the teacher seeks to achieve many aims within the classroom such as setting up a task, giving instruction, introducing new language items, or establishing discipline.

1.5.3.2. Initiation Response Feedback

Initiation Response Feedback (IRF) is generally the prevailing form of interactional exchange whereby the teacher plays the role of "primary knower" seeking a particular response

from the students. IRF interactional patterns take place most frequently at two different points in the microgenre. They occur during giving instructions when the teacher finishes his/ her monologue and checks for students' understanding or at the end of the 'reflection' stage to make sure that knowledge that has been constructed is received. An example of the IRF interactional pattern occurs when the focus is on a specific linguistic structure or grammatical accuracy (Gibbons, 2006).

Walsh & Li (2016) highlighted the importance of the IRF exchange structure in terms of its great impact in enhancing our understanding of classroom interaction in myriad ways. First, it contributes to our appreciation of classroom discourse as "goal oriented" where the teacher establishes pedagogic goals and sets classroom agenda. Second, it divulges the responsibility assigned to teachers in controlling the discourse (who speaks, when, for how long and what topic). Third, since students rarely initiate classroom discourse, teachers' dependence on IRF pattern of interaction offers them abundant cues. Fourth, IRF as "the building block" of classroom discourse it contributes to its uniqueness (p.489-490).

1.5.3.3. Dialogic Exchanges

Unlike teacher monologue, this type of interaction is characterized by a contribution of both participants to the discourse. So, it is to some extent like IRF with more freedom given to students leading to prolonged sequences of discourse. In defining dialogic exchanges, Gibbons (2006) notes:

It remains, in one sense, IRF-*like*, in that there is an external agenda imposed by the teacher, and the process of the discourse continues to be controlled and maintained by the teacher. For these reasons the discourse cannot be said to be symmetrical. Nevertheless, it represents an important variation of more restricted IRF pattern, in that it allows the voices of students considerably more freedom, and often leads to extended sequence of discourse between students and teacher. (P.115-116, emphasis in original)

Gibbons (2002) adds that dialogic interactions are more common in teacher-guided reporting episodes. They are defined as those moments during which the student is appointed to report to the whole class his/ her learning experience. In teacher-guided reporting (TGR), while the teacher sustains the thematic development of the entire discourse, the topic of individual exchanges is very frequently initiated by the students. To illustrate, Gibbons (2006) cites the following example:

Extract 2

T: maroon/ something that you can tell me that you found out last lesson

S: Miss I thought that all metal can stick on magnets but when I tried it some of them didn't stick T: OK so you thought that no matter what object/ if it was a metal object/ it would be attracted to the magnet. (p.116)

Gibbons (2006) adds that while this interaction holds some characteristics of IRF pattern, there are two features which make it different from the latter. Firstly, in TGR the teacher initiates the exchange with a genuine question. In return, students retain the right to decide about what aspect of topic they are willing to talk about; hence, it is the point of "departure" from the "teacher-prescribed" responses related to IRF pattern of interaction. The second point of divergence between IRF and TGR deals with the nature of teacher's response. Unlike IRF, teacher's response in TGR is realized in recasting and formulating what the student has said into "more registrally appropriate wording". This is revealed in the cited example through teacher's recast of *stick* to *attract* (p.116). So, Gibbons concluded that whereas students' contribution is sandwiched between

two moves held by the teacher in IRF pattern, dialogic interactions allow for building up a discourse sequence which more likely leads to second language development. She states: "dialogic interactions do have an ideological interpretation in that they create opportunities for students' voices to be heard" (p.117).

1.5.3.4. Participatory Exchanges

Gibbons (2006) recognizes that all classroom discourse is participatory in nature; however, the term participatory exchanges is precisely used to refer to "co-constructed" talk which requires the contribution of all participants to the agenda. It is characterized by the symmetrical relationship between participants in terms of rights and self-determined contributions to the discourse as Gibbons puts it: "participatory talk is by its nature democratic with regard to participation rights" (p.118). She employed Lemke's (1990) terms of "true dialogue" and "cross-discussion" for further explanation of this type of talk. While the former takes place when teachers ask questions to which they do not assume to already know the answer, the latter is a direct dialogue between students with the contribution of the teacher as the moderator with an equal standing with the students.

Participatory talk is uncommon in most classrooms; its characteristics exist in small group discussions where participants share equal participation rights with an overall agenda which is established by the teacher. It sometimes takes place in contexts where students have an expertise in a particular area than teachers. To illustrate this type of talk, Gibbons cited an example where address terms are removed; thus, this makes it hard for readers to separate between exchanges made by teachers and students.

Extract 3

magnets only stick to some kinds of metals

only some metal

yes

only some

I think I know why the magnet got to steel on top of the wood but not to the/stuck to the other stuff/ cos maybe its chemicals are too strong/too strong for the magnet

you mean than this

what do you think?

on this

yes maybe what they put on it is too strong for the magnet

I don't think so/ I think that the reason is what Rana and the other people thought that this is a different kind of metal

it is

so that magnets don't attract all metals/ right one more thing before we start

I think it/ it/ it is the same colour but when they dipped it/ dipped it in/ in different things

it's the same colour/ you mean it's the same metal?

the same/I think it was the same but they dipped it in something else

well that's what George was saying/ and I think that we're arguing that it/ no/ that it is another metal. (P.118-119)

As illustrated in the example, despite the teacher's attempt to maintain control over the discourse, there exists a symmetry of participation with the students' freedom to express their individual thoughts and to interpret the situation according to their standpoint and experiences. In Gibbons' words, "no one is the 'primary knower', all ideas are accepted as valid and are listened to and treated with respect" (2006, p.119).

1.5.4. Classroom Interactional Competence

As previously mentioned, classrooms are unique and complex settings embracing the teacher and his/her students. According to Richard & Lockhart (1996), while teachers are working

out towards giving equal opportunities to all learners to contribute to classroom interaction, learners are compelled with the need to master classroom routines and the way they are expected to interact in the classroom, namely, "interactional competence". The latter involves the mastery of particular patterns of interaction and behavior both vis-à-vis other students in the class and with the teacher (Tikunoff, as cited in Richard & Lockhart, 1996).

According to Richard & Lockhart (1996), interactional competence embraces several dimensions of classroom behavior including knowing the etiquette of classroom interaction, the rules for individual and collaborative work, how and when to get assistance or feedback in completing a task, and appropriate rules for displaying knowledge.

Johnson (1995) also stresses the importance of familiarizing students with the dynamics of classroom communication since students' learning is greatly influenced by the way they talk and act in classrooms. She draws an analogy between Communicative Competence (Hymes, 1974) and Classroom Communicative Competence. Whereas the former is crucial for Second Language learners for the sake of participating in the target culture, the latter is significant for Second Language students to take part in and learn from their SL classroom experiences. Accordingly, students' understanding and competence in the social and interactional norms that regulate classroom communication are fundamental components of successful participation in second language instruction. This fact would unquestionably lead us to acknowledge the prominent role played by classroom communicative competence in the process of second language acquisition.

1.6. Language Use vs. Pedagogical Purpose in Second Language Classes

In his description of the interactional architecture of L2 classroom interaction, Seedhouse (2004) described the role that L2 teachers play as the core institutional goal. This goal is persistent wherever the L2 lesson is taking place, whatever pedagogical work the teacher is working on, and

whatever the teaching methods applied. He identified three "universal" properties of L2 classrooms which shape the interaction. In his own words: "the three properties follow in rational sequence from each other and constitute part of the unique fingerprint of L2 classroom interaction and part of its context-free machinery" (p.183). First, language as both the vehicle and object of instruction. Second, there exists a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction with interactants constantly displaying their analysis of the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction. Third, the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction that are produced by learners in the L2 are potentially subject to evaluation by the teacher.

Along the same line, Walsh (2002) states clearly that learning a second language becomes more meaningful when there is a match between language use and pedagogic purpose. In his own words, "Where language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are facilitated; conversely, where there is a significant deviation between language use and teaching goal at a given moment in a lesson, opportunities for learning and acquisition are, I would suggest, missed" (p.5).

For the evaluation of teacher talk, Walsh (2006, 2011) designed the Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk instrument in collaboration with EFL teachers with the aim of fostering teacher development through classroom interaction. It was primarily designed to assist teachers in describing classroom interaction of their lessons, develop their understanding of interactional processes, and eventually to help them promote their teaching practice to become "better" teachers.

The framework comprises four teaching modes: Managerial, Materials, Skills and Systems, and Classroom Context modes. Based on the notion of "fingerprint" adopted from Heritage & Greatbatch (1991), Walsh (2011) concludes that each mode has its fingerprint, including

pedagogic goals and interactional features. Walsh (2006) also contends that handling mode switching appropriately is required by teachers; otherwise, learners are likely to lose the ability to follow the discourse or misinterpret their role in it. Therefore, teachers are required to mark switches to avoid misunderstanding and breakdown. The four modes are summarized below.

Table 1.1

Mode	Pedagogic goals	Interactional features
Managerial	 To transmit information To organize the physical learning environment To refer learners to materials To introduce or conclude an activity To change from one mode of learning to another 	 -A single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and/ or instructions -The use of transitional markers -The use of confirmation checks -An absence of learner contribution
Materials	 -To provide language practice around a piece of material -To elicit responses in relation to the material -To check and display answers -To clarify when necessary -To evaluate contributions 	 Predominance of IRF pattern Extensive use of display questions Form -focused feedback Corrective repair The use of scaffolding
Skills and systems	 -To enable learners to produce correct forms -To enable learners to manipulate the target language -To provide corrective feedback -To provide learners with practice in sub-skills -To display correct answers 	 The use of direct repair The use of scaffolding Extended teacher turns Display questions Teacher echo Clarification requests Form-focused feedback
Classroom context	-To enable learners to express themselves clearly -To establish a context -To promote oral fluency	-Extended teacher turn -Short teacher turns -Minimal repair -Content feedback -Referential questions -Scaffolding -Clarification requests

Classroom Teaching Modes (Walsh, 2011, p.112)

Conclusion

In this chapter, a closer look at language classrooms, discourse and interaction reveals their enormous importance in language learning. As unique academic contexts, language classes are characterized by several features which distinguish them not only from naturalistic environments, but also from subject classrooms. The most familiar characteristic is the dual role which is played by the target language, i.e., as the medium of instruction and the goal that teachers are seeking to accomplish; the fact that backs up the importance of communication taking place in language classes. It is through this communication that teachers elicit students' answers, evaluate, modify, and elaborate on their students' contribution. Remarkably, it is the process which does not exist in everyday communication and serves as a platform to generating language learning in language classes. To achieve a successful communication, learners are required to master classroom interactional competence as a prerequisite to function appropriately throughout the different types of interaction taking place in the language classroom, mainly teacher monologue, initiationresponse-feedback pattern, dialogic exchanges, and participatory exchanges.

Having examined classroom interaction in general, the subsequent chapter will be devoted to the properties that characterize teacher talk as the most important component that controls what is taking place in any language classroom. In this respect, teacher talk will be thoroughly discussed in terms of different features that serve the purpose of this research.

Chapter Two: Teacher Talk in Language Classes

Introduction

In the previous chapter, some aspects that are needed for the understanding of language classrooms, discourse, and interaction have been discussed. In this chapter, emphasis is placed on teachers with a specific attention devoted to their talk. This division is considered to some extent convenient as teacher talk needs to be studied within the context of classroom interaction.

To begin with, the different roles that teachers play along with the significance of teacher talk in language classrooms are reviewed in section one and two respectively. Section three is devoted to the general features that characterize teacher talk. Since our focus is limited to the three most important ones, namely turn taking, questioning techniques, and feedback, an exhaustive account of each feature is presented separately in the subsequent sections. Therefore, section four is devoted to definition of important terms, such as "turn-taking" and "a turn" along with the different classifications of turn-taking in the second language classroom. Discussion is, then, proceeded by shedding light on the relationship between turn-taking and pedagogical focus. Section five titled "questioning in the language classroom" casts light on the significance of questioning, different types of questions, the functions of questions, and the strategies employed by teachers for asking questions. The last section covers corrective feedback starting with a definition of the term "feedback", and then followed by a discussion of the equivocal issue of whether learners' errors should be corrected, the different strategies of corrective feedback, and finally the factors which have an impact on its effectiveness.

2.1. The Roles of the Teacher in Language Classes

Like any other educational setting, classroom lessons are described as speech events with specific rules and expectations which regulate the appropriateness of teachers' and students' communicative behavior. The structure of communication in classrooms is unique as it has several features that characterize it from other patterns of communication. In fact, classrooms exhibit this exceptionality also due to the roles played by teachers to orchestrate the patterns of classroom communication. Johnson (1995) assigns multiple roles for teachers which include but not limited to the organization of the topic of debate, making decisions on the points relevant to its discussion, organization of turn-taking, elicitation of responses from students, and assigning students to different groups (p.4).

Overall, Johnson maintains that teachers have two divergent roles: Informants Vs. facilitators. By acting as informants, they provide their students with specific information about the language they need to complete the instructional task, meanwhile they restrain students' use of that information to an established structure. The informant role is also characterized by the teachers' excretion of a greater control over the patterns of communication during the lesson. On the other hand, by acting as a facilitator, the teacher allows self-selected student initiations and expands student contributions to sustain meaningful communication. To maintain this role, he/she reduces some control of the patterns of communication by allowing turns to be taken over by students.

In addition to the aforementioned roles, Johnson (1995) draws attention to the asymmetrical relationship that exists between the teacher and his/her students. It is mainly revealed through the higher status of the former who retains the right to hold the floor at any point in his/ her classes. She notes: "teachers, by virtue of the status they hold in their classrooms, play

a dominant role in determining the structure of classroom communication" (Johnson,1995, p. 4). She added that in second language classrooms where the teacher is the only native, or near native speaker, it is more likely that his/ her status is even more uplifted and, therefore, seen as a precious source for second language students.

Whereas Johnson's (1995) discussion of the roles of teachers is restricted to the framework of classroom communication, Richard & Lockhart (1996) classified the roles of teachers in terms of three different variables: The kinds of the institution to which they are affiliated, the teaching methodologies as well as their personalities and cultural background. First of all, in different teaching settings, teachers play several roles depending on the institutional administrative structure, the culture operating in each institution, and its teaching philosophy. For instance, teachers would prefer to work in institutions where they can make their own decisions about course goals and syllabus content, and how they should teach and monitor their own classes. In some institutions, Richard & Lockhart (1996, p 99-100) assign the following roles to the teacher: a needs analyst, a curriculum developer, materials developer, a counselor, a mentor, a team member, and a researcher. Secondly, the teaching approach or methodology that the teacher is following determines to a large extent the role he/ she is playing in the classroom, which is based on his/her prior training. Therefore, the tenets that guide teachers in the implementation of Direct Method, as was one of the first oral-based methods are entirely different from those of Active Teaching which lays emphasis on the teacher's ability to engage students productively on learning tasks during lessons or cooperative learning, and eventually from *Communicative Language Teaching* where the teacher acts as an independent participant with the aim of facilitating the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. Thirdly, apart from the roles assigned to teachers by their institution or associated with the adopted method of teaching, teachers adopt some roles which reflect their personal view of teaching. Richard & Lockhart (1996) compile them into Planner, manager, quality controller, group organizer, facilitator, motivator, empowerer, and team member.

The way in which teachers interpret their roles leads to differences in the way they approach their teaching. It leads to differences in how teachers understand the dynamics of an effective lesson and consequently different patterns of classroom behavior and classroom interaction. (p.106)

Subsequently, teachers' personal views on their roles have an impact on their response to the following dimensions of teaching: Classroom management and organization; teacher control; curriculum, content, and planning; instructional strategies; motivational techniques; and assessment philosophy.

2.2. Importance of Teacher Talk in Language Classes

From a neuroscientific point of view, the significance of talk is highly emphasized. Research has proved that talk is necessary not only for learning but for the building of brain as a physical organism, thereby helping in expanding its power. The period described as the primary phase of schooling witnesses different processes performed by the brain such as reshuffling itself, building cells, making new fibre connection between cells and pruning old ones, developing the capacity for learning, memory, emotional response, and language, all on a scale which decreases markedly thereafter. Between birth and adolescence, brain metabolism is 150 per cent of its adult level, and synaptogenesis (which refers to the growth of brain connections) causes the brain's volume to multiply. It is through talk that all these processes actively and strongly achieved (Johnson, as cited in Alexander, 2006). Within the context of teacher education, different scholars pinpoint the impact of teacher talk on students' learning of the target language. According to Richards & Lockhart (as cited in Kayaoğlu, 2013), through their talk, teachers always seek to make themselves as easy to understand as possible. Hence, effective teacher talk may contribute to the facilitation of two significant processes related to language learning, namely language comprehension and learner production. This could be achieved only if teachers managed to generate effective classroom interaction, as Walsh (2006) notes: "classroom interactional competence (CIC) was defined in relation to a teacher's ability to make use of appropriate teacher talk" (p.150).

Alexander (2006) stresses the importance of talk by following a multidisciplinary approach ending up by compiling seven powerful arguments as summarized in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2

Arguments	Explanations		
Communicative	As human beings, talk is seen as the principal means of communication, especially in an era when learners are becoming more familiar with visual images than the written words.		
Social	It is through talk that relationships, confidence and a sense of self are built.		
Cultural	Through talk, individual and collective identities are created and sustained.		
Neuroscientific	Language, and spoken language in particular, builds connections in the brain; during the early and pre-adolescent years pre-eminently so.		
Psychological	Language and the development of thought are interconnected. Learning is a social process, and high-quality talk helps to scaffold the learners' understanding from what is currently known to what has yet to be known.		
Pedagogical	Process and process-product research show cognitively enriching talk engages learners' attention and motivation, increases time on task and produces measurable learning gains.		
Political	Democracies need citizens who can argue, reason, challenge, question, present cases and evaluate them. Democracies decline when citizens comply rather than debate.		

Arguments Supporting the Importance of Talk (Developed from Alexander, 2006, Dialogic Teaching, p.37)

Talk is proved to be of paramount importance since it has been associated with abundant and invaluable gains. Alexander (2006) overtly affirms this fact by stating: "Reading, writing and number may be the acknowledged curriculum 'basics', but talk is arguably the true foundation of learning" (p.9). In the same vein, Cazden (1986) asserts that spoken language is the medium by which much of teaching takes place and through which students reveal to teachers much of what they have learned. In addition to its pedagogical role, the spoken language is also a significant part that demonstrates the participants' identities. Alexander (2006) concludes that the higher status that has been ascribed to teacher talk is a generic challenge that calls for researchers' hard work at it in all the contexts in which it is used, ranging from whole class, group, or individual contexts.

Walsh (2002) discusses the concept of teacher talk by coming up with the idea that teachers' ability to control their language use is equally crucial as their ability to choose the appropriate teaching methodology; both decisions have implications for teacher education and classroom practices. Accordingly, any effort to understand the nature of classroom discourse should lay emphasis on classrooms as social contexts on their own right without any consideration of other contexts. In doing so, the focus should be on quality rather than quantity taking into consideration the significant relationship existing between language use and pedagogic purpose. In what follows, Walsh stresses the close association between the features of teacher talk and learning opportunities:

The point is that appropriate language use is more likely to occur when teachers are sufficiently aware of their goal at a given moment in a lesson to match their teaching aim, their pedagogic purpose, to their language use. Where language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are facilitated; conversely, where there is a significant deviation between language use and teaching goal at a given moment in a lesson, opportunities for learning and acquisition, are, I would suggest, missed. (p.5)

Walsh (2002) elaborates on this fact stating that teachers play a vital role in understanding, establishing, and sustaining patterns of communication which subsequently smooth the process of Second Language Acquisition.

2.3. Features of Teacher Talk

Classroom communication or what is described as the "problematic medium" (Cazden, 2001) is an essential topic recognized by any educator who is interested in the improvement of the teaching/ learning process. A rational analysis of such communication is probably based on the analysis of talk produced by the teacher which, in turn, has a dual function: the primary means of controlling learners' behavior and the major way of conveying information (Strobelberger, 2012). It is worth mentioning that there are two types of constraints which have an impact on teachers' speech or talk: constraints imposed by the classroom as the *setting* for the conversation (including the patterns of speech associated with the role of the teacher) and constraints which spring out from a limited proficiency of the *interlocutor* (Long & Sato, 1983).

The term "teacher talk" has been defined by different scholars (Cazden 1979; Long & Sato, 1983; Chaudron, 1988; Nunan, 1990; Ellis, 2008) in diverse ways; however, a more wide-ranging definition goes to Ellis (2008). According to him, L2 teacher talk can be considered as a special "register¹" which is analogous to foreigner talk². The study of teacher talk requires a description of its phonological, lexical, grammatical, and discoursal properties. Ellis (2008) adds that this

¹ A register is defined as "a conventionalized way of speaking in a particular role, and is identified as a marker of that role" (Cazden 1986, p.443)

² In NS-NNS conversation, foreigner talk is the modified register used by NS to address NNS (Long &Sato, 1983).

analysis has been motivated by the felt need to document the nature of the 'input' that learners are exposed to in classroom environment (p.794).

Long & Sato (1983) adopt a different stance. By considering the two terms of "teacher talk" (Cazden, 1979) and "foreigner talk" (Ferguson, 1975), they assert that the speech used by teachers during SL instruction is a "hybrid register" which has the properties of both teacher talk and foreigner talk.

Although the features of teacher talk register are under-researched, Cazden (1986) pinpoints some indications of what characterizes and does not characterize this register. First of all, teacher talk is characterized by a special lexicon. This feature is illustrated by reporting a study done by Barnes et al. (1969) on "The Language of Secondary School Teaching" in which the vocabulary of this language of instruction is classified into: subject-specific or more general; explicitly explained or not; and whether it has a conceptual function in making important referential distinctions or simply a sociocultural function in identifying the speaker in a certain role. Secondly, teacher talk is distinguished by its prosodic features. Based on observations of teachers of young children, the results reveal that teachers frequently employ higher pitch and exaggerated intonation contours like Baby Talk register which is characterized by other features, such as short simple sentences and some unique lexical items. Thirdly, teacher talk is characterized by tentativeness indicators. Cazden draws on a study done by Feldman & Wertsch (1976) on the frequency of stance-indicating devices which are words used to express the speaker's attitude toward the propositional content of an utterance such as "I know" and "I believe". Their findings reveal that teachers employed fewer such devices in the classroom as compared to conversation with an adult interviewer. Fourthly, teacher talk register is examined in terms of the extent to which classes are diffused with humor. Cazden (1986) notes: "from the paucity of references to humor

in research on classroom talk one could conclude either that classes are deadpan places and absence of humor one mark of the teaching register, or that researchers consider humor irrelevant" (p.444). The last feature highlighted by Cazden is the so called "expressions of affect". As it is the case with humor, expressions of affect, either positive or negative, are less frequently mentioned in classrooms.

Having discussed the features that portray teacher talk, this study will rest on a more comprehensive definition of teacher talk provided by Nunan (1990) as it fits the aim of the research. According to Nunan (1990), the term "teacher talk" embraces the following four different variables which may either facilitate or impede language acquisition: the amount and type of teacher talk, the types of questions that teachers ask, the type of error correction and feedback that teachers provide, and the modifications that teachers introduce in their speech when talking to second language learners. The study will focus on the first three features, namely turn allocation, questioning techniques, and corrective feedback since they closely match with the features adopted in Walsh's (2006) SETT model which will be used as the framework of the study.

2.4. Turn- taking in L2 Classrooms

Although turn-taking exists in any conversation that involves at least two participants, its rules vary from one context to another. Since the focus of the study is on academic setting and FL classrooms in particular, this section will offer a detailed explanation of turn-taking, its types as well as the way it is organized in language classes.

2.4.1. What is a Turn?

In defining a turn, Van Lier (1988, p.100) comments: "we might say that a turn-at-talking occurs whenever one person speaks, for as long as this person speaks, and until someone else

speaks." (p.100). Although this definition appears to be simplistic since it refers to situations where turns are clearly allocated, Van Lier (1988) alluded to other cases that involve unclear distinction of turns within the interaction. For instance, he made an analogy between interaction and a football game; while the latter comprises a group of players that are fighting to gain control over the ball, the former involves a group of speakers that are fighting to hold the floor. Thus, a conversation that involves different speakers triggers our curiosity since we keep focusing on who is going to be winning the floor. In this case, the boundaries tend to be blurred due to overlap, false starts, restarts, half-finished, or cut-off turns. As an alternative to defining a turn, Van Lier opted for asking the "when is a turn" question as a more suitable one since it would lead us to account for what a turn will 'turn out to be'; the thing that describes the skills involved in speaker change.

Van Lier's definition of a turn is also supplemented by using the following four significant terms: "transition", "distribution", "prominence", and "floor". Transition and distribution are two different mechanisms of turn-taking which are generally intended to solve two problems in any conversation. The former deals with issues such as the length of turn, avoidance of overlap, and reduction of inter-turn pauses, while the latter is related to turn allocation and who the following speaker will be (Van Lier, 1988).

Prominence and floor are defined as two prerequisites for a turn to be considered as a turn. In the case of prominence, it is mandatory for the turn to be attended by other participants, or at least one or more of the other participants. Likewise, floor is divided into: 'main' floor which involves more than two participants whose attention is required and gained, or 'sub-floor' in which the turn is sought or attended by only part of the entire audience. However, if no participant attends the turn, then it is considered as failed or misfired (Van Lier, 1988). In some cases, participants seek prominence, but they do not achieve it; the fact which makes gaining prominence itself an important turn-taking and a social skill. Conversely, there are instances in which prominence could be granted to a turn that was not planned for it. This could be illustrated in L2 classrooms by utterances that learners direct to one or more neighboring learners for the sake of clarifying a point without disturbing the official teacher-learner interaction in progress. Additionally, there are utterances that are more or less unintentional, such as coughs, movements, sighs, and facial expressions, etc., that may or may not get attended by other participants or utterances which are exclusively private turns that function as trials (Van Lier, 1988).

2.4.2. What is Turn-taking?

The concept of turn-taking is defined as the systematic nature of speaker change in a variety of settings. In addressing the rules that regulate turn-taking, Sacks et al. (1978) believe, as the basic fact of any conversation, that only one person is allowed to speak at a time with speaker's change recurs with a minimal gap and a minimal overlap. This principle is considered as a continuous contribution of the parties to the conversation which they achieve on a turn-by-turn basis, or, more specifically, at any 'transition relevance place' (TRP), at the end of any 'turn constructional unit' (TCU). Sacks et al (1987) categorized different unit-types which are used by speakers to construct a turn. In English, they involve sentential, clausal, phrasal, and lexical constructions. The first potential accomplishment of a first such unit creates an initial transition-relevance-place which is considered as the point of reference for the allocation of any speakership (cited in Ten Have, 2007). To signal the end of a TCU, Van Lier (1988) puts forward the following strategies: a downward intonation curve, question tags, a completion of a syntactic unit, signs indicating that the speaker is running out of breath, eye gaze direction, gestures, and postures (p.97).

In terms of speaker change, Ten Have (2007) notes that it can be shaped in three different ways: a next speaker can be selected by the previous one, a speaker can self-select, or the present speaker can continue speaking. According to Sacks et al, (1987), the three options are organized as follows: other selection precedes self-selection, which in turn goes before continuation. It is constantly working at each next possible completion point after the construction of each TCU. This interactional organization includes all the parties in the interaction (as cited in Ten Have, 2007).

2.4.3. Turn-taking Rules in L2 Classrooms

Unlike everyday conversation, turn taking in institutional setting has its own rules. In L2 classroom context, for instance, turn taking rules are implicit norms that are followed by participants rather than being frequently overtly stated (Van Lier, 1988). In this respect, it is more likely to hear people in the classroom reminding other participants about the norms when things do not work as expected. This fact could be demonstrated by the use of the following utterances: *'it's my turn now', 'you're next', 'I have already said that', 'hands up if you know the answer', 'I can't hear you if you shout out', 'only the boys are answering. Where are the girls?', or the expression 'In English please.'* (p.95).

In his discussion of turn-taking in L2 classrooms, Van Lier (1998) suggested a number of features which he expected to have an impact on shaping classroom interaction: the intolerance of overlapping or simultaneous talk; among the participants, one participant sets an agenda and holds the authority over others; the learning events (lesson or tasks-activities etc.) are framed in a way to guide learners about acceptable ways to participate; and finally much importance is assigned to the verbal contributions (p.98-99).

Van Lier (1988) concluded that these features make classrooms as institutional settings entirely different from other interactive settings in terms of the organization of participation. Therefore, they engender an essential problem as the restriction imposed on participants make language use in classrooms less 'skillful' and 'relevant' compared to natural interactive situations.

The peculiar problem of the L2 classroom is that this means that the classroom, by its very nature, may not provide the contextual and interactional ingredients that make language use a skillful and relevant enterprise in natural settings. It may be comparable to learning to swim on dry ground or, less dramatically, to skiing on an artificial ski lope. (Van Lier, 1988, p.99)

Unlike everyday conversation, Van Lier (1988) associates the communication problems of transition and distribution emerging in L2 classrooms with the existence of more potential participants. As a response, he alludes to those rules which determine several issues, such as *who* speaks, *when*, and about *what*. Therefore, L2 classroom participants' role is to observe the rules rather than resolve transition and observation problems. It is worth noting that those turn-taking rules have the effect of restricting participants in terms of power and initiative to modify and affect the discourse. It is a situation that may lead to three possible consequences. First, the teacher can determine the ways in which classroom activities are accomplished. This coincides with control over turn taking. Second, the inflexibility of turn control results in learners' failure to discover the different ways in which speaker change is achieved through turn taking in the target language; hence, they are deprived of the chance to practice dynamic skills involved in interaction in the target language (Van Lier, 1988). Third, this conversational turn-taking

organization rather encourages "an intrinsic motivation" for students' listening (Sacks et al. as cited in Van Lier, 1988)

Despite these limitations, Van Lier (1988) acknowledges the importance of conversational turn-taking in L2 classes for two reasons. The first reason pertains to the enhancement of language learning due to the close attention of students to the language they are exposed to. In this way, 'attention' and 'comprehension' are considered as two necessary conditions for the transformation of language exposure into viable input. The second reason is related to the effect of conversational turn-taking in driving participants to actively take part, plan, and organize their contributions in contextually suitable and satisfactory ways (p.106).

2.4.4. Classification of Turn-taking in L2 Classrooms

To offer an in-depth examination of the different actions that involve both learners and teachers as well as the speaking opportunities available to them, Van Lier (1988) puts forward an exhaustive and comprehensive classification of turn taking in L2 classrooms which includes: *prospective, retrospective, concurrent,* and *neutral* turn-taking. Each item, in turn, is divided into sub-items as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

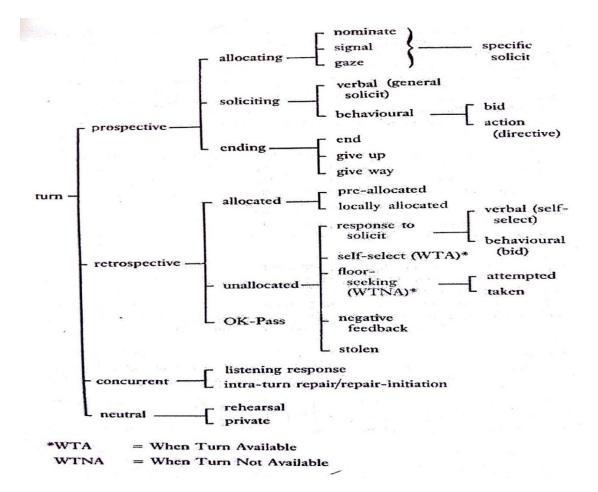


Figure 2.2. Turn-taking Classification (Van Lier, 1988, p.110)

2.4.4.1. Prospective Turn-taking

According to Van Lier (1988), Prospective turn-taking refers to the way a turn is associated with ensuing turn (s). More specifically, it is about the influence of a turn on the subsequent ones through controlling the content or the delimitation of the next speakership. It is divided into: *Allocating, soliciting,* and *ending.*

Allocating which is also called 'specific solicit' or 'personal solicit' refers to the task of determining a speaker for the subsequent turn or turns. This task is achieved either in one of the following three different ways, or in their combination: Nominating is mainly about the selection

of the subsequent speaker verbally through giving a name, description, or pronoun; signaling refers to the selection of the subsequent speaker non-verbally through pointing with finger, chin, arm, or postural orientation; and the last strategy is done through eye gaze.

Secondly, soliciting refers to the work of identifying the 'content' or 'substance' of the subsequent turn without any specification of the next speaker. The specification of the action, in turn, depends on the type of the activity required which is further divided into: a verbal action (e.g. an answer to a question), a bid for a turn (e.g. "hands up if you know the answer"), or a non-verbal action (in this case the solicit is named a directive) which is, in most cases, accompanied with verbal action.

Extract 4

- 1 T uhuh so how does he do his job?
- 2 L he's good =
- 3 L he's good (P.111)

Van Lier (1988) notes that when the teacher makes a general solicit, all participants are invited to contribute. Hence, there is initiative on the part of the participating learners, which makes simultaneous talk more likely to take place. This, in turn, would disrupt a 'one-at-a-turn' rule if it is in operation. In such a case, three possible solutions are suggested: participants can offer turns vocally by calling on the teacher or non- vocally by raising hands; In return, one of those participants who offered is selected as next speaker.

Finally, ending refers to ending a turn as it does not require any suggestion for content or speakership of subsequent turns. Van Lier (1988) states: "a turn can be simply ended because it has completed its designed course" (p. 111). Turns 1 &3 in extract 5 illustrates this point.

Extract 5

((learners coming into the room, bustling about; finding their seats))

- *1 L ya es hora ((tr.: it's time already))*
- 2 L ((unint))
- 3 L somebody smoke here
- 4 L who is the owner of this pen? (p.111)

Ending, in turn, is divided into two subcategories: "giving up or Trailing" and "giving way". The former takes place when the speaker is not able or will not be able to end a turn due to some reasons, among them planning problems. In most cases, this would lead, after a pause, to a completion of the turn by the hearer, though it may also remain unfinished. Van Lier (1988) warns that this should not be confused with stopping on purpose on 'mid-stream' to prompt completion by (an) other participant (s). This is rather a technique adopted by teachers and classified as 'allocating or soliciting' as illustrated in extract 6 below.

Extract 6

- 1 T very efficient and ... and
- 2 L patient
- 3 L5 patient
- 4 T and patient that's right (p.112)

As a second sub-category of ending, giving way takes place when "a speaker stops short before the projected completion of his/ her turn in order to give way to competition" (p.112). There are two cases which prompt the occurrence of giving way: an interruption of another speaker or the occurrence of simultaneous starts as illustrated in extract 7.

Extract 7

1 T I'm going to tell you what was happening. In this block of flats. Last night -..
2 L8 not a fire?
3 LL ehhehehehe
4 Not a fire? ... no not a fire (p.113)

2.4.4.2. Retrospective Turn-taking

Unlike prospective, retrospective turn-taking refers to the way a turn is associated with the preceding turn (s). It is divided into allocated, unallocated, and OK-pass. First, a turn is allocated when its speaker has been precisely offered the right or obliged to speak in a preceding turn or when speakership has been specified by means of some pre-allocation rule. In some activities, however, there is a combination of pre-allocation and local allocation. Extract 8 is an example of locally allocated turn and extract 9 represents an example of pre-allocation with students spontaneously introducing themselves around a table following a clockwise order.

Extract 8

1 T okay so .. Willy did you ask somebody in the church

2 L10 yes

(p.109)

Extract 9

1 T ... if you can just introduce yourselves. to him
2 L12 I'm Mien
3 L11 My name is Carla
4 L10 My name is Willy

((etc.))
(p.113)

Second, unlike allocated turns, unallocated turns occur when speakership has not been specified, either by locally or through pre-allocation. Hence, verbal (i.e., the performance of a particular action) or behavioral (i.e., a bid for a turn) responses to solicits are specific examples of unallocated turns and they are evidence of self-selection. Extract 10 below is an instance of a general solicit which can trigger several simultaneous unallocated turns or several learners who self-select at the same time. The outcome of this situation is unintelligibility which could be resolved by allocating the turn to a particular student.

Extract 10

I T good, allright. now I'm asking the questions what is the question that I've been asking you... What's the-what...

2 LL ((unint ----))

3 T yes Willy can you tell me

4 L10 what was- doing Jenny? (p.114)

The second sub-category of unallocated turn is the self-select (WTA: When Turn Available). It occurs spontaneously when the previous speaker has ended or given up a turn. This kind of turn taking is sometimes referred to 'discourse maintenance' (Van Lier, 1988, p.114)

The third sub-category is floor-seeking or self-select (WTNA: When Turn Not Available). It is an interrupting turn which takes place when a speaker initiates a turn during another speaker's turn. In terms of their usefulness in L2 classrooms, Van Lier (1988) comments: "self-selection adds to the naturalness of the discourse, quite apart from alleviating the predictability and potential dullness which can endanger classroom practice" (p.114). The following extract illustrates this type:

Extract 11

1 T what are your hobbies
2 L6 my hobbies is ah:
3 L2 [parties hehe

4 LL (*party hehe*)

5 L6 no I ride horse (P.114)

The fourth sub-category is called 'intra-turn negative feedback'. It has a close relationship with floor-seeking since negative signal during another's turn more likely leads to cutting that turn. For more clarification of this sub-category, Van Lier adds: "if one of them occurs in isolation the speaker may continue; however, if a series of them occurs during one turn, there is an increasing likelihood of that turn being prematurely ended" (1988, p.115).

The last sub-category of unallocated turns is the 'stolen' turn. Van Lier (1988) considers a turn to be stolen when it occupies a slot which was selected for a turn specifically assigned to another speaker. It is worth mentioning that these turns are distinct from prompting or helping as well as from taking over when there is a signal on the part of the selected learner about his/her inability to do the allocated turn (p.115). What follows is an example of stealing:

Extract 12

1 L8 teacher what kind which one ... is it possible-

2 L6 what kind and which one, the same.

3 LL/T ((unint)) (p.115)

Third, OK pass is the last category in retrospective turn-taking which can be either allocated or unallocated. According to Van Lier (1988), these turns are performed upon ending the previous turn without seeking the floor, but to express functions such as 'acknowledgement' or 'approval'. In case they are allocated, they tend to come after such items as: 'all right?' 'OK?', 'do you agree?', and question tags (p.115).

2.4.4.3. Concurrent Turn-taking

Van Lier (1988) categorizes concurrent turn-taking into 'listening responses' and 'intraturn repair'/ 'repair-initiation'. The three types of turn-taking take place during a turn and are associated with the existing turn in what he called "a subservient capacity" (p.116).

Listening responses play an important role in verbal interaction including conversation, lectures, debates, or interviews. They are described as those expressions which denote approval, attention, encouragement, and understanding. They have a dual character which could be either supportive or neutral according to the turn in hand. Therefore, they may facilitate and lubricate that turn's development as they may boost its duration and smoothness (Van Lier, 1988).

Listening responses may take place in extended turns which consist of several TCU's (stories, jokes, instructions, etc.). In this case, they are prompted, called for, or expected by the speaker who may create specific slots in an extended turn to elicit and invite the listening responses. Alternatively, in L2 classrooms they are viewed as being produced voluntarily. Hence, it is the listener who freely chooses in each instance whether to produce listening responses or not. On their significance as discourse markers to be mastered in all cultures, Van Lier (1988) adds:

Absence of appropriate listening responses, whether invited or not, usually has a severely disrupting influence on the current turn. They are perhaps more culturally specific than most other turn-taking devices, thus warranting special attention in studies of cross-cultural communication. (p.117)

The following extract is an illustration of listening responses realized through teacher's use of the expression "uhuh".

70

Extract 13

1 T so can you tell me the way to the cinema please?
2 L6 e:rm ... go e: r along this street till the: traffic=
3 T 'uhuh

4 L6 = light... (p.117)

It is worth mentioning that OK-passes could be confused with listening responses. For clarification reasons, Van Lier draws our attention to the fact that teachers insert questioning token at the end of turns to elicit OK-passes and within turns to elicit listening responses.

Intra-turn repair/ repair-initiation sub-category encompasses short requests for clarification, replacement of errors, and examples of prompting and helping. Although it is similar to listening responses in being subordinate to the current turn, it differs in the sense that it changes this turn. Nevertheless, unlike the case of negative feedback, intra-turn repair/ repair-initiation cannot be considered as possible attempt to take up the floor, to cut the speaker short, or to impede the turn in progress. In terms of the difference between repair initiation and intra- turn repair, extract 14 and 15 are illustrative.

Extract 14

1 Tok. do I have eh-all your grammar homew- I mean the composition homework

- 2 L what?
- *3 T composition homework* (P.120)

In turn 2, there is other initiation repair elicited by a participant other than the speaker of the turn in progress.

Extract 15

1	L2	I was listening	listening
2-3	L1	[in th	ne ra-] [to the radio in (bed)

4 L2 oh ja

5 *L1 while you having a bath*

6	L2 and you and you was having	a bath	
7	Ll	[you were- were having]	(p.120)

2.4.4.4. Neutral Turn-taking

It is the last type of turn-taking which includes two sub-categories: rehearsal and private turns. Both are used as comments on other turns which could be addressed to another learner or a small group of learners. The content of the comment could be relevant to the main business of the moment or to the other business. Neutral turns are usually delivered in a soft voice (Van Lier, 1988).

2.4.5. Relationship between Turn-taking and Pedagogical Focus

Seedhouse (2004) strongly emphasizes the mutual relationship that exists between pedagogical focus and the organization of turn taking and sequence in language classrooms. Throughout a research study, he describes the organization of turn-taking in four instructional contexts: Form and accuracy, meaning and fluency, task-oriented and procedural contexts.

2.4.5.1. Form and Accuracy Contexts

In this type of instructional context, teachers hold a tight control of turn-taking system. Their expectations include learners' production of precise strings of linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which match with the presented pedagogical focus. Hence, an ample focus is placed on the production of linguistic forms which do not bear topic, content, or new information as it is the case in ordinary conversation. The term topic is not applied in this type of interaction because it is language-centered as opposed to content centered (Kasper, as cited in Seedhouse, 2004)

This type of classroom activity has been criticized on the ground that it does not involve any association between the form practiced and real-world meaning. In Seedhouse's (2004) words, it is described as 'a rigid lockstep approach' which does not push students to develop fluency because the discourse is not natural, and the sequences do not occur outside the classroom. Turntaking patterns of this type of activity are described as follows:

There is extreme asymmetry in terms of interactional rights, the teacher is in total control of who says what and when. The students may speak only when nominated by the teacher. They have no leeway in terms of what they say or even the linguistic forms which they may use. (p.104-105)

In a formal interaction typical of form-and- accuracy contexts, the IRF/ E cycle is expected to dominate with exceptions in some contexts. In a study conducted on a Norwegian primary school, Seedhouse (2004) proved that there are instances in which the teacher is almost absent from the classroom. Meanwhile, learners were able to initiate classroom interaction by adopting teachers' role and repair policy. The following example is an illustration of a single pair work:

Extract 16

- 1 L21: I have got a radio. Have you got a radio?
- 2 L22: Yes.
- 3 L21: What?
- 4 L22: Yes I have. I have got a book. Have you got a book?
- 5 L21: Yes, I have.

(Seedhouse; as cited in 2004, p. 108-109)

2.4.5.2. Meaning and Fluency Contexts

In such contexts, the focus is on meaning and fluency rather than accuracy. Participants are encouraged to talk about their immediate environment, personal relationships, feelings, meanings, or the activities they are doing. As opposed to form and accuracy contexts, meaning and fluency contexts are conducted through pair or group work, and the interaction may be managed by the learners themselves to a greater extent with the absence of the teacher. An interesting characteristic of these contexts is that they are often found in small groups of learners who can exchange turns without referring to the teacher despite his/ her presence.

Since the focus is on meaning and fluency, the teacher does not give much importance to the correction of minor linguistic errors as they do not hinder communication. Two pedagogic aims are highlighted: the speaker's expression of personal meaning and the contribution of new information to the immediate classroom community. Seedhouse (2004) states:

The teacher's role is more that of a mediator whose purpose is to ensure that L1's message is conveyed to all of the other students, as well as a collaborator in the dialogue, thereby encouraging a smooth flow to the conversation and nurturing fluency.... sufficient space is allocated to learners to enable them to nominate and develop a topic or subtopic and to contribute new information concerning their immediate classroom speech community and their immediate environment, personal relationships, feelings and meanings, or activities they are engaging in. (P. 117-118)

This type of classroom context involves a symmetrical relationship between teachers and learners. The latter have more freedom to express themselves as the focus is on promoting fluency.

74

2.4.5.3. Task-oriented Contexts

In these contexts, the teacher introduces the pedagogical focus by assigning tasks to learners, and then withdraws to allow them to manage the interaction. Unlike the two previously mentioned contexts, task-oriented context is considered typical as the teacher does not take part in the interaction; he/ she sometimes intervenes only when students face a difficulty and ask for guidance. Moreover, there is no focus neither on linguistic forms nor on personal meanings; instead, "The learners must communicate with each other in order to accomplish a task, and the focus is on the accomplishment of the task rather than on the language used" (Seedhouse, 2004, p.120).

Seedhouse (cited in 2004) identifies three characteristics of task-oriented interaction. First, there is a reflexive relationship between the nature of the task and turn-taking system in which the latter is restrained by the former. Second, there is a tendency to minimalization and indexicality. In this regard, the kinds of linguistic forms used in learners' turns are constrained by the nature of the task along with a general tendency to their minimization. Lastly, tasks tend to generate many instances of clarification requests, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and self-repetition.

2.4.5.4. Procedural Contexts

Unlike the previously discussed classroom contexts, procedural contexts are considered compulsory because they take place in every turn as a predecessor to another L2 classroom context. This mainly refers to the procedural information that the teacher transmits to the students concerning classroom activities that should be accomplished in the lesson. In terms of turn-taking

in such contexts, Seedhouse (2004) notes that it is "probably the most simple and straightforward and by far the most homogeneous of all the L2 classroom contexts" (p.133). Based on his data, Seedhouse blatantly stated that there is no turn-taking at all as the teacher is the one holding the floor.

2.5. Questioning in L2 Classrooms

2.5.1. Significance of Questioning Behavior

Certainly, the different techniques that teachers adopt in their instruction to elicit students' responses are what stimulate communication within any classroom, be it a subject or a language class. Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) initially adopt the term "elicitation" in an attempt to describe utterances which prompt students' response in the classroom. It is defined as an act whose function is to request a linguistic response or a non-verbal substitute, such as a nod or a raised hand (p.28). Later, the term was adopted and elaborated by Tsui (1992) to avoid any confusing labels; eventually, he came up with the following subcategories of elicitation:

- Elicit (inform): It prompts the addressee to supply a piece of information;
- Elicit (confirm): It requests the addressee to confirm the speaker's assumption;
- Elicit (agree): It invites the agreement of the addressee with the speaker's statement as true.
- Elicit (commit): It elicits more than just a verbal response from the addressee. Its distinctive feature is the elicitation of a commitment. For instance, J: Can I talk to you?

S: Come in. Let's close the door! Have a seat.

- Elicit (repeat) and (clarify): "meta-discoursal" is another term to describe these subcategories since they refer to the discourse itself. Whereas the former stands for a

repetition of the utterance preceding the elicitation, the latter stands for a clarification of a preceding utterance or utterances (p.102-109).

Elicitation techniques entail the use of questions which usually occupy the first position in Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) tripartite IRF exchange and the second position in Bellack's et al. (1966) system comprising four moves: Structure, solicit, respond, and react. In the context of language classes, the importance of teachers' questioning is even more accentuated since the language is both the object to conduct the instruction and the goal that needs to be achieved. To back up this claim, Long & Sato (1983) note: "teachers' questioning behavior is probably one of the subsets of classroom *process* variables related to the phenomenon whose understanding is our ultimate goal, classroom SLA" (p.269, italics in original).

The authors go further to add that the functions of teachers' questions should be assigned a considerable value in "foreigner talk discourse" since they contribute to sustaining non-native speakers' (NNS) participation in various ways. According to them, "questions can help make greater quantities of linguistic input comprehensible, and also offer a NNS interlocutor more speaking opportunities." (p.270). On his part, Cazden (1986) expresses the motives that make the study of teachers' questions a worthwhile topic in the following quotation: "most attention has been given to teacher questions because of their frequency, the pedagogical work they are intended to do, and the obvious control they exert over the talk and thereby over the enacted curriculum" (p.440).

Research on questioning behavior has been informed by the assumption that L2 learning will be enhanced if the questions result in an active learner participation and meaning negotiation. According to Ellis (2008), teachers' questions might affect L2 acquisition if they are used appropriately to push learners' output. Moreover, the prevalence of questioning, either in content

classrooms or language classrooms, is certainly attributed to the control it gives to the teacher over the discourse. This view is further supported by Walsh (2006) stating that: "typically, classroom discourse is dominated by question and answer routines, with teachers asking most of the questions as one of the principal ways in which they control the discourse" (p.8).

In the same vein, Brumfit & Mitchell (1989) address the prominent role that questions play in language instruction. Through teachers' questions, learners keep their contribution by either participating in or modifying classroom discourse. This, in turn, is a prerequisite for the use of more comprehensible and personally relevant language. On his part, Hyman (1989) believes that it is impossible to imagine the existence of classroom talk or thinking process without asking questions.

The question-answer dyad is central to the thinking process and is therefore, essential to effective teaching. Indeed, it is impossible to conceive of a teaching situation in which questions by the teacher and the students are not asked and answered. When teachers teach, they talk; when they talk, they ask their students questions to stimulate thinking. (p.73)

According to Kayaoğlu (2013), the elicitation techniques employed by teachers to trigger learners' responses are crucial since their role is not only limited to the transfer of facts to learners or for classroom management reasons; however, they also contribute to sustaining classroom interaction between the teacher and students as learning is a negotiation between both parties.

The question-and-answer sequence is not only about the transmission of facts or managing classes but is rather the interactions between the teacher and students in the classroom where the teacher co-constructs learning with students, building

78

on what learners already know and extending that by asking high-level questions.

(p.5)

Chaudron (1988) recognizes the significance of teachers' questions as the primary means of engaging learners' attention, promoting verbal responses, and evaluating their progress. He maintains that the value of questioning behavior is even more emphasized by the bulk of literature swirling around the following areas: The frequency of the different types of questions; wait time or the length of time during which the teacher waits for an answer; the nature of the learners' output when answering the questions; the effect of the learners' level of proficiency on questioning; the possibility of training teachers to ask more "communicative questions"; and the variation evident in teachers' questioning strategies.

2.5.2. Functions/ Purposes of Teachers' Questions

Questioning has been proven to be one of the most common techniques used to accomplish abundant functions and to achieve multiple purposes, all of which contribute to the flow of classroom interaction. Both functions and purposes of teachers' questions are highlighted in this section.

Cazden (1986) assigns the following three functions to teachers' questions: enabling the lesson to proceed as planned, helping students learn how to accomplish an academic task, and enabling the teacher to assess his/ her students' learning. Kayaoğlu (2013) adopts a different perspective to the analysis of teachers' questions focusing on their impact on students. According to him, questions serve in shaping the socio-cognitive development of learners. They are tools which are used to achieve multiple functions including the exploration of meaning, supporting students' higher levels of thinking, influencing students' achievement and level of engagement in the classroom, and advancing higher cognitive processing skills. Moreover, Richards & Lockhart

(1996) offer multiple functions of teachers' questions which are: stimulating and maintaining students' interest, encouraging students to think and focus on the content of the lesson, enabling the teacher to clarify what a student has said, eliciting structures or vocabulary items, checking students' understanding, encouraging students' participation, and promoting language acquisition.

In terms of what triggers the use of questions in language classes, Hyman (1989) identifies several purposes that every teacher has in mind when questioning his/ her students. He lists them into the following academic, psychological, or classroom management purposes:

- To diagnose the extent of students' understanding of a particular concept or topic;

- To keep students vigilant, and to offer them an opportunity to shine in front of classmates;
- To test students' understanding and their ability in reasoning and solving problems;
- To revisit, reiterate, and summarize essential points that have been previously discussed;
- To discuss, stimulate creative imagination. and attain ideas that prompt students' reaction;
- To sustain discipline or to stop any disruptive behavior in the class.

Hyman also acknowledges the possibility of achieving two or more purposes simultaneously by using one question. However, since the teacher may not be acquainted with all purposes in asking a question, a useful strategy to determine the purpose is to analyze students' responses in the context of the lesson.

2.5.3. Types of Questions

Research on questioning techniques proves that teachers employ different types of questions in their language classes. However, the choice of the right questions is based on teachers'

awareness of their significance along with their talent in selecting what best triggers learners' contribution to classroom discourse. This is clearly highlighted by Kayaoğlu (2013, p.10) in the following quotation:

The knowledge and skills used in asking different types of questions in a classroom is a crucial aspect of the teaching and learning process to the extent that questions can facilitate language acquisition, production and result in meaningful interaction. So, learners' achievement and degree of engagement are linked to the types of questions generated and used by teachers in a classroom.

Eventually, the main criterion that researchers employ for the classification of teachers' questions is their role in classroom interaction, which could only be understood in relation to the goals that teachers are seeking to achieve (Ellis, 2008). Based on this criterion, Richard & Lockhart (1996) suggested three different classifications: Convergent, divergent, and procedural questions.

1.5.3.1. Richard & Lockhart Classification

2.5.3.1.1. Convergent Questions

The aim of convergent questions is to encourage students' responses that focus on a central theme, and they are generally embodied in short answers, such as 'yes', 'no', or short statements. This type of questions does not usually require students to engage in higher level thinking in order to come up with a response; rather, they often focus on previously presented information. A rapid sequence of convergent questions is often asked by language teachers to help develop aural skills and vocabulary along with encouraging whole-class participation prior to shifting to another teaching technique. To illustrate, Richard & Lockhart (1996, p.187) cited the following questions

used by the teacher to introduce a reading lesson that focuses on the impact of computers on

everyday life.

How many of you have a personal computer in your home? Do you use it every day? What do you mainly use it for? What are some other machines that you have in your home?

What are the names of some computer companies? What is the difference between software and hardware?

2.5.3.1.2. Divergent Questions

Unlike convergent questions, divergent questions encourage diverse responses from students through engaging them in higher- level thinking. The ultimate aim of this type is to encourage students to provide their own information rather than on recalling previously presented material.

Richards & Lockhart (1996, p. 187) maintain that both convergent and divergent questions are designed for a shared set of aims which mainly include engaging students in the content of the lesson, facilitating their comprehension, and promoting classroom interaction. The following are some examples of divergent questions which are asked by the teacher.

How have computers had an economic impact on society? How would businesses today function without computers? Do you think computers have had any negative effects on society? What are the best ways of promoting the use of computers in education?

2.5.3.1.3. Procedural Questions

Unlike questions which are associated with the content of learning, procedural questions are related to classroom procedures, routines, and management. Richards & Lockhart (1996, p.186) cited the following instances of questions which emerge in classrooms while teachers were

checking the completion of assignments, the clarity of instructions, and students' readiness for the

new task.

Did everyone bring their homework? Do you all understand what I want you to do? How much more time do you need? Can you all read what I've written on the blackboard? Did anyone bring a dictionary to class? Why aren't you doing the assignment?

Perhaps one of the most popular taxonomies of teachers' questions is the one provided by Long & Sato (1983). In a comparative study of the use of questions in both naturalistic and classroom discourse, they discuss the analytic framework suggested by Kearsley (1976) in the classification of questions. As a result, they came up with the following taxonomy according to the categories of questions that arose from their data.

2.5.3.2. Echoic Questions

This category of questions requires either the repetition of the utterance or confirmation that an utterance has been interpreted as intended. It is subdivided into comprehension checks, clarification requests, and confirmation checks; all of which contribute to the negotiation of meaning in language classes (Gass, 1997). From Long & Sato's (1983) perspective, this subclassification "allowed distinctions to be made among acts whose function reflects (among other things) the direction of information-flow in preceding utterances and, indirectly, the degree to which conversation is negotiated through the modification of its interactional structure" (p.275).

2.5.3.2.1. Confirmation Checks

They are more frequent in the speech of teachers when information is conveyed by students. In such sub-category of questions, there is exact or semantic, complete or partial repetition of the previous speaker's utterance. They are either yes/ no or uninverted (rising intonation) questions in which a yes answer is presupposed. Confirmation checks serve the function of eliciting confirmation that the user had either heard or understood the previous speaker's previous utterance correctly or otherwise to eliminate that belief. To illustrate, Long & Sato (1983, p.275) cite the following example: (S: carefully T: Carefully?; Did you say "he?").

2.5.3.2.2. Comprehension Checks

They are defined as expressions used by native speakers (NS) with the aim of finding out whether their preceding utterance has been understood by the interlocutor. This sub-category of questions is characterized by the use of tag questions, repetition of all or part of the same speaker's preceding utterance with rising intonation, or by utterances like "do you understand?" to explicitly check comprehension. Teachers may also employ expressions like "alright?", "OK", "does everyone understand polite?" to check their students' comprehension (Long & Sato, 1983, p.275).

2.5.3.2.3. Clarification Requests

They are used by NS to elicit clarification of the interlocutor preceding utterance. Clarification requests generally consist of yes/ no, wh-questions, or uninverted and tag questions. They require the interlocutor either to supply new information or to recode previously given information. Unlike confirmation checks, clarification requests do not imply presupposition on the speaker's part that he/ she has heard and understood the interlocutor's previous utterance. They include expressions such as "what do you mean?"; "I don't understand"; "what?"; "try again" (Long & Sato, 1983, p.275).

2.5.3.3. Epistemic Questions

According to Kearsley's definition, epistemic questions "serve the purpose of acquiring information" (as cited in Long & Sato, 1983, p. 174). They are divided into four sub-categories: referential, display, expressive, and rhetorical.

2.5.3.3.1. Referential Questions

They are defined as more open-ended and genuine questions whose answers are unknown to the teacher. These questions are posed with the aim of promoting discussion and engaging learners to produce long, complex, and meaningful responses. As a result, they stimulate a more conversational type of interaction (Walsh & Li, 2016, p.491). Referential questions encompass all Wh-questions which "are intended to provide contextual information about situations, events, actions, purposes, relationships, or properties" (Long & Sato, 1983, p.174). Chaudron (1988) acknowledges the tremendous importance of referential questions in language classes due to their contribution in promoting greater learner productivity.

2.5.3.3.2. Display Questions

Unlike the previous type, display questions require answers that are already known by the teacher. According to Walsh & Li (2016), they are designed with the aim of checking or evaluating understanding and previous learning (p. 490). Examples include questions such as "what is the past tense of break?" and "what is the opposite of cold?". Unlike referential questions, Chaudron (1988) assumes that display questions tend to be closed, yet they are more likely to promote meaningful communication between the teacher and learners.

2.5.3.3.3. Expressive Questions

By referring to Kearsley's definition, expressive questions "convey attitudinal information to the addressee" (cited in Long & Sato, p.275). They are initially questions which are asked by the teacher to express his/ her attitude towards a particular topic, concept, or issue. Long & Sato (1983) cited the following example: "it's interesting the different pronunciations we have now, but isn't it?" (p.276).

2.5.3.3.4. Rhetorical Questions

In addition to the subdivision of echoic questions, rhetorical questions are considered as another new category which sprung out from Long & Sato's (1983) data but not captured by Kearsley (1974). They are asked for effect only; so, no answer is expected from listeners because it's the speaker who asks and answers the question simultaneously. An example of this type of questions would be: "why did I do that? Because I ..." (Long & Sato, 1983, p.276).

The results of Long & Sato's (1983) study reveal that ESL classroom interaction is predominated by display questions which are more frequently used than referential questions. Conversely, display questions are likely to be unknown in informal NS-NNS conversation as referential questions was the prevailing type. Long & Sato's (1983) conclude that "communicative use of the target language makes up only a minor part of typical classroom activities" (p.280). Eventually, teachers tend to focus on form over meaning and accuracy over communication. As a reaction to these results, Chaudron (1988) comments: "the implication is that the more language-oriented the classroom, the more the teacher finds it appropriate to elicit linguistically constrained student contributions in order to promote practice in the language" (p.127). Walsh & Li (2016) adopted a different perspective by viewing the delineation between referential and display questions as less important compared to the relationship between teachers' pedagogic goal and the choice of questions. According to them, the focus should rather be shifted from whether the question generates a communicative response to the extent to which it meets its purpose at a specific point in a lesson. In this respect, they display questions are adequate when the aim is to

check students' understanding or to elicit their previous knowledge, whereas referential questions are appropriate if the goal is fostering discussion or assisting learners in their oral fluency. The different types of questions can be displayed in the following figure.

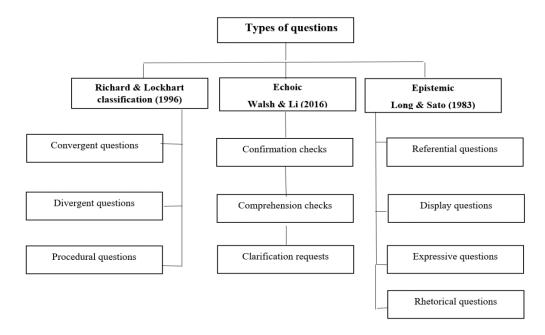


Figure 2.3. Types of Questions

Despite the existence of a multiple types of questions, the selection of the appropriate type depends partly on the teachers' objective and partly on the learners' ability to respond to the assigned question. Hyman (1989), however, raises an important point regarding the integration of different types of questions. For the sake of improving both teaching/ learning process, he believes that teachers should work out toward familiarizing students with the variety of potential questions, provide models, and encourage practice to get the learners extend their questions during discussions.

2.5.4. Questioning Strategies

Hyman (1989) draws teachers' attention to the fact that getting no response from learners does not mean that they should stop asking questions and provide the answer. Instead, they are supposed to persist in asking questions using different strategies, such as repetition, rephrasing, or assigning the question to another student. In a study conducted by White & Lightbown (1984) with three secondary ESL teachers, participants are found to ask up to four questions per minute, with overall about 40% of the questions receiving no response and up to 64% as repetitions of previous ones. The results also reveal that the rate of students' response to subsequent repetitions of questions was even lower than the rate of responses to questions asked only once (Cited in Chaudron, 1988).

Chaudron (1988) also examined teachers' questioning strategies when they are faced with low or lack of students' responses and came up with three suggested plans. The first strategy is the repetition or rephrasing of more difficult questions. Mc Lure & French (1980) called this strategy 'reformulation', which has the effect of making the question less complex and more specific with the ultimate goal of assisting students to produce the right answer (Cited in Johnson, 1995). The second strategy is called 'preformulation' (Mc Lure & French, 1980) in which teachers work toward directing students to the context of the posed question. To achieve this aim, they provide some hints on the way the question should be answered to make it appropriately comprehensible and answerable within the learners' subject matter and L2 competence. For instance, they depend on clues that would describe the attributes of an expected response, compare or contrast the expected response to something, or assign a label to the expected response. Alternatively, teachers can rephrase the question with an alternative or 'or-choice' questions, as in: 'what would you like to drink? [pause] would you like coffee, tea...?' (P.128). The last strategy is called 'Wait time' which refers to the pauses that teachers use after a question before asking further questions or nominating another student (Chaudron 1988, p.128).

In fact, several scholars alluded to the benefits of "wait time" as a worthwhile area of study. Cazden (2001) assumes that increasing wait time leads to more profound changes in students' language use and logic as well as the attitudes and expectations of both teachers and students. Chaudron (1988) also insists on the use of additional wait-time due to the possibility of offering L2 students with a better opportunity to construct their response and its appropriate matching with their cultural norms of interaction. These arguments are backed up with the findings of Holley & King (1971) who suggest at least a 5 second wait-time as evidence to increase student responses following initial hesitations. Hyman (1989) shares the same perspective claiming that: "with a wait-time of three to five seconds, students respond more, increase the length and number of their responses, use complex cognitive processes, and begin to ask more questions" (p.78). Conversely, in a study conducted by White & Lightbown (1984) with teachers who prefer immediate responses from the students and rarely give enough wait time, the findings reveal minimum and short responses compared to responses that follow enough wait-time strategy (cited in Ellis, 2008). Following these results, Ellis (2008) concludes that the shorter is the wait-time, the fewer and the shorter are the student responses.

2.6. Feedback in L2 Classrooms

2.6.1. What is Feedback?

Feedback is another significant component of teacher talk that represents the third part of IRF sequence. It serves as teacher's reaction to learners' contribution through validating or refuting their statements. According to Van Lier (1988), feedback is the most frequently used activity in

language classrooms besides questioning; hence, a property that distinguishes classroom interaction from interaction outside the classroom (Nunan, 1989).

According to Ellis (2006), feedback is defined as "responses to learner utterances containing an error" (p.28). It is a response that plays a dual function: evaluation and formulation of learners' contribution (Cazden, 1986). On their part, Mackey, Park, and Tagarelli (2016) opt for the use of the term *corrective feedback* which they define as a tool that is used by teachers to transform errors into opportunities for L2 development. Two different ways are used to achieve this goal: the teacher can either offer 'negative evidence' by indicating that a learner's utterance contains an error or 'positive evidence' through feedback that embraces the target form. That being said, the effectiveness of feedback is achieved only if learners perceive it as corrective, i.e., when they view it as comprising negative evidence (Ellis & Shintani, as cited in Mackey, Park & Tagarelli, 2016).

Teacher's feedback on students' performance is believed to occupy approximately 1/3 of teachers' moves in classroom discourse (Long& Sato, 1983). Overall, it serves as a model of accurate linguistic input since the sentences that are expanded by teachers are considered as grammatically accurate representations of the students' responses (Johnson, 1995). Apart from being a perfect linguistic model, teacher's corrective feedback serves substantial functions such as evaluating learners on their performance, increasing their motivation, and building a supportive classroom climate (Richard& Lockhart, 1996).

2.6.2. Teachers' Correction of Learners' Errors

The issue of whether learners' errors should be corrected or not remains a controversial one. Krashen (1982), for instance, strongly objects to error correction practice as both useless and

dangerous for language acquisition arguing that it may lead to negative affective filter. It is the position that aligns with what Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) called 'the non-interventionist' approach to error correction, which stresses the importance of communication as the primary focus of instruction. Proponents of this approach believe that the correction of students' error is unnecessary if they have already succeeded in communicating meaning. In this respect, positive evidence is all what is required for learning with errors corrected only if they hinder comprehensibility. Moreover, non-interventionists believe that explicit correction will affect students' self-confidence and increase their anxiety levels; both would have detrimental effects on language learning.

Turning to the other end of the continuum, there are several scholars who strongly support the provision of feedback due to its contribution to second/foreign language learning. Ellis (2008), for instance, adopts a subjective view asserting that all classroom learners need to be corrected. It is a viewpoint that aligns with Lyster (2015) who also recognizes the effectiveness of error correction in developing learner's competence in the target language.

Theoretical perspectives that run the gamut from skill acquisition theory to cognitive-interactionist and sociocultural orientations posit that corrective feedback (CF) is not only beneficial but may also be necessary for moving learners forward in their second language (L2) development. (p.213)

Along the same line, Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) suggest that corrective feedback, if done appropriately, would contribute to the facilitation of second language development in two different ways. First, its facilitative role is revealed in learners' awareness of the difference between their interlanguage and the target language. Whereas explicit feedback involves negative evidence that is offered to indicate students' improper use of the target language, implicit feedback

91

entails contrastive evidence that is offered in the form of models without a direct or overt indication of learners' errors. Eventually, it is through the recognition of the gap that exists between their contribution and the correction that learners adjust their current L2 knowledge towards the target form (p.502). Second, corrective feedback has the effect of providing output opportunities for learners. The use of corrective strategies without the provision of the correct form will elicit a 'modified output' and 'self- generated' repair as two opportunities that enable learners to reformulate their incorrect contribution. Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) maintain that this type of feedback has far-reaching benefits for learners as it encourages their autonomy; hence, it is a crucial aspect for the facilitation of L2 development as they assert: "through such self-monitoring processes, learners can gain more control over those target features and eventually enhance their fluency and automaticity of L2 processing" (p.502).

Apart from teachers, numerous studies demonstrate learners' preference for corrective feedback as an important classroom practice. Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) report Cathcart & Olsen's (1976) findings on adult ESL learners who declared their desire to be enormously corrected by their teachers. In addition to that, Brown's (2009) study indicates that learners from different language courses recommend the use of corrective feedback as an effective teaching behavior and a crucial part of the foreign language classroom.

Chaudron (1988) addresses a problematic issue concerning whether teachers are required to correct errors in contexts where communicative interaction is sustained. In their response to this question, Walsh & Li (2016) suggest that the type of feedback to be adopted is inextricably linked to the existing teaching goals. Therefore, a maximum error correction is required in highly controlled practice activities compared to those with a focus on oral fluency. Further, they report that whether errors should be corrected is not as valuable as discussing the extent of the appropriateness of a corrective strategy vis-à-vis the intended goals.

Based on what is stated, research findings suggest clear evidence in favor of teachers' corrective feedback. This is revealed either through the enormous effects of corrective feedback on students' development of the target language or students' awareness of its essential role. However, as established by Walsh & Li (2016), instead of focusing on which error to be corrected, language teachers should rather consider the relevance of their feedback strategy to their teaching objectives.

2.6.3. Strategies of Corrective Feedback

Despite a variety of oral corrective feedback taxonomies proposed by different scholars, Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016, p. 503) offer a more comprehensive taxonomy. It embraces nine feedback strategies grouped under two headings: Input-providing Vs. output prompting feedback. As the name denotes, the two types of feedback are classified according to whether feedback provides or prompts the correction.

2.6.3.1. Input-providing Feedback

Input-providing feedback embraces four different moves which offer learners with either positive or negative evidence along with a demonstration of how their incorrect utterances can be correctly reformulated.

2.6.3.1.1. Recasts

Recasts occur when the teacher repeats back to learners the error or the phrase containing an error in its corrected form, and they are divided into two types. The first type is conversational, implicit, and takes the form of confirmation checks. This type occurs when there is a communication problem caused by the learner's incorrect use of language. The second type is didactic and explicit. It takes place when there is no communication problem but when the focus is on language form.

2.6.3.1.2. Explicit Correction

Explicit correction takes place when the teacher overtly corrects students' errors. For instance, when she/ he says, "she walks" not "walk" (Mackey, Park & Tagarelli, 2016). Mosbah (2007) criticizes this strategy on the grounds that it puts learners in a receptive position and deprives them of the opportunity of hypothesis testing regarding the functionality of the target language system. According to him, students' preference for this strategy is associated with cultural reasons, and this is based on the bulk of literature he reported on Asian countries where the teacher is viewed as the only source of knowledge.

2.6.3.1.3. Explicit Correction with Metalinguistic Explanations

This type of feedback involves an explicit provision of correction with further explanation. This includes information about the type of the error and the rule that has been violated. For instance, the teacher might say the following: "it's walks not walk. We need 's' because she is third person singular".

2.6.3.2. Output-prompting Feedback

Output-prompting feedback includes strategies which deliver negative evidence to learners indicating that there is a problem in their utterances. In doing so, learners are encouraged to self-correct their errors and produce a modified output. This category takes the form of five different strategies:

2.6.3.2.1. Repetition

In their distinction between recasts and repetition, Lyster & Ranta (1997) maintain that whereas recasts refer to a reformulation of the entire or part of a student's utterance "minus the error", repetition is mainly about restating student's utterance with intonation adjustment to highlight the error. It is divided into four types as identified by Chaudron (1977, p.38). The first type is repetition with no change, and it involves repeating back students' utterances without any modification or omission of the errors. The second type is repetition with no change but with emphasis and students' utterances are restated without any modification of errors, but there is an emphasis to indicate the error. Third, repetition with change involves student's utterance supplemented with correction. Lastly, repetition with change and emphasis involves emphasis to highlight the location of error along with the correct formulation.

According to the definition of Lyster & Ranta (1997), the third and the fourth types are considered as recasts. However, both types of repetition, either with change or without change, have been criticized due to many reasons. Zamil (as cited in Mosbah, 2007) notes that a repetition of students' utterances minus errors will deprive students of noticing the error; hence, it does not assist them in modifying the underlying rules. Alternatively, an accurate feedback should indicate the gap between the erroneous utterance and the desired response. This perspective is also supported by Allwright & Bailey (1991) stating that "Simple repetition or modeling of the correct form may be useless if the learners cannot perceive the difference between the model and the erroneous forms they produce." (p.104). Having said that, recasts have also been criticized on the ground that a repetition of the same utterance is believed to give learners the impression that it is another way of saying the same thing (Lyster, as cited in Mosbah, 2007).

2.6.3.2.2. Clarification Requests

Clarification requests refer to those techniques employed by teachers to prompt learners' response without breaking the communication flow. Some of the commonly used expressions include "what?" and "huh?" (Mackey, Park & Tagarelli, 2016).

95

2.6.3.2.3. Metalinguistic Clues

Metalinguistic feedback is defined as teachers' remarks, information, or questions associated with the learners' ill-formed utterances without overtly giving the correct forms. An example of this type of feedback would be teacher's reaction to a student who failed in conjugating past tense by saying "you need past tense" (Lyster& Ranta, 1997).

2.6.3.2.4. Elicitations

Elicitation refers to any technique used by teachers with the aim of eliciting the correct form from the students. It is a self-correction strategy in which teachers work toward getting students to determine and correct their own errors. The expression "say that again?" stated as a teacher's reaction to a student's error is an example of this strategy (Lyster& Ranta, 1997).

2.6.3.2.5. Paralinguistic Signals

Besides the previous strategies, gestures or facial expressions are other techniques used by the teacher to indicate to the learner that he/she made an error (Mackey, Park & Tagarelli, 2016).

Based on the stated types of corrective feedback, Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) advocate that it is not practical to consider one type as more effective than the other since all types contribute to the facilitation of L2 development. Instead, they advise teachers to employ all the strategies to get an idea about circumstances that dictate the use of one strategy rather than another. From another perspective and based on several observations, Seedhouse (2004) reports teachers' unwillingness to employ direct repair strategies and their preference for indirect ones to avoid embarrassing students. Notwithstanding his findings, he maintains that the interactional organization of the L2 classroom dictates on teachers to use direct instead of indirect strategies which make errors unimportant in the context of classrooms. Despite the existence of different output-prompting feedback, teachers' choice of the appropriate strategy is contingent on their course objectives. Therefore, activities which are based on fluency require less correction, less interruption, and more implicit correction than activities which are based on accuracy.

2.6.4. Factors Impacting the Effectiveness of Feedback

Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) believe that there are several factors that impact the effectiveness of corrective feedback in language learning. Therefore, teachers' awareness of these factors is required to evaluate the role they play in their own classrooms. The factors are classified into linguistic targets and individual differences.

2.6.4.1. Linguistic Targets

Despite the variety of errors that students commit, Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) consider feedback on some types of errors as more important than others. For instance, they believe that lexical and phonological errors should receive more feedback than morpho-syntactic errors due to their significance in understanding the message.

Lexical and phonological errors always had a general negative effect on learner comprehensibility, but morphosyntactic errors only hindered communication in learners that had otherwise good lexical skills and pronunciation. Therefore, focusing feedback on these more salient features of high communicative value may be the way to go in language classrooms. (p.505)

With that being said, Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) raise another issue in reviewing numerous studies that demonstrate teachers' enormous focus on morphosyntactic errors. According to them, this domain embraces the most difficult aspects of second language; yet, students are more responsive to feedback on lexical and phonological errors. They also note that

it is not corrective feedback itself that is less important in morphosyntactic development; rather, teachers are required to adopt a more effective feedback. More specifically, there are some non-salient linguistic forms which require some types of feedback rather than others to ensure their acquisition by FL/SL learners. To illustrate, they referred to an example of a teacher who adopts a recast strategy in correcting "*he watch a movie*" to "*he watched a movie*" expecting the linguistic form "ed" to be unnoticeable for the students. Alternatively, they suggest metalinguistic explanation feedback as a more effective strategy. Likewise, they suggest the strategy of recast in correcting vocabulary or pronunciation as more effective as it offers students the chance to reiterate 'the target-like model'.

2.6.4.2. Individual Differences

In addition to linguistic targets, Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) perceive individual differences among learners as another factor that controls the effectiveness of the type of feedback. According to them, the process of L2 acquisition embraces different learning experiences in which learners work toward maintaining a sense of balance between multiple resources to communicate their interlanguage effectively. Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) summarize these experiences as: "maintaining representations of input and output in short-term memory, accessing L2 knowledge from long-term memory, processing feedback and making comparisons between their own utterances and target-like utterances, and forming modified representations of L2 knowledge in long-term memory" (p.506).

Moreover, they allude to three trends revealing how individual differences are linked to the relationship between interaction and L2 development. First, studies on the relationship between working memory (WM) and corrective feedback have found that there is a positive connection between WM and some aspects of language learning such as detecting feedback, producing

modified input, or L2 development. Second, there is an interaction between the effects of WM and other factors such as the context and the different types of feedback received by learners. Third, research has proved that individual differences which are linked to feedback includes anxiety, creativity, attentional control, and analytic ability. In addition to these studies which show evidence of individual differences and their impact on the way students respond to corrective feedback, Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) stress the importance of learners' age as a crucial aspect that should be considered prior to the selection of feedback type.

Overall, having discussed the different types of corrective feedback and strategies adopted by teachers in error correction, Mackey, Park & Tagarelli (2016) conclude that it is not appropriate to consider one type as more effective than the other; instead, the best way to deal with learners' errors is to embrace "a mixed bag of feedback moves". Meanwhile, they recommend the use of peer feedback as an important strategy that does not only contribute to the facilitation of language development, but it also gives learners "the opportunity to both receive feedback, as they do with teachers, and provide it, which draws on a different set of autonomous language skills" (p.507).

Conclusion

In this chapter, classroom interaction is examined from the perspective of the language teacher. More specifically, a detailed explanation of the features that characterize teacher talk in L2 classrooms is presented. As already stated, the analysis of teacher talk is a crucial area of study because the way the language teacher adjusts his/ her talk has a great impact on either facilitating or impeding the learning process.

The discussion of teacher talk is initiated by looking at teacher turn taking, its classifications, and how it is controlled by pedagogical purposes. Moreover, teacher talk is highlighted through an examination of both questioning behaviour and feedback, mainly by casting light on their different types, functions, and strategies. The overall analysis of the features that characterize teacher talk in terms of the three parameters reveals the uniqueness of teacher- student interaction compared to other types of interaction. The more salient distinctive feature is probably the asymmetrical relationship between two parties which in turn regulates those patterns of interaction.

The theoretical background provided throughout this chapter will, undoubtedly, serve as a basis for the analysis of the recorded data. In the next chapter, an analysis of how teacher talk varies across different cultures is presented with a particular focus on the way it is structured by both native and non-native speaking teachers.

Chapter Three: Native vs. Non-Native Speaking Teacher Talk in AFL and EFL Classes

Introduction

As a continuation to the previous two chapters, this chapter is devoted to the discussion of classroom talk across different cultural contexts and from a native/non-native speaking teacher perspective. To achieve this end, the chapter starts with a presentation of classroom cultural differences and the impact they have on the organization of classroom talk. This is followed by a discussion of the Native-speakerism Conundrum. This debate is proceeded by spelling out the differences between native and non-native speaking teachers in terms of language instruction, in general along with the difference between both categories of teachers from students' point of view. Subsequently, the focus is shifted to pinpointing the interactional features which characterize native and non-native speaking teacher talk in terms of questioning and corrective feedback strategies. It should be noted that only these two features are discussed due to the lack of relevant literature on comparative studies related to the turn taking organization. Further, since there is no research on teacher talk conducted in the field of AFL classes, all discussion is solely centered on EFL classes. Finally, the chapter ends up with some perspectives regarding the teaching/ learning of AFL and EFL in the American and Algerian contexts respectively.

3.1. Language Classrooms and Teacher Talk across Cultures

3.1.1. Classroom Cultural Differences

The commonly held view is that language classrooms embrace teachers and learners who interact in diverse ways to achieve an academic goal; the fact which makes both parties exist in a complementary relationship. In addition to the pedagogical role served by the interaction between the teacher, learners, and the material, it is believed that considering language classrooms without referring to the cultural aspects of the community is likely to lead to peculiar outcomes. Richard & Lockhart (1996) address teaching from this perspective by defining it as an activity which is encapsulated within a set of culturally bound assumptions about teachers, teaching, and learners. More specifically, these assumptions cover a reflection of what the teacher's responsibility is believed to be, how learning is understood, and how students are expected to interact in the classroom. To back up their claim, they compared two different pedagogical traditions: the Chinese and the Western systems of education. Eventually, their observations reveal that teacher-centered learning is preferable in the Chinese system of education, whereas the western system of education is more oriented toward encouraging independent and creative learning with a teacher playing the role of facilitator of knowledge (p.107).

To explain cultural differences between language classes, Johnson (1995) lays emphasis on communication taking place in diverse teaching contexts. She concludes that cultural norms in language classes are revealed through the meaning and structure of classroom communication shaped by teachers' perception of their students and vice versa. Based on this fact, any expected differences in terms of these perceptions are believed to be the outcome of differences in previous formal schooling experiences as well as norms and expectations that existed in the past. All these factors have an impact on the way of talking and acting in classrooms. To illustrate, Johnson refers to the experience of her former Chinese student which took her several semesters to figure out that a certain percentage of her course grade was allocated to "class participation". Before being enrolled in a graduate course in USA, the student thought that participation in class is represented in listening quickly and taking notes; the fact which is considered a deviation from American norms as perception of class participation is shaped in raising questions and exchanging ideas during class discussion. As a result, Johnson concludes that the Chinese student's understanding of the concept is based on formal schooling with norms and expectations different from those of the American students. These findings are relevant to the analysis of interaction taking place in EFL and AFL classes in both the Algerian and American contexts.

3.1.2. Classroom Talk across Cultures

In discussing the notion of classroom talk, Daniels (as cited in Alexander, 2006) maintains that talk must not be considered as a mere interaction which is narrowly perceived by the learning task in hand; rather, it is a mediation between teaching, learning, and the wide culture. In this respect, Alexander (2006) outlines international research revealing the striking differences in terms of the status, character, context, and uses of talk between classrooms across different countries. What follows are some of the characteristics which characterize classroom talk in some countries in continental Europe compared to British (and American) classrooms.

- Talk is considered fundamental to literacy not separate from it;

- Oral pedagogy is clearly stressed with the integration of oral work to the extent that oral activities prevail from the beginning to the end in some lessons. In Britain, however, written work is considered as the unique real "work" with oral activity as an opening to such work rather than an end in itself;

- There is a formal assessment of oral activities along with written activities;

-Classroom talk has a cognitive purpose which aims at developing children's thinking. In Britain, it is rather regarded as social and affective with the purpose of developing their confidence; - Teacher-learners interaction is often maintained over a sequence of several questionanswer exchanges. In Britain, they tend to be briefer, more random, and scattered;

- Questions are not only designed to 'elicit' right answers but serve other functions such as encouraging reasoning and assumptions with enough time given to students to think aloud. Subsequently, answers may be more conversational than in the British counterparts;

- Teacher feedback provides information and diagnosis. In British (and American) classrooms, feedback is seen as more honest as child's contribution is commonly praised regardless of its appropriateness or quality to motivate rather than discourage the child;

- Classroom talk culture is more public and confident requiring children to talk clearly and loudly. Children are also expected to listen and to be listened to. Meanwhile, committing mistakes in classrooms is regarded as intrinsic to learning and does not trigger shame and embarrassment.

In addition to the above-mentioned points, Alexander (2006) alludes to other aspects of teaching that lend support to classroom talk to secure and maintain learners' attention on task. These aspects include the layout of the classroom and learner organization, the structure and sequencing of lessons, the handling of time and pace, and the context of routines and rules. He goes further to add that teachers' use of language has a great impact on learners, who are in a position of modelling talk at its best.

3.2. The Native Speaker and Foreigner Talk

Before delving into the discussion of NS and NNS teachers, it is worth devoting a space to define the term 'native speaker' and 'foreigner talk'. They are two significant and interrelated terms that would contribute to the understanding of native/ non-native teacher talk topic.

3.2.1. Defining a Native Speaker

Being initially used by Bloomfield (1933), a native speaker refers to somebody who has spoken a certain language since his/ her early childhood (cited in McArthur, 1992). From another perspective, it is viewed as a person who has a subconscious knowledge of rules and inventiveness in language use; hence, he/ she masters the language without being able to articulate his/ her knowledge. Further, he/ she can create unlimited number of sentences which he/ she has never been exposed to before (Cook, 2008). Along the same line, Davies (2003) viewed native speakers as the main source of reference to be consulted by any L2 or FL learner. He describes them as:

People who have a special control over a language, insider knowledge about 'their', language. They are the models we appeal to for the truth about the language, they know what the language is ('yes, you can say that') and what the language isn't (No, that's not English, Japanese, Swahili...'). They are the stakeholders of the language; they control its maintenance and shape its direction.

(p.1)

For more clarification, Davies (2013) identifies six properties that distinguish a native speaker of the language from a non-native speaker. First of all, in line with Mc Arthur's (1992) definition, the acquisition of L1 for which he/ she is a native speaker takes place in the childhood. Secondly, the native speaker holds intuitions in terms of appropriateness and constructiveness about his/her "idiolectal" grammar. To elaborate on this, Brown (2008) describes an idiolect as somebody's personal language. Hence, an idiolectal grammar refers to the speaker's unique knowledge of grammatical rules and structures. Thirdly, when it comes to standard language grammar, the native speaker has intuitions about the features which are distinct from his/ her idiolectal grammar. Moreover, the native speaker shows a wide range of communicative

competence in terms of comprehension and production of the target language along with a unique capacity of creative writing. Finally, he/she has a unique capacity to translate into his/ her native language.

Davies' (2013) definition, however, seems to be conflicting with the "native" assumption stated above. According to Bloomfield (1933), somebody can be a "native" speaker because they were born using only English-and any variety of it. Hence, if the same person never learned a "standard" version of English, he/she would not be considered a "native" speaker. So, from Davies' standpoint, what is meant by "native" means to use a certain variety of a language, one that is valued and privileged.

3.2.2. The Concept of Foreigner Talk

"Foreigner talk", henceforth FT, is the term used by Ferguson (1971) to refer to the speech of native speakers of a language to non-native speakers. This talk is also similar in some ways to "baby talk" and defined as "a register of simplified speech ... used by speakers of a language to outsiders who are felt to have a very limited command of the language or knowledge of it at all" (cited in Long, 1980, p.25).

Ferguson (1975) reviewed the results of an indirect study of FT conducted in a class of sociolinguistics at Stanford university, USA. Students were assigned a task in which they were requested to rewrite English sentences that they would address to a group of illiterates, non-Europeans whose L1 is not English. He ended up with a list of features associated with English FT. In phonology, FT has slow rate of delivery, loudness, clear articulation, occasional addition of a vowel after a word final consonant, and fewer reduplicated forms. In lexis, there is an occasional use of words from other languages, and items are substituted by their synonyms or paraphrases. In syntax, three types of modifications are noticed: omission manifested in the deletion of articles,

copula, inflectional morphology, conjunctions, and subject pronouns; expansion which is exemplified by the addition of tags to questions (OK? YES? NO?) and the insertion of subject pronoun (you) before imperatives; replacement and rearrangement involving features such as forming negatives with no plus the negated item (no like), replacing subject with object pronouns (him go), converting possessive pronouns-plus-noun constructions to noun-plus-object pronoun (for my sister, sister me), and the choice of uninverted question forms (with deletion of the do auxiliary) (as cited in Long, p.26-27).

3.2. Foreign Language Teaching and the "Native-speakerism" Conundrum

Whether native speaking (NS) or non-native speaking (NNS) language teachers make better teachers is often viewed as an equivocal issue stimulating both scholarly attention and intense debate. Medgyes (1996), for instance, recognizes its complexity by highlighting the significant properties which characterize NS from NNS teachers; the fact which makes the choice between both types misleading, as Medgyes himself states: "what is a weakness on one side of the coin is an asset on the other" (p.39). Subsequently, two different poles come into being: (a) scholars who opted for an analysis of the teaching practice of non-native speaking teachers as their focal point to uncover the potential challenges and offer recommendations for a better pedagogy, and (b) those who believe that casting light on the teaching practice of native speaking teachers is of paramount importance due to its contribution to the improvement of teaching. The second pole, in turn, led to the birth of a new ideology in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) called "native-speakerism. What follows is an in-depth discussion of the concept before settling on the Native/ non-native teacher dichotomy.

3. 3.1. What is 'Native-speakerism'?

The term "native-Speakerism" is coined by Holliday (2005) to refer to an established philosophy within the field of English Language Teaching. Its proponents believe that the native-speaking teacher is a representation of a 'Western culture' from which stems the ideals of both the English language and its teaching methodology (as cited in Holliday 2006, 385).

One underlying theme of this ideology is the marginalization or, in Holliday's own words, "the othering" (2006) of students and teachers who do not belong to the English-speaking West; the claim which is either based on regional or religious cultural stereotypes. This sidelining takes place in contexts when both teachers and learners struggle with some specific types of active, collaborative, and self-directed 'learner-centered' teaching/learning techniques which have been regularly created and embraced as superior within the English-speaking west. Holliday also adds that scholars who have this native-speakerist standpoint use several derogatory terms to describe the 'non-native speaker cultures'. For instance, they would define individuals from a non-native speaking background as: 'dependent', 'hierarchical', 'collectivist', 'reticent', 'indirect', 'passive', 'docile', 'lacking in self-esteem', 'reluctant to challenge authority', 'easily dominated', 'undemocratic', 'traditional' and, 'uncritical and unthinking' (as cited in 2006, p. 385-386).

Likewise, Freudenstein (1991) supports the superior nature of native speakers stating that: "the native speaker should become the standard foreign-language teacher within the countries of the European Community. They know best what is important in the language teaching of tomorrow: the active and creative language use in everyday communication" (as cited in Philipson 1992, p.13)

Rivers (2017) challenges the view which puts the native speaking teacher in a higher position. Rather, he opted for a mutual relationship between native and non-native speaking

teachers since the existence of one group is contingent on the existence of the other. He also adds that even though the conceptualization of "native-speakerism" took place over a decade as a key concept in ELT, this ideology remains ambiguous or "shrouded in mystery with no consistent or conclusive pattern of motive-action-effect observable" (p. 76).

In the same vein, Philipson (1992) maintains that the native speaker is talented in several aspects. Thus, somebody who is teaching a certain language which is simultaneously his/ her L1 has three properties: fluency and appropriate idiomatic language use, inclusive knowledge of the cultural connotations of the language, and high competence in grammaticality judgement. Philipson (1992) believes that these assets are neither impervious to teacher training nor they are properties that cannot be acquired by well-trained non-natives.

Teachers, whatever popular adages say, are made rather than bora, many of them doubtless self-made, whether they are natives or non-natives. The insight that teachers have into language learning processes, and into the structure and usage of a language, and their capacity to analyze and explain language, definitely have to be learnt —which is not the same as saying that they have to be taught, though hopefully teaching can facilitate and foster these qualities. (p.14)

In addition to that, he believes that a native speaker who is not trained or qualified is regarded as a potential threat as familiarity with the structure of L1 is of paramount importance. To elaborate on this argument, he alludes to UNESCO monograph which overlooks the quality of being a native speaker as criterion to teach his or her language.

Moreover, Philipson (1992) mentions to the European foreign language teaching tradition which is less prejudiced. Unlike the native speakerist view, it describes the ideal teacher as somebody with near native-speaker proficiency in the foreign language and shares the same linguistic and cultural background of his/ her learners. He also contends that non-native speaking teachers who experiences the complex process of acquiring EFL/ESL and are aware of the linguistic and cultural requirements of their learners could be better qualified than native speakers. In this respect, having a first-hand experience of SL/FL language use makes non-native teachers well knowledgeable about the differences between the mother tongue and the target language; therefore, they are more likely to expect learners' difficulties. Eventually, he recommends experience and success in learning and using a SL/FL language along with a profound familiarity with the language and culture of the learners as the minimal requirement of EFL/ ESL teachers. Obviously, they could be those teachers who may or may not have English as their mother tongue.

3.3.2. Native vs. Non-Native Speaking Teacher Dichotomy

Medgyes (1996), among other scholars, stresses the importance of drawing a line between native and non-native speaking teachers due to its enormous contribution to the field of pedagogy. Based on his enquiry in the topic, he concludes: "I shall argue that the native/ non-native distinction not only exists, but that it plays a key role in determining the teaching practice of all teachers." (p.35).

Having discussed the characteristics of native speakers and the privilege they have over non-native speakers; would it be safe to put NS teachers in a better position than NNS teachers? Cook (2008), for instance, considers being a native speaker as a key to job opportunities since nonnative language teachers find it harder to get a permanent or full-time position in many universities around the world; even if they are hired, they are paid less than native speaking teachers. Therefore, she conducted a survey in many countries with the aim of eliciting students' perspectives towards native and non-native foreign language teachers. Based on her findings, she concludes that students' preference for native speaking teachers is essentially enormous in England (children gave 55% while adults gave 60% preference) compared to Taiwan (51%) and Belgium (33%). What follows is a discussion of NS Vs. NNS dichotomy backed up with conclusions drawn from empirical research (e.g., Medgyes, 1996; Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Cook, 2008).

Cook (2008) approves of the advantage shared by all native speakers, i.e., speaking the target language as L1; hence, the proficiency that foreign language learners are striving to achieve. She notes: "the native speaker can model the language the students are aiming at and can provide an instant authoritative answer to any language question. Their advantage is indeed the obvious one that they speak the language as a first language" (p.186). This claim, however, appears to be problematic as it represents a misconception of bi/multilingualism, as Grosjean (1989) notes, a bilingual is not two monolinguals in one. In other words, it is unrealistic and unfair to expect bi/multilinguals to use the target language in all the same ways and with the same proficiency as someone who has only used that target language (a monolingual).

Despite the stated privileges of the native speaking teachers, Cook (2008) herself does not agree with the fact that a native speaker is the best choice for teaching their native language. According to her, if both NSTs and NNSTs are given equal training opportunities, the only advantage that native speakers would have is their proficiency in the target language. She puts it:

In many instances, the expat native speaker is less trained than the local non-native teacher, or has been trained in an educational system with different values and goals; the local non-native speaker teacher knows the local circumstances and culture. Native speakers are not necessarily aware of the properties of their own language and are highly unlikely to be able to talk about its grammar coherently...Given equal training and local knowledge, the native speaker's advantage is their proficiency in their native language, no more, no less. (p.187)

Therefore, being a native speaker does not necessarily mean that he/she is a good teacher since the only gain is his/ her mastery of the target language. Conversely, there are qualities which are only idiosyncratic to the non-native speaker, mainly benefiting from local training, being acquainted with the local culture, and having the skill to talk about grammar of the target language.

Regarding the question of the target language mastery, Medgyes (1996) believes that NNSTs can imitate, but they would never attain the same proficiency level of NSTs.

The main reason why non-natives cannot turn into natives lies in the fact that they are, by their very nature, norm-dependent. Their use of English is but an imitation of some form of native use. Just as epigones never become genuine artists, non-native speakers can never be as creative and original as those whom they have learnt to copy. (p.34)

Likewise, Cook (2008) acknowledges being proficient in the target language as a substantial advantage associated with NSTs. That being said, this proficiency is likely to intimidate students who might consider it a perfection that is out of their reach. Eventually, they find it preferable to be taught by a "fallible" NNST whom they would consider a more achievable model. To delve into the drawbacks associated with NSTs, Medgyes (1996) offers a few points which are drawn from a comparative study of NSTs and NNSTs of English. First, although NSTs make perfect language models, they cannot act as learning models, simply because they are not learners of English in the sense that NNSTs are. Secondly, in acquiring the English language, NSTs have not adopted or employed any learning strategy; hence, they cannot teach learning strategies effectively as can NNSTs do. Thirdly, although NSTs are proficient users of the language, they cannot provide learners with more information about the language which NNSTs abundantly gained during their learning experience. Moreover, NSTs cannot expect learners' language problems; hence, they will

not be able to help their students to overcome language difficulties or avoid pitfalls. Alternatively, experiencing different difficulties during the learning process makes NNSTs more sensitive and empathetic to the needs and problems of learners. Finally, since NSTs are not proficient in their learners' mother tongue, they are deprived of a very effective vehicle of communication in L2 classes which can simplify the teaching/learning process in myriad ways (p.39-40).

Cook (2008) is another proponent of NNSTs as a more convenient source of knowledge; she puts forward different arguments to justify her position. First, the NNST who is a proficient L2 user is an opportunity for students to observe a model who uses the target language effectively; hence, this reassures them about the possibility of mastering a language which is not their native language. Second, NNSTs acquired the L2 differently from the students'; hence, it increases the L2 learners' confidence about mastering the target language the same way their teachers did. Third, by going through the same learning experience, NNSTs easily empathize with their students' learning challenges and problems. Finally, unlike the NST who could be considered as an outsider, NNSTs have more appropriate training, cultural background, and knowledge about the principles of the educational system.

In seeking to uncover the NST Vs. NNST conundrum, Arva & Medgyes (2000) opt for a comparative study of NSTs and NNSTs of secondary schools in Budapest, Hungary. A total number of ten teachers (five British and five Hungarian) were equally distributed with one nativenon-native pair to be observed and interviewed in each school. The difference between both groups is discussed in terms of the following points: competence in the target language, knowledge of grammar, competence in the local language, and other aspects of professional behavior. Initially, Arva & Medgyes' (2000) findings align with Cook (2008) in terms of NSTs competence and spontaneous use of the target language when compared to NNSTs. Besides, unlike NSTs grammar, NNSTs admitted having an in-depth knowledge of English structure and a metacognitive awareness about the functionality of the target language. Regarding teachers' competence in the local language, knowledge of L1 is considered as a great advantage to NNSTs as it facilitates the explanation of difficult concepts in L2. Apart from this, NNSTs were found to be stricter in terms of their professional behavior. On the contrary, NSTs are more permissive due to their casual attitude. They are also reluctant to assign homework and tests to their students.

Arva & Medgyes (2000) offered a more detailed discussion of the teaching behavior of both native and non-native speaking teachers with reference to the use of English, general attitude, attitude to language teaching, and attitudes to the teaching of culture. The points of divergence are summarized in table 3.3.

Table 3.3

The Difference between NESTs and NNESTs (Adopted from Arva & Medgyes, 2000, p.357)

NESTs	Non-NESTs
Own use of English	
Speak better English	Speak poorer English
Use real language	Use 'bookish' language
Use English more confidently	Use English less confidently
General attitude	
Adopt a more flexible approach	Adopt a more guided approach
Are more innovative	Are more cautious
Are less empathetic	Are more empathetic
Attend to perceived needs	Attend to real need
Have far-fetched expectations	Have realistic expectations
Are more casual	Are more strict
Are less committed	Are more committed
Attitude to teaching the language	
Are less insightful	Are more insightful
Focus on	Focus on
fluency	accuracy
meaning	form
language in use	grammar rules
oral skills	printed word
colloquial registers	formal registers
Teach items in context	Teach items in isolation
Prefer free activities	Prefer controlled activities
Favour groupwork/pairwork	Favour frontal work
Use a variety of materials	Use a single textbook
Tolerate errors	Correct/ punish for errors
Set fewer tests	Set more tests
Use no/less L1	Use more L1
Resort to no/less translation	Resort to more translation
Assign less homework	Assign more homework
Attitude to teaching culture	
Supply more cultural information	Supply less cultural information

Based on the pros and cons of both NSTs and NNSTs, prioritizing one type over another is impractical; instead, it is more astute to consider both categories as complementary. Medgyes (1996) elaborates on this point arguing that the concept of 'ideal teacher' should not be reserved for either category nor teacher's usefulness hinges upon whether he/ she is a native or a non-native speaker of English. Therefore, it would be more legitimate to adopt the belief that both types of teachers make an ideal teacher if certain conditions are met. A native English-speaking teacher is regarded as an ideal if he/she achieved a high degree of proficiency in the learners' mother tongue and an ideal non-native English speaking teacher is the one who has reached a near-native proficiency in English.

3.3.3. Students' Attitudes toward Native and Non-native Speaking Teachers

Different studies have been conducted in different contexts to delve more into the privileges and shortcomings of both native and non-native speaking teachers from the students' perspective. Lasagabaster & Sierra (2002), for instance, conducted a survey with seventy-six undergraduate students at the University of the Basque Country. Thirty-eight of the participants are enrolled in English studies, thirty-eight in other Philologies, and fifty-two among the total number had an experience with a NST at some stage. The participants responded to a questionnaire containing 5-point Likert scales enquiring about their preferences for either NSTs or NNSTs at primary, secondary, and university levels in terms of language aspects, attitudes, and assessment. Their findings indicate students' preference for NSTs over NNSTs at all levels with an increased preference for NSTs as the educational levels rise. The findings also reveal that this increase is more noticeable among the English studies respondents than the other philology respondents. Moreover, respondents who have had an experience with NSTs admitted their stronger preference for NSTs at the university level than those who have no prior experience with NSTs; however, no difference was recorded between both groups at the secondary and primary levels. Respecting language aspects, there was a strong preference for NSTs in the areas of pronunciation, speaking, vocabulary, culture, and civilization, and listening with less preference in reading. Conversely, regarding learning strategies and grammar, the preference shifted in the opposite direction towards NNSTs. Finally, there was a preference for NSTs in terms of the assessment of pronunciation,

speaking, and writing; neutral attitudes on reading and listening assessment; and to some extent negative attitudes towards NSTs on grammar assessment.

Walkinshaw & Oanh (2014) carried out a similar study with university students in Vietnam and Japan. 100 participants divided equally into two groups took part in a self- report questionnaire eliciting their attitudes towards learning English with either NESTs or NNESTs. The first group comprised 50 Vietnamese EFL learners at an upper-intermediate level at two different universities in Vietnam taught by NESTs and NNESTs. Likewise, the second group comprised 50 Japanese EFL students taking intermediate to advanced courses at a university in Japan and taught by NESTs and NNESTs. Different themes are highlighted in the study. First, students assume that getting language exposure from a NEST helps them improve their pronunciation since they will have the chance to imitate a native speaker. Second, they consider learning cultural aspects of the target language from a NEST as privilege which stimulates their motivation. That being said, respondents alluded to the potential cases of misunderstanding that might occur due to cultural differences between Japanese/ Vietnamese cultures and the target language culture. Therefore, learners from both groups find it easier to communicate with NNESTs due to their shared cultural background. Third, NNESTs are regarded as more adept in explaining difficult concepts due to their ability to use the L1 to facilitate the instruction for students with a low proficiency level in the target language. Despite these discrepancies, respondents are convinced that NESTs and NNESTs exist in a complementary relationship; thus, a blend of NESTs and NNESTs is the best way to learn a foreign language.

Lai Ping (2012) conducted an analogous study to explore students' perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of learning English from NESTs and NNESTs in secondary schools in Hong Kong. Unlike the previously cited studies, the researcher opted for a thematic analysis of

semi structured focus group interviews. To this end, 30 students were selected from volunteers belonging to four different classes of different English proficiency levels to take part in the study.

Data analysis reveals three core merits of NNESTs as perceived by students. The first privilege refers to their ability to use L1 in the classroom; a strategy that could be used to boost students' comprehension of the lesson and facilitate communication between students and teachers. The second benefit relates to their ability to understand students' difficulties and needs. The last privilege is linked to NNESTs ability to communicate effectively with learners compared to NESTs. That being said, respondents alluded to the three main weaknesses characterizing teachers who are NNESTs of the target language. The first drawback is linked to the errors that they make in pronunciation and grammar, which might have negative effects on language learning. Another drawback relates to their use of old fashioned and textbook-bound teaching styles. The last drawback is associated with NNESTs use of L1 inside the class; hence, a behavior which does not give enough opportunity for students to practice the target language.

In addition to the advantages of being taught by NNESTs, students acknowledge a few privileges associated with NESTs. First, like NNESTs, NESTs also can facilitate learning from another perspective by allowing learners to get exposed to an authentic language devoid of cases of codeswitching to L1. In such learning environment, students have no alternative as they feel compelled to communicate in the target language. Therefore, "the more English was used, the more effective and efficient learning was achieved" (Lai Ping, 2012, p.291). Secondly, as native speakers of the language, NESTs probably have a good proficiency in the target language signified mainly in effective and 'real' pronunciation as well as accurate grammar (p.292). Thirdly, NESTs have teaching styles different from NNESTs. For instance, they aspire to generate relaxed and

comfortable learning environments with more integration of activity approach and less reliance on textbooks.

Despite their proficiency in the target language and creativity in teaching styles, students allude to several shortcomings which sprung out from their learning experience with NESTs. The first challenge stems from the difficulty in understanding the lesson, which could be attributed either to NESTs complex vocabulary or the high speed in their talk. The second challenge is related to the cultural differences between students and the NEST which creates a communication barrier between the teacher and his/ her learners. The third challenge is probably the outcome of the first; it is about the psychological state that some students experience when being taught by a NEST such as anxiety about committing errors when speaking with NESTs. Last but not least, students feel that it is hard to establish a good relationship with a teacher from a different cultural background.

3.4. Native vs. Non-Native Teacher Talk

Kayaoğlu (2013) led a case study into classroom questions employed by a native and a non-native English-speaking teacher in Tukey. Classroom interaction was audio recorded, transcribed, and then analyzed according to the taxonomies of questions proposed by Long & Sato (1983) and Richards & Lockhart (1995) respectively. The results of the study reveal that both teachers employ different types of questions in their instruction to promote divergent thinking and develop higher cognitive processing. Regarding Richards & Lockhart (1995) taxonomy, the NNEST was not noticed to use procedural questions, but he/ she used more divergent questions than the NEST. Concerning Long & Sato's (1983) taxonomy, the researcher observed that while the NNEST employed referential questions much more than the NEST, the latter shows preference towards the use of display questions which elicit responses already known by the teacher.

Moreover, according to Long & Sato (1983) taxonomy, the researcher's results reveal the NNEST preference for the use of clarification requests and confirmation checks to encourage students paraphrase their wrong utterances. In the meantime, comprehension checks are used by the NEST at least three times more than the NNEST.

Torr (as cited in Gibbons, 2006) conducted a similar study including ESL primary classroom teachers from both native and non-native English speaking background; yet, his findings are quite different from Kayaoğlu in terms of teachers' use of display and referential questions. The non-English speaking background teachers tend to speak more frequently, contribute more to the construction of discourse, and ask fewer questions which mainly require display responses. By comparison, questions asked by teachers from an English-speaking background involve more illustration about how and why something occurs.

In addition to questioning strategies, there are few studies conducted on the treatment of students' errors by both NESTs and NNESTs. Inan (2012) carried out a comparative study on interactional features used by English teachers in Turkey and USA. To achieve this end, 40 students, one NEST and one NNEST participated in the study in the Turkish context. Similarly, 40 students, one NEST and one NNEST took part in the study in the American context. All the participating teachers are experienced, and classes include intermediate level learners of English. Reading-based classes were considered for audio-recording due to their stimulation of classroom conversations and discussions. The classes were audio-recoded, and then transcribed to identify the basic classroom interaction and corrective feedback patterns, scaffolding, and teacher echo techniques employed by the four observed teachers. The analysis of oral corrective feedback in terms of the strategies identified by Lyster & Ranta (1997), mainly explicit correction, recast, clarification, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition, reveals that NESTs are more

likely to tolerate errors committed by learners than NNESTs. Whereas NESTs have a tendency toward ignoring most of the grammatical mistakes and focusing only on pronunciation ones, NNESTs tend to correct most of learners' errors. In terms of scaffolding, both NESTs and NNESTs tend to repeat their questions to make them more comprehensible to learners. Moreover, NNESTs lean towards echoing students' utterances more than NESTs.

Mosbah (2007) led a similar comparative study within the Arab context; however, he focused exclusively on the treatment of oral errors by both NESTs and NNESTs across different courses. The study took place in a military school in Saudi Arabia with ten teachers divided into five native and five non-native speakers participated in the study. In addition to that, six teachers were interviewed, and sixty students were invited to respond to a questionnaire. Mosbah concludes that the choice of one type of corrective feedback rather than another is not determined by whether the teacher is a native speaker or a non-native speaker; rather, it is contingent on other factors. The research findings reveal that both NESTs and NNESTs do integrate all types of corrective feedback including elicitation, recasts, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback; however, NNESTs are more accuracy oriented and less tolerant of learners' errors. Furthermore, NESTs consider learners' cultures as well as course objectives and requirements as significant factors that should be considered in decision making about error treatment. NNESTs, on the other hand, consider tests/ exams as the factor which determines the way they deal with errors. In terms of the factors which determine the appropriate feedback to be used, Mosbah (2007) emphasizes three different aspects: pedagogical focus, time constraint, and the type of error. First, the pedagogic emphasis determines the choice of one type of feedback rather than another because of its effectiveness in that particular situation. For instance, whereas elicitation, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback are preferred when the focus is on accuracy, recasts are preferable when

the focus is on fluency as this avoids interrupting the flow of classroom communication. Secondly, teachers believe that under time pressure to finish a certain amount of work, it is desirable to use explicit correction than other types of feedback. Thirdly, the type of error is another relevant factor because some types of oral corrective feedback are more effective in correcting some errors than others.

3.5. Perspectives on AFL Teaching and Learning in the USA

Arabic is a Central Semitic and an Afro-asiatic language. It is spoken as a first language by more than 280 million people, who mostly live in the Middle East and Northern Africa (Chemami, 2011). In the Islamic world, it is fully respected and assigned a superior position as it is the code through which Quran was revealed to the prophet Muhammed PBUH.

The Arabic language has found itself in a critical position after the events that took place in the USA in 9/11. Allan (2004) assumes that, following this era, the vast region within which Arabic is used as a medium of communication turned to be of extreme interest and utility in the USA and the entire Western world. Along the same line, Edwards (2004) contends that 9/11 events had a great impact on increasing individuals' awareness of the importance of foreign languages and cultures "as necessary for national and homeland security" (p. 268). On that account, the post 9/11time frame witnessed an outstanding increase in Arabic classes at the tertiary level; for instance, enrollment in Arabic classes has astonishingly increased from 5,505 to 10,596 students between 1998 and 2002 surveys (Allen, 2004, p.275).

Considering these political circumstances and due to the status of Arabic as a language spoken in a region of enormous strategic and economic significance, Allen (2004) declares that the Arabic language instruction and learning have received great support from government agencies, which expressed their enthusiasm to provide funding for students willing to undertake the lengthy process of achieving professional competence in Arabic language. Therefore, as a field of study, Arabic has attracted many American learners.

In the post- 9/11 era and at least for the time being, Arabic seems destined to be the recipient of sufficient funding to become one of the primary languages of practical choice among American learners of foreign languages at the collegiate level. The U.S. government's current list of language priorities certainly corroborates such a prediction, even when other uncertainties remain. (Allen, 2004, p.276)

Subsequently, several institutions throughout the USA nation received an increasing number of enrollments in Arabic as part of larger program in Middle Eastern studies or Near Eastern Studies. These institutions include but not limited to: University of Arizona, University of California-Berkeley, Columbia University, Georgetown University, Harvard University, New York University, Princeton University, University of California at Los Angeles, University of Chicago, Indiana University, University of Michigan, Ohio State University, University of Pennsylvania, University of Utah, and University of Washington. (p.277)

With regards to teaching methodologies, Allen (2004) reports that Arabic instructors took part in "proficiency movement" since mid -1980s to renovate the curricular based on the skills prioritized by students. In their response to the surveys, students ranked the skills with a strong preference for speaking and reading, followed by listening, and finally writing as a less preferred skill. He draws attention to the fact that prioritizing the speaking skill over other skills puts instructors in a challenging situation as they are teaching a language which is practically diglossic. To put it another way, the Arabic language has two varieties: "colloquial Arabic" and "standard Arabic". The former is a register used in everyday speaking situations, whereas, the latter is used in printed materials, for schooling, or as a lingua franca among Arabs of different colloquial dialect regions. This problematic situation, eventually, creates a dilemma regarding the native speaker that could be considered as a better model of replication for AFL learners.

Allen (2004) addresses this issue in a flexible and innovative manner. He suggests a more practical model that is based on a native speaking instructor who can operate in different Arab dialects rather than adopting a model who masters a particular dialect of his/ her region based on the learners' choice.

I have come to believe that theory and practice can be best combined in adopting a new model for the teaching and learning of Arabic. Its "yardsticks' for establishing levels and learning goals for Arabic (especially at the higher levels) would be based on the behavior of native speakers of Arabic operating in a transregional, Arab world framework, rather than assuming the applicability of the same native-speaker model across the various subregions of the Arabicspeaking world and then asking learners to select one or more local dialect areas as their particular focus. (p.276)

It is worth noting that the increasing enrollment in Arabic classes engendered a situation where different types of instruction are involved in the context of higher education. In view of this, different principles were incorporated into curricular planning and classroom practice. Allen (2004, p.277) outlines the following three principles:

- *Course content*: The integration of new content practical areas such as public affairs, business, diplomacy, banking etc.
- 2- *Skill emphasis*: Emphasis is devoted to listening and speaking in the framework of the National Flagship Initiative.

3- *Teaching strategies*: A shift in focus to more communicative activities and greater skill integration.

Despite the existence of all these resources, American students usually encounter some difficulties during their experience in learning the Arabic language. The first challenge probably stems from the difference between Arabic and English in terms of the number of Alphabets: English language has 26 letters compared to 28 letters in the Arabic language. Another difficulty relates to the writing system itself. Arabic symbols are completely different from the English ones, and students are required to write from right to left which is the opposite in the English writing system. Additionally, English and Arabic belong to two entirely different language families, i.e., Germanic and Semitic, which makes it hard for students to find similar words; for instance, American students struggle to pronounce sounds which are typically Arabic, mainly **[S]**, **[B]**, and **[q]**.

3.6. Perspectives on EFL Teaching and Learning in Algeria

The linguistic situation in the Algerian context is quite intricate compared to the USA. Similar to some Maghreb countries, Algeria is considered as a multilingual society with a rich tapestry of different languages and dialects: Algerian Arabic is the code of everyday conversation, Amazigh (with its multiple varieties) used in some regions whose inhabitants belong to a Berber descent, Modern Standard Arabic used as the medium of instruction, French is taught as a second language at the third grade of the primary school, and English is taught as a foreign language at the first grade of middle school. According to Chemami (2011), this sociolinguistic situation demonstrates an offset between two groupings of languages: *Algerian Arabic* and *Tamazight* as the major languages with low status and *Literary Arabic, French*, and *English* as the enrollment languages with high status (p.232). This stratification is illustrated in the following figure.

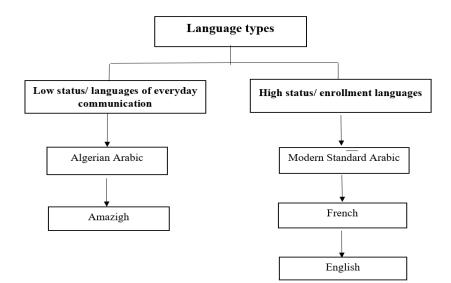


Figure 3.4. The Linguistic Situation in Algeria

In fact, the instruction of French as a second language has been always in constant competition with that of English. The latter, which was defined as the second foreign language in the beginning of the 1990s was given the name of the first foreign language after the 2000 school reform (Abdellatif, 2013). This policy stems from the increasing need for English to cope with the massive changes brought about by globalization such as the integration of international communication technologies and the transition toward the free economic market. Miliani (2000, p.13) addresses this fact in the following quotation:

In a situation where the French language has lost much of its ground in the sociocultural and educational environments of the country, the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills including economic, technological and education ones.

As a result, the government disclosed a great desire to promote the English language at the Algerian schools. This increasing enthusiasm is reinforced with the cooperation with the USA and

Canada; both were dedicated to support the educational reform policy in Algeria at the level of the design of textbooks, teacher training, and the introduction of new technologies (Chemami, 2011).

Recently, this policy of fostering the teaching of English has been revisited. It reached its peak considering the sociopolitical instability that took place in Algeria since 02/22/2019 and following the official speech delivered by the Minster of higher education calling for the promotion of English as a first foreign language. Since then, this decision has stirred up a hot debate among policy makers, educators, and even ordinary people. While some considered it as a wise choice which would push the Algerian university forward to meet the challenges of globalization since English is currently the preeminent language of science, the Algerian francophone elite, perceive it as an offense and an ad libing decision that would not make any change except for disturbing the educational system. Miliani (2000) has already addressed this issue by describing the promotion of the English language as a "systematic attack against French, and indirectly against the users of the language, accused of being members of a utopian Francophile party: *hizb franca*, the party of France" (p.21-22, italics in original). Miliani (2000) also criticized the adoption of English with the purpose of keeping pace with the current technological development as a "myth" to be shifted into a country where "pre-industrial mentalities are still dominant" (p.17).

English language teaching in the Algerian context has undergone several changes in its curricular since its introduction to finally settle on Competency-based Approach (CBA). The latter is not conspicuously new; rather, it was adapted from the Communicative Approach and shares its learning outcomes. In essence, CBA is based on the development of flexible and autonomous learning where the focus is no longer on knowing the language per see, but on the functions, it can serve in different contexts.

Competency-based learning can be acclaimed to be based on functional and interactional perspectives, it seeks to teach language in conjunction with social contexts in which it is used. Accordingly, there is a shift in the implementation of this approach, i.e., from what the learners know about the language to what they can do with it. (Marcellino, 2008, p.59-60)

Despite the practical outcomes that could be achieved from the application of this approach in teaching EFL, the reality totally contradicts with what is stated in theory. To put it another way, there are many factors which obstruct Algerian EFL teachers from achieving the objectives as dictated by CBA including overcrowded EFL classes, insufficient teacher training programs, lack of relevant teaching materials, and lastly dealing with learners who come to the class with an obedient mind and barely practice critical thinking. This slippage between theory and practice is manifested in EFL classes which are more teacher-centered than student-centered, where the "banking concept of education" (Freire, 2000) is prevailing. It is a pedagogy which refers to the asymmetrical relationship between the teacher and the learners, whereby the knowledge transmitted by the teacher to the learners is analogous to the deposits that one submits to the bank.

The more students work at storing the deposits entrusted to them, the less they develop the critical consciousness which would result from their intervention in the world as transformers of that world. The more completely they accept the passive role imposed on them, the more they tend simply to adapt to the world as it is and to the fragmented view of reality deposited in them. (Freire, 2000, p. 73)

It is this pedagogy of imposition that constrains human critical thinking. What is required is an alternative pedagogy that turns learners from passive to active agents who are not simply

128

there to accept what is imposed, but to interrogate, think critically, and come up with their own views. This is the way they learn to make an impact and change the world.

Conclusion

This chapter tackled different aspects of literature that are relevant to the study. This includes classroom cultural differences and the status of classroom talk across different cultures, the difference between native and non-native speaking teachers in terms of their instruction, the difference between native and non-native speaking teachers in terms of teacher talk, and lastly some perspectives on teaching AFL and EFL in the USA and Algeria, respectively.

From the students' perspective, the literature reveals the close association existing between students' cultural background and the way they perceive teaching. Hence, students' expectation of their teacher is contingent on their learning experiences. Another important conclusion that is deduced from the literature is the discrepancy that exists between native and non-native speaking teachers. Although it is hard to prioritize one type over the other, it is more realistic to admit their complementary relationship as stated by Medgyes himself: "what is a weakness on one side of the coin is an asset on the other" (1996, p.39). In addition to the difference between NSTs and NNSTs with regards to instruction in general, the study of classroom interaction reveals significant differences between native and non-native speaking teachers in terms of questioning techniques and the treatment of students' errors; yet, the generalization of these differences remains problematic and requires further research. Finally, the review of the literature demonstrates the constant improvement of EFL and AFL instruction, which justifies the increasing importance of both languages in today's globalized world.

Chapter Four: Analysis of EFL and AFL Classroom Recordings

Introduction

To address the posed research questions, the researcher opted for triangulation; hence, three data collection tools were employed: systematic classroom observation and recordings, questionnaires, and research interviews. Four teachers (2 native speaking and 2 non-native speaking) were observed and interviewed, and a questionnaire was administered to the students of the observed classes in both ENS, Constantine- Algeria and Wellesley College, Massachusetts-the USA.

This chapter is divided into three sections presenting the findings achieved from the four observed classes and their evaluation according to the research questions. In section one, the description and justification of the use of the ethnographic study as a methodological approach is discussed. This is proceeded by a description of the procedures of classroom observation and recordings, the social context and sampling, the choice of the corpus, and concludes with a description of the pilot study. Section two is devoted to a description of the implemented framework along with the different procedures followed in the process of data analysis. Section three discusses the findings obtained from the analysis of the audio-recordings of EFL classes of both native and non-native speaking teachers in parallel with AFL classes according to the modified version of Walsh's (2006) Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk Model. The following features are highlighted in the analysis: the amount of teacher talk, turn-taking, types of questions, wait-time strategy, and types of oral corrective feedback.

The analysis of classroom recordings is also carried out in relation to classroom events following Allen et al' s (1984) Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) classroom observation technique. Therefore, a descriptive account of the lessons is provided in terms of the type of classroom tasks, participating organization (group, pair, and individual work), classroom management, the general language focus of the activities, the prevailing type of classroom interaction, and teaching materials. It is worth noting that extracts from the data are included when the researcher feels that commenting on the findings is essential.

4.1. Ethnographic Study as a Methodological Approach

Due to the complexity of classroom research and the limitations linked to each method, the researcher opted for triangulation in terms of data sources and research methods. To this end, qualitative and quantitative research design including ethnographic observation, questionnaires and interviews is integrated. It is generally believed that the central tenet of the quantitative approach is to uncover people's beliefs and attitudes towards a particular phenomenon (Hammersley, 1992); conversely, the qualitative approach is concerned with describing the lives and interaction of people in their natural environments and from their own point of view (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). It is worth noting that the choice of the qualitative approach is also justified by its relevance to our context, as Walsh &Li (2019) put it: "we suggest that a more nuanced, qualitative approach to describing classroom discourse is needed to replace terms such as 'high' and 'low' teacher talk, or 'communicative' or 'uncommunicative' classrooms'' (p.488).

Ethnographic research is defined as a process-oriented approach to the investigation of interaction which involves "considerable training, continuous record keeping, extensive participatory involvement of the researcher in the classroom, and careful interpretation of the usually multifaceted data" (Chaudron, 1998, p.46). The process of data analysis in ethnographic research involves an exhaustive and in-depth description of the observed events as a strategy to support interpretation of the relevant social processes. Data are embodied in tape-recorded talk which is transcribed and then analyzed (Mercer, Littleton & Wegerif, 2009).

There are different characteristics that define Ethnographic observation. First, it is a *naturalistic* research method in the sense that the researcher has the chance to observe and study the phenomenon in "the field", i.e., where the subjects live and work (Hammersley& Atkinson, 2007). In this respect, the researcher is offered the opportunity "to observe and *to experience* events, behaviours, interactions and conversations that are the manifestations of society and culture in action" (Murchison, 2010, p. 12-13, italics in original). It is worth noting that the involvement of the researcher does not mean that he/she controls or intervenes in the phenomenon under investigation as it is the case with the experimental method; instead, his/her task is limited to observing and reporting only what he/she sees in the field (Nunan, 1992).

The second characteristic of ethnographic observation is the *longitudinal* nature of participant observation. It is a process which takes place over a long period of time, including several weeks, months, or even years (Nunan, 1992). This long-term study plays a dual role in the process of research. In addition to facilitating the task for the researcher to re-examine the research questions, it to make a friendlier relationship with the population under investigation. Mc Nabb (2010) justifies the aim of the longitudinal research as a tool to integrate the researcher in the target population. In this process which she called 'gain entry', the researcher is no longer regarded as an outsider. Rather, with his/ her integration in the group/ population, there is a natural unfolding of events and interrelationships as if the researcher is not in attendance (p.267).

The third characteristic of ethnographic research is its *holistic* nature. This means that the researcher takes into account the behavior of the observed individuals within a specific context as this has a considerable influence on the phenomenon under scrutiny (Nunan, 1992). Variables which define the context of interaction consist of the cultural aspects of participants' lives, their

biographies, and other demographic factors. These data could be obtained through surveys or observations.

Another characteristic of ethnographic research is its *exploratory* nature. Unlike experimental research, what is interesting about the ethnographic study is that researchers are not cognizant of the starting point of the observation or the sample that should be selected. Instead, all these aspects will develop during the research. Due to the absence of a static or comprehensive research design that is specified in advance, researchers tend to depend on *unstructured* data collection (Hammersley& Atkinson, 2007).

The last characteristic of ethnographic research pertains to the process of data collection and data analysis which is *inductive* in nature. Since researchers depend on unstructured data collection, the interpretation of a specific phenomenon rests on the analysis of video/audio recordings of classroom interaction. These recordings are represented into written transcripts, and then analyzed either from a sociological or a linguistic point of view. Sociologically speaking, the analysis of texts reflects the experience of subjects themselves. Linguistically speaking, the texts themselves are treated as the object of analysis (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005).

In his discussion of classroom research, Mehan (1979) outlines a few aims pertaining to what he called 'constitutive ethnography'. First, ethnographic studies aim for the retrievability of data through employing videotapes and films as data collection tools. In addition to the preservation of data in close to their original form, these techniques permit an extensive and constant inspection of materials. Second, ethnographic researchers seek comprehensive data treatment through conducting a comprehensive analysis of the entire corpus of materials. In this respect, videotapes are transcribed and analyzed to form the database for discussions of classroom

133

interaction. Third, ethnographers seek convergence between researchers' and participants' perspectives on events. In other words, they aim to guarantee that the structure and structuring of events as described by the researcher converge with that of the participants (p.22). This could be achieved through elicitation techniques i.e., questionnaires or interviews as a requisite to support ethnographic findings and to ensure the validity of the research.

One way in which "the psychological reality" of ethnographic findings has been tested has been by "elicitation frames". After, ethnographers have constructed a candidate version of some aspect of the group's culture, such as genealogical taxonomies, they ask group members questions about the phenomenon. If the group members' answers to the elicitation questions match the ethnographer's analysis, the ethnographers can have some confidence in the validity of their findings. (Mehan, 1979, P.22)

In addition to the above-mentioned aims, ethnographers adopt an interactional level of analysis in which the behavior displayed in the interaction between participants is considered as the primary source of data.

4.1.1. Classroom Observation and Recordings

Since the researcher's focus is on classroom interaction with a focus devoted to the features that characterize native and non-native speaking teacher talk, the researcher depended on classroom audio-recordings as the main source of data. The researcher has already conducted a similar research in the past and found it very efficient not only in terms of recording all details pertaining to teacher talk, but also the preservation of the data for a long period of time. The researcher also adopted an observation scheme based on COLT model to supplement the data obtained from the audio-recordings. Therefore, notes were taken on important aspects related to the different types of classroom tasks, participating organization, classroom management, the general language focus of activities, the prevailing type of classroom interaction, and the teaching materials used in the observed classes.

Classes were observed and recorded via a digital audio-recorder for eight sessions with each teacher and each level. Classroom observation and audio-recordings of Wellesley College teachers took place during the second semester of the academic year 2017-2018, which starts between February and April. In the American educational system, the duration of each class is 75 minutes. In ENS- Constantine, classroom observation and audio-recordings took place during the first semester of the academic year 2018-2019, which starts between November and December, for the native speaking teacher and the second semester, between January and February, for the non-native speaking teacher. In the Algerian educational system, the duration of each class is 90 minutes.

Walsh (2011) suggests different principles that should be considered when recording classroom interaction including ethical issues, the amount of data, sound quality, and the role of the observer. Firstly, for ethical considerations, it is recommended to get a written permission from all participants beforehand. In the case of young children, for instance, this involves getting the permission of their parents. Additionally, participants must be told about the purpose of recording, the way it will be used, and anonymity issues. In our case, the researcher took the consent of both teachers and students orally; she clearly stated the purpose of the recording in the first session and reassured the participants about the confidentiality of the data. Secondly, the amount of data needed depends partly on the purpose of the study, and partly on the way data are transcribed.

Walsh (2011) maintains that in case of a detailed transcription of data, it may be perfectly feasible to use only a few hours of recordings (p.69). In this research, eight classes were recorded with each teacher, but only one class was randomly selected for the transcription. Thirdly, in terms of sound quality, Walsh suggests a consideration of different factors when recording the class, such as the choice of the room, the use of carpets and curtains to help reduce "echo", positioning of equipment, and the number of recorders. Furthermore, he stresses the importance of bearing in mind the role of the observer and his/ her relation to the participants; he recommends the consideration of the following issues by the researcher: whether he/she is an outsider; whether he/she plays the role of another teacher; the extent to which his/ her status impacts the group dynamics; the sitting and his/ her role in the lesson; finally, possible bias or subjectivity that he/ she might encounter (p.70). In our case, the researcher placed a digital recorder on the desk close to the teacher and sat at the back of the class. Additionally, the researcher played merely the role of the observer who took notes without any participation in the lesson. In terms of sound quality, the good location of classrooms away from noise assisted in obtaining reliable and adequate recordings without the use of extra techniques.

4.1.2. Social Context and Sampling

This comparative study took place in two different contexts with two different pedagogical traditions: Algeria and the USA. The sample consists of four native and non-native speaking teachers in the Algerian and American contexts, who are teaching EFL and AFL respectively. This choice is maintained by the argument stating that ethnographic research does not set out to extend the sample to a wider population (LeCompte & Preissle, as cited in Walsh, 2006). To ensure a more representative sample, the corpus of the study includes eight lessons per teacher. It is worth noting that this native Vs. non-native speaking teacher comparative study conducted in two

different pedagogical traditions would provide us with different patterns of interaction which; hence, this would contribute to the enrichment of the corpus.

A convenience sampling was adopted including four participants: two NSTs and two NNSTs as the available sample for the researcher in both contexts. Some previous studies depended on the same sampling method, mainly Inan's (2012) comparative study of classroom interaction patterns of two native and two nonnative EFL teachers in both the Turkish and the American contexts. Likewise, Kayaoğlu (2013) conducted a similar research in the Turkish context comparing the contribution of a native and a non-native English-speaking teacher to classroom interaction through an analysis of the different types of questions.

In the USA context, Wellesley College, located in the state of Massachusetts, was selected for the enquiry. It is a women's only college specializes in liberal Arts. According to Niche website, the college has an enrollment of 2,347 undergraduate students and an acceptance rate of 28%, which makes admissions highly competitive. Popular majors include Economics, Biology, and Research and Experimental Psychology. Two classes of two different levels among four classes at the Department of Middle Eastern Studies were observed. The first class is 201 intermediate Arabic, i.e., second year students taking AFL. The class which meets twice a week is taught by a male, Moroccan teacher in his forties; he is a native speaker of the language and has an experience of 20 years in teaching AFL.

The second year class is composed of 12 female students aged between 18 and 20 years. Students are divided into American citizens or international students of Asian descent, who belong to different ethnic, cultural, and religious backgrounds. The most common declared majors of the students are psychology, philosophy, chemistry, political sciences, peace and justice studies, environmental science, religion, Middle Eastern studies, international relations, Education studies, and cognitive sciences. In a survey designed for AFL students as part of the teaching duties, the students declared that they are taking this class for the following reasons: as a requirement for their major, to pursue their studies abroad, due to their Arab descent/ Muslim origin which dictates on them to learn Arabic, or just for enjoyment and interest in Middle Eastern culture. While some students have already had an experience in studying Arabic at either primary, middle, or high school level, other students had a study abroad experience in learning Arabic in an Arab speaking country.

On the other hand, a class of first year students taking AFL was observed for the sake of comparison. The class which meets three times a week is taught by a male, American teacher in his thirties; he is a non-native speaker of the language and has an experience of 15 years in teaching AFL. The reason behind choosing two different levels stems from the fact that each of the two participants teaches two classes of the same level. Thus, the observation of both teachers requires considering two different levels.

First year class is composed of 15 female students aged between 18 and 20 years. They are divided into international students of Asian descent or American citizens who belong to different ethnic, cultural, and religious backgrounds. The most common declared majors of the students are psychology, philosophy, chemistry, political sciences, peace and justice studies, environmental science, religion, Middle Eastern studies, international relations, Education studies and cognitive sciences. They take this class of Arabic as a requirement for their major, to pursue their studies abroad, for enjoyment and interest in Middle Eastern culture, or due to their Arab descent. Students did not have a prior experience in taking Arabic.

In the Algerian context, two EFL teachers at the Department of English at ENS-Constantine, were observed. The first class consists of second year students taking an oral expression course. The class, which meets twice a week is taught by a female, American teacher in her fifties; she is the only native speaking teacher available to take part in the study. The NST came from the USA to Algeria on a one-year contract as a language fellow within a program sponsored by the Department of State. The participant has an experience of eleven years in EFL teaching combined with a substantial teaching experience overseas. The class comprises 30 students (28 females and 2 males) who joined the college to get a diploma in teaching EFL either at the middle school or the high school level. While middle school teachers are required to study four years, high school teachers are required to study five years as a requirement before graduation. All students are Algerians from different regions in the Eastern part of Algeria. Their ages range between 19 and 20 years with eight years of experience in EFL learning. All students are required to sit for an entrance exam prior to joining the college.

The native speaking teacher is compared with an Algerian non-native speaking teacher at the same college. In fact, the selection of the non-native speaking teacher was based on the classes and subject being taught by the native speaking teacher. That is why an equivalent second year class of Oral Expression taught by a non-native speaking teacher was selected. The participant is an Algerian female in her forties with ten years of experience in EFL teaching. The class comprises 30 students (26 females and 4 males) joined the college to get a diploma in teaching EFL either at the middle school or the high school level. While middle school teachers are required to study four years, high school teachers are required to study five years as a requirement before graduation. All students are Algerians from different regions in the Eastern part of Algeria. Their ages range between 19 and 20 years with eight years of experience in EFL learning. All students are required

to sit for an entrance exam prior to joining the college. Background information about the observed teachers is illustrated in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4

Participant	Gender	Age	Ethnic group	Mother tongue	Target language	Experience in teaching the target language
NAST	Male	40s	Moroccan	Arabic	Arabic	20 years
NNAST	Male	30s	American	English	Arabic	15 years
NEST	Female	50s	American	English	English	11 years
NNEST	Female	40s	Algerian	Arabic	English	10 years

Participants' Background Information

4.1.3. The Corpus

As previously mentioned, the research rests on a corpus selected from foreign language lessons taught by native and non- native speaking teachers in two colleges: ENS-Constantine in Algeria and Wellesley College in the USA. Table 4.5 and 4.6 summarize the total number of the observed lessons and the number of participating teachers in both contexts.

Table 4.5

Corpus Obtained from EFL Classes in Algeria

Teacher	Research-type	Sex	Students' year group Lesson type		Students' age	Number of observed lessons		
T1	Observation/ interview	F	2 nd year	Listening& speaking	19-20 years	08		
T2	Observation/ interview	F	2 nd year	Listening& speaking	19-20 years	08		

Table 4.6

Teacher	Research-type	Sex	Students' Year Group	Lesson type	Students' age	Number of Observed Lessons		
T1	Observation/ interview	F	101	Elementary Arabic	18-20 years	08		
T2	Observation/ interview	F	201	Intermediate Arabic	18-20 years	08		

Corpus Obtained from AFL Classes in the USA

As it is displayed in table 4.5 and 4.6, a total of 32 sessions were audio-recorded with the four observed teachers: 16 lessons (each 90 minutes) of EFL from ENS-Constantine and 16 lessons (each 70 minutes) of AFL from Wellesley College. Class sizes varied between 28 to 30 students in the Algerian context and between 12 to 15 students in the US context.

In terms of the corpus selected for analysis, the researcher consulted multiple resources. Additionally, the researcher engaged in a conversation on the topic with Dr. Darer, a senior lecturer of Spanish at Wellesley College, who conducted a similar research published in 1996 at the University of Florida. Based on the discussion, the researcher was advised to record different classes and to randomly select a sample of tapes to avoid any bias caused by our presence in the class. Respecting Seedhouse's (2004) view which considers five to ten lessons as reasonable database and based on Darer's advice, one audiotape for each teacher was selected randomly from the total number of lessons. The audio-recordings were transcribed manually using Express Scribe transcription software and then applied to comprehensive analysis following a modified version of Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) framework designed by Walsh (2006) (See Appendix 2). It should be noted that classes in both contexts are teacher-fronted which makes the SETT framework suitable for the study.

4.1.4. Data Reliability

Reliability is basically associated with repeatability and consistency of results within one or multiple occasions (Scott &Morrison, 2005). To attain reliability in this study, the researcher depended on a triangulated approach to data collection in attempt to scrutinize the features that contributes to effective teaching from multiple perspectives. Therefore, a pilot study was the starting point to test the effectiveness of the SETT instrument in our context. In fact, this gave the researcher the chance to revise, modify, and adjust the framework so that it matches with the research aim. Additionally, to ensure the reliability of teachers' interview, the same questions were directed to all respondents. Moreover, a pilot study was conducted with two volunteering teachers prior to framing the last version of the interview. This process drew the researcher's attention to important issues proposed by respondents, which were later integrated as new questions in the refined version. Finally, in view of refining students' questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted to check the intelligibility of questions and to eliminate irrelevant questions.

4.2. Data Analysis

4.2.1. The Choice of Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk Framework

To check the suitability of the SETT framework in the target context, the researcher reached out to its pioneer, Dr. Steve Walsh. Based on a personal communication which took place on March 31st, 2017, via email, Walsh welcomed the idea of implementing the framework at the tertiary level; he also suggested a modification of the instrument according to the researcher's context and students' level. Based on Walsh's remarks, the researcher decided to apply the framework with EFL and AFL teachers of first and second year university students. Additionally, as recommended by Walsh (2011), the framework is not compatible with interactions where

learners work independently from teachers; so, the chosen classes fit the research aim since they are teacher fronted.

4.2.2. Description of Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk Framework

The SETT framework was introduced in 2006 by Walsh. It was developed in collaboration with EFL teachers with the aim of fostering teacher progress through classroom interaction. Since then, it has been applied in a variety of contexts which are cited by Walsh (2011) as follows:

- Initial teacher education programmes for English and drama teachers (Walsh & Lowing 2008);

- A study for evaluating the value of classroom observation in the Middle East (Howard, 2010);
- CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) programmes around the world;
- A primary science classroom;

- Various secondary EFL contexts around the world;

- Two university classroom contexts;

- An Irish medium secondary classroom.

SETT was initially designed to assist teachers in describing interaction taking place in their classes and to develop an understanding of the interactional processes to improve the teaching/learning process. Eventually, any instructor will get acquainted with the essential skills to determine the kinds of features prevailing in their classes and the extent of their appropriacy to language learning, as Walsh (2011) notes: "The framework has been used extensively to promote awareness and understanding of the role of interaction in class-based learning and to help teachers promote their practice" (p.110).

In seeking to foster teachers' awareness of the paramount importance of classroom interaction, SETT instrument is designed with the following roles: providing a fair representation of the fluidity of the L2 classroom context; portraying the relationship between pedagogic goals and language use; acknowledging how meanings and actions are co-constructed through participants' interaction; and lastly facilitating the description of interactional features, especially of teacher language (Walsh, 2006, p.63). The original version of Walsh's SETT Model (Appendix 1) summarizes the interactional features and a description of each individual feature. As recommended by Walsh in 2017, the researcher opted for adopting a modified version of the instrument according to the context of the study (See Appendix 2).

4.2.3. Procedures of Data Analysis

The purpose of this study is to analyze and compare the spoken interaction taking place in NSTs and NNSTs classes in Algeria and the USA at the tertiary level. This analysis is conducted with the intention that a detailed comparative account of classroom interaction, with a focus on aspects of teachers talk, will contribute to a clear understanding of the current teaching/ learning situation in FL classrooms in two different pedagogical contexts. Likewise, it will raise teachers' awareness of the interactional features that either facilitate or hinder opportunities of language learning.

Before conducting the analysis, the researcher started with the coding/ transcription of data; it is an important tool for the representation of audio-recorded speech into written records, as suggested by Walsh (2011): "in the same way that photography sets out to provide a visual record of 'reality', a transcript offers a written record of a spoken interaction" (p.70). In this respect, two types of transcripts are identified: Broad transcripts which capture the essence of what is said and the words with their intended meaning, and narrow transcripts which include details such as stressed syllable, a pause, a rising intonation, and overlapping speech.

Indeed, there are substantial benefits associated with the use of audio-recordings as a tool to offer a full record of classroom interaction; yet, the representation of the data into written transcripts is challenging due to two main difficulties encountered by the researcher during the process of transcription. Getting an accurate work requires listening several times to catch all what is being said; the fact which makes the transcription of data arduous and time consuming. Another source of difficulty is found in the data itself. There are some parts of interaction which were not audible; sometimes there is an overlap between teachers and students talk or noise made by some students.

The following step is an examination of the classroom interactional features and their frequency according to the research questions. It should be noted that this comparative study of the interactional features is presented along with a consideration of classroom activities, classroom participating organization, language focus, teaching materials, and sitting arrangement as recorded by the observation sheets (See Appendix 2), as these parameters are likely to have an impact on the organization of classroom interaction.

4. 3. Research Findings of the Study

4.3.1. Description of Classroom Setting in the Algerian and the US Context

Since this study aims to compare and contrast teacher talk in two different contexts, it is important to offer a description of classroom setting in both contexts prior to the analysis of the lesson transcripts obtained from AFL and EFL classes of the native and the non-native speaking teachers. This description focuses on aspects such as classroom activities, classroom participating organization, language focus, teaching materials, and sitting arrangement.

In the American context, students were enrolled in 101 or 201 based on their prior knowledge in the target language. With 101 level, the teacher depended on a coursebook called "Al-Kitaab fii Ta'allum al-'Arabiyya with DVDs: A Textbook for Beginning Arabic" co-authored by Brustad, Al-Batal, and Al-Tonsi (2004). The core focus of the teacher was to get learners practice the target language through the integration of a variety of activities in the AFL class; they were mostly based on drilling, listening, speaking, and writing. In terms of participating organization, students contributed to the lesson by either working individually or in group. It is worth noting that these classes were teacher-centered, which could probably be justified by the elementary level of the students; hence, students were at a stage where they are supposed to receive a substantial amount of teacher input to help them acquire the target language gradually until they reach a level in which they can express themselves without difficulty. Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) was used as the medium of instruction with a constant codeswitching to English. The observed class was composed of 15 students with classroom interaction that was highly organized in terms of turn taking. Finally, the classroom was equipped with ICTs which facilitate the instruction of the different language skills, mainly listening.

The NAST who oversaw 201 level did not really depend on a specific coursebook; instead, his activities were highly tailored to students' needs and preferences. Accordingly, students were exposed to several activities ranging from poems, films, songs, documentaries, and extracts from the Holly Quran. In addition to the different language aspects presented according to the course objectives, the NAST strove to get the learners communicate effectively in the target language

through an extensive use of writing and translation activities provided at the end of every single class. Unlike 101 level, students at 201 level took part in classroom interaction, asked questions, and initiated debates. Both MSA and English were used as the medium of instruction. The class was composed of only 12 students, which makes it easier for the teacher to allocate turns equally between learners with less potential cases of overlapping talk. Finally, the classroom was equipped with ICTs, which contribute to the diversified nature of classroom activities.

In the Algerian context, the NNEST focused on activities which either trigger EFL learners' participation in the class by getting them to practice the target language or to help them improve their pronunciation through several activities based on phonetic transcription. In terms of participating organization, students were invited to take part in the activity either individually or in collaboration with other students although the former type was more prevailing than the latter. Hence, we can say that, like AFL classes of NNAST, EFL classes of NNEST were also teacher fronted with the teacher initiating the IRF pattern of interaction. Because the observed classes are overcrowded, there were some cases in which students were not well organized in terms of turn taking organization as much simultaneous talk between the teacher and students was taking place, and teacher's feedback was barely heard. Finally, the NNEST depended on traditional teaching material such as the board, the marker, and handouts relevant to the topic of the lesson without any integration of ICTs in the language class.

On the other hand, the NEST focused on activities which encourage students to communicate in the target language, think critically, and provide arguments to support their position. In terms of participating organization, the NEST classes were observed to be more student centered. To delve more into this topic, two types of activities were prevailing in these classes: giving presentations or taking part in a debate. Prior to giving a presentation, students were

requested to prepare a speech individually based on their preferences. During the day of the performance, the concerned student presented in front of the class while other students were divided into groups; each evaluates his/ her performance based on different criteria including but not limited to pronunciation, vocabulary, fluency, cohesion, volume, and body language. Remarkably, the NEST insisted on students to provide constructive rather than negative feedback; therefore, no undesirable comments were allowed during feedback provision. Meanwhile, the teacher spent time allocated to different groups' preparation to reassure the student who finished his/ her presentation about his/ her performance. The learning atmosphere was more friendly with peer feedback that made students feel at ease. Regarding debate activities, students were asked to listen to controversial topics, take notes, frame their arguments (pros and cons), and then discuss them in front of their teacher who assumed the role of a moderator of the debate. More specifically, while the students were discussing, the teacher was allocating turns and making sure that everybody was taking his/ her turn properly without others' interruption. The debate then ended up with students' final comments and their responses to teacher's questions regarding their general feelings about the activity. Finally, although the NEST used traditional teaching materials, she also integrated technology in her class to provide students with authentic language.

4.3.2. Analysis of the Native and the Non-native Speaking Teacher Talk in EFL and AFL Classes

4.3.2.1. Amount of Teacher Talk in EFL Classes

As displayed in Figure 4.5 and 4.6, the non-native English speaking teacher (NNEST) talk exceeds the native English speaking teacher (NEST) talk. The NEST has a tendency toward minimizing her teacher talking time (26,68%) and maximizing learner talking time (73.31%),

which could be attributed to her awareness of the paramount importance of maximizing learner talk (LT) at the expense of teacher talk (TT). Conversely, there is nearly the same amount of talk made by both the teacher (48.66%) and the learners (51.33%) in the NNEST class.

Table 4.7

Quantity of Teacher Talk (NEST& NNEST)

Teachers	T•	TT%	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L	LL	Total	LT%	Total (T+L)
NEST	91	26,68%	2	2	2	/	/	/	/	183	61	250	73.31%	341
NNEST	237	48.66%	6	1	2	5	1	10	17	124	84	250	51.33%	487

T°: number of turns

TT%: percentage of teacher talk

LT%: percentage of learner talk

L1: number of turns for learner 1

L: number of turns for unspecified learner

LL: number of turns for learners talking simultaneously

T+L: total number of turns of the teacher and learners

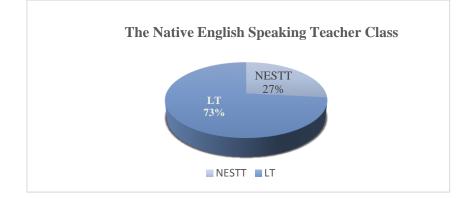


Figure 4.5. Quantity of the NEST Talk

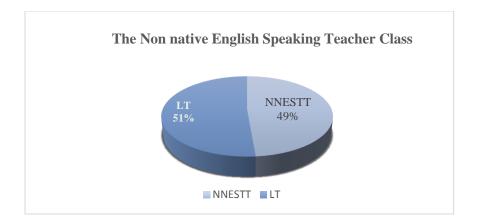


Figure 4.6. Quantity of the NNEST Talk

4.3.2.2. Amount of Teacher Talk in AFL Classes

As displayed in Figure 4.7 and 4.8, the results obtained from the analysis of classes of both the native Arabic speaking teacher (NAST) and the non-native Arabic speaking teacher (NNAST) do not match with the results achieved from EFL classes. The amount of both the NAST and the NNAST talk is almost equal to learner talk with very slight differences noticed in the NNAST classes. One possible interpretation for these findings is learners' level of proficiency. Unlike EFL classes where learners are considered to some extent advanced, AFL classes are either elementary (the case of the NNAST class) or intermediate (the case of the NAST class) which in turn explains an equal distribution of turns between teachers and students. To put it another way, AFL learners are in the process of developing their competence in the target language before getting a proficiency level that allows them to express themselves easily in the target language as it is the case with EFL learners.

Table 4.8

	T°	TT %	_	L 2													L	LL	Total	LT%	(T+L)
NAST class	116	49.78	8	2	8	2	8	2	1	1	6	6	3	1	1	3	54	9	115	50.21	231
NNAST class	246	51.78	2	1	3	8	1	4	3	2	3	/	/	/	/	/	68	134	229	48.21	475

Quantity of Teacher Talk (NAST & NNAST)

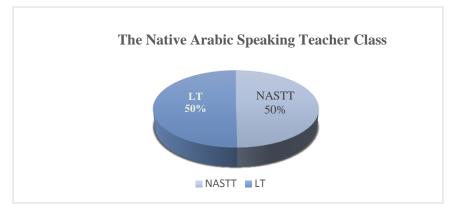


Figure 4.7. Quantity of the NAST Talk

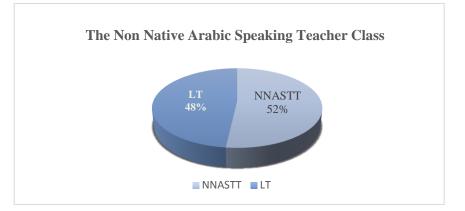


Figure 4.8. Quantity of the NNAST Talk

Having discussed the quantity of teacher and student talk in both EFL and AFL classes taught by native and non-native speaking teachers, what follows is a discussion of turn taking based on Walsh's (2006) model in terms of teacher interruption, extended teacher-turn, and turn completion.

4.3.2.3. Analysis of Turn-taking according to SETT Model

4. 3.2.3.1. Turn-taking and SLA in EFL Classes

Turn-taking in EFL classes is analyzed according to the three features as presented in Table 4.9 below: teacher's interruption, extended teacher-turn, and turn completion.

Table 4.9

Teacher Turn-taking and SLA in EFL classes (Walsh, 2006)

Features of TT	Teacher's interruption	Extended teacher-turn	Turn completion
NEST	01	02	01
NNEST	10	01	06

4.3.2.3.1.1. Teacher's interruptions

While there is only one case of NEST interruption in which the teacher's comment is related to the content of the debate, there are 10 cases of teacher's interruption which come as a reaction to overlapping talk between students, i.e., when one student is talking, and he/she got interrupted by another student. In this case, the teacher intervenes to cease up the overlap, to maintain order in the class, and to remind students about the rules of turn taking. Therefore, this could be considered as a regular practice that contributes to the organization of classroom interaction, to ensure the acquisition of the target language, and to avoid its obstruction. Excerpts 1 and 2 illustrate the first and the second case respectively.

Excerpt 1

378 L: coffee is not like drugs because it is a substance in nature. So we can't compare it with drugs drugs are harmful [caffeine is not as harmful as drugs]

379 Amani: [even coffee is harmful to the body it affects your body as well
380 T: stop stop stop okay can we agree coffee affects the body?

381 LL: yes

382 T: Coffee affects the body we're not going to do any more comparison of caffeine and drugs okay? caffeine is a drug we're done alright

383 L: full stop let's discuss another point

384 ((laughter))

385 T: okay next point next point please?

(NEST, 2nd year)

This extract is taken from a debate on the pros and cons of smart drugs. As, we notice in line 380, the NEST interruption is related to the content of the debate. This interruption came as a reaction to a disagreement on the part of students regarding the effects that coffee might have on human body and whether it could be considered as a drug. This interruption has the effect of establishing a common point of view that could be approved by all learners who are taking part in the debate prior to the discussion of another point.

Excerpt 2

264 T: so what should happen?

265 LL: free choice yes free choice

266 L1: okay use them as they cannot

267 LL: yes

268 L2: and since they are obvious

269 T: hush hush wait wait wait

270 L1: drugs are known for their bad reputation You can't take risk with that bad reputation we can't take risks

271 *((overlapping talk))*

272 T: okay ladies we're having trouble with turns. You have to take turns. She's talking, you don't talk, she's talking. You don't talk. Okay? You're taking turns so that everybody can be heard. Okay? We don't talk over each other. I know this is very hard for this culture.

273 ((laughter))

274 Alright? Please continue

(NEST, 2nd year)

Unlike excerpt 1 where teacher's interruption is related to the content of the debate, excerpt 2 represents one case among the ten cases spotted in the audio-recorded classes where teacher's interruption is linked to classroom management. This could be demonstrated in line 268 and 272 above when the NEST interrupted the students as a result of an overlapping talk, just to remind them about rules of turn taking.

Excerpt 3

413 T: What does it mean in terms of in terms of profits? Who is profiting from the other?

414 ((bidding))
415 Okay yes zebich
416 Zebich: I think they are using it like uh
417 T: you think that they are?
418 Zebich: they are using it they are they are
419 T: using Britain?
420 Zebich: yes that's why they don't want it to leave
421 T: they don't want it to leave good

(NNEST, 2nd year)

On the contrary, it is observed that the NNEST interruption is linked to the message itself. The NNEST teacher did not constantly give students the chance to make long turns; rather, students were interrupted from time to time while they were responding to teacher's questions. The overall comparison of both classes reveals that the NNEST enormous reliance on IRF cycle combined with an extensive students' interruption are more likely to result in the production of very short turns compared to the class of NEST. In Excerpt 3 above, for instance, the NNEST asked a question in line 413, yet the student got interrupted in line 417 before providing the full answer which resulted in a very short turn. It would be rather more effective if the students were given enough time to communicate their thoughts as it could be difficult for students to do both tasks: processing their answer and responding to the teacher at the same time. So, instead of interrupting the students to think about the ideas and deliver their answer. This, in turn, might have the effect of eliciting more information from students. This strategy will certainly facilitate rather than inhibit SLA since the pedagogical purpose is to get the learner to talk as much as possible in the target language. This would also contribute to reducing students' anxiety and raising their self confidence in using the target language, especially at the very beginning stages of learning.

4.3.2.3.1.2. Extended Teacher-turn

The analysis of data reveals two cases of NEST extended turn related to the discussion of the topic. Despite the existence of eight cases, they were not considered since they are related to classroom management, more specifically, to provide students with some instructions; hence, teacher's exhaustive explanation in this case is very expected. Meanwhile, data divulge an ample number of learners' extended turns in which learners are assigned enough time to express themselves without teacher's interruption compared to turns allocated to students of the NNEST, which could be regarded as simple responses to teacher's questions followed by teacher's feedback. The following extract illustrates a case of teacher extended turn in line 106 where the teacher elaborates on students' responses in turn 104 and 105, respectively.

Excerpt 4

103 T: thank you so what I'd like you to do is look at your notes, think about what you heard. Was it hard or easy to understand?

104 L1: somehow hard

105 L2: hard

106 T: so you said okay so you may say It was. It was super, super easy or thumbs up, sideways. I struggled a little bit, but it was okay. I really could not understand it at all until about halfway through when I started. Okay? So I managed to get through. I found it really easy or I didn't understand it all. Okay? All right. That's about where you need to be. Good. This is a good level. Now the challenge here is you're used to seeing the video.

107 LL: Yes.

(NEST, 2nd year)

On the other hand, the analysis of the NNEST classroom recordings discloses just one case

of extended teacher talk which is a concluding remark as illustrated in line 555 in excerpt 5 below.

All teacher turns are considered short compared to NEST which could probably be explained by

the fluency of the NEST and her control of the target language which is her mother tongue.

Excerpt 5

551 T: [ahah good good why are you saying yes? Do you agree with him? No?

552 ((silence))

553 YES Akram

554 Akram: yes actually I agree with him these countries in particular establish wealth by making connections inside and outside the uh EU that's why they won't to leave the union because they will make a lost more than they win (EI)

555 T: Yes. They will lose more than they win. Okay. and the British thing. Okay. Uh, at least the politicians and people who are for the Brexit they think that they will win. Okay. Um, maybe if, if they succeeded to exit on the 29th 29th of March we will see, otherwise there will be a transitional period or another referendum and it will not exit as soon as uh the I think that's the transition period is of two years [Okay and then we will see, so if they exit on the 29th, of March, maybe we'll have another debate. because it's, it's a very, soon it's less than one month or more?

556 LL:

557 T: It's more than one. one, two months. Maybe in two months. So maybe in two months we'd have the same debate and we would discuss whether it's good for them all. But yes. Okay. Thank you very much

(NNEST, 2nd year)

Overall, although the NEST turns are observed to be long due to her fluency in the target language, we can conclude that both the NEST and the NNEST have a tendency towards avoiding extended teacher turn; a feature which contributes to the facilitation of second language acquisition.

4.3.2.3.1.3. Turn Completion

Teachers usually resort to this strategy when a learner fails to proceed in his/her turn due to lack of information or his/ her inability to communicate his/ her thoughts because of language deficiency. In this case, the teacher intervenes to complete the student's turn by providing him/ her either with the missing information or the required vocabulary. There is only one case of turn completion which was noted in the NEST class, and it is illustrated in excerpt 6 below. The learner was unable to finish his/her turn in line 230 which could be deduced with the discourse marker "uh" twice. Subsequently, the teacher chose to complete this turn in line 231 before offering the floor to another student in line 232 to proceed with the debate.

Excerpt 6

229 T: another point?

230 L1:so we can say that we are responsible college students to make our uh [uh

231 T:

[to make your choice

232 L2: yes to make your decision uh and to make your choice too uh uh I and you and everyone here knows that human being might be into this state (.) all college students even twenty years old

they might come into this state this is a very serious issue. This is a drug you are inserting in your blood and it's something that [we can

233 L1: [that you

234 T: we have to wait we have to wait wait until she finishes her comment

(NEST, 2^{nd} year)

Similarly, there are three cases of turn completion marked in NNEST interaction, and they are also justified by the student's lack of vocabulary which prevents him/ her from voicing his/ her ideas. This could be illustrated in excerpt 7 when the student found a difficulty in retrieving the word "consult" in line 350, which is realized through the use of the discourse marker "uh". Subsequently, the teacher resorted to the strategy of completing the student's turn in line 531.

Excerpt 7

349 T: we cannot hear you would you speak up? we can't hear you from here

350 Stanbouli: it's I said it's about making decisions (.) the countries among this union they can't make any decisions by themselves [they need to uh uh uh [

351 T: [okay [consult okay

352 Stanbouli: consult yes other countries so the uh so the british systems they have the british systems they wanted to be independent

353 T: Okay. Okay. So they want to be independent and free.

(NNEST, 2nd year)

Although turn completion is proved to be among the features that obstruct SLA (Walsh, 2002), there is no remarkable difference that is worth noting in terms of the use of this feature by both the NEST and the NNEST. As it is illustrated in excerpt 6 and 7, the cases reported in both the NEST and the NNEST classes are employed due to one similar reason, which is students' lack of proficiency in the target language.

In addition to the three discussed features of turn-taking identified by Walsh (2006), namely teacher interruption, extended teacher-turn, and turn completion, an important observation sprung out from the data. This observation refers to the different cases of overlapping talk between the teacher and the students although their frequency of occurrence is different in both classes. While there are 19 cases of overlapping talk between the teacher and students in the NEST class, 38 cases of overlapping talk are observed in the NNEST. These findings lead us to conclude that although overlapping talk is permitted in both the NEST and the NNEST classes, the NNEST has a tendency towards tolerating overlapping talk more than the NEST. This could also be explained by the NNEST's insufficient awareness of rules of turn-taking and its contribution to improving the quality of EFL classroom interaction.

4. 3.2.3.2. Turn-taking and SLA in AFL Classes

Turn-taking in AFL classes is analyzed according to three interactional features as presented in Table 4.10 below: teacher's interruption, extended teacher-turn, and turn completion.

Table 4.10

Teacher Turn-taking and SLA in AFL classes (Walsh, 2006)

Features of TT	Teacher's interruption	Extended teacher-turn	Turn completion
NAST	00	17	00
NNAST	00	00	01

In both AFL classes, the traditional IRF sequence is observed to be the prevailing pattern of interaction. All classroom exchanges are characterized by teacher's initiation of talk by means of different questioning techniques, followed by students' response, and ended with teacher's feedback. Regarding the feature of extended teacher talk, the analysis of the NAST audiorecordings reveals 17 cases related to the content of the lesson and two cases which have were not considered as they are related to classroom procedures. These results do not align with the ones achieved from the NEST classes which could be attributed to two different reasons. First, unlike the class recorded with the NEST which could be considered to some extent advanced, the NAST class is still in the intermediate level; hence, students have not reached yet the required level to form long utterances in the target language as observed in the NEST class. Second, extended teacher turn could be justified by the NAST proficiency in the target language since it is his mother tongue along with his mastery of the discussed topics, mainly Sufism and Calligraphy. Regardless of these facts, this practice is not recommended as its overuse will immediately hinder the process of SLA. An instance of NAST extended turn is demonstrated in the following extract in turn 146. The activity revolved around the discussion of Sufism, mainly a poem written by Ibn Arabi.

Excerpt 9

147 T: and a book of? muShaf is just book

148 Emerson: oh a book of a a quran

149 T: no tricks then wa muṢħafu qurʔa: n okay? ?adi: nu bi di: ni al ħubi ?an tawadʒahat raka: ?ibuhu fa al ħubu di: ni wa ?i: ma: ni I follow the religion of love wherever its caravans head to or go towards fa al ħubu di: ni wa ?i: ma: ni for notice the fa again wherever that caravan goes I will follow it this is the explanation fa al ħubu di: ni wa ?i: ma: ni for love is my religion and my faith okay mumta: z tajib fa haðihi qasi: da li Ibn Arabi ?aj ?as?ila?

149 (0.3)

149 ?aj ?as?ila aw ?aj ?afka: r ?uxra?

149 (0.6)

149 fa haðihi qaṢi: da min al qarn al θa: ni ʕaſar θa: liθ ʕaſara qarn century qaṢi: da mina al qarn a θa: ni ʕaſar a θa: liθ ʕaſar wa haða: ſa: ʕir muslim jaqu: l haða: fa fi: raʔjjkuna ʔaj ſajʔ huna: k Ṣaʕb ʔaj ʔaſka: r saʕba? fi haða al waqt that period lajsa faqat fi al islam fi: ʔu: rupa ajḍan maʕa Jilane ʔataðakar maʕa Jilane maða ħaṢala li Jilane ah maða ħaṢala li: copernicus maða ħaṢala li kuli na: s fi: ʔuru: pa fi: haða: al waqt fa hal huna: k ʔaj ʔaſka: r huna ɣaṯi: ra dangerous ideas ʔaw rubama: kabi: ra ʔaſka: r kabi: ra bi nisba li di: n a di: n al orthodoxy a di: n a laði ʕinduhu kul ſajʔ lajsa huna: k taſki: r fi haða: al dʒa: nib da: ʔiman kul ſajʔ huna fa ma: hija al ʔaſka: r ʔalati: rubama tuzaʕziʕu a ſa: riʕ tuzaʕziʕ al fikr fi: haða al waqt ?

149 (0.4)

149 la? la: ʃaj??

149 (0.4)

149 lima: ða haða a naŞ muhim? lima: ða haða a naŞ muhim dzidan?

150 L: maybe crusades

151 T: nasam crusades nasam fa al ħuru: b a Ṣali: bijia crusades sa ta?ti fi: haða al waqt haða al waqt fi: hi al muslimu: n wa al masi: ħiju: n Muslims and Christians da: ?iman fi: ħarb

151 mm wa lakin Ibn Arabi (0.2) lajsa huna: k ħarb fi nas no war lajsa huna: k ħarb

(NAST, 201)

Conversely, classes of the NNAST reveal only 05 cases of teacher extended turn which are related to the content of the lesson. These cases are mainly used for the clarification of a grammatical point, the explanation of an in-class activity, or an assignment provided at the end of the session. Overall, like EFL classes, the NNAST turns are considered short compared to the NAST which could be explained by the fluency of the NAST and his control of the target language. Therefore, we can conclude that native speaking teachers in general tend to make extended turns compared to non-native speaking teachers due to their proficiency in the target language.

With respect to teacher interruption or turn completion, no cases were observed in both AFL classes which might have two different explanations. First, being in an elementary or intermediate class requires much time and efforts to reach a more advanced level as students are in the stage of grasping vocabulary and internalizing grammatical rules and structures of the target language prior to the production of long utterances. Second, it could be considered as a good sign revealing teachers' awareness and mastery of turn taking rules. To back up this claim, the analysis of data reveals that there are no cases of teacher interrupting students nor students' talk overlapping with teacher talk. Conversely, the analysis of EFL classes reveals numerous cases of students' interruption of teacher talk and other cases of the NNEST interruption of student talk or completion of students' turns, although this is not the case with the NEST who consistently reminds students

during the lesson about the rules of turn taking. This leads us to conclude that whereas the NEST is very stringent regarding turn-taking rules, the NNEST tends to be very tolerant in terms of overlapping talk.

Overall, it is worth noting that although extended teacher turn is considered among the interactional features that impede SLA (Walsh, 2002), it should also be considered as a constructive interactional feature when linked to classroom management due to its dual function. Firs, it serves in informing/ reminding students about classroom procedures to maintain order and to accomplish the desired aims accurately. Second, it offers students the chance to have enough exposure to the target language especially at the elementary or intermediate levels (cf., Nunan, 1989). That being said, teacher talk should be minimized during classroom discussion as much time has to be allocated to students talk.

In addition to the three discussed features of turn-taking identified by Walsh (2006), namely teacher interruptions, extended teacher-turn, and turn completion and unlike the results obtained from the NEST-NNEST classes regarding the tolerance of overlapping talk, the analysis of the NAST and the NNAST classes astoundingly divulges a total absence of overlapping talk between teachers and students. One possible interpretation of this finding is classroom culture in the American context compared to the Algerian one. To put it another way, there are certain conventions and procedures that students got used to and they tend to respect. Additionally, American students are likely to talk only when they are asked to do so by the teacher, and they are more likely to respect the rules of turn taking.

4.3.2.4. Questioning Strategies of Native and Non-Native Speaking Teachers

An inclusive analysis of data reveals that both native and non-native speaking teachers in both EFL and AFL classes employ several questioning strategies in their classroom oral discourse; although some types are likely to be used more frequently than others. The different types of questions and how they are used by the observed teachers is discussed below.

4.3.2.4.1. Questioning Strategies of Native and Non-Native Speaking Teachers in EFL Classes

Table 4.11

<i>Question Types</i>	in EFL	Classes:	Richard	& Lockhart	Classification	(1996)
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	Procedural Questions		Conv Quest	ergent tions	Diver Ques	0	Total
	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	
Native speaker	42	58.33	13	18.05	17	23.61	72
Non-native speaker	4	6.66	41	68.33	15	25	60

As demonstrated in Table 4.11, there is an extensive use of procedural questions (58.33%) by the NEST which could be justified by the role she assigns to herself in the class. As a mediator of classroom interaction, the NEST devotes much time to review classroom procedures since most of classroom talk and activities are done by learners. Besides, she is so strict about time allocated to classroom activities; hence, her consistent checking on students' accomplishment of these activities could be another justification for the increased number of this type of questions. On the other hand, procedural questions are rarely used by the NNEST (6.66%) when compared to the NEST. Moreover, while there is an almost equivalent use of divergent questions by both NEST and NNEST, the NNEST tends to employ more convergent questions than the NEST. This brings us to the conclusion that the NNEST focuses more on promoting vocabulary and aural skills and encouraging whole-class participation rather than engaging students in higher level thinking (Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

Generally speaking, the obtained results, to some extent, align with the findings of Kayaoğlu (2013) in the Turkish context, especially in terms of the integration of the first and the second type of questions. Kayaoğlu (2013) also concluded that the use of procedural questions by the NEST (30 %) exceeds that of the NNEST who has not employed any procedural question in his/her class in our context. Similarly, the NNEST uses more convergent questions (33.3%) than the NNEST (20%). In addition to these differences, what follows are the points of divergence between the NEST and the NNEST in terms of referential and display questions.

Table 4.12

	Referential Questions		Displa Quest		Total	
	Ν	%	Ν	%		
Native speaker	23	63.88	13	36.11	36	
Non-native speaker	22	44.89	27	55.10	49	

Question Types in EFL Classes: Walsh and Li's Classification (2016)

The results indicate that while the NEST uses more referential questions than the NNEST, the latter shows preference toward using display questions which elicit answers already known by the teacher. These findings confirm the fact that the NEST has a tendency towards promoting classroom discussion and debate by integrating questions that stimulate learners' productivity (Chaudron, 1988), whereas the NNEST gives priority to display questions since her main objective is to encourage meaningful classroom communication (Chaudron, 1988). In fact, these results are not analogous to the findings obtained by Kayaoğlu (2013); rather, they are completely the opposite as the NNEST uses more referential questions than the NEST and vice versa regarding

the use of display questions. This could be attributed to the interference of other factors, such as teachers' teaching philosophy, the lesson objectives, learners' level, and interest in contributing to the classroom discussion.

Table 4.13

Question Types in EFL Classes: Long & Sato's Classification (1983)

	Clarif Requ	fication ests		Confirmation Checks		rehension s	Total
	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	
Native speaker	1	1	12	12	87	87	100
Non-native speaker	21	36.20	25	43.10	12	20.68	58

As indicated in table 4.13, the most noticeable finding is the NEST extensive use of comprehension checks at least three times more than the NNEST. Meanwhile, the latter has a tendency toward using more clarification requests and confirmation checks as a strategy to encourage students to modify erroneous utterances (Kayaoğlu, 2013). On the contrary, the NEST rarely uses confirmation checks and totally neglects the use of clarification requests which justifies her tolerance of errors along with her strong focus on fluency rather than accuracy. These results align with the findings of Kayaoğlu (2013) vis-à-vis confirmation checks and comprehension checks, yet there is no resemblance regarding the use of clarification requests.

4.3.2.4.2. Questioning Strategies of the Native and the Non-Native Speaking Teachers in AFL Classes

Table 4.14

	Proce Ques	edural tions		Convergent Questions		rgent tions	Total
	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	
Native speaker	05	08.62	27	46.55	26	44.82	58
Non-native speaker	37	26.42	40	28.57	63	45	140

Question Types in AFL Classes: Richard & Lockhart's Classification (1996)

Although native and non-native speaking teachers of both EFL and AFL classes are alike in terms of the use of divergent questions, the results obtained from the analysis of AFL classroom recordings indicate that the NNAST uses more procedural questions than the NAST, which could be justified by two reasons: students' proficiency level and classroom activities. To put it another way, as beginners, students are still in the phase of processing the target language which dictates on teachers an extensive use of questions pertaining to classroom routines or management as a tool to follow their achievement inside the class. Besides, the NNAST focuses more on in-class activities; hence, an ample time is devoted to checking students' completion of their assignments, the intelligibility of instructions related to a particular task, and whether students are ready to proceed in the subsequent task. On the other hand, the NAST uses fewer procedural questions because much time is assigned to classroom discussion rather than classroom activities; a possible interpretation of this is AFL students' achievement of a certain level which allows them to communicate their thoughts and exchange ideas related to the different topics selected by the teacher.

Pertaining to the use of convergent questions, the results unpredictably contradict with the ones obtained from EFL classes; this could be explained by the NAST tendency towards encouraging whole class participation and promoting aural and vocabulary skills (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) rather than generating genuine classroom interaction.

Table 4.15

	Refer Ques	rential tions	Displ Ques	•	Total	
	Ν	%	Ν	%		
Native speaker	17	34.69	32	65.30	49	
Non-native speaker	18	18.75	78	81.25	96	

Question Types in AFL Classes: Walsh & Li's Classification (2016)

Similar to the findings obtained from EFL classes, the results show that referential questions are used by the NAST more than the NNAST, whereas display questions are preferred by the NNAST more than the NAST. These conclusions confirm the tendency of native speaking teachers towards promoting classroom discussion and debate and non-native speaking teachers' tendency towards encouraging meaningful classroom communication (Chaudron, 1988).

Table 4.16

Question Types in AFL Classes: Long & Sato's Classification (1983)

	Clari Requ	fication ests	Conf Cheo	firmation cks	Com Chec	Total	
	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%	
Native speaker	/	00	06	33.33	12	66.66	18
Non-native speaker	13	18.84	21	30.43	35	50.72	69

As displayed in table 4.16, there is a total neglect of the use of clarification requests by the NAST which is the same conclusion obtained from the analysis of EFL classes. Meanwhile, although there is no significant difference between the NAST and the NNAST in terms of the use of confirmation checks, the NAST use of comprehension checks exceeds that of the NNAST; a similar result which is obtained from EFL classes with a different frequency.

It should be noted that the overall analysis of data in both language classes reveals that while native EFL and AFL teachers tend to make a lot of intra-turn pauses, non-native speaking teachers of both EFL and AFL are more likely to repeat the same question more than one time as a strategy to elicit more answers from students. In the following excerpt taken from AFL classes, there is a repetition of the same question twice in line 315.

Excerpt 10

315 T: al handasa? al handasa? 315 hal jumkinuna ?an nadrus al handasa? fi wellesley? l la la **?ajna jumkinuna ?an nadrus al handasa? ?ajna?** 315 316 L : fi MIT 317 T: fi MIT wa man? man tadrus al handasa fi MIT? 317 (0.2)318 ((laughter)) 319 T: dira: sat al gender (0.2) wa ta: ri: x a ta: ri: x*man tadrus a ta: ri: x?* 319 320 L: ana 321 T: a ta: ri: x history a ta: ri: x322 Mika: ana: *323 T: anti mutaxasisa fi ta: ri: x?* 324 Mika: nasam 325 T: fi wellesley?

326 Mika: nafam

(NNAST,101 class)

Likewise, the NNEST is observed to have a similar attitude of a constant repetition of the same question to elicit more responses from learners. This is illustrated in the following excerpt in line 455 and 457.

Excerpt 11

454 L: I think the if Ireland decides to stay with the European union it will be the same except for the borders the pass and it would only remain with the goods with the trade

455 T: ahah so is sorry is Ireland part of Britain? (0.3) is Ireland part of Britain?

456 LL: No

457 T: no (0.8) we made a distinction between Britain and uh

457 Is Ireland part of Britain?

458 L: northern Britain Ireland is uh

459 T: it is northern Ireland we are not talking about southern Ireland is totally independent we are talking about northern Ireland

459 Is it part of Britain?

460 L: no

461 (0.4)

462 T: You have said that it's part of?

463 L: it's part of the united kingdom

464 T: it's part of UK it's part o:: f [UK what's the difference between UK and Britain? display

465 LL: [UK

(NNEST, 2nd year class)

One interesting and worth mentioning observation shared by both native speaking teachers of EFL and AFL is their frequent use of a new type of questions which is not cited in the literature. In addition to the different types of question previously discussed, there is another category of questions which is neither related to the content of the lesson nor to classroom procedures or meaning negotiation. It relates to questions which are employed by the Native speaking teachers with the aim of checking students' attitudes, point of view, or feeling toward a specific activity. Extract 12 and 13 illustrate this point in EFL and AFL classes, respectively.

Excerpt 12

138 T: Okay? You want a pair for pros and for cons or do you guys think that just your partner will tell you?

139 L: no no just a partner will tell me

140 T: special points just special points.

140 does everybody understand what are you doing?

141 LL: ((unintelligible))

142 T: Does everybody understand what are you doing?

143 LL: yes

144 T: okay

(NEST, 2nd year)

As illustrated in line 138, the NEST posed the question to make sure that the students feel comfortable with the groups they are making to accomplish the assigned task. After students' response, the teacher respected their choice and proceeded with asking confirmation checks in line140 and 142.

Excerpt 13

209 hal ?aħbabtuna haðihi al qaşi: da? ?aħbabtuna haðihi al qaşi: da? did you like this poem? 210 LL: na{am

211 T: ha:ða fa

212 ((*The teacher is preparing to display a number of pictures of calligraphy on the projector for students*))

213 fa hal nastați: § ?an naqra? ha: ða a naș?

214 ((*laughter*))

215 tajib fa ?ajna nabda? ?ajna al bida: ja?

216 L: oh

217 T: mina al jami: n ?ila al jasa: r? ?asla ?asfal?

218 L: a a jami: n 219 T: tajib huna 220 L: ?adi: nu 221 T: ?adi: nu ḍama 222 L: ?adi: nu

223 T: ?adi: nu bi di: ni al ħubi kasra ſada ?ana tawadʒahat raka: ?ibuhu wa huna al ħubu di: ni wa: ?i: ma: ni da: ?iman fi fi al ʒat al ʕarabi the calligraphy da: ʕiman huna: k ʒuṭuṭ kaθi: ra dʒidan wa muʒtalifa kaθi: ran wa lakin da: ?iman al qira: ?a tabda? mina al jami: n so the reading is gonna always start mina al jami: n wa ʕa: datan min fawq ?ila taħt lajsa min taħt ?ila fawq fa ʕa: datan mina al jami: ni right to left and if there is a choice between up and down it's gonna start from up to down so if you have a text like this and you need to decipher it that's usually where you need to start start from the right and usually towards the top a a ſa haða min naſs al qaṣi: da wa huna: ka al kaθi: r mina al ʒaṭ calligraphy a a li ſiʕr Ibn Arabi lajsa ſaqat haði hi al qaṣi: da not only this poem wa lakin ſiʕr kaθi: r li Ibn Arabi tajib al ?a: n natakalam ʕani a tardʒama ʕani al qur?a: n (NAST, 2nd year)

In excerpt 13 taken from the NAST class, the teacher asked the following question in

Arabic: "hal ?aħbabtuna haðihi al qaşi: da? ?aħbabtuna haðihi al qaşi: da?" translated as "did

you like this poem? did you like this poem?" followed by its English translation "did you like this

poem?". Its aim is to elicit expression of attitude or *feelings* of the *student* about the poem chosen

by the teacher.

4.3.2.5. Wait-Time Strategy of the Native and the Non-Native Speaking Teachers

Table 4.17

Wait-time Strategy of the Native and the Non-native Speaking Teachers

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	>7	Total
Teachers	second	seconds							
NEST	/	2	3	1	1	/	/	2	09
NAST	1	9	15	8	7	4	1	2	47
NNEST	2	4	4	2	3	1	2	4	22
NNAST	4	14	13	2	/	/	1	2	36

As displayed in Table 4.17, the NEST used less wait time compared to the NNEST. Despite this fact, the former is observed to make many intra or inter turn pauses to facilitate classroom communication and to simplify the provision of language input which will be internalized later by the learners; the feature which was not observed in the NNEST classes. Meanwhile, the small number of wait time observed in the NEST classes could be justified by the choice of debate as the main classroom activity. Therefore, turns have been already assigned to students and the teacher's role is restricted to mediating the interaction. To put it another way, the NNEST classroom is characterized by the IRF pattern of interaction throughout all the stages of the lecture where teacher's question is followed by learners' answer and eventually teacher's feedback; thus, it justifies the increased number of wait time that immediately follows the initiation stage. On the other side of the continuum, there is the NEST who strives to create a genuine classroom interaction in the form of a debate where turns are exchanged between students themselves, and the teacher's task is limited to an extensive use of instructions combined with guiding, assisting, and mediating the interaction. To back up these statements, the following two examples illustrate the difference between classroom interaction in both classes and the way the wait time strategy is planned.

Excerpt 14

476 T: new laws (.) go on new borders new laws? (0.5) what to do about immigration? Concerning Ireland and Britain? (0.5) is it the same problem? (0.9) What if there will be no Brexit? (0.7) What is there will be no Brexit on next next March?

477 (0.4)

478 L: ((unintelligible))

479 T: sorry?

480 L: maybe it will affect uh uh like right now uh Britain is still need the EU but they don't want to make this big decision so maybe it will be transition like that after

481 T: so there will be first a transitional period?

482 L: yes they can't make decisions right now

483 T: ok

(NNEST, 2nd year)

As illustrated in excerpt 14, the NNEST tends to rely heavily on IRF pattern of interaction

through asking several questions in line 476 with a repetition of the same question "What if there will be no Brexit?" twice. Remarkably, the teacher also devoted a wait time strategy ranging between (0.4) and (0.9) after posing each question in lines 476 and 477 respectively. Hence, it could be deduced that there is a close relationship between the implementation of the IRF sequence and the increased number of the wait time strategy.

Excerpt 15

222 T: Alright? Okay so I'm going to sit up here. I don't think I'll need to time you for the arguments however if you exceed the time recommended, I'll stop you. Okay?

221 LL: yes

222 T: alright So let's start with the pros

223 L1: okay good morning (0.2) uh today is a debate on the question that is like uh that concerns smart drugs and their use in the college uh we think as a group that uh the smart drugs outweigh the risks uh the benefits of the smart drugs outweigh the risks through three different points to make our arguments or points to uh maybe convince you maybe not.

224 L2: good morning everybody today we are going to talk about smart smart drugs and we are going to argue against these drugs

225 ((unintelligible))

226 ((laughter))

227 T: alright

227 who would like to continue?

228 L3: first of all the people who uh get or uh who take smart drugs are students in the college and they are adult people who have free choices but they have to know about the bad effects of these drugs so we can't allow these drugs

229 T: another point?

230 L4: so we can say that we are responsible college students to make our uh[uh

231 T:

[to make your choice

232 L5: yes to make your decision uh and to make your choice too uh uh I and you and everyone here knows that human being might be into this state (.) all college students even twenty years old they might come into this state this is a very serious issue. This is a drug you are inserting in your blood and it's something that [we can

233 L4: [that you teacher comment to avoid overlapping talk

234 T: we have to wait we have to wait wait until she finishes her comment

(NEST, 2nd year)

Unlike the NNEST, the NEST aspires to create an authentic classroom interaction with a minimum implementation of IRF cycle. She also refrains from creating a teacher-fronted class; rather, students are required to sit in a round table and asked to exchange arguments in favor or against a particular issue. In view of this, the teacher opted for assigning students different roles prior to initiating the debate which justifies the absence of wait-time strategy in the exchange.

Respecting Arabic classes, the case is entirely different. It was observed that the wait time strategy in the NAST classes exceeded that of the NNAST; one potential justification for this act is the type of the activity itself. More specifically, since the NNAST devoted the first part of the lesson to the activity of drilling, the use of wait time was eliminated as students were simply required to repeat after the teacher. On the contrary, the prevailing activity with the NAST was translation; so, the IRF sequence is the prevailing pattern of interaction in the class which also justifies the increased implementation of the wait time.

All in all, based on the observation of the four classes of both EFL and AFL, the researcher reached two important conclusions. First, learners' proficiency level is an important factor which should be considered by foreign language teachers when eliciting responses from their students regardless of the type of the question used. Therefore, the increased use of wait time by AFL language teachers compared to EFL teachers is just an observation which calls for a careful consideration of this strategy especially by teachers dealing with elementary or intermediate level students. Second, there is a mutual relationship between the prevalence of the IRF cycle and the increased number of wait time. Hence, the more authentic and discussion oriented is the language class, the less wait time is likely to be used by the language teacher.

4.3.2.6. Oral Corrective Feedback of Native and Non-Native Speaking Teachers

4.3.2.6.1. Types of Oral Corrective Feedback in EFL classes

Table 4.18

Types of Oral Corrective Feedback in EFL classes

Teachers	NEX	NEC	N	NCE		Т	EC	RC	MF	EL	REP
			Form	Content							
NEST	84	1	1	/	11	91.66%	1	/	/	/	/
NNEST	85	07	02	05	09	56.25%	06	/	/	1	1

NEX: number of exchanges

NEC: number of errors committed

NCE: number of corrected errors

NIE: number of ignored errors

T: tolerance

EC: Explicit correction

RC: Recasts

MF: metalinguistic feedback

EL: elicitation

REP: repetition

The analysis of EFL classes in terms of errors and their treatment divulges a discrepancy between the NEST and the NNEST. For instance, as shown in table 18, the NEST has a tendency towards a minimum use of oral corrective feedback; hence, she is more likely to tolerate learners' errors than the NNEST. To illustrate this point, among 84 as the total number of exchanges made in the NEST class, only one case of feedback on form shows up, and it is demonstrated in excerpt 16 below when a student encountered a difficulty in finding the word prescription in line 472 by uttering the word "prespection" instead. Although the NEST reacted in line 473 through employing the confirmation check "paracetamol?", the student's response was a repetition of the same error "prospection" in line 474 which is subsequently followed by an explicit correction in line 475.

Excerpt 16

460 T: ladies please everybody here is your friend and there's nothing you can say that will make that change okay? but please we need you to participate. Can you try just to say something? Any point? I know it's scary, but you just try any point

461 Wiam: there are some kinds of research that are carried on people doctors allow that people to use medicines why not smart drugs I don't know how to say it in English but paracetamol for instance doctors allow them why not smart drugs?

462 L1: can you give us an example

463 T: hush hush okay no please you are attacking her.

464 L1: miss I am just asking

465 T: I know. Next time you to the chair. Goodness Okay, one more time please Wiam

466 Wiam: I don't know any people consuming such drugs

467 ((unintelligible))

468 L2: But we are not sure about the effects of smart drugs

469 ((overlapping talk))

470 L3: everybody thought I was taking them it should be about the effects of smart drugs

471 ((laughter))

472 L3: Okay I have I have something that's the reason doctors are asking questions should we start using prespection prespection

473 T: Paracetamol?

474 L3: no the uh prospection

475 T: prescriptions

476 L3: yes prescriptions should we start prescriptions to for people to buy paracetamol it's not uh people in the past you can buy them anytime anywhere without a prescription but now they saw they have harmful effects now they are asking it's a question in in the medical field should we start using prescriptions for it too and as for the argument for uh families families using uh certain drugs those are illegal those are illegal if he they find out that you are have been using drugs in order to be stronger you are going to be punished and your reputation is gonna be affected throughout the entire life so we have to argue against smart drugs.

(NEST, 2^{nd} year)

Regarding the case of the NNEST, table 4.18 displays two cases of feedback on form and

five cases of feedback on content with 56.25% as a degree of tolerance. Therefore, the results

reveal that the NNEST is less likely to tolerate learners' errors compared to the NEST. Moreover,

the NNEST prefers *explicit correction*, followed by *elicitation* and *repetition* with a total neglect

of the other strategies. Excerpt 17 illustrates a case of teacher's feedback on form in line 518

through explicit correction strategy as a reaction to the error committed by Nashwa when she used

the word "theorical" instead of "theoretical".

Excerpt 17

513 T: ok do you think that Britain can face the EU alone? Alone?

514 L1: no

515 L2: no

516 T: no do you still have the same go on Nashwa

517 Nashwa: I think that before uh before leaving the European union first they make some studies and if does and if their study their study says that uh the situation it's just a theory and uh it's just

a theory uh and they are **theorical** [in theoretical they will not stay in the real uh the same challenge 518 T: [Theoretical]

(NNEST, 2nd year)

One thought-provoking observation deduced from our data is an instance of the NNEST's unsafety and uncertainty about the response of one of the students. To deal with this situation, the teacher resorted to the strategy of asking other learners to check the correctness of the provided answer in line 90 and 93. The right answer is confirmed in line 95 after students' agreement in line 94.

Excerpt 18

77 T: number one?
78 L1: yes
79 T: number one?
80 L1: stern stern
81 ((noise))
82 T: hush hush
83 L1: it's stern
84 T: ten or one?
85 L1: stern one one
86 T: what is it?
87 L1: stern
88 T: ten?
89 L1: <u>stern</u>
90 T: stern she is saying stern

91 ((noise))

92 T: hush hush

93 T: your friend is saying stern stern table?

94 LL: yes correct

- 95 T: okay or side table it's correct also
- 96 L1: shall I write stern table or side table?

97 T: as you like write side table Si::de ta:::ble that's it

8 *L2: nine* (NNEST, 2nd year)

4.3.2.2.4.2. Types of Oral Corrective Feedback in AFL Classes

Table 4.19

Types of Oral Corrective Feedback in AFL Classes

Teachers	NEX	NEC	N	CE	NIE	Т	EC	RC	MF	EL	REP
			Form	Content							
NAST	61	3	/	3	1	25 %	1	/	/	/	2
NNAST	83	11	6	5	1	8.33 %	1	/	/	2	8

As displayed in table 4.19, the results of the analysis of AFL classes in terms of the number of errors corrected lend weight to the results obtained from the audio-recorded data of EFL classes. One significant observation is probably the NAST tendency towards tolerating students' errors more than the NNAST. For instance, among 61 of the total number of exchanges made in the NAST class, the data divulge one case of ignored error and only three cases of errors corrected by implementing two different strategies *explicit correction* and *repetition* with 25% as the degree of tolerance. Meanwhile, there are 83 exchanges which took place in the NNAST class with one case of ignored error and 11 cases of corrected errors where the teacher employed a combination of three different strategies with a substantial dependence on the strategy of *repetition*. Compared to the NAST, the degree of tolerance in the NNAST classes is just 8.33 %.

In terms of the type of error corrected, the data show no significant discrepancy between the NAST and the NNAST vis-à-vis the focus on form or content; although the latter is noticed to consider both types of errors compared to the former who is likely to focus only on content.

Overall, based on the results of the four observed classes, it could be concluded that nativespeaking teachers are more likely to tolerate learners' errors than non-native speaking teachers; hence, these findings corroborate the conclusions achieved by Inan (2012) on his study of corrective feedback of native Vs. non-native English speaking teachers in the Turkish and American contexts.

Another important conclusion which could be inferred from the analysis of the four classes in both contexts and based on the five strategies of corrective feedback proposed by Lyster & Ranta (1997), *repetition* and *explicit correction* are observed to be the most employed strategies followed by *elicitation* which is only employed by the non-native speaking teachers. The results also indicate that the two strategies of *recast* and *metalinguistic feedback* are totally ignored by the native and non-native speaking teachers of both EFL and AFL.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings obtained from the analysis of lesson transcripts of AFL and EFL classes at Wellesley College, MA and ENS, Constantine, respectively. The analysis was conducted by adopting a modified version of Walsh (2006) SETT with a focus on the similarities and differences between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the amount of teacher talk along with other interactional features, including but not limited to turn taking organization, questioning strategies, and oral corrective feedback.

The analysis of the results in terms of the quantity of teacher talk vis a vis learner talk reveals that teachers occupy at least half of the amount of classroom discourse. It is the result that is verified by the prevalence of Initiation- Response-Feedback sequence of classroom interaction. Since the first and the third turns are held by teachers, the IRF cycle ensures the domination of classroom talk by the teacher; hence, it restricts learners' contribution.

Additionally, the analysis of the results reveals considerable differences between native and non-native speaking teachers regarding turn taking organization. NSTs were observed to use extended turns in the target language compared to NNSTs. This practice is attributed to the native speaking teachers' proficiency in the target language which is considered as their mother tongue.

Moreover, the findings divulge discrepancy between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of questioning behavior. More specifically, although there is an equal use of divergent questions by both NSTs and NNSTs, there are discrepancies with regards to the use of convergent, procedural, referential, and display questions between both categories. These differences also apply to meaning negotiation techniques, i.e., confirmation checks, comprehension checks, and clarification requests.

Finally, the results indicate noticeable differences between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the treatment of oral errors. So, whereas NSTs are more likely to tolerate learners' errors with their tendency to focus on fluency, NNSTs are more inclined toward ensuring students' accuracy through an extensive provision of oral corrective feedback. Considering the results obtained from the actual classes, the following chapter will delve more into the topic by addressing the features of teacher talk from the students' perspective throughout analyzing the findings obtained from students' questionnaires.

Chapter Five: Analysis of the Students' Questionnaire Findings Introduction

Following the previous chapter which discussed the findings obtained from the analysis of classroom audio-recordings, this chapter is devoted to the results achieved from the analysis of the students' questionnaires. As a subsidiary research tool, we assumed that designing and administering questionnaires to students who had a learning experience with both native and non-native speaking teachers in EFL and AFL classes would offer more insights about teacher talk and from the learners' perspective. In view of this, the chapter is divided into two sections. The first section is devoted to the description of the process of piloting, sampling, and administering the questionnaire. In addition to these procedures, the section covers an in-depth description of the different questions included in the questionnaire. The second section includes an analysis and discussion of the results achieved from the analysis of students' questionnaires. It should be noted that this analysis is conducted separately according to the two different categories of learners selected for the study: the responses achieved from survey designed to EFL students in Algeria followed by the responses obtained from the survey designed to AFL students.

5.1. Students' Questionnaire

5.1.1. Piloting the Questionnaire

The questionnaire is designed specifically for students who belong to the observed classes in both the Algerian and the American contexts, mainly those who have a prior or current experience with native speaking teachers (as described in chapter 4). In the Algerian context, the questionnaire was piloted to check intelligibility of the questions. To achieve this end, a link of the questionnaire was shared in a Facebook group called *"English Language Fellows Algeria Teacher's Group"*, which serves as a virtual community of practice. It is created by the American native speaking teacher at ENS-Constantine; it includes both teachers and students at ENS-Constantine as well as other EFL teachers and students who belong to different Algerian universities. This group was helpful because the students easily got access to the survey; they were just asked to click on the link that leads to the survey and provide their response to the questions. In addition to that, a word copy was uploaded on the group along with the researcher's contact information in case the students opted for the option of sending the questionnaire via email. The process of getting back students' responses to this pilot study did not take too much time as most of the students are active on social media. In fact, with the help of the native speaking participating teacher, the students immediately provided their answers right after posting the electronic copy of the questionnaire. It is worth noting that only second year students who were taking EFL classes at ENS- Constantine with the native speaking teacher were invited to take part in the pilot study.

5.1.2. Administration of the Questionnaire

After reviewing the questions, a new and modified version was designed and administered to get the required data for the study. The researcher opted for handing the survey to the students in class. To this end, the native speaking teacher with whom the study took place kindly offered to print the questionnaires and to devote enough time to students to answer them during her session. Besides, she promised to collect the questionnaires and to hand them back to the researcher when all the copies are received from the students. This was more convenient for the researcher especially since the administration of the questionnaires took place during the Holly month of Ramadan in 2019. A total of 30 second year students who are taking "speaking" class with the NEST took part in this survey. The researcher believes that this choice is more convenient because the selected students have a learning experience with both native and non-native speaking teachers; hence, their responses to the survey will be more valid and reliable.

The administration of the questionnaires to AFL students took place in parallel with that of EFL students. However, unlike the case of the questionnaires administered in the Algerian context where the researcher was residing and teaching, administering the questionnaires for Wellesley students was quite overwhelming, challenging, and time consuming. As mentioned previously, Wellesley students who were taking Arabic classes received the same questionnaire designed for EFL students of ENS- Constantine. The process of the administration of the questionnaires took place online. So, the researcher created a link to the survey on google forms and shared it with Wellesley College students in a Facebook group called "Overheard at Wellesley College". In addition to that, the researcher shared the survey with students with whom she had contact on messenger. Since not all-American students use social media, the researcher sent the link of the questionnaire on google forms to each individual student email address which was obtained from the instructors. Although the researcher kept insisting on students consistently to get their responses, the process of data collection took more than one month as students were extremely busy. It is worth noting that only first and second year students who were taking Arabic classes and had a prior experience with a native speaking teacher were invited to take part in the survey. Despite the above-mentioned challenges, the researcher managed to get the response of twentythree students (76.66 %). This could be considered as a representative sample given the few numbers of students who were taking AFL classes in a small department of Middle Eastern studies at Wellesley College.

5.1.3. Description of the Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire is divided into four different sections and comprises thirty-five questions; each section is devoted to one of the variables of the research topic. The same questions are included in the survey assigned to both EFL students of the English Department at ENS- Constantine and AFL students belonging to the Department of Middle Eastern Studies at Wellesley College, MA- USA.

The first section is about students' experience with NSTs and NNSTs, and it is composed of seven questions. Q1 is about the number of NSTs that students have had during their experience as foreign language learners. Q2 probes into students' perceptions about the aspect of language that could be best taught by NSTs along with their justification in Q3. In the same way, Q4 investigates students' perceptions about the aspect of language that could be best taught by NNSTs along with their justification in Q5. The question that follows (Q6) requires students to state whether they perceive any differences regarding the instruction of the target language by both NSTs and NNSTs. Next, they were invited to justify their answer in Q7. In addition to the difference between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of instruction, the respondents were invited to identify any differences between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the way they organize their talk in the language class in Q8. The last question (Q9) is devoted to the justification of students' response in the previous question.

The second section is titled "turn-taking organization in EFL/ESL classes", and it comprises fourteen questions. In Q10, students were asked to identify the percentage they would assign to the amount of their native speaking and non-native speaking teacher talk in the classroom. Based on the percentage that students provided in the previous question, students were asked in Q11 about their perceptions about the amount of teacher talk, i.e., whether it is too much or too little. Q12 elicits students' responses about their preferred turn taking strategy i.e., teacher's selection or self-selection, and then they were asked to decide about the strategy which they consider more appropriate in Q13. Following this question, students were asked to defend their answer in

Q15. Since the respondents have had a learning experience with both native and non-native speaking teachers, they were asked to decide in both cases whether their teachers tolerate simultaneous talk within the classroom in Q16. Following this question, students were asked to express their thoughts regarding overlapping talk in Q17. In Q18, students were asked about the best way of acquiring turn-taking rules, i.e., either implicitly or explicitly through their teacher's instruction. Q 19 is devoted to the respondents' views about rigid turn taking organization and whether it better contributes to L2 learning. Students were then asked to justify their answer in Q20. Following this question, students were enquired about their experience with NSTs and NNSTs in terms of expressing themselves freely (Q21) and teachers' interruption (Q22). In the last question of this section, students were invited to express their thoughts regarding teachers' interruption (Q23).

The third section is devoted to students' questioning behavior in the foreign language class, and it embraces three questions. In Q24, students were provided with ten different types of questions, and then asked to rank them according to their order of priority, i.e., from the most important to the least important. Following this point, students were asked about their reaction to teachers' questions in case of ambiguity in Q25. In response to the previous question, students were invited to share their preference in terms of teaching strategies which facilitate their understanding of teachers' questions in Q26.

The last section tackles oral corrective feedback as another aspect of teacher talk. Hence, it is composed of nine questions. Q27 explores students' perspectives regarding oral errors and whether students opt for their correction by the teacher or their peers. Following their reaction to this question, students were invited to justify their response in Q28. Q29 is meant solely for students who ticked the "yes" option Q27. Therefore, they were asked to identify among a list of

three options the type of error which is significant and requires correction (grammatical, phonological, or pragmatic). Q30 requires students to identify the corrective feedback strategy which they think is more effective, i.e., input-providing feedback or output-prompting feedback. Next, students who were in favor of input providing feedback were invited to identify the best strategy according to their preference in Q 31. Likewise. Students who opted for output-providing feedback were asked to identify their most preferred strategy in Q 32. In Q 33, students were inquired about their perceptions regarding peer-feedback by deciding whether it should be promoted by their EFL teachers. Subsequently, they were asked to justify their suggestions or comments that are pertinent to the discussion of the three different features previously discussed, i.e., turn-taking, questioning, and oral corrective feedback with reference to both NSTs and NNSTs.

5.2. Analysis of the Students' Questionnaire Findings

5.2.1. EFL Students' Questionnaires

Question 1: How many native-English speaking teachers have you had while learning English?

This questionnaire was designed for the observed class of 2nd year students taking *Listening and Speaking* course with the NEST. As revealed in Table 5.20, all the students had an experience with at least one NEST: 29 admitted that it is their first experience with a native English-speaking teacher, and only one reported that she has taken EFL classes with more than three EFL teachers. Therefore, students' responses will probably contribute to the analysis of NEST vs. NNEST talk in the Algerian context.

Table 5.20

Students' Experience with NESTs

Number of Years	One	Two	Three	More than three	Total
Frequency	29	0	0	1	30
Percentage	96,66%	0	0	3,34%	100%

Questions 2& 4: What do you think is the aspect of language that could be best taught by NESTs and NNESTs?

Since NESTs and NNESTs have different learning experience, the students were asked to select among the options the different language aspects which they believe could best be taught by both types of teachers. The results achieved from this question are summarized in Table 5.21 below. To facilitate the process of the analysis of the results in a comparative way, both responses pertaining to NESTs and NNESTs are displayed in one table. This strategy also justifies the combination of question 2 with question 4 and question 3 with question 5 in the analysis.

Table 5.21

Aspects of Language that could be best Taught by NESTs and NNESTs

Language Aspects	NEST (%)	NNEST (%)
Grammar	30%	70%
Vocabulary	56,66%	23,33%
Listening	30%	16,66%
Speaking & pronunciation	100%	3,33%
Reading	13,33%	50%
Writing	23,33%	43,33%
Literature	6,66%	50%
Civilization	13,33%	36,66%

As displayed in table 5.21, all the students believe that "speaking and pronunciation" (100%) is the best aspect of language that could be taught by a NEST followed by "vocabulary"

(56.66%), "grammar" and "listening" (30%), "writing" (23.33%), "reading" and "civilization" (13.33%), and lastly "literature" (6.66%). Meanwhile, students considered the NNEST as a good model in teaching grammar (70%), reading (50%), literature (50%), and writing (43.33%).

Question 3 & 5: justify your answer

In these two questions, the students were asked to justify their answer regarding language aspects that could be best taught by NESTs and NNESTs. Students who are in favor of a NESTs provided justifications which are either associated with native English speaking teachers' competence in the target language as their L1 or their prior learning experience with other NESTs; hence, they believed that NSTs have more knowledge about the language than other teachers from other linguistics background.

On the contrary, the students who preferred the NNESTs as the best source of knowledge in teaching grammar, reading, and writing assumed that NNESTs have spent their whole career studying these modules. As former EFL learners, NSTs have been through learning experiences like their students'; hence, they can expect learners' difficulties in these areas, and they could provide them with different learning strategies. One student states: "these aspects of language could be best taught by NNESTs since they may give students the best ways they followed to learn these aspects or the language itself". Regarding the effectiveness of teaching grammar by a NNEST, another student believes that "grammar is something that comes almost naturally for native speakers, while non-native speakers have to learn it, so I guess it's easier for somebody who actually learned it to teach it". Moreover, there is an interesting observation noted by one student who recommended the teaching of grammar and writing by the NNEST rather than other modules of pronunciation due to the varied linguistic background of Algerian EFL teachers, which makes them pronounce English differently; in this case, the NEST is a better alternative. With respect to students who favored a NNEST in instructing either "civilization" or "literature" course justified their position by the nature of these modules. As content- based modules, they require efforts and more research in the field rather than a NEST.

Question 6: Do you think that there are any differences between NESTs and NNESTs in the way they teach the target language?

The purpose of this question is to find out to what extent the respondents believe the NESTs to be different from NNESTs. The results show that 90 % of the students approved the divergence that exists between both types of teachers, whereas only 10% of them reported that there are no differences. These results confirm the fact that both NESTs and NNESTs use different strategies in teaching the target language, yet the question of which one makes a better teacher is blurred.

Table 5.22

Difference between NESTs and NNESTs in Teaching Ways

Options	Percentage
Yes	90%
No	10%
Total	100%

Question7: Justify your answer

In this question, the students who confirmed the difference between NESTs and NNESTs were asked to defend their answers. To back up their claim, the majority of students assumed that this divergence could be justified by NESTs' proficiency and their rich cultural background in the target language since it is their L1. This is not the case with NNESTs who have just studied it as a subject and are striving to reach a native-like proficiency. One of the respondents stated: *"NESTs*"

teach easily with more flexibility, but NNESTs may face some difficulties because it remains a foreign language for them too". Other students provided miscellaneous reasons summarized as follows:

- The NNEST needs to conduct research to make a difference, whereas the NEST can easily integrate innovative ways of teaching and he/she is more knowledgeable in the way information should be delivered.
- The mother tongue of the NNEST influences the way he/ she produces the target language.
- NESTs are talented in making the lesson more enjoyable through keeping a balance between humor and serious matters that may concern the lecture.

Although 90 % of students confirmed the difference existing between NESTs and NNESTs, 6.66 % of this number believed that it is not an absolute difference. According to one of the respondents, there are differences that exist between both groups; however, we cannot consider them as general differences based on whether the teacher is a native speaker of the target language or not; rather, they are nuances which are based more on the individual himself/herself.

Question 8: Do you think that there are any differences between NESTs and NNESTs in terms of the way they organize their talk in the language class?

Following the previous question which probes into students' perceptions of the difference between NESTs and NNESTs in general, question 8 is also a yes/ no question; yet it is more specific in the sense that it focuses on whether there are any differences between both types of teachers in terms of the features that characterize their talk. The results are displayed in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23

Options	Percentage		
Yes	53.34 %		
No	46.66 %		
Total	100%		

Difference between NESTs and NNESTs in terms of Talk Organization

Unlike the previous results, the results of this question reveal nearly an equal number of responses regarding "yes" or "no" responses. Whereas 53.33 % of students believed that there are differences between NESTs and NNESTs, 46.66 % of the students maintained that both types of teachers are equal in terms of turn-taking organization.

Question 9: justify your answer

53.33 % of students who approved the differences between NESTs and NNESTs in terms of the organization of their talk provided the following justifications:

- NESTs spontaneous talk Vs. NNSTs preparation to achieve an organized talk;
- NESTs maintain the organization of their talk easily, whereas NNESTs encounter difficulties in conveying their message due to scarcity in vocabulary;
- NESTs are more organized in the process of delivering knowledge. They also combine both pedagogy and psychology: they maintain students' concerns on their radar and consider students' decision in the way the lecture organization;
- NEST is quite tolerant than NNEST in terms of turn allocation. While the latter focuses on "bidding" as the only method, the former has a tendency towards using non-verbal language.
- NESTs are very good in improvising;

- NESTs ensure that all students are grasping knowledge through a careful selection of words and slow speech.

Question 10: What percentage would you give to the amount of your teacher talk in the classroom?

The aim of this question is to compare the amount of talk of both NESTs and NNESTs from the students' perspective. Thus, students were asked to choose one option according to the percentage which they believe would represent the amount of their teacher talk.

Table 5.24

Amount of NESTs and NNESTs Talk

Percentage	20%	40%	60%	80%	100%
NEST	0%	3,34%	30%	36,66%	30%
NNEST	6,66%	6,66%	50%	33,33%	3,33%

As displayed in table 5.24, the amount of NEST falls between 60% and 100%, whereas the NNEST talk falls between 60% and 80%. Therefore, the results reveal that there is no significant difference between NESTs and NNESTs in terms of the amount of their talk since the majority of students believe that both teachers' talk exceeds 50 percent of the total amount of classroom talk.

Question 11: Would you consider it too little or too much? Justify your answer in both cases.

Although very few numbers of students responded to this question, their overall justifications confirm their awareness of the amount of classroom talk that is planned in a way in which students are given more chance to talk than the teacher. There are some students considered 60% as the average amount of talk for both NESTs and NNESTs; this is reported by one of the respondents as follows: *"It is balanced since both students and teacher have the chance to speak*

and express their ideas". Another student added "it's ok since both teachers give us time to talk and they talk to explain or guide us".

Other students criticized the amount of NESTs talk which is equal to 80 % as unsuitable; according to them, much time should be devoted to students. One respondent justified this position as follows: *"I think teachers should give students the opportunity to talk and participate in classes so that they become more efficient and responsible*". On the contrary, there are some students who considered 80 % as a logical one, especially for NESTs. They provided two main reasons which justify NESTs dominance of classroom talk. First, native speakers unconsciously engage in an extensive talk because English is their mother tongue. Second, native speakers feel the need to talk more in order to clarify ambiguous points as part of classroom instruction.

Moreover, there are other students who reported their dissatisfaction about a percentage which is equal to 60 % for a NEST and 80 % for a NNEST; however, they acknowledged that this is out of the teachers' control especially when students are not motivated to speak. A student raised this point in an interesting way stating: "*I consider it too much, but I believe that it's not the teachers' fault since most students refuse to talk, so the teachers end up feeling forced to fill the void*".

Question 12: While your teacher asks a question, do you: Self -select or wait your turn to be allocated by your teacher?

As indicated in table 5.25 below, above half of the respondents (60%) expressed their appreciation of the "self-select" strategy as a more appropriate one; however, only 36,66% of the students reported their preference of "the wait my turn" strategy. These results explain students' tendency to express themselves freely rather than being constrained by their teachers.

Table 5.25

Strategies	Percentage
Self-select	60%
Wait my turn	36,64%
Unanswered	3,36%
Total	100%

Students' Preferred Turn Allocation Strategies

Question 13: Which strategy would you consider more appropriate? Justify your answer

Although not all the students were able to answer this question, those who opted for the self-select strategy provided multiple reasons to back up their claim. Most of the justifications revolve around students' comfort when they are in a position of self-selecting their turn as stated below:

- Learners feel at ease as volunteers rather than being forced by the teacher;

- Self- select strategy offers students more freedom to speak without any pressure from the teacher;

- It is a safe zone for students who have nothing to say;

- It gives them the freedom to deliver their answer immediately without waiting for turn allocation;

- It urges the student to get ready at any moment; hence he/ she expresses to his/her teacher that she/he is focused;

- It eliminates any feeling of panic to answer or speak fluently and assures students' confidence in their performance.

Conversely, those who went for "wait your turn to be allocated by your teacher" strategy represent 36.66% of the respondents. For them, it is preferable for EFL teachers to allocate turns due to several reasons related to classroom management which are as follows:

- The teacher plays the role of a guide and students always need to be oriented;
- This strategy contributes to an organized class where all students have the chance to speak and take part in classroom interaction;
- There are some introvert students who need the teacher to push them to answer and share their opinion;
- It gives the student more time to think about and organize his/her response.

In addition to these perspectives, there is one respondent who considered neither of the two strategies appropriate as this depends on the type of the question itself. She states: "*I think the appropriate strategy should depend on the kind of the question whether the teacher has mentioned the information before and whether the student knows the answer or not*".

Question 14: When allocating turns, which strategy would you prefer your teacher to use?

Although students prefer to select their own turns, there are situations where they feel obliged to follow turn taking rules dictated on them by the teacher. In view of that, we designed this question to get the learners express their preferences in terms of the most effective strategy that should be used by EFL teachers when assigning turns within the classroom. The results are summarized in table 5.26.

Table 5.26

Strategies	Percentage	
Calling on Students' name	76,66%	
Non-verbal language	6,66%	
Eye-gazing	23,33%	

Preferred Strategies of Turn Allocation

Regarding the way turns are allocated to learners, most of the respondents (76.66%) were convinced that they would be more comfortable when teachers call on their names. Yet, only a small number of students (23.33%) opted for eye-gazing technique. The results reveal that identifying a student through his/her identity to assign him/ her the turn in the EFL class has a considerable impact in raising his/her self-esteem.

Question 15: Please justify your answer

Following the previous question, students were requested to justify the choice of one strategy rather than another. Respondents who preferred calling on their names as a turn allocation strategy explained their position by the positive psychological effects this strategy would have on their personality. More specifically, calling on students' names justifies the teacher's recognition of his/ her students as pointed out by student 1 and 2 below:

Student1: "This makes me feel that at least my teacher knows my name"

Student2: "This helps the student to be more comfortable and does not feel that she is neglected".

Students also reported that calling on their name is the appropriate formal strategy which eventually contributes to raising their comfort level, self-esteem, and confidence compared to the other two strategies which are to some extent offensive. Student 3 expresses this idea as follows: "the student will feel a bit released from stress, i.e., he will think that his teacher knows him. That is good to increase his self-confidence too". Likewise, student 4 states: "calling on your name sounds preferable since it gives you kind of serenity and self-esteem". Along the same line, student 5 adds: "I think it's respectful and direct. It's better than eye-gazing pressure or pointing fingers"

In addition to the effects that this strategy would have on students' psychological state, it also contributes to building a good relationship between the teacher and his/ her students as reported by one student: "*calling on my name makes me more comfortable, the teacher puts me at ease which makes me feel that she is responsible and not 'indifferent'*".

While most students were in favor of the first strategy which shows them a recognition on the part of their teachers, others, mainly shy students, opted for "non-verbal language" or "eye gazing" which puts them in a safe zone and sustains their self-confidence. One respondent who is in favor of this strategy maintains: "eye-gazing is better for some students who don't like to be called in public because they are shy, so with this strategy, the student could see that to the teacher pointed to him without any embarrassment".

Question 16: Does your teacher tolerate overlapping/ simultaneous talk within the classroom?

The aim of this question is to compare NESTs and NNESTs in terms of their tolerance of overlapping/ simultaneous talk from the students' perspective. The results of the analysis are displayed in table 5.27.

Table 5.27

Options	Yes	No	Total
NEST	58,62%	41,38%	100 %
NNEST	24,13%	75,87%	100 %

Teachers' Tolerance of Overlapping Talk

Contrary to the findings obtained from the analysis of EFL classroom recordings, students perceive the NESTs to have more tolerant behavior towards overlapping talk than the NNESTs.

Question 17: What are your thoughts about the tolerance of overlapping talk?

Students perceived overlapping talk as a practice which has positive outcomes, which are mainly linked to: *promoting students' participation in the classroom, increasing their comfort level, and encouraging them to express their ideas freely.*

Conversely, some students denied its suitability arguing that the primary aim of the language teacher is to maintain an organized class where turns are systematically allocated to students; hence, engaging in an overlapping talk could be considered as a disrespectful act to the teacher, and teachers' tolerance could be viewed as a sign of irresponsibility. There is another student who rejected its applicability as it disturbs students who are holding the floor.

There are other students who preferred a moderate view regarding the practice of overlapping talk. They associated its appropriateness with nature of the subject itself, teachers' personality, or students' need to engage in overlapping talk. The last point is expressed by one of the respondents as follows: "*I think simultaneous talk within classroom should be tolerated but within limits by considering students' need, because they sometimes need to discuss things between them*".

Question 18: Regarding turn-taking rules, do you think that it is your teacher's duty to overtly inform you about them or you can implicitly acquire them within the classroom?

Table 5.28

Options	· •	Implicit acquisition of turn-taking rules	Both	Total
Percentage	56 %	36%	8%	100%

Students' Perceptions about Learning Turn-taking Rules

The majority of students (56 %) are convinced that it is the teachers' duty to inform them about turn-taking rules, which offers them a sense of responsibility about how they are expected to behave in the classroom. This point is expressed by one of the students in the following quotation: "*I feel it is the teacher's duty because it always feels good to know what exactly is expected from me*". Conversely, (36 %) of students who opted for the implicit acquisition of those rules within the classroom believed that as adults they are supposed to be autonomous at this stage; hence, they are required to be vigilant to the rules of turn taking in the classroom since it is their duty to acquire them independently without instruction.

Question 19: Do you think that rigid/ inflexible turn taking organization would better contribute to L2 learning?

In this question, students were invited to express their attitudes about the rigidity of turn taking and its contribution in improving L2 learning. Students' responses are displayed in table 5.29.

Table 5.29

Students' Attitudes towards Rigid Turn taking Organization and L2 Learning

Options	Percentage
Yes	30%
No	20%
Not sure	50%
Total	100%

As the results indicate, half of the students expressed their uncertainty about their responses. This could probably be justified by students' unawareness of turn taking organization and the impact it might have on foreign language learning. Meanwhile, most students who responded to this question are convinced that following a rigid turn-taking organization by the teacher is more likely to contribute to enhancing students' L2 learning.

Question 20: Please justify your answer.

Students who were in favor of a strict turn taking organization justified their stance by different reasons; all of which are linked to the organization of classroom interaction to generate a supportive learning environment with equal involvement of all the students as student 1 states: *"It has good results as it creates an organized classroom interaction"*. Student 2 adds: *"Students can learn better if equal time is divided between students as this would allow them to participate and contribute better to the lecture"*. Other students considered it an expected and unmarked strategy which assists teachers in the instruction process; for instance, student 3 maintains *"rigid turn taking is the academic and reasonable practice"*. Besides student 4 reports: *"It makes the teacher conscious about students who are taking part in classroom activities"*. Eventually, it is the learner's responsibility to figure out those turn taking rules which are an integral part of target language learning. This idea is clearly suggested by one respondent in the following quotation: *"students are supposed to pay attention to every single detail about the target language including the way turns are organized*".

On the other side of the continuum, there are those students who are convinced that teachers' flexibility in terms of turn taking organization has the effect of raising students' comfort level and willingness to learn the target language. Eventually, rigid turn-taking organization would

only create a learning atmosphere devoid of students' self-confidence; the point which is raised by one of the students stating: "*I don't support rigid turn-taking organization because I think that it will create some sort of insecurity*". Another student added: "*what is strict and harsh is what makes us feel uncomfortable*".

Question 21: Does your teacher give you enough time to express yourself when she/he assigns you a turn?

Table 5.30

Options	NEST	NNEST
Yes	96,66%	80%
No	3,34%	20%
Total	100%	100%

NESTs and NNESTs Wait-time Strategy

As the results indicate, the majority of students are convinced that EFL teachers give them enough time to express themselves when they are assigned turns regardless of whether the teacher is a native or a non-native English-speaking. A closer analysis, however, reveals that the NEST (96.66 %) is likely to assign students enough time more than the NNEST (80 %).

Question 22: Does your teacher interrupt you from time to time during your turn?

Table 5.31

NESTs and NNESTs Interruption

Options	NEST	NNEST
Yes	13,80%	62,07%
No	86,20%	37,93%
Total	100%	100%

As it is displayed in table 5.31, the majority of students believe that NESTs do not interrupt them when they are given the floor to talk (86.20%). Meanwhile, the number of students who are convinced that NNESTs interrupt them from time to time (62.07%) exceeds that of those who believe that NNESTs do not interrupt them (37.93%). Therefore, the findings reveal that NNESTs are more likely to interrupt their students during their turn compared to NESTs.

Question 23: How do you consider teacher's interruption?

Following the previous questions, the purpose of this question is to delve into students' perceptions and attitudes about being interrupted by the teacher while they are holding the floor. The students demonstrated different thoughts: those who disclosed positive attitudes, others with negative attitudes, and students who maintained a neutral position.

The highest number of students who did not show approval for teachers' interruption (58.62 %) considered this act as inappropriate and insolent due to the many hindrances it may cause to the students. Student 1 states: *"it is a little bit annoying and stressful; just if it's really needed*". Student 2 explains teacher's interruption to the student as an act that trivializes his / her contribution: *"it's a destructive act because students may think that their ideas, opinions, or thoughts are not that important"*. Students 3 and 4 adopt a similar stance, i.e., bewildering students' thoughts, which is expressed in the following quotations respectively: *"teacher's interruption can lead to confusing a person's thoughts"*. Eventually, this act may result in students' panic and nervousness; A similar personal experience shared by student 5 in the following passage: *"teacher's interruption actually makes me angry and nervous. Often, I lost the idea I was speaking about"*. Other students denounce this act and recommended teachers who would rather respect

their turn and give them more time to express themselves as stated by student 6: "I think when someone interrupts others is rudeness. Learning the right way for a polite and respectable discussion is required". Likewise, student 7 added: "I think it's better that the teacher let us complete our answer then comment on it because sometimes within the interruption the student loses his ideas". There is an interesting point of view raised by student 8 in the following quotation through the distinction she made between the NEST and the NNEST regarding teachers' interruption: "NNESTs hate when being interrupted, yet they interrupt their students which is inappropriate, NEST does not interrupt us; hence, we do not interrupt her". Finally, one student did not favor this act; yet, she expressed her sympathy with the teacher who resorts to interrupting the students since he has a limited time.

On the other hand, 31.03% of students believed that teacher's interruption is a good pedagogical practice; hence, it should not be viewed as detrimental to the learning process. To support its usefulness, students justified teachers' interruption as *request for clarification or for students' opinions, immediate feedback*, or *scaffolding*.

Finally, 10.34 % of respondents who adopted a neutral stance maintain that teacher's interruption depends on the situation in which it is employed. This fact makes it is hard for them to decide whether it is an effective or detrimental strategy.

Question 24: Which type of questions would you consider more effective in language classes?

In this question, students were provided with different types of questions which serve different purposes in the foreign language classroom, and they were asked to rank them according to their level of priority. It is worth noting that students were provided by the definition of each question to avoid any potential confusion between the terms. Students' responses are analyzed according to three different classifications provided by Richard & Lockhart (1996), Long & Sato

(1983) and Walsh & Li (2016).

Table 5.32

Types of Questions According Richard & Lockhart's Classification

Convergent Questions

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	2	6	3	7	7	25
Percentage	8%	24%	12%	28%	28%	100%

Divergent Questions

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	16	2	2	2	3	25
Percentage	64%	8%	8%	8%	12%	100%

Procedural Questions

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	3	4	11	5	2	25
Percentage	12%	16%	44%	20%	8%	100%

Table 5.33

Types of Questions According to Long and Sato's Classification

Confirmation checks

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	4	7	8	5	1	25
Percentage	16%	28%	32%	20%	4%	100%

Comprehension checks

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	11	2	4	4	4	25
Percentage	44%	8%	16 %	16%	16%	100%

Clarification requests

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	4	5	10	4	2	25
Percentage	16%	20%	44%	16%	8%	100%

Table 5.34

Types of Questions According to Walsh and Li's Classification

Referential Questions

Options	Very	Important	No opinion	Slightly	Not	Total
	important			important	important	
Frequency	4	6	4	4	7	25
Percentage	16%	24%	16 %	16%	28%	100%
Display Ques	tions					

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	4	4	2	10	5	25
Percentage	16%	16%	8%	40 %	20%	100%

As displayed in Tables 5.32, 5.33, and 5.34 above, the respondents expressed different opinions vis a vis the different types of the suggested questions. In terms of Richards & Lockhart's (1996) classification, the highest percentage of students (72 %) validated the importance of divergent questions. On the other hand, only (32 %) of students acknowledged the importance of convergent questions with (28%) of students considered it as not important. Regarding procedural questions, the highest percentage of students (44%) reported that they do not hold any opinion. These results probably justify students' awareness of the importance of divergent questions and the significant impact they have on developing their critical thinking and promoting their communicative competence in the target language.

With reference to Long & Sato's (1983) classification, (44 %) is the total number of students agree with the importance of confirmation checks, (52%) validated the importance of comprehension checks. However, no clear conclusion is deduced from the results of clarification requests as (40%) of the students did not have any opinion regarding this type of questions. These

findings indicate that EFL learners do care about the effectiveness of the different questioning techniques used by foreign language teachers for meaning negotiation.

Finally, although students' responses to the classifications designed by Walsh and Li (2016) do not offer a clear background to achieve a conclusive answer about display and referential questions, the percentage reveals that they are not attributed the same importance compared to other types of questions.

Question 25: How do you usually react to ambiguous questions?

Through this question, the researcher is trying to find out students' reaction to ambiguous questions. For guidance, students were provided with the following two choice options: "remain silent and do not take part in the interaction" and "ask your teacher to reformulate his/her question". The results of the analysis are summarized in table 5.35.

Table 5.35

Students' reaction	Percentage
Remain Silent	50%
Ask for reformulation	50%
Total	100%

Students' Reaction to Ambiguous Questions

As displayed in the table, there is no specific choice favored by the majority of students as both strategies are equally preferred. One possible interpretation for these findings is the diversified nature of the observed class in terms of students' personalities as represented in two different reactions on the part of students.

Question 26: In case you are unable to answer the question, what teaching strategies do you prefer?

The purpose of this question is to dig into students' views regarding the optimal teaching strategy that language teachers should adopt as a reaction to students' silence or confusion due to their lack of the appropriate response. Students were provided with the following three options: "Reformulation", "Preformulation", and "Wait time". The results of the analysis are presented in the following table:

Table 5.36

Strategy	Percentage
Reformulation	50%
Preformulation	46,66%
Wait time	3,34%
Total	100%

The findings indicate that both "reformulation" and "preformulation" are the most favored strategies; hence, from students' perspective, the wait time strategy is less likely to assist them in framing accurate answers as more scaffolding is required from teachers.

Question 27: Do you prefer your oral errors to be corrected?

Following the previous group of questions which revolve around questioning strategies, this part is devoted to students' errors and the different strategies designed for oral corrective feedback. This yes/ no question, in particular, was posed with the aim of finding out the extent to which students opt for the correction of their errors.

Table 5.37

Options	Percentage
Yes	89,65%
No	10,35%
Total	100%

Students' Attitudes toward Error Correction

The results disclose that the majority of students prefer their errors to be corrected (89.65%); however, only a minority (10.34%) expressed their reluctance towards error correction. The subsequent question is designed to get more insights from students regarding the topic of error correction.

Question 28: Please, justify your answer

Notwithstanding the different reasons students provided to advocate the importance of error correction, most students agree that their errors should be corrected immediately because this pedagogical practice is a normal part of the teaching/ learning process. They believe that they are there to learn and oral corrective feedback would help them not only recognize their errors and improve their English, but also to avoid the recurrence of those errors in the future. Student 1 justifies her position by stating: *"I like my errors to be corrected because when the teacher gives you feedback, you keep remembering those things"*. Students 2 justifies the necessity of correcting her errors as follows: *"in order to know my errors on the one hand and to work on them on the other hand"*. In the same way, student 3 added: *"no one would know his errors without being corrected"*. In addition to the role played by oral corrective feedback in making learners recognize their errors, other students think that oral corrective feedback is a means to avoid committing those errors in the future: hence, an essential strategy to learn and improve oneself as stated by student 4 in the following quotation: *"our errors should be corrected because we learn from our mistakes and to make sure that we won't repeat them again"*.

In reverse, students who are not in favor of error correction pointed to the downsides that this strategy might cause to introverts on the one hand and hampering students' thinking on the other hand. Some of students' reactions are as follows: *"it's somehow embarrassing", "it makes*

me feel uncomfortable and it interrupts my flow of ideas", "it is better to be between the student and teacher without any other student involved".

To mediate between the two opposing views, one student acknowledged the interruption made by the teacher when correcting students while they are talking; however, she believes that the effectiveness of error correction is unquestionable in the long term regardless of its drawback. This student stated: "I like my errors to be corrected because this helps me to avoid repeating them. Correcting while speaking is annoying, but after it it's helpful.

Question 29: If you prefer the correction of oral errors, which type of errors do you think should be corrected?

Here we are aiming at finding out the type of errors to which the students would pay more attention. The respondents were requested to choose one or more types among the following options: grammatical, phonological, or pragmatic errors.

Table 5.38

Types of Errors	Percentage
Grammatical Errors	17%
Phonological Errors	33,33%
Pragmatic Errors	10%
Grammatical & Pragmatic	6,66%
Grammatical & phonological	10%
Phonological & pragmatic	3,33%
All of them	13,33%
No answer	6,66%

As displayed in the table 5.38 above, students situated phonological errors in the first position followed by grammatical errors, and then pragmatic errors. These results lead us to conclude that students care more about pronunciation and accuracy than problems related to the

violation of the conventions of meaning. Therefore, students are not aware enough of the importance attributed to errors related to meaning compared to pronunciation and grammar.

Question 30: Which corrective feedback strategy do you think is more effective?

In this question, students are invited to share their perceptions regarding the type of feedback that they would consider more efficient, either the one provided by the teacher "Inputproviding feedback" or the one that the teacher elicits from the students themselves "Outputprompting feedback". What follows is the summary of the results:

Table 5.39

Corrective Feedback Strategies

Corrective Feedback Strategies	Percentage
Input providing feedback	30,76%
Output prompting feedback	69,24%
Total	100%

Remarkably, the results indicate that most of the respondents opted for output-prompting feedback (69.24%) compared to input-prompting feedback (30.76%). This explains students' awareness of the benefits of the second strategy and its contribution in fostering learners' autonomy.

Question 31: If you prefer input-providing feedback, which of the following strategies would you select?

The aim of this question is to delve into the optimal strategies that students would prefer regarding feedback provided by teachers, i.e., "the input-providing feedback"; hence, three options were provided: "Recasts", "explicit correction", and "explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations". Students' reaction is summarized in Table 5.40.

Table 5.40

Input Providing Feedback Strategies

Input Providing Feedback Strategies	Percentage
Recasts	30,43%
Explicit correction	13,04%
Explicit correction with metaling exp	56,53%
Total	100%

Among the total number of students who opted for feedback that is provided by the teacher, above half of them (56.52%) expressed their preference of an explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation followed by recasts (30.43%), and a very few number of students considered explicit correction as a desirable option (13.04%). These findings reveal that students do not only seek the correction of their errors, but also show a tendency towards diagnosing their errors and their source in order to avoid future potential errors.

Question 32: If you prefer output-providing feedback, which of the following strategies would you select?

Like the previous question, this question was directed to students who are in favor of feedback which encourages self-correction to identify among the following strategies what they consider more effective: "Repetition", "Clarification requests", "Metalinguistic clues", "Elicitations", and "Paralinguistic signals". The results are summarized in the following table:

Table 5.41

Output providing feedback Strategies	Percentage
Repetition	26,66%
Clarification requests	13,33%
Metalinguistic clues	23,33%
Elicitations	16,66%
Metalinguistic signals	23,33%

Output Providing Feedback Strategies

Among the offered options, students considered the strategy of repeating back the error as preferable (26.66%), followed by paralinguistic signals (23.33%), and metalinguistic clues (23.33%). Yet, less importance was given to "clarification request", and "elicitation" as they are less direct.

Question 33: Do you think that peer-feedback should be encouraged by your EFL teachers?

This question aims at finding out students' perceptions regarding peer- feedback and whether it should be encouraged by the teacher. A summary of students' responses is displayed in table 5.42.

Table 5.42

Students' Attitudes toward Peer Feedback

Options	Percentage
Yes	92%
No	8%
Total	100%

The results of this question reveal that the majority of students are convinced about the effectiveness of peer-feedback, they support it, and recommend its use by the EFL teacher. Probably, this could be justified by students' awareness of this strategy and its benefits as they have already had an experience in giving feedback to their classmates; an activity which is integrated by the NNEST.

Question 34: Please justify your answer.

To get more insights about the previous question, students were requested to justify their position regarding the strategy of peer-feedback. Those who strongly supported its use believed that it is a better way of mastering the target language, and it improves their performance since it is a less stressful feedback than the one provided by the teacher. One student suggested: *"I think*

EFL teachers should encourage peer-feedback because when you talk to your mate you make him feel some sort of security". Another student added: "*learning is a mutual process, so two students can learn from each other better than one by himself*". In reverse, students who disregard this strategy consider feedback provided by their teacher as more reliable than the one offered by their peers.

35- Please, add any suggestions or comments which you would consider relevant to the discussion of the features that characterize NEST vs. NNEST talk.

This section includes different perspectives offered by students regarding NSTs-NNSTs Talk. It is an open-ended question which paved the way for several innovative ideas suggested by students regarding teaching EFL. To begin with, there is an interesting thought highlighted by several students regarding the efficiency of NESTs in teaching their native language, especially since it is taught in the Algerian context as a foreign language. One student acknowledged the importance of exchange programs in promoting EFL teaching by stating: "I think that exchanging teachers from other countries especially from a native speaking country is very beneficial". Likewise, another student called for considering the cultural background of the teacher since it has an impact on the teaching/learning process as she puts it: "we should focus more on the cultural background of the teachers because that's where the difference stems from". Student 3 went further to express her appreciation of NESTs and justifies this as follows: "NESTs are more serious than NNESTs. Moreover, native speakers teach effectively and passionately". Student 4 shared the same perspective, but she justified her position by the effectiveness of learning some aspects of the target language from a NEST better than a NNEST as she states: "more NESTs are recommended to teach the following aspects of language: vocabulary, listening, speaking and pronunciation". Furthermore, there are some students who maintained a middle position as what

matters, according to them, is a teacher who really masters his/her task and well trained regardless of his/her cultural or linguistic background. One student puts it: "for me, it's not always about who speaks better. It is about who makes his/her students feel comfortable in class and who explains better the lesson using different methods". Finally, there are those students who are convinced that NESTs and NNESTs complement each other. Hence, more collaboration is recommended between both categories so that they could share their experiences and try to find and discuss new ways of teaching.

5.2.2. AFL Students' Questionnaires

Question 1: How many native-Arabic speaking teachers have you had while learning AFL?

Table 5.43

Students' Experience with NASTs

N° of years	One	Two	Three	More than three	Total
Frequency	14	4	2	3	23
Percentage	60,86%	17,39%	8,69%	13,04%	100%

All the respondents who took part in this survey admitted that they have a learning experience with NASTs. More specifically, 60,86% have an experience with one NAST, 17,39% with two, 8,69% with three, and 13,04% with more than three teachers. Therefore, we are in a safe position to claim that AFL students' experience with NASTs is more affluent than EFL students; hence, their responses will extremely contribute to the analysis of NASTs/ NNASTs talk dichotomy in the American context.

Questions 2& 4: What do you think is the aspect of language that could be best taught by NASTs and NNASTs?

The students were asked to select among the options different language aspects which they believe could be best taught by both NESTs and NNESTs. The obtained results are summarized in table 5.44.

Table 5.44

Language Aspects	NAST (%)	NNAST (%)
Grammar	2,89%	32%
Vocabulary	17,39%	12%
Listening	11,59%	12%
Speaking & pronunciation	28,98%	8%
Reading	1,44%	14%
Writing	2,89%	14%
Literature	15,94%	2%
Civilization	19%	6%

Aspects of Language that Could be Best Taught by NASTs and NNASTs

As displayed in the table, the highest percentage of students (32%) believe that "grammar" should be taught by a NNAST followed by "reading" (14%), "writing" (14%), "vocabulary" (12%), and finally "listening" (12%). Meanwhile, (28,98%) of the students believe that "speaking and pronunciation" would be perfectly taught by a NAST along with "civilization" (19%), vocabulary (17,39%), and literature (15,94%). These findings reveal that the aspects recommended by students vary according to the profile of the AFL teacher. Whereas NASTs are good in teaching aspects related to their native culture, lexis, and pronunciation, NNASTs are more preferable when it comes to aspects which require the mastery of rules, namely grammar, reading, and writing since they had a prior learning experience in these subjects. Therefore, they are better in transferring their learning strategies to students than NASTs.

Question 3 & 4: Justify your answer

In these two questions, we aimed at delving more into students' perceptions by highlighting the justifications they provided to back up their preferences. To begin with, AFL students admitted that speaking and pronunciation is an inherent disadvantage of the NNAST. Alternatively, NASTs are more qualified to teach it since they have a unique perspective that comes from interacting with the language in an authentic way their whole lives. This point is seconded by student1 based on her learning experience as follows: "listening to a native Arabicspeaking teacher speaks Arabic left me with a better understanding of the sounds of the Arabic language". Likewise, student 2 added: "while NASTs are not being able to account for all of the Arabic dialects and pronunciations, they have all been able to give me an authenticity to my own pronunciation and listening for nuance in others' pronunciation". With respect to culture and vocabulary, respondents believed that NASTs have a wide knowledge of Arabic language aspects along with dialects of other Arabic speaking countries which would put them in a better position to help students understand the gap between MSA and other Arabic dialects. Also, one more important asset that is idiosyncratic to NASTs is the rich insights they have on linguistic aspects that are more dependent on cultural knowledge. One student alluded to this point claiming that NASTs perfectly master "words in contexts" and "idiomatic expressions"; hence, they are in a better position to teach these language aspects. In addition to speaking and vocabulary, one student went further asserting that NASTs are also recommended for the instruction of literature and civilization because, according to her, "they tend to have a more personal connection to those things".

Regarding students' arguments with respect to NNASTs, the overall analysis of their justifications is based on the premise that NNASTs are better in teaching some language aspects

such as grammar because they have been through a learning experience of the target language which is not the case with a NAST teacher; the fact that puts them under the pressure to be "correct". To put it another way, as a former AFL learner, the NNAST has a better grasp of these specifics and can integrate different strategies to facilitate foreign language instruction. A thought-provoking observation provided by one of the respondents demonstrates this point. According to her, in addition to their knowledge in translating language learning skills, NNASTs mastery of their students' L1 facilitates the ability to relate difficult aspects of Arabic to students' native tongue .

Since NNASTs have experience acquiring Arabic later, they can teach it better to late acquirers. Especially, if their native language is the same as their students', they can effectively compare vocabulary, grammar etc. with their native language. I feel that by highlighting the different/ difficult parts of Arabic, this type of contrastive analysis is really effective and better done by NNAST

Question 6: Do you think there are any difference between NASTs and NNASTs in the way they teach the target language?

Table 5.45

The Difference between NASTs and NNASTs in Teaching Ways

Options	Percentage
Yes	95,65%
No	4,35%
Total	100%

As displayed in table 5.45, almost all the respondents (95,65%) strongly agree that there are significant differences between NASTs and NNASTs in terms of their instruction of the target language. These results are due to many reasons, among them the impact of getting trained in a different country on the instructor's teaching methodology. Further details about students' viewpoint, however, are discussed in the question that follows.

Question 7: Students' Justification

Regarding the topic of NASTs/ NNASTs instruction of the target language and based on students' learning experience, the following justifications were provided to support students' standpoint in the previous question.

1- NNASTs are more structured and focus a lot more on linguistic aspects such as grammar and vocabulary, whereas NNASTs are less structured and focus more on cultural aspects and conversation. One respondent acknowledged this point in the following quotation:

"there seems to be more "formal" structure with NNAST, possibly because that's how those instructors were previously taught the language. There is a greater focus on repetition and drill, whereas with NAST a greater focus on conversational learning".

2- NNASTs tend to teach language structures through contrastive analysis and identification of patterns that helped them in learning Arabic, whereas NAST often have deeper insights on culture and up-to-date vocabulary.

3- NNASTs learned Arabic non-natively; hence, they can use their acquisition experience to better inform their methods of teaching non-native students.

4- NASTs do more efforts to teach their language, and this is reflected in the innovative teaching methods and the variety of sources they integrate in their classes. One student elaborated on this point in the following quotation:

A non-native teacher may use ordinary teaching techniques, like explaining the grammatical rule and then applying it. This teacher always goes by the book and never tries to create the new that excite the learner to flourish in his students. In the other hand, a native-speaker of a language has the ability to revive the session, making it an adventure instead of a boring, time-to-sleep session. This teacher strives to motivate the learner and engage him with different activities. For example, the teacher asks the learner to play a game at the end of the session, like The Hot Seat game. Also, he'll encourage those who never speak to speak their minds without the fear of being judged.

5- NASTs are more likely to jump into something more challenging and expect less perfection.

According to other students, there are no points of divergence between both types of teachers; rather, the differences could be attributed to other variables such as individual differences. One student, for instance, stated: "*from my experience, the differences I saw are not linked to them being natives/ non-natives; they are rather linked to their personalities as individuals*". The same point is further clarified by one of the students who shared her personal experience:

...It really depends on each individual professor so it is hard to say. The nonnative speaking professor I had before was dedicated, had a great curriculum, and overall did an amazing job at all aspects of teaching whereas my native speaking professor seemed really disorganized and I really lost my love of the language under their instruction.

Based on students' views on the pros and cons of NASTs and NNASTs, the decision on which is better than the other remains a problematic one. This fact is probably due to the undeniable contribution offered by both NASTs and NNASTs for the instruction of the target language and remains idiosyncratic to each category of teacher.

Question 8: Do you think that there are any differences between NAST and NNAST in terms of

the way they organize their talk in the language class?

Table 5.46

Difference between NAST and NNAST in Terms of Turn Organization

Options	Percentage
Yes	52,17%
No	47,82%
Total	100%

Unlike the finding obtained from the question of NASTs Vs. NNASTs classroom instruction, students' response to the question of organization of teacher talk in language classes reveals two completely opposing views. Whereas 47,82% of the students believe that NASTs and NNASTs converge, 52,17% of them are convinced that both types of teachers do diverge in terms of the organization of their talk in the language class. Based on students' learning experience, the justifications of the difference between NASTs and NNASTs in terms of their talk is discussed in the next question.

Question 9: Students' justification

Students who confirmed the divergence between NASTs and NNASTs talk agree that the differences exist due to different reasons related to the mastery of language (different Arabic dialects Vs. the mastery of MSA), the speed of talking and the choice of sophisticated vocabulary, and finally teachers' flexibility in terms of turn allocation, for instance NNSTs are observed to be rigid compared to the NNSTs.

Question 10: What percentage would you give to the amount of your teacher's talk in the classroom?

Table 5.47

Amount of NASTs and NNASTs Talk

Percentage	20%	40%	60%	80%	100%
NAST	4,34%	17,39%	43,47%	34,78%	0%
NNAST	0%	30,43%	43,47%	8,69%	4,34%

The results of this question reveal that the amount of NAST talk is located between 60 % and 80%, whereas NNAST talk is located between 40% and 60%. Thus, from the students' perspective, the amount of NAST talk exceeds that of the NNAST.

Question 11: Would you consider it too little or too much? Justify your answer

Students provided different views regarding the distribution of teacher talk in the native Vs. the non-native speaking teacher class. For instance, a student who believed that his NAST talk occupies 40 % of classroom talk admitted that she wishes more teacher talking time; yet, for her, percentage is quite acceptable as the teacher's goal is to allow more time for students to practice. Likewise, another student believes that regardless of whether the teacher is native or a non-native, the most important thing that should be taken into consideration is learners' level. For instance, it is recommended for students who are taking Arabic 101 class to have a teacher who talks more as it would allow them to get accustomed to the language. So, the more students are immersed in the language, the better it is for their learning.

Opponents of extensive teacher talk believe that 60 % is considered too much because students must be trained to take their responsibility towards their studies so that they become responsible teachers. Meanwhile, they believe that it is not the teacher's fault as they encounter many situations where students refuse to speak even when prompted; so, the teacher often finds herself/himself forced to fill in the gaps.

There are other students who agree that we should not discuss teacher talk divorced from other aspects such as teaching style; so, too much or too little does not really matter as long as there is a successful communication between the teacher and his/ her students. That being said,

they suggested 50%-60% to be a reasonable ratio if students are offered enough guidance combined with their ability to practice a significant amount of speaking.

Question 12: While your teacher asks a question, do you self-select your turn or wait your turn

to be allocated by your teacher?

Table 5.48

Preferred Strategies in Responding to Teachers' Questions

Strategies	Percentage
Self-select	60,86%
Wait your turn	26,08%
Both	13,06%
Total	100%

As indicated in table 5.48 above, (60,86%) of participants admitted that "self-select" strategy is the most preferred one; yet only (26,08%) opted for the wait-time strategy. These results probably reveal students' desire to achieve a certain degree of autonomy and responsibility in their learning process.

Question 13: Which strategy would you consider more appropriate? Justify your answer

Students acknowledged several benefits associated with teacher turn allocation, mainly getting the entire class involved, checking in on each student, working with students on their strengths/ weaknesses, and devoting less attention students with more confidence in speaking the language. That being said, they believed that students' self-selection is preferable. To support their stance, they outlined three advantages of this strategy:

1- It gives the student a sense of confidence and freedom, and it teaches him/her to be responsible and more independent;

2- It minimizes students' embarrassment, anxiety, and stress;

3- It indicates that the student is engaged in the class and with the material they are learning.

Question 14: When allocating turns, which strategy would you prefer your teacher to use?

Table 5.49

Students' Preferred Strategies of Turn Allocation

Strategies	Percentage
Calling on names	69,56%
Non-verbal language	27,73%
Eye gazing	4,34%
No preference	4,34%

The results achieved from the analysis of this question reveal that above half of the students (69,56%) opted for "calling on names" strategy, only (27, 73%) selected "non-verbal language", and a very small percentage of (4,34%) devoted to "eye gazing". This finding is probably attributed to the fact that names are an integral part of students' identity. Accordingly, they appreciate if their teachers address them by their names.

Question 15: Please justify your answer

Although the respondents acknowledged the importance of non-verbal language when addressing learners as it makes them feel much more comfortable and does not disrupt the flow of the conversation, the strategy of calling on names remains the optimal choice due to the following reasons:

1- It makes the conversation sounds like a natural one and forces the students to focus;

2- It is the most direct way which eliminates confusion about whom the teacher has appointed to respond to the question as it is the case with non-verbal language or eye gazing;

3-It keeps a more formal relationship between the teacher and the students;

4 - It raises students' self-esteem and confidence.

Question 16: Does your teacher tolerate overlapping talk within the classroom?

Table 5.50

Teachers' Tolerance of Overlapping Talk

Options	Yes	No
NAST	52,17%	52,17%
NNAST	39,13%	26,08%

Although the obtained results do not really lead to a clear conclusion about whether the NAST tolerates overlapping talk more than NNAST or vice versa, it could be asserted that NNASTs, to some extent, tend to tolerate overlapping talk more than NASTs. As displayed in table 5.50, there is no agreement among students taking the NAST classes; yet, the number of students who had experience with the NNAST classes and believe that their teacher tolerates overlapping talk exceeds that of students who do not agree with this claim.

Question 17: What are your thoughts about this situation?

Students offered different views with respect to the issue of overlapping talk. Those who did not show any objection perceive it as a natural practice which assists the learning process if there is no exaggeration in its use. Alternatively, opponents of overlapping talk criticized its users on the ground that it creates chaos in the class; hence, it prevents the students from contributing to the lesson. What is required is an organized learning environment where everybody feels effective and respected. To this end, it is the teacher's duty to set up some rules for the organization of turn-taking. Further, there are some respondents who opted for a moderate position. According to them, we cannot completely permit or prohibit overlapping talk because this depends on classroom

culture or the activity that students are engaged in. For instance, group work activity naturally entails overlapping talk where "nobody is insecure about the entire class hearing their pronunciation" as stated by one student. Respondents added that what is not appropriate is when students ignore the professor by completing him/ her turn or when they have their own conversation; a situation which rather calls for immediate application of classroom etiquettes. One student noted: "overlapping talk is usually only tolerated when the class is split up into groups. I think by making sure that each voice is heard, teachers would promote respect among students".

Question 18: Do you think that it is your teacher's duty to overtly inform you about how turns should be organized, or you can implicitly acquire those rules within the classroom?

Table 5.51

Students' Perceptions about Learning Turn-taking Rules

Options	Percentage
Overtly taught by the teacher	56.52 %
Implicitly Acquired	43.48 %
Total	100%

As indicated in table 5.51, there is no substantial difference regarding the suggested options although the percentage of "overtly inform you about turn organization" option slightly exceeds that of "implicitly acquire the rules within the classroom". Students who believe that they need to be overtly informed about turn-taking rules provided two main arguments. First, informing students about the rules means that the teacher proceeds in exercising authority over them. Second, teachers are required to state whether they want their students to self-select when to speak or wait to be called on to avoid confusion.

Question 19: Do you think that rigid turn taking organization would better contribute to foreign language learning?

Table 5.52

Students' Perceptions about Rigid Turn Taking Organization and L2 Learning

Options	Percentage
Yes	8,69%
No	86,95%
No response	4,36%
Total	100%

This question is asked with the purpose of finding out, from the learners' perspective, whether rigid turn taking organization would better contribute to foreign language learning. As displayed in table 5.52, most students (86,95%) reported their objection to this type of turn-taking organization since it does not contribute to the improvement of AFL learning.

Question 20: Please justify your answer

Students who renounced rigid turn taking organization backed up their standpoint with the following arguments which would contribute to achieving successful classroom instruction:

1- Flexible turn-taking organization gets the students to try out new things in the classroom which makes them feel more at ease;

2- Successful language learning should involve students speaking about what they want to speak about and what interests them as opposed to just prescribed answers;

3- Students' minds must be engaged as much as possible, so rigid turn taking organization would make students wait for their turn paying less attention to other students as one student noted: "Conversation is spontaneous. Having a fixed turn would make me focus ahead on what my answer should be rather than paying attention to what everyone else is saying".

4- Natural language is supposed to be flexible; the same for the language classroom where everybody is supposed to learn. In one of the students' own words: "*Rigid turn taking organization will create some sort of formal-meeting*".

5- Inflexible turn taking organization does not benefit SLA; the more rigid is the turn taking

organization, the less engaged are students during the session.

Question 21: Does your teacher give you enough time to express yourself when he/she assigns you a turn?

Table 5.53

NASTs and NNASTs Wait-time Strategy

Options	NAST	NAST %	NNAST	NNAST %
Yes	19	82,60%	17	73,91%
No	4	17,40%	6	26,09%
Total	23	100%	23	100%

As displayed in table 5.53, there is no considerable difference between NASTs and NNASTs with respect to wait time strategy. This leads us to conclude that there is no clear association between teachers' background, i.e., native, or non-native and the way wait time strategy is planned.

Question 22: Does your teacher interrupt you from time to time during your turn?

Table 5.54

NASTs and NNASTs Interruption

Options	NAST	NAST %	NNAST	NNAST %
Yes	16	69,56%	5	21,73%
No	7	30,43%	12	52,17%

The results of this question reveal that NASTs tend to interrupt learners more than the NNASTs do. These finding do not align with the findings obtained from EFL classes where NNESTs are believed to interrupt where since learners more than the NESTs do.

Question 23: How do you consider teacher's interruption?

Students' views regarding teacher's interruption are divided between those who support it and those who consider it detrimental to the learning process. Students who acknowledged its importance offered a number of justifications which are summarized as follows:

- Teachers' interruption contributes to a successful time management;

- It is useful when the student is struggling. Thus, interrupting the student's floor could be used as a tool of scaffolding;

- It is effective when providing feedback on the spot; this allows the student to grasp the concept.

Conversely, students who rejected the practice of teacher's interruption admitted that it has negative effects on the student's attitude to the extent that they used a number of negative adjectives to describe it such as "frustrating", "annoying", "debilitating", "disrespectful", and "rude". One student stated her belief regarding this practice in the following quotation: "...teachers' interruption stems from their long-held belief that they are allowed to disrespect students by interrupting them...". In addition to those negative impressions, students alluded to other harmful effects that teachers' interruption may cause to the learning process. According to one student, when the teacher interrupts a learner, the latter will probably forget his/her idea and more likely will not never raise his/her hand again. Therefore, teachers should listen to learner's opinions instead of being part of them.

Question 24: Which type of questions would you consider more effective in AFL classes? Rank them according to the order of priority where 1 is most important and 5 is least important.

Table 5.55

Types of Questions according to Richard & Lockhart's Classification

Convergent Questions

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	0	3	8	0	6	17
Percentage	0%	18%	47%	0%	35%	100%

Divergent Questions

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	10	0	0	7	0	17
Percentage	59%	0%	0%	41%	0 %	100%

Procedural Questions

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	0	9	2	0	6	17
Percentage	0%	53%	12%	0%	35%	100%

Table 5. 56

Types of Questions According to Long & Sato's Classification

Confirmation checks

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	0	6	6	3	2	17
Percentage	0%	35%	35%	18%	12%	100%

Comprehension checks

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	3	6	3	3	2	17
Percentage	18%	35%	18%	18%	12%	100%

Clarification requests

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	6	0	6	3	2	17
Percentage	35 %	0%	35%	18%	12%	100%

Table 5.57

Types of Questions according to Walsh and Li's Classification

Referential	Questions

Options	Very	Important	No opinion	Slightly	Not	Total
	important			important	important	
Frequency	6	3	5	3	0	17
Percentage	35%	18%	29%	18%	0%	100%
Display Ques	stions					

Options	Very important	Important	No opinion	Slightly important	Not important	Total
Frequency	0	2	7	5	3	17
Percentage	0%	12%	41%	29%	18%	100%

Regarding Richards & Lockhart's classification, the highest percentage of responses pertaining to convergent questions are devoted to either 'no opinion' (47%) or 'not important' (35%) options. On the contrary, respondents expressed different opinion vis-à-vis divergent questions with a percentage of 59% of students acknowledging its importance without any response trivializing its use. Like the results achieved from EFL students, AFL students are also aware of the importance of divergent questions due to the impact they have on promoting students' critical thinking compared to convergent questions. In addition to that, AFL respondents approved the importance of procedural questions with a percentage of (53%) which is not the case with respondents taking EFL classes. These findings could be justified by students' level. As elementary learners, AFL students approve the importance of this type of questions; it guides them and keeps them focused throughout the different stages of the lesson.

With reference to Long & Sato's (1983) classification, no clear conclusion could be inferred from students' responses to confirmation checks since the highest percentage of students' opinion is divided between "important" (35%) or "no opinion" (35%) options. In the same way, students'

confusion is also revealed through their responses to clarification requests with (35%) of the respondents opted for "very important" and (35%) favored the "no opinion" option. Unlike the two previous types of questions, an ample number of students acknowledged the importance of comprehension checks with a percentage of (18%) devoted to "very important" and (35%) opted for "important" option. Therefore, we can conclude that both EFL and AFL students share the same perceptions regarding the importance of comprehension checks.

In terms of Walsh & Li's (2016) taxonomy, there is an ample percentage of students who supported the importance of referential questions; yet, very few (12%) approved that of display questions as most of them either went for the "no opinion" option (41%) or the "not important" option. Therefore, we can conclude that AFL students are more aware of the impact of referential questions on promoting their productivity than their EFL counterparts.

Question 25: How do you usually react to ambiguous questions?

Table 5.58

Students' reaction	Percentage
Remain silent	21,74%
Ask for Reformulation	78,26%

Students' Reaction to Ambiguous Questions

Total

As displayed in table 5.58, many students (78,26%) opted for "ask for reformulation" option. This result justifies students' willingness and enthusiasm to take part in classroom interaction regardless of the degree of difficulty of teachers' questions.

100%

Question 26: In case you are unable to answer the question, what teaching strategies do you prefer?

Table 5.59

Students' Preferred Teaching Strategies

Strategy	Percentage
Reformulation	30,44%
Preformulation	60,87%
Wait time	8,69%
Total	100%

In this question, students are offered three different options to get more insights about their preferences with respect to the best teaching strategy that should be employed to promote their contribution in the FL class. As demonstrated in table 5.59, the majority of students consider both "preformulation" and " reformulation" as the optimal teaching strategies; however, wait time is given less importance. These findings align with the ones achieved from EFL students' responses. In both cases, the findings could be justified by students' desire to be guided by their teachers so that they can increase their contribution to the lecture.

Question 27: Do you prefer your oral errors to be corrected?

Table 5.60

Option	Percentage
Yes	95,65%
No	4, 35%
Total	100%

Students' Attitudes toward Error Correction

The results obtained from this question reveal that almost all the students are in favor of error correction (95,65%). These findings also corroborate students' awareness of the importance

of teachers' feedback as it helps them develop their competence in the target language. More details about students' viewpoints are presented in the question which follows.

Question 28: Please, justify your answer

Students alluded to some of the downsides associated with the practice of error correction such as its "prescriptivist" nature and the bad psychological impact it might have on students. That being said, the overall analysis of their responses denotes their awareness of the importance of oral corrective feedback as an integral part of the learning/ teaching process. The main reason shared by all students is the impact that corrective feedback might have in improving their level in the target language. To achieve a successful corrective feedback, students recommended a number of guidelines that should be considered by teachers when addressing learners' errors. First, teachers are encouraged to correct learners' errors but not in public. Secondly, teachers should correct students' errors without interrupting them during their talk. Thirdly, error correction is encouraged only in the case of major errors which impede the comprehensibility of students' message. Finally, error correction should be done on the spot since delayed feedback, or a complete ignorance of errors would make it difficult for the student to realize their errors.

Question 29: If you are in favor of the correction of oral errors, which type of errors do you think should be corrected?

Table 5.61

Type of error	Percentage
Grammatical	26,08%
Phonological	13,04%
Pragmatic	21,73%
Grammatical & phonological	13,04%
Grammatical & pragmatic	8,69%
All of them	17,39%
Total	99,97%

Types of Errors Requiring Correction

Based on the obtained results, students acknowledged the importance of all errors; yet, they devoted much importance to errors related to language usage (26,08%) followed by errors which breach meaning convention (21,73%), and then phonological errors (13,04%). These findings align with the ones achieved from EFL students in the sense that both assign much importance to language usage.

Question 30: Which corrective feedback strategy do you think is more effective?

Table 5.62

Corrective Feedback Strategies

CF Strategies	Percentage
Input-providing	30,43%
Output prompting	69,56%
Total	99,99%

As displayed in table 5.62, a good number of students (69,56%) acknowledged the importance of output prompting feedback at the expense on input providing one (30,43%). If there is an interpretation that we could draw from these results is students' inclination to develop a sense of independence in learning AFL; a fact that I could confirm based on my experience as a teaching assistant at the same college.

Question 31: If you are in favor of input-providing feedback, which of the following strategies

would you prefer?

Table 5.63

input-providing jeedback strategies				
CF Strategies	Percentage			
Recasts	21,73%			
Explicit Correction	13,04%			
Explicit Correction with	43,47%			
metalinguistic explanation				
No answer	21,73%			

Input-providing feedback Strategies

As displayed in table 5.63, the highest percentage of students (43,47%) expressed their preference for the strategy of "explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation", (21,73%) opted for "recasts", and only (13,04%) selected "explicit correction" option. These results reveal the importance that students devote to their errors as well as their curiosity to get more understanding of their source and how they should be corrected.

Question 32: If you prefer output-providing feedback, which of the following strategies would

you select?

Table 5.64

CF Strategies	Percentage
Repetition	17,39%
Clarification Requests	4,34%
Metalinguistic Clues	17,39%
Elicitations	17,39%
Paralinguistic Signals	21,73%
Metalinguistic & Elicitations	4,34%
Repetition, clarification, Elicitation	4,34%
All of them	4,34%
No answer	8,69%

Output Providing Feedback Strategies

The results obtained from this question indicate that the majority of students (21,73%) consider "paralinguistic signals" as the most effective strategy that should be used to trigger students to correct their errors. This is followed by an equal distribution of "repetition", "metalinguistic clues", and "elicitation" with a percentage of (17,39%). Lastly, only 4,34% of the students opted for clarification requests.

Question 33: Do you think that peer-feedback should be encouraged by teachers of Arabic?

Table 5.65

Options	Percentage	
Yes	65,22%	
No	34,78%	
Total	100%	

Students' Attitudes towards Peer-feedback

As displayed in table 5.65, above half of the students approved the significance of peerfeedback as a teaching strategy. Probably, this could be attributed to the benefits associated with this type of feedback. More details about students' justification to the integration of this strategy is presented in the following question.

Question 34: Please justify your answer.

To back up their point of view with respect to peer-feedback, students maintained that feedback should not only be limited to students' own errors; rather, learners also need to recognize errors in others' speech and help them out through the provision of constructive feedback. Moreover, students believe that peer-feedback should be promoted in AFL classes, but it should be moderated by the teacher. Students highlighted the following arguments to support the significant role associated with peer-feedback.

- It has a great contribution in improving students' educational level since the teacher is not always available to correct their errors;

- Feedback provided by peers could be more effective than that of the teacher because learners are more likely to identify the mistake of their peers than the teacher himself/herself as noted by one student: "*peers can often back up with you to the source of your error and help correct your misunderstanding*";

-It creates a supportive learning environment in the classroom where everyone is willing to help each other;

- It encourages active listening and more student engagement with the material;

- It instills in students the spirit of teamwork

Despite this fact, there are some students who showed their skepticism regarding the activity of peer feedback due to two main reasons. First, students might not be competent enough to give the correct feedback. Second, peer feedback like any type of feedback can be very demoralizing; hence, leads to resentment especially if it is done in public. Considering this perspective, opponents of peer feedback still believe that it could be useful between students in small groups rather than whole class discussion.

Question 35: Please, add any suggestions or comments which you would consider relevant to the discussion of the features that characterize NAST Vs. NNAST talk

Students highlighted three important points: *teachers' fluency, diligence, and teachers' cultural differences.* First, the native speaking teacher is more fluent than the non-native one. Therefore, if the NST uses very specific vocabulary, the learner will be able to acquire the correct form of the language. Contrarywise, the non-native one uses the language as a tool to convey information; hence, he /she will not be as perfect and as clear as a native speaker. Secondly, native speaking teachers obviously seem to be more hard workers than non-native speaking teachers. Thus, they are in a better position to stimulate and encourage students to do their best in their studies. Lastly, since NSTs and NNSTs belong to two different cultural backgrounds, they are expected to approach teaching FL differently.

5.2.3. Comparison and Interpretation of the Findings Obtained from EFL and AFL Students' Questionnaire

The same survey was delivered to both EFL and AFL learners in view of unveiling their perceptions regarding the different features that characterize the talk of NSTs and NNSTs. The overall results reveal that both categories of learners converge in some points; yet they diverge in the way they perceive other concepts. Despite this fact, there are commonalities between both categories of learners that could be considered as a resource to be consulted for the generation of a supportive learning environment that fosters a successful instruction and effective acquisition of the target language.

To begin with, both EFL and AFL students agree in their perspective regarding the contribution of NSTs and NNSTs in teaching the target language. In their response to the survey, they pinpointed a few differences that exist between NSTs and NNSTs in their educational and cultural background which privilege one category to exceed in the teaching one subject rather than another. According to both EFL and AFL students, NSTs are more efficient in the instruction of courses which require a good mastery of the target knowledge, such as speaking, pronunciation, and vocabulary. According to them, the acquisition of the target language as their L1 puts them in a better position to benefit learners in these areas. Alternatively, the respondents admitted that NNSTs are the optimal option to teach subjects which require previous learning experience, such as grammar and writing. As they most agree, NNSTs have been through the experience of foreign language learners; thus, they committed mistakes and experienced challenges with the learning of some language aspects which are different from their native language. In this respect, NNSTs are more helpful and efficient than NSTs in predicting learners' difficulties and assisting them with the best learning strategies.

Secondly, there is no consensus among EFL and AFL students regarding the difference between NSTs and NNSTs in the way they organize their talk in the language classroom. In addition, EFL students agree that there are no remarkable differences between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the amount of their talk in the classroom compared to students' talk; however, when it comes to AFL learning, NASTs are perceived to talk in the class more than their NNASTs counterpart. In fact, three different factors are provided to justify the differences existing between the two categories of teachers in terms of the amount of their talk: instructors' competence in the target language, philosophy about teaching, and learners' proficiency level.

Thirdly, regarding turn-taking organization, NESTs are preferred over NNESTs in terms of their tolerance of overlapping talk. Meanwhile, AFL learners viewed NNASTs as more desirable compared to NASTs. While the divergence is apparent in students' responses regarding the tolerance of overlapping talk, it is also important to acknowledge that students' experiences could also be attributed to the personality of the teacher regardless of his/her linguistic background. In terms of turn allocation, both EFL and AFL students expressed their preference for "self-select" turn-taking strategy over teachers' selection due to the substantial effects it has on their learning at the pedagogical and psychological level. Alternatively, in case they are selected by teachers, the students opted for the strategy of "calling on their names" as it gives them a feeling of recognition and increases their comfort level.

Fourthly, the findings divulge that there is no consensus among EFL and AFL students regarding turn-taking organization. Whereas EFL learners consider the explicit instruction of these rules as more effective, AFL learners did not settle on a specific choice since equal importance is equally assigned to both explicit and implicit instruction. Based on these findings, both AFL and EFL students diverge in their perspective vis à vis the relationship between turn-taking

organization and L2 learning. EFL learners who opted for an explicit instruction of turn-taking rules validate the contribution of rigid turn-taking to L2 learning; conversely, AFL learners believe that flexibility is preferable if teachers are aiming to promote their students' L2 learning.

Furthermore, both AFL and EFL students do converge in their perspective in terms of the most useful elicitation techniques that contribute to foreign language learning. On that account, three main types of questions are recommended due to their significance. Divergent questions are highly endorsed as they play a significant role in stimulating learners' critical thinking skills. Similarly, an extensive use of procedural questions is called for due to their impact in stimulating learners' attention and focus, especially at the elementary stages of learning. Also, learners expressed their need for constant checking from their instructors about whether they have perceived the target language concepts correctly. In this respect, comprehension checks are highly viewed as effective in foreign language teaching due to the impact they might have on students' learning.

Finally, with regards to FL teachers' treatment of errors, both AFL and EFL students highly acknowledged the philosophy of fostering learners' autonomy. On that account, students perceive output feedback triggered through repetition, paralinguistic signals, or metalinguistic clues as very effective and highly recommended since it encourages learners to take care of their own learning instead of their dependence on feedback that is directly offered by the teacher, i.e., input providing feedback.

Conclusion

This chapter was devoted to the discussion of the results obtained from the questionnaire designed for AFL and EFL students who had a prior experience with native and non-native

speaking teachers. Although the respondents belong to two different cultural backgrounds, pedagogical traditions, and enrolled in two different foreign language classes, their responses reveal the existence of common perspectives about the practice of NSTs and NNSTs. These perspectives are relevant either to the way of teaching the target language or the interactional features that characterize teacher talk.

Based on students' experiences with both NSTs and NNSTs, the background of the teacher is a very crucial aspect that should be considered in the process of assigning courses to teachers. The results reveal that NESTs and NNSTs exist in a complementary relationship; each is privileged in teaching a specific language aspect. With that being said, the experience that NNSTs had in learning the target language remains a significant capital that simplifies the teaching of language aspects requiring dependence on L1 and the navigation of different learning strategies.

The analysis of the features of classroom talk reveals the importance of bearing in mind learners' proficiency level when deciding about the amount of teacher talk. Accordingly, whereas elementary level students require extensive input revealed in long teacher turns, more opportunities should be offered to advanced students to take the floor in discussions that stimulate their reflection and critical thinking. Generally speaking, however, dealing with any level requires teachers to work toward generating autonomous learners who are spontaneously willing to contribute to classroom interaction without any pressure as well as students who are responsible for their own learning. Considering these facts, teachers' decision about flexibility or rigidity of their turn-taking should be made in relation to students' cultural background, personality and learning styles, and lastly the nature of the subject taught.

243

In addition to the discussion of the features of teacher talk that evolved from the analysis of the actual speech recorded in the target language classes, students' responses were prolific and significantly contributed to the findings of the research. Therefore, future decisions about the tools that facilitate the instruction of the target language should not only be based on the findings that stem from the practice of the teacher; rather, a careful attention should be devoted to the way learners perceive an ideal teacher talk based on their educational experiences. Undeniably, these thoughts that stem from real experiences of both teachers and learners are inseparable and should be equally valued for future attempts to contribute to the field of teacher education and the process of teachers' recruitment. In the chapter that follows, more insights about the topic will be presented from the teachers' perspective throughout analysis of the results obtained from teachers' interviews.

Chapter Six: Analysis of Teachers' Interviews and Results Obtained from Triangulation

Introduction

In this chapter, results obtained from the analysis of teachers' interviews are presented separately. These findings are discussed with reference to the two preceding data collection methods, i.e., lesson transcripts and students' questionnaires and in the framework of the study research questions. In view of this, the chapter is divided into three sections. Section one is devoted to issues pertaining to sampling, piloting, and conducting teachers' interviews. Within the same section, a detailed description of the interview questions directed to the observed native and non-native speaking teachers at both ENS, Constantine and Wellesley College, the USA is provided. Section two is dedicated to the discussion of the results obtained from the analysis of the transcripts of teachers' interviews. The findings are provided by comparing the results obtained from the four interviewed teachers. The presentation of the findings is supplemented with notes which are directly quoted by the participants. Section three includes discussion of the most significant findings that sprung out from the three data collection methods and in relation to the research questions of the study. Due to the existence of multiple variables, each research question is divided into sub-questions to offer a more structured presentation of the finding.

6.1. Teachers' Interviews

6.1.1. The Sample

The interview is meant for teachers who were observed in their classes. Basically, only three instructors took part in the interview: the NNAST, the NEST and the NNEST. We tried to contact the NAST several times via his email to request his participation, yet we did not get any response. In view of this, we requested a NAST from the American University of Cairo, Egypt, who kindly agreed to volunteer in this interview as a substitute participant for the NAST at Wellesley College. We opted for the choice of this participant as she was the only volunteer who accepted to take part in the interview. Additionally, as she is a native-speaking teacher of Arabic who is teaching AFL to American students, her perspective would probably contribute to the research.

An interview with the observed teachers is considered more suitable and reliable than a questionnaire due to many reasons. First, it provides the researcher with a rich and in-depth description of the teaching practice, which could be hardly achieved through a questionnaire. For instance, a qualitative researcher who depends on questionnaires might end up with blank or unanswered questions. In addition to that, the researcher's limited contact with the questionnaire respondents makes it hard for him/her to have further clarification of some deviated answers (Al Hasnawi, 2016). Moreover, the researcher's interest in getting information from the observed teachers who are just four is considered as another robust motive behind the choice this data elicitation technique. This data collection method will probably provide the researcher with detailed information about participants' teaching philosophy and their perspectives on the aspects relevant to the study.

6.1.2. Piloting the Interview

To avoid any potential problems, the interview was piloted prior to conducting its final version. Nunan (1992) stressed the importance of piloting the interview due to two reasons. First, this process helps the researcher to decide whether the questions elicit the kind of data required for the study. Secondly, trying out the interview with volunteers also gives the researcher the chance to remove questions that might be either ambiguous or perplexing to the respondents.

The researcher got in touch with an English language fellow at ENS-Bouzerea, Algiers. She is a native English speaking teacher who kindly accepted to be interviewed. The interview took place on February 9th, 2019, after attending one of the workshops organized by the same teacher at the same college. In addition to this, another pilot interview was conducted with a Ph.D. student and colleague who is a non-native speaking teacher at the department of English, Oum El Bouaghi University.

6.1.3. The Interviewing Process

We found the structured interview more effective and convenient compared to the openended or the semi structured one. Based on its formal nature, it has an established agenda which is prearranged by the researcher through a fixed set of questions in a predetermined order (Nunan, 1992). Following the design of the interview, the researcher interrogated teachers residing in Algeria, namely the NEST and the NNEST by scheduling a meeting with them in ENS-Constantine; however, a virtual meeting on skype was held with both the NAST and the NNAST as they are residing in Cairo and Boston, respectively. The researcher started the interview by introducing its purpose and the nature of the research to the participants. The researcher also explained the way data will be recorded and made sure to answer any question that the interviewees might have. All the interview was conducted in English since the four participants are either native speakers of English, non-native speakers who are teaching EFL, or AFL teachers who pursued their MA degree in English. There are some questions which seemed ambiguous to the respondents, especially the terms associated with different types of questions and oral corrective feedback. The researcher provided a further explanation of these terms and was also flexible in terms of the modification of questions as this would help the interviewees affluently report teaching experiences relevant to the study. Throughout the process of interviewing, the respondents did not only show their enthusiasm and interest in the research topic, but they were also very excited to share their thoughts about the topic. For instance, all the interviewees requested the researcher to share with them the findings of the study as this would help them improve their performance in the FL classroom.

After taking the consent of all the participants, all the interviews were audio-recorded. Additionally, respecting the strategies suggested by Walker (cited in Nunan, 1992), we followed two practical suggestions while conducting the face-to-face interview, i.e., with the NEST and the NNEST. First, due to the significance of the physical positioning of the interviewer and the interviewee, the researcher opted for sitting side by side rather than face to face to get a more productive interview and to make the interaction more informal and friendly. Second, although the tape recordings are proved to be a very effective means of data collection, the researcher supplemented this with note taking to get more guidance during the coding phase. The strengths and weaknesses of each of the data collection tools are summarized in table 6.66.

Table 6.66

Instrument	Strengths	Weaknesses		
Naturalistic		Possibility of data overload Time-consuming to transcribe		
TapeObjective recordrecordingInterviewer's contribution recordedData can be reanalyzed after the event		Context not recorded Presence of machine off-putting Core issues masked by irrelevances		
Note taking	Central issues/ facts recorded Context can be recorded Economical Off-record statements not recorded	Recorder bias Actual linguistic data not recorded Encoding may interfere with interview Status of data may be questioned		

Strengths and Weaknesses of Tape Recording and Note Taking (from Nunan, 1992, p. 153)

The researcher conducted the interviews at the end of the observation period on purpose. In fact, initiating the study with a series of classroom observation and the analysis of the audiorecorded data according to the designated framework gave the researcher more insights about the study; Therefore, some details which sprung out from the analysis were covered in the interview.

To avoid bias, the researcher was very cautious in every step of the interviewing process. Thus, interviewees were given the impression that the interview is meant to collect data related to their perspective regarding the features of teacher talk and not to enforce any judgements upon them. The participants were contacted in advance on phone or via email to schedule the time of the interview according to their preference and availability. It should be noted that all teachers were asked the same questions. Therefore, data obtained from teachers' interviews would serve as a supplementary tool, which represents teachers' personal views and could be used to check the findings obtained from the analysis of the lesson transcripts. More details about the conducted interviews are provided in table 6.67.

Table 6.67

Interview NO.	Participant	Date	Time	Duration	Transcribed words	Context
1 st interview	NNAST	May 07,2019	7 p.m.	40 min	4686	Wellesley College
2 nd interview	NAST	June 14th,2019	1 p.m.	1h 30 min	5672	American univ-Cairo
3 rd interview	NEST	May 07,2019	10:30 a.m.	1h 3 min	8363	ENS- Constantine
4 th interview	NNEST	May 15, 2019	12h30 p.m.	1h	9201	ENS- Constantine

Interview Information

6.1.4. Description of the Interview

The interview is composed of twenty-four questions grouped into four different sections. Section one elicits information about teachers' previous experience/ training in the field of organization of teacher talk in FL classes. It also invites teachers to share their experience in recording their talk / classroom interaction.

Section two is about turn taking, and it is composed of five questions. Question 1 is about the way teachers allocate turns in their classes and their perceptions of overlapping talk. Question 2 probes into teachers' beliefs about the association between turn taking organization (rigid/ flexible) and the improvement of L2 learning. Question 3 examines the way teachers familiarize learners with the rules of turn-taking, i.e., whether they teach those rules overtly to learners or expect them to acquire the rules implicitly within the classroom. Question 4 is designed to find out the percentage that teachers would assign to their talk and whether they consider it too little or too much in relation to the different levels they teach. In Question 5, participants are provided with four types of interaction, and they are asked to indicate the type/ types which they might consider more prevailing in their classes (form and accuracy contexts, meaning and fluency contexts, taskoriented contexts, or procedural contexts).

Section three is devoted to teachers' questioning strategies inside their FL classes; it embraces seven different questions. Question 1 is about the diverse purposes served by the act of questioning. Question 2 invites teachers to categorize the factors which they think would affect the questioning technique in their class. Question 3 is about the frequency of different questions which are asked by the respondents in their classes based on the following options: Convergent, divergent, procedural, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests, referential questions, and display questions. Question 4 probes into teachers' thoughts about the connection between the integration of different types of questions and whether this would lead to different learning outcomes. Subsequently, they are requested to determine the types of questions which they would consider more effective. In Question 5, respondents are invited to share the strategies which they use in their classes when students are unable to answer their question (reformulation, preformulation, wait time, or disregarding the learner and assigning the question to another one). Question 6 is about the length of the wait time that respondents offer to their students. Lastly, Question 7 is devoted to teachers' thoughts regarding the initiation of interaction by questioning learners throughout and whether they permit their learners to be involved in this practice.

Section four covers the aspect of feedback, and it embraces nine questions. Question 1 is about the respondents' reaction to learners' errors. Question 2 is about the frequency of error correction in the different classes of the respondents. In Question 3, the respondents are invited to indicate the different types of errors which they focus on in their correction: grammatical, phonological, or pragmatic errors. Question 4 is about the different reasons which trigger teachers to correct students' errors and whether it is more effective to correct the error immediately or delay it in Question 5. Question 6 is about the different corrective feedback strategies adopted by the respondents in their classes (Input-providing/output-prompting feedback) in response to the different errors that students commit and the reasons that trigger them to use one type rather than another. Question 7 is about the type of feedback which is considered more effective in promoting FL learning from the respondents' perspective. Question 8 is devoted to teachers' perspective about self-correction and the extent of its integration. Lastly, respondents are invited to share their thoughts regarding peer-feedback and whether there is a need to encourage it inside the FL classes.

6.2. Analysis of Teachers' Interviews Findings

The four audio-recorded interviews conducted with native and non-native teachers were transcribed using Express Scribe Transcription Software which provides the researcher with tools to facilitate the manual transcription of the interviews. It should be noted that the transcription process was very arduous and time consuming. In view of this, the researcher found it more practical to transcribe each interview immediately after the interviewing process. The transcripts were revised several times to polish them and to eliminate potential cases of misrepresentation of the interviewees' thoughts. Additionally, pseudonyms were used to protect the anonymity of the participants. The transcribed interviews were then examined by using thematic analysis which is defined as a method for categorizing, analyzing, and reporting themes emerging from data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Hence, the researcher's focus is devoted to the themes that are relevant to the research questions. The findings of each question are presented in tables prior to their discussion using extracts from the actual data.

I-Teaching Experience

1- Teachers' exposure to instruction on talk organization in the language class.

Table 6.68

Teachers' Training on Talk Organization in the Language Class.

Respondents	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
	A course on	Implicitly through	Pedagogical	
Training	teaching methods	instruction as part	instruction as part	No training
experience	as part of MA	of MA program in	of MA program	
	program in AFL	TESOL		

As indicated in the Table 6.68, all teachers reported that they were exposed to instruction on the organization of talk either implicitly or explicitly except for the NNEST at ENS-Constantine. This at least indicates that the three interviewed teachers are aware of how talk should be organized in the FL class.

2- Teachers' experience and thoughts about recording their talk

Table 6.69

Teachers' Experience in Recording Their Talk

Respondents	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
Recording TT	Yes	No	No	Yes

As displayed in the Table 6.69, only two interviewed teachers reported that they had a prior experience in recording their talk. The NNEST used this informally just to check her speech to evaluate her strengths and weaknesses, whereas the NAST took part in a series of workshops on reflective teaching as part of teacher training. As a former student, she was asked to teach classes, videotape her talk/ interaction, upload it, and then work in a group of three to reflect on their

teaching practice as well as each other's' videos. Based on her experience with this methodology and its importance in improving teaching, she stated: *"I think it's extremely important because for me if I work under pressure, I don't do things that I really want to do. However, it would be great if we can do it once or twice a week"*(*NAST*). Therefore, she encourages teachers to consider it as part of their professional development. Similarly. the other two interviewed teachers also indicated their awareness of the benefits of this strategy as it helps them improve their classroom interaction despite this fact that they did not get any prior experience in recording their classes.

II-Turn taking

3- Teachers' flexibility in terms of turn allocation and overlapping talk in their classes

Table 6.70

Respondents	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
Nature of Turn	Flexible and	Pretty	Flexible	Rigid but trying to
allocation	rigid	Flexible		be flexible
Tolerance of	No	No	Yes	Yes
overlapping talk				

Teachers' flexibility in terms of turn allocation and overlapping talk

Teachers have different views regarding overlapping talk. NNSTs considered simultaneous talk in the language classroom as a natural way of interaction which creates a relaxed learning atmosphere. Likewise, NSTs believed that they need to be flexible because they are dealing with adults; hence, students are expected to interrupt their teacher for two main reasons: either to ask a question or to add a comment. That being said, they acknowledged the fact that there are situations which dictate on them to be rigid in allocating turns so that every student would have the opportunity to talk without being interrupted by his/ her peers. Although simultaneous talk is natural and inevitable in any language classroom, respecting turn-taking rules also remains

important to maintain a learning atmosphere that is conductive to learning with every student is offered the chance to contribute to the interaction.

4- The contribution of rigid turn-taking organization to L2 learning

Table 6.71

The Contribution of Rigid Turn-taking Organization to L2 Learning

Respondents	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
Responses	No	Neutral	Neutral	No

As indicated in Table 6.71, the NAST and the NNEST clearly admitted that rigid turn taking impedes rather than contributes to L2 learning. As teachers, they assumed that their task is to encourage students to be involved in conversation and debates to improve their speaking; hence, being rigid implies the opposite. Meanwhile, the NEST and NNAS believed that it depends on the situation; so, there are two different themes that emerged from their interviews: *teachers' personality and beliefs* and *students' proficiency level*.

1- Teachers' personality and beliefs

The NNAST maintained that there are teachers who believe that putting pressure on learners is the only way to encourage them to talk. He shared his experience as a student at Michigan university, where his professor used to go around the classroom and expected every student to talk one after the other. However, there are some teachers who opt for flexibility to create 'more welcoming', 'less intimidating', and 'less imposing' situations for the students.

2- Students' proficiency level

The NEST believed that both rigid and flexible turn taking are situationally useful depending on the context. So, with low level students, rigid turn taking is encouraged to enable

the student to understand the process. However, with high level students, more freedom is required so that they can express themselves fully. Therefore, holding them to specific turns might restrain their freedom; hence, results in total loss of interaction.

5- The Instruction of Turn-taking Rules

Table 6.72

Instruction of Turn-taking rules

Respondents	NST1(AFL)	NST2(EFL)	NNST1(AFL)	NNST2 (EFL)
Responses	Implicitly	Implicitly	Implicitly	Implicitly

As displayed in Table 6.72, the respondents believed that turn-taking rules do not require explicit instruction due to two main reasons. First, turn-taking is a life skill which comes from experience. As time goes by, the students will get adjusted to those rules and figure out how they are used. Second, the instruction of turn-taking rules gives students the impression that they are controlled which distracts them from focusing on the important points. Despite this fact, the NEST and the NNAST acknowledged and appreciated the idea of teaching turn-taking rules, especially in situations when students are observed to behave in an inappropriate manner.

6- The percentage of teacher talk in the foreign language classroom

Table 6.73

Respondents	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
Percentage of talk	30%- 60% (advanced)	30%-60%	30%-40%	30%-40%
	60%-70% (elementary)			
Remarks	Reasonable	too much	too much	/

As shown in Table 6.73, the percentage of teacher talk of three respondents, namely the NEST, the NNAST, and the NNEST2 is located between 30%-60%. This percentage is considered too much from the perspective of two respondents who believe that teachers' talking time should be minimized so that more time is allocated to students' talk as a requirement for an effective FL instruction. Below is the opinion of the instructors who taught EFL in the Algerian context. The NEST admitted that the amount of TT which is more than 50% is too much. She justified her position by alluding to the role she plays as a guide and what she expects in return from her students.

I think once you get pass 50 percent it's too much. I think that at least for the classes that I have right now and their level of confidence that they should be speaking more. They should be producing more and they can be taking the conversations they need to have without me having to do more than give them guidelines of what they are supposed to be doing with their activities. So, I would give uh them instructions and whatever the content is that we are covering and then they need to do the rest. (NEST)

The NNEST, on the other hand, referred to the teaching conditions, mainly overcrowded

classes as a motive that dictates on her to minimize her talking time.

I am in front of 30 or 45 students so my 30 percent I am alone with 30 percent and 45 with 70 percent okay? if I just distribute this 70 percent to each one of them they will have a very very low percentage. So, you will talk about 30 percent and a mass a group of 70 percent. So, sometimes when we spend a whole session, we have one or two students who do not participate at all and we are proud that we have 70 percent of students but it's it's not really 70 percent for the whole class but for few students who really participate (NNEST)

The NAST is convinced that the percentage she provided is reasonable because maximizing student taking time is very crucial. According to her, unlike advanced classes, this strategy should be encouraged with elementary learners; they require more explanation in English until they reach a level in which they are able to make short sentences and small paragraphs.

7- The Type of Interaction Prevailing in The Interviewed Teachers' Classes

Table 6.74

Type of Interaction Prevailing in Teachers' Classes

Types of interaction	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
Form and Accuracy Contexts			Х	
Meaning and Fluency Contexts	Х	X	Х	Х
Task-oriented Contexts				
Procedural Contexts				Х

As displayed in Table 6.74, the respondents integrate different types of interaction in their classes; their choice depends either on their students' proficiency level or the course objectives. In fact, all teachers are aware of the importance of meaning and fluency contexts in teaching foreign languages. They identified different reasons which prompt them to employ this type of classroom interaction. According to them, it either contributes to *sustaining students' motivation and confidence in using the target language*, or it helps in *the improvement of students' communicative competence* throughout group or pair work with a minimum intervention of the teacher. The respondents' statements in this direction are as follows:

It's a more motivation strategy that I focus on meaning and fluency. I do that. and even in my case, you know the feedback types where I respond to them and correct their errors. the idea is that they get motivated when they tell me something, I know that I understood what they said and then they can keep going and particularly at the elementary level this is challenging whether you need to correct them immediately or not. So, I think this is my case. (NAST)

I always emphasize and I always focus on the idea that my students need to be fluent. They need to be fluent and their messages and their speech need to have context and needs to have meaning and for this I worked on the mmm on some strategies called compensation strategies. (NNEST)

To elaborate on the idea of compensation strategies, the NNEST believed that our role as teachers is to assist students to be fluent in the target language. To this end, we are required to focus on the message itself rather than accuracy. So, if students did not find the accurate word to express themselves, then it is our duty to encourage them to use other linguistic strategies to compensate for their linguistic deficiency.

With regards to form and accuracy contexts, the NNAST alluded to the level of the class he is teaching. According to his experience, students who come to 101 level in Arabic do not have prior knowledge about the target language. So, they really need to get enough exposure of the language in class; this justifies the tight control he holds on turn-taking. The teacher's thoughts on this point is expressed in the following quotation:

Yeah, that's more of me speaking em you know they are kind of most of class is silent right? you might have one student at a time speaking I mean it can be effective in that students are hearing and hopefully internalizing what their peers are saying and learning from the mistakes of their peers but at the same time you have them as much using the language. there is a lot of this passive watching and listening. (NAST)

III- Questions

8- The Purpose of Using Questions Inside the Foreign Language Class

In their response to this question, the interviewed teachers identified different purposes that are served by the questions employed in the target language class. The analysis of the interviews reveals the following purposes:

- To get learners explore the target language vocabulary and grammatical features;
- To get learners explore the target language culture by making connections between their culture and the target culture;
- To review the teaching material and to encourage learners to make connections of ideas by learning from each other; the fact which creates a more cohesive classroom;
- To encourage students to talk and to practice the target language;

- To stimulate students' thinking skills by exposing them to problem solving activities;
- To check students' comprehension of the target language material/ content and whether they can make connections between the previous and the current material/content.

Along the same line of thought, the NEST alluded to one of the purposes of teachers' questions which is worth mentioning in this context: 'the Socratic method'. According to her, we need to stimulate and sustain students' critical thinking strategies by asking them more questions than providing them with answers. She summarized the substantial purpose that is served by the Socratic method in the following quotation:

Asking them a question or engaging them more with questions than with answers uh to make them think, to draw them out, to encourage their use of vocabulary and their inevitable development of their own critical thinking, and why they think the way they do, how they think the way they do what they are thinking sometimes they don't even know what they are thinking emm I don't know if that answers the question. I I do ask questions. I I like asking questions I like opening the questions I like questions that lead them to discover the answer rather than me telling them. (NEST)

9- Factors Which Affect Questioning Behavior in the Foreign Language Class

Analysis of the interview transcripts divulges three different factors, as perceived by the interviewees, to have a great impact on questioning techniques in the foreign language class: *the appropriateness of the question to the context, students' linguistic competence,* and *students' motivation and level of interest.*

In terms of appropriateness of the question to the context, three interviewees pointed out to some types of questions which should be avoided by teachers due to the critical psychological impact they might have on learners. For instance, the NAST narrated an incident which happened with one of her students when she asked her a personal question about her parents. Although the teacher did this unintentionally and mistakenly, without knowing that her father already passed away, the student did not really feel comfortable and refrained from taking part in the interaction.

I remember that I gave one of the students an assignment to talk about her father and mother and I didn't know that she lost her father and then next class hadn't knowing this idea I asked her about her father and finally she informed me that she didn't want to get involved in this particular thing because it is troubling her and makes her feel sad, so I said okay. so, that's how I learnt about this type of question. but yeah these are the types of questions which are not appropriate. It's really interesting to ask me about these questions because I got to reflect about them. (NAST)

With regards to linguistic competence, teachers assumed that it is more appropriate to ask questions which suit students' linguistic level. In other words, teachers should make sure that students have the required vocabulary to engage in interaction with the teacher or the whole class.

Another key factor suggested by the interviewees is students' motivation and level of interest. According to them, the integration of questions which are engaging and challenging would stimulate students' critical thinking. Another important contribution of this type of questions is motivating students to search for arguments in order to convince each other.

10- Types of Questions Frequently Asked in the Foreign Language Class

Table 6.75

Types of Questions	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
Convergent questions	X		X	
Divergent questions	X	X		X
Procedural questions		X		
Confirmation checks	X			
Comprehension checks			X	
Clarification requests	X			
Referential questions	X			
Display questions				
Expressive questions				
Rhetorical questions		Х		

Types of Questions Frequently Asked by AFL Teachers

As illustrated in Table 6.75, different types of questions are used by the interviewed teachers in their FL classes. However, the overall analysis reveals that teachers' choice of one type of questions rather than another depends on two main factors: *the purpose of the lesson* and *students' level*. To delve more into the theme of students' level, the NNAST pointed out to the effectiveness of employing convergent questions with elementary level and delaying the use of divergent questions until the students reach a certain level of proficiency.

I would say the convergent questions that you first mentioned with limited answers they can kind of describe rather than express like their thought and feelings about things I mean just because of the level they are first year they are much more descriptive questions yeah like what does your mother do for a living? You know this missing description I am using vocabulary that they know but at the end of the year I am able to ask them some more of divergent questions I mean I am kind of bringing them up to the higher level right? from intermediate to advanced questions and you know most of them really can't answer but you know I I try to get them at least to attempt it uh but yeah for the most part then it's mostly the convergent questions and then the comprehension checks as well. (NNAST)

The same point of view was expressed by the NAST as far as the advanced level is

concerned. According to her, engaging higher level students in critical and analytical thinking is

of paramount importance. Yet, it is preferable to keep convergent questions with beginners.

Below is the opinion of the NAST:

However, I think in terms of the level uh the other questions might be used differently. So, definitely convergent uh would be more in elementary emm. it's in all classes but higher frequent in elementary, but in higher levels you start asking them divergent questions like what, how they feel or look for their opinion about a certain topic. (NAST)

11. The Association between Asking Different Questions and Learning Outcomes

Three of the interviewed teachers, namely the NAST, the NNAST, the NNEST expressed their entire approval of mixing up different types of questions in the FL class due to the enormous impact of this strategy on the learning process. According to the NNEST, asking different types of questions would help the students improve their level and enlarge their thinking and communicative capacities. The NNAST followed the same line of thought, but he alluded to the significant effect of amalgamating different types of questions in raising students' motivation and interest in learning the target language. On this point, the instructor expresses his thought:

Absolutely!! I think you know the more you mix it up you can of get students kind of thinking you know on their feet too you know getting them exploring and using the language in different ways not in unpredictable ways or you kind its keep them engaged or challenges them uh yeah I mean and I think you have also to change up your questions too otherwise they get bored. If you keep asking the same questions over and over again you have to find ways to very challenging ones. (NNAST)

According to the NAST, mixing up different types of questions is undeniably effective; however, this decision goes hand in hand with the immediate outcome that teachers are seeking to achieve. Therefore, if the teacher's aim is to promote the students' speaking skill, then he/ she is required to integrate all types of questions which encourage students to talk. This thought is expressed in the following quotation:

If I decide to have more expressive questions or more referential questions in my classes, then I would choose in a way to give them more speaking opportunities or more input. If I am going the other way around, I would change my outcome. I think you have the outcome and then you have the question that helps get more responses from students. (NAST)

Similarly, the NEST was also convinced that the amalgamation of different types of

questions would lead to good learning outcomes. Additionally, she alluded to the tight association

that exists between the choice of the appropriate type of questions and learning objectives. Her

views on this statement are expressed in the following quotation:

Your question needs to be aligned with the purpose of whatever you are doing. If you are trying to elicit production from students, asking closed-ended questions aren't going to be useful, but if you are trying to find out if they understood what was said in a quick way so that you can go through the entire class, so short questions would do the work. So, it's a hard question to answer based on just you know what can be more useful or more productive or more effective. If you use them appropriately, that would be effective. (NEST)

12- Strategies Adopted by Teachers to Assist Students Who are Unable to Answer Teachers' Questions

Table 6.76

Teachers' Strategies in Scaffolding Learners

Strategies	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
Reformulation	Х	Х	Х	X
Preformulation		Х	Х	Х
Wait time		Х	Х	
Disregarding the student				

Respecting the strategies that teachers use to assist students in framing their answers, all of them agree on the usefulness of reformulation, three on Preformulation, and just two on the importance of the wait time strategy. In addition to that, the NNAST and the NEST referred to another strategy which is not mentioned in the options or what I would call "*peer scaffolding*"; a strategy that is proved to be very effective based on their teaching experience in AFL and EFL classes. The central tenet of this strategy is the selection of another student to assist the one who is providing the answer or offering the student who is assigned the question the freedom to choose his/ her friend to help him/her with the answer.

Pertaining to the strategy of disregarding the student and assigning the question to another one, the NNAST perceived it as a resort in case other strategies did not work out. Conversely, the two NSTs of both AFL and EFL strongly criticized it as a "rude" and "destructive" behavior which only leads to detrimental effects in the learning process. The NAST referred to the psychological outcomes and the alternative strategies that should be adopted by teachers to avoid this negative strategy in the following quotation: This is rude ... a lot of the answers would depend on whether it is motivating or demotivating for the students; so, if my students didn't like them, I would just say okay move on. That's' how they receive it! That's how the students think about it! So, what you could do in a less rude term, give them time, reformulate the question! that's how they receive it! That's how the students think about it! that I am now taking that privilege that I gave you to maintain that pattern, and then if it didn't work you could tell them what do you think of this, someone else! I mean but just immediately no! it doesn't really help the learning process and it would have a bad psychological outcome. They would just start hating each other. They would feel jealous from each other. (NAST)

13- The length of the Wait-time Strategy

As far as the wait time strategy is concerned, only the NSTs, i.e., NAST and NEST seemed to have more awareness of the importance of an extended wait time and its effectiveness in SLA compared to the NNSTs. According to the NAST, offering a long wait time is necessary due to two main reasons. First, since the students are learning a foreign language, it is the teacher's duty to give them enough wait time to process and think about the response. She added that teachers need to make students feel at ease especially during the elementary learning level; at this stage, they really feel anxious because of their insufficient vocabulary. Second, dealing with learners from different cultural backgrounds dictates on teachers to be cautious in terms of their behavior inside the language class; therefore, planning for the wait time strategy should be taken into cognizance. The NAST reported her experience with Japanese students in the following quotation:

You know, it depends on the culture as well. Like my students are foreigners and I should be very cautious in dealing with them. For instance, the Japanese students, as you know their culture, they are not as expressive as Americans. So, for example they would really like worship their teacher, they think of their teacher very high; so, they are very sensitive toward anything that they they would say and it is weird for them. I don't know they don't usually feel like comfortable when you keep just asking them questions. No. but this is not the case for Americans. so, Asian students are kind of quiet. (NAST)

Likewise, the NEST and the NNAST believed that wait time strategy is important although this depends on students' ability, i.e., considering both students who learn quickly and those who need a long wait-time. So, as teachers, we can decide about their intellectual level, learning style,

and hearing style. Based on her teaching experience, the NEST elaborated on this point as follows:

I have some students that will never answer regardless of how long I get them. I have some students that if they are given enough time to come up with their answer and process their answer, they will answer and I have some that are shy, they have an answer but they need a little more prompting. Right? so it really really the classroom and really the students like know these know these things when they are in that process and then being conscious whether or not they need more time. (NEST)

With that being said, the NEST held that FL students need more time to think about the

answer. Additionally, it is not effective to keep asking the student a question while he/ she is

thinking about the answer. Below are the thoughts of the NEST regarding this subject:

I try to give them at least as long as it would take me to have a drink of water. Ask the question, stop, take a drink, pause, and then if they haven't answer, I ask them if they need more time. Emm rather than just moving on or prompting them because I know at least from my own foreign language experiences. If I am trying to think of the answer and you keep asking me questions and you keep talking to me I don't I can't stop to think of what I am thinking what all I can do is to listen to you I can't do both. So, I try to make time for the students who actually think through. (NEST)

Despite the perspectives reported by the respondents indicating different degrees of awareness of the wait-time strategy, the findings obtained from the actual classroom data are completely different. In fact, the analysis of classroom audio-recordings revealed that all teachers including native speakers and non-native speakers seem to implement the wait-time strategy in their classes although in different degrees depending on the nature of the course and students' level. These results present evidence about the fact that teachers may use a teaching technique in class although they are not aware of its name or its effectiveness. They are techniques which are automatically acquired through practice in language classrooms to scaffold students throughout their learning process.

14- Students' Initiation of Classroom Interaction

The four interviewed teachers acknowledged the significance of students' initiation of classroom interaction due to many reasons. According to the NEST, students are encouraged to ask questions because they are very crucial for the learning process. She expressed her perspective in the following quotation: "questions are how we learn, questions are the key to finding answers if we don't know the questions, we don't get answers and students have questions. I may redirect it if it's off topic or if it's going in a direction, I don't want but yeah". From the NNEST's standpoint, students are encouraged to initiate the interaction because it is an opportunity to help them master the skills of managing a conversation. To put it another way, being part of teachers' College, students are required to learn these communication skills as a preparation for their professional career. The NNAST discussed this point from another angle. According to him, encouraging students to initiate the interaction or to ask questions contributes to the promotion of a student-centered class. A potential scenario to demonstrate this point is when a student initiates the interaction, and other peers are likely to imitate him/ her by taking an active role. In doing so, all learners will be encouraged to talk with each other; hence, this puts the teacher in a position to step back since his/ her role will change from being the source of knowledge to a moderator who assists students in negotiating the conversation. Finally, the NAST perceived students' initiation of interaction as a learning opportunity and an indication of students' understanding and comprehension of the content. She expressed her opinion in the following quotation:

If somebody is not asking you would spend all the time skeptical. Is he following what I am saying? It's not one way, I mean you need to know for example, the problem in my current class is that when I explain something and my student asks a lot of questions because he is trying to connect what has just learned with what he already knows. So, for example, for the word Gamila or sorry the word Wafa and they are like oh and before we studied that taa: marbu: ta is a sign of feminine and they are like oh this is taa: marbu: ta and I am like yes! Well done! You see what is he doing, he is connecting what he has already learnt or what is he is learning and sometimes they come with very smart questions that you never thought of them yourself. This happened to me recently when I explain "kabi: r" "xabi: r" "ka θ i: r". so, if they do not ask, it means they are not learning. (NAST)

VI-Feedback

15- Teachers' Correction of Learners' Errors

In terms of error correction, the respondents reported different views based on the way they perceive errors and the effect of error correction on the learning process. The NEST and the NAST admitted that they do not devote too much attention to the correction of errors unless they affect comprehension. Below is their opinion concerning this topic:

Sometimes uh I would say probably in a discussion rarely. If it is the only time I would correct feedback this is probably in a question. the only time I would correct feedback in a discussion or a scenario where we're doing a big group thing is if it's affecting comprehension. If it's affecting people's ability to be able to understand that's the only time I would really focus on correcting something; otherwise, I usually if it's understandable I leave it and move on. (NEST)

yes, I do correct them, but sometimes I skip other types. **jaSni** for example if uh sometimes they deal with some accent issues, you know students they are struggling with the **pronunciation of Sin**, they say **?: n**. If this happens with their speaking, I don't correct it. So, I do correct a lot of errors which are related to the meaning and to something very particular like masculine feminine or adjectives and nouns. I would definitely correct them but I would not correct everything they say. (NAST)

Meanwhile, the NNEST and the NNAST admitted that they do correct learners' errors extensively. The NNEST, for instance, described learners' errors as a dangerous act which requires teachers' interference. In seeking to promote a student-centered approach, she assigned herself the role of a guide who would just point to the error and invite the students to think about the correct form instead of providing the feedback herself. Her thoughts regarding this point are expressed in the following quotation: So, I do not correct single mistakes, but when I see that it's a real error, that the student is uh repeating the same mistake which becomes an error; so, he has deficiency in his speech. So, I attract his attention and I give him uh time to change things. He has to change things, it's not my duty to change things. My duty is to attract his attention to his weaknesses and not to correct each time his weaknesses, because I spend each time, she says this and when she says this, I correct each time, it's not beneficial to her. I am not helping her like this. She she has to work on herself, he has to improve herself. But, I am here just to say that it's extremely dangerous what she is saying but using soft words. I do not say it's extremely dangerous. (NNEST)

Similarly, the NNAST acknowledged the act of error correction in his classes. Most

importantly, he stressed the point of correcting students' errors in a way which makes them more

comfortable and less interrupted. What follows is his perspective regarding this strategy:

I do. I probably do it too much. I but yes, I will correct. it depends I mean if someone is giving me like a long if giving me a long sentence. I won't stop and correct them I will let them finish and then if there is one or two things I wanna correct I will I will correct it at the end but I try not to interrupt the students with too many corrections. again I want to make them feel comfortable speaking and not feel you know there is type of students who talk and look at you and they are expecting you to completely correct everything and I want them to get out of that habit I want them just to speak without yeah feel like they are judged the whole time. (NNAST)

16- The Frequency of Correcting Learners' Errors

As discussed in the previous question, the NSTs are more likely to tolerate learners' errors than the NNSTs. This fact was confirmed when the respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of their error correction. Whereas the NNAST and the NNEST admitted that they correct learners' errors frequently, the NAST and the NEST provide only occasional corrective feedback when the type of error really requires correction. In the question that follows, teachers are invited to provide details about the types of errors.

17- Types of Errors Indicated during Correction

Table 6.77

Options	NST1	NST2	NNST1	NNST2
	(AFL)	(EFL)	(AFL)	(EFL)
Grammatical errors	Х		Х	Х
Phonological errors			Х	Х
Pragmatic errors	X	Х		

Types of Errors Indicated during Correction

As displayed in Table 6.77, there is a discrepancy between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the types of corrected errors. Whereas the NSTs focus more on pragmatic errors, the NNSTs have a tendency towards correcting grammatical and phonological errors. The difference between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of their perspectives about the correction of phonological and pragmatic errors is illustrated in the following quotations:

Honestly when a student overexaggerates. Ok. when it's an error, I attract the student's attention toward such thing, but when it's not repeated, it's not repeated. Here, here I can can close my eyes. But I never close my eye on pronunciation mistakes. So, pronunciation comes the first... I say you have serious problem with pronunciation mistake and you have said this and that and you have mispronounced this many times. like Students for example. I have a student who said uh I guess uh informations and she said I have forgotten and I told her we do not forget we forget once or twice we do not forget forty times. Okay, you spend time repeating the same mistake, and it's a problem and you have to work on this. (NNEST)

yes, I do correct them, but sometimes I skip other types. **jaSni** for example if uh sometimes they deal with some accent issues, you know students they are struggling with the pronunci**ation of Si: n**, they say **?i: n** . if this happens with their speaking, I don't correct it. So, I do correct a lot of errors which are related to the meaning and to something very particular like masculine feminine or adjectives and nouns. I would definitely correct them but I would not correct everything they say. (NAST)

18- The Reasons that Trigger Teachers to Correct Learners' Errors

This question is designed to delve into teachers' perceptions about error correction. As expected, the results of this question echo the findings of the previous one. The NSTs have a tendency towards developing students' communicative competence by providing feedback which encourages communication and an accurate delivery of the message. Conversely, the NNSTs are more likely to focus on developing students' linguistic competence; they aim at improving students' pronunciation and accuracy.

19- Teachers' Views about Immediate and Delayed Feedback

Although the NEST perceived the issue of delaying or providing immediate feedback as something that depends on different variables, three interviewed teachers, namely the NAST, the NNAST, and the NNEST considered delayed feedback as more preferable. In fact, they hold this view due to the impact of delayed feedback in creating a supportive learning environment. The latter stimulates students' capacity to express themselves freely without being interrupted by their teachers. Alternatively, spending much time on interrupting the student while he/she is speaking would probably affect his/ her self-confidence and eventually hinders the learning process.

20- Teachers' Corrective Feedback Strategies and their Effectiveness in Promoting Learning

Table 6.78

Teachers' Corrective Feedback Strategies and their Effectiveness in Promoting Learning

Options	NAST	NEST	NNAST	NNEST
Recasts		Х		
Explicit correction				
Explicit correction with				
metalinguistic explanations				
Repetition	X		Х	
Clarification requests	X			Х

Metalinguistic clues			X
Elicitations		X	Х
Paralinguistic signals	Х		
You ignore the error		X	
completely			

In this question, the interviewed teachers were provided with different corrective feedback strategies and were asked to identify the strategy/ strategies which they employ in their classes. The strategies are grouped into two main types: input-providing feedback and output providing feedback. In the first type, the teacher provide feedback throughout employing the following strategies: recasts, explicit correction, and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations. In the second type, the teacher does not correct students' errors himself/ herself; rather, he/ she resorts to different strategies to encourage students to correct their own errors through repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitations, and paralinguistic signals.

The analysis of the interview reveals that teachers employ different corrective feedback strategies regardless of being native or non-native speakers. To put it another way, there is no apparent discrepancy between both NSTs and NNSTs categories in terms of the types of feedback they integrate in their classes. For instance, the NAST and the NNAST share the same perspective in terms of their preference of repetition and clarification requests strategies, although the NAST also approves the effectiveness of paralinguistic signals. Both believed that these strategies are more convenient because they promote students' autonomy and encourage them to work on their own errors. In doing so, they would have the ability to process the correct form easily compared to the feedback provided directly by the teacher. Both teachers expressed their perspectives regarding the effectiveness of output providing feedback strategies in the following quotations:

Sometimes I make a facial expression or say what? It gives them the impression that they said something wrong; so, they rephrase what they have said. A lot of times, they would change their answer a little bit. I think this is more an output providing feedback. I use a lot of repetition and I know this is bad. sometimes, you recast things and students are unaware that they did something wrong unless you point. Sometimes, there are students who focus on what they said and what you said, but some other students won't. They don't realize they did something. So, during class, I do a lot of repetition and clarification requests in order for them to correct what they have said. (NAST)

emm I I like to use the repetition because I think it can give the students ownership over correcting themselves in correcting themselves. But if I just give them the correction, they may not internalize it. But if I kind of force them to think about what the rule is and how they apply the rule and how they should be applying the rule. I oblige them to make the correction and then doing the uh the repetition is just remind me you know the students are saying and hearing the correct form and hopefully you know with the context hopefully you know they are would concretize in their uh in their memory so they will be able to repeat it in the future yeah. (NNAST)

The NNAST elaborated more on the importance of output corrective feedback by

highlighting its significance is developing learners' lifelong skills. According to him:

Using output corrective feedback means forcing learners to become selfregulating self-checking and getting them into the habit of monitoring their own speech as well too. Uh you know I think it's important that students are listening to what they are saying as well too and then you know they start realizing okay I am not applying this rule correctly and then they correct themselves over the course of this semester they correct themselves so I don't have to correct them anymore. (NAST)

Contrary to the findings of AFL teachers, EFL teachers totally diverge in terms of their

perspective towards corrective feedback. The NEST considers recasts and elicitation as the most effective strategies; yet, she is more inclined towards a minimum correction of errors due to the detrimental effects that it may cause to the learning process in the long term. According to her, EFL teachers are required to generate a supportive learning environment throughout maximizing the use of constructive feedback, and recasts as a corrective feedback strategy could be used for this purpose. The NEST expressed her perceptions regarding this topic in the following quotation: Some students if you repeat their error back to them they will get frustrated and they won't even continue. They will be focused on that the rest of the day, and then they won't be able to produce. Uh and that's actually my greatest concern when giving feedback uh for constructive feedback for uh correction is whether or not it's going to cause anxiety which would cause students to stop producing. The idea is not to create an anxiety in such situations. So, I think recasts are really good in that. There is also a very good communicative strategy for showing that you understand, that you have been listening. So, it's not just in in communication strategies. When you are in a communication strategy, recasting what someone said or repeating in a different way what someone said is very good way to show someone that you are listening to them; so, I can do it kind of under the way that are as a communicative strategy as well as giving them the correction whereas the entire class will either hear it as one or the other right? so, In that sense, that one is really helpful. (NEST)

In the same vein, the NNEST also expressed her awareness of the effectiveness of output

providing feedback. According to her, the role of EFL teachers is to encourage learners to correct

themselves, which is the essence of student-centered approach. However, she diverges from the

NEST in the sense that she was totally against adopting the philosophy of tolerating learners'

errors. Below is her opinion about the strategies of error correction:

I want students to work on their errors. I told you that I give the floor to the student who made the mistake himself by just as you have said clarification request and if I see that he is unable, I move to the students, to his friends, asking the same sort of questions okay? metalinguistic clues or elicitation or clarification requests. I use these strategies, but I just didn't know their names, Okay? So, but I focus that it's the student who corrects. It's a self and peer-correction before I interfere. (NNEST)

21- Teachers' Views about Encouraging Self-Correction

The four interviewed teachers expressed their total support of self- correction due to the crucial impact it has both on students' learning and FL instruction. For instance, the NAST and the NNAST perceive it as a tool to encourage students' autonomy. To achieve this end, teachers are required to impart students with the lifelong skills which help them to find out a solution to the different problems they encounter in their daily life.

Because again you know they're gonna go out to the world on their own. They have to they have to start developing that skill as soon as they can. Also it's it's helpful coz you know they have to do a lot of pair work too and I am not there I am not there to give you know to correct every mistake that's being made but if they are able to kind of self-correct or correct their partner right? or clarifications you know that's more beneficial to their leaning than being completely relied on me. (NNAST)

The NEST addressed the effectiveness of self-correction from another perspective. According to her, this strategy of independent learning does not only assist her in detecting students' weaknesses, but also to find out the extent to which they are aware of their errors; hence, it would be easier for the teacher to address the relevant areas which would help students achieve the required objectives. The NEST voiced her perspective on this topic in the following quotation:

It shows that they know the rules and they are aware of making that mistake. If they can't self-correct, they are not aware they are making a mistake and that gives you a window into how you need to approach the lack of knowledge. (NEST)

22- Teachers' Encouragement of Peer-Feedback

Like self- correction, the instructors' responses to this question do not only reveal their awareness of the effectiveness of peer-feedback, but also their total support to the integration of this strategy in FL classes. The respondents highlighted three different reasons. First, peerfeedback makes the students feel at ease, especially when they realize that they face the same problems in learning the target language. Secondly, it creates a sort of community inside the class since all the learners contribute to classroom interaction. Thirdly, it increases students' learning, because they feel less anxious when the feedback is provided by somebody with the same level as his/ hers rather than from a person with authority, i.e., the teacher. The NEST elaborated on this point by referring to Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development:

Students oftentimes will take better feedback from each other than they will from their teacher and that will take it to heart more if someone that they admire in their class too than the teacher that they only see few hours a week. So, their peers are going to have a more it's gonna give a strong emotional impact on the students and emotional responses generally stick with us longer. (NEST)

In addition to the great advantages stated by the interviewees in favor of the peer-feedback, the NNAST drew our attention to the drawbacks that could be caused by this strategy if the feedback is not done in a respectful manner. Therefore, two immediate consequences may take place: a miscommunication problem or the use of this feedback as a tool of criticism. What follows is his perceptions regarding this point:

Well respectful uh peer- feedback and I think that's done as me as a teacher kind of modeling good respectful feedback giving. I give them feedback. You know I hope in pair work they give the same feedback you know ask for clarification or a recast to their partner I think that their partner is using the wrong conjugation or something you know using the wrong grammatical feature that would lead to miscommunication. No I think it's important but at the same time it should be done respectfully. I don't want them yeah uh uh to criticize you know when feedback turns into criticism and they don't wanna talk to each other anymore right? because they are they are fearful that they are gonna be policed by their partners. (NNAST)

6.3. Comparison and Interpretation of the Findings Obtained from EFL

and AFL Teachers' Interview

Despite the results that sprung out form the analysis of classroom audio-recordings revealing the variation that exists among NSTs and NNSTs, the analysis of teachers' interview proved that the interviewed teachers of both categories converge in different points in terms of the features of teacher talk and classroom interaction in general. For instance, although the practice of recording classroom talk does not seem to be a prevalent behavior among teachers unless it is part of their training curriculum, the overall results indicate that all the interviewed teacher are aware of the importance of recording their talk and the effects this may have in improving the teaching of foreign languages. Therefore, this practice should be extended to include all FL teachers as an integral part of their professional development. In what follows, the different points emerging from the comparison of EFL and AFL teachers' interviews are presented.

The first finding highlighted is that both native and non-native speaking teachers acknowledged the need to be flexible in allowing simultaneous talk. Equally important, teachers also recognized the importance of maintaining rigid turn-taking rules to maintain equal opportunity of participation for students and avoid cases of interruption. An in-depth analysis of the data reveals that the regulation of turn-taking rules is contingent on three different factors: learners' level, teachers' teaching philosophy, and teachers' personality. These finding, to some extent, align with the recommendations of Van Lier (1988) regarding the effectiveness of rigid turn-taking organization and its contribution in ensuring a successful classroom interaction.

Similarly, there is consensus among native and non-native speaking teachers that turntaking rules do not require explicit instruction; rather, it is a skill that should be learned implicitly. Although this is a logical explanation, putting the learners in a situation where they are required to master an improper implementation of these rules implicitly in the classroom will probably misguide them. Therefore, the point of acquiring turn-taking rules implicitly from the classroom is contingent on teachers' good knowledge and mastery of the turn-taking rules. In fact, the norms that the teacher perform in the classroom are transferred to learners implicitly through the everyday interaction taking place in the classroom. Therefore, turn-taking rules should clearly be stated right at the beginning to guide learners about the appropriate and inappropriate norms and behaviors allowed in the classroom. For instance, to maintain a good classroom management, explicit instruction should be offered to students who are newly admitted to a new institution but still adopt norms and behaviors that have been learnt at their former institutions despite their inaccuracy in the new context. In addition to the local level, these rules should also be emphasized crossculturally especially with the prevalence of exchange and study abroad programs.

The perspective that teachers reported regarding the amount of teacher talk in class revealed that there is no consensus among teachers in terms of the best percentage. Based on the data, the overall results show a percentage of 40% as a maximum amount for NNSTs and roughly a maximum percentage of 60% for NSTs. The results also reveal that this practice depends on the participants' teaching philosophy and the level of the learners. In this respect, whereas some recommended maximum teacher talk with elementary learners, others recommended a minimum teacher talk with advanced learners. Although this conclusion sounds convincing, minimization of the amount of teacher talk should be applicable with all learning levels; both elementary and advanced. So, whereas the former needs more time to practice the target language, the latter needs to learn how to learn by engaging in discussion, thinking critically, and challenging their teachers.

The results pertaining to the types of questions are also quite interesting. In fact, what is reported by the interviewed teachers do not show any clear differences or agreement among NSTs and NNSTs; both categories of teachers pointed to different question types. NSTs agree on the use of divergent questions; however, there is no agreement among NNSTs on a specific type. In fact, the overall results reveal that the interviewed teachers be they native speaking or non-native speaking are not aware of all the classifications and the importance of each question as well as its contribution in the learning process. Therefore, future teacher training programs should consider the instruction of elicitation techniques and their different functions to foreign language teachers along with their contribution in advancing students' level and facilitating the acquisition of the target language.

278

With respect to the different strategies used by teachers in scaffolding their students, the results also did not show any clear differences among teachers; instead, all agree on the use of reformulation, three on preformulation, and only two (the NEST and the NNAST) confirmed the effectiveness of the wait-time strategy. Additionally, the NEST and the NNAST pointed to the strategy of 'peer scaffolding' as an effective strategy that makes students feel less anxious when receiving guidance from their peers rather than their teachers. Further, all teachers disagree with disregarding the student strategy as it may have a great impact on the students' psychological state. This is a good pedagogical explanation; the strategy of disregard should be avoided at all costs as it leads to detrimental effects not only at that moment of correction but in the long term. Therefore, to avoid situations that may affect students' self-esteem and unsatisfactory participation in classroom discussion, teachers need to be careful about these nuances even considering the existence of factors pertaining to time constrains, lengthy curriculum, and overcrowded classes.

Another interesting finding is the one pertaining to wait-time. The results of teachers' interview show that only native speaking teachers are aware of this teaching strategy and its importance as a scaffolding technique. However, going back to the analysis of the recording, wait-time strategy was spotted in the four observed classes with different degrees. The highest number of cases which is equal to (47) reported in the NAST class, (36) cases in the NNAST class, (22) cases in the NNEST class, and only (9) cases in the NEST class. This leads the researcher to conclude that teachers may employ a teaching strategy in the classroom; however, they might not be aware of its significance as its effectiveness is acquired unconsciously during the process of instruction. Therefore, highlighting these strategies along with their terms and the role they play should be considered in teacher training programs.

Regarding students' initiation of classroom interaction, all respondents valued the importance of maintaining animated classrooms where interaction is not merely restricted to the authoritative one way of questioning from teacher to students. Rather, allowing students to initiate interaction is a skill that needs to be fostered to improve the quality of learning, to cultivate students who are responsible of their own learning, and to prepare efficient teachers who can create innovative techniques in their future professional career. Indeed, effective learning is not based on one-way question-answer routine initiated by the teacher. It is a life-long process that takes place in the classroom and extends to informal settings. Therefore, as teachers, we need to instill in our students the skill of interrogating and not simply accepting what is taught as something ideal and static.

With respect to error correction, analysis of the findings reveals divergence in participants' perspective. Non-native speaking teachers are inclined towards a regular correction of learners' errors as a tool to help them develop accuracy in the target language. In the meanwhile, native-speaking teachers reported that what mostly matters for target language learning is fluency. Therefore, minimization of error correction is recommended to encourage rather than block students from communication in the classroom. Similarly, the findings also reveal dissimilarity in teachers' perspective in terms of the types of questions that they need to focus on when providing feedback. Whereas the non-native speaking teachers opted for the correction of grammatical and phonological errors; hence, focus on language accuracy, native speaking teachers opted for encouraging meaningful communication with priority given to pragmatic errors. Indeed, effective target language instruction is the one that promotes learners' fluency through immersing them in the target language. Eventually, achieving a level where students are more comfortable to use and communicate in the target language also facilitates the mastery of the different rules needed to

articulate the target language. Fluency should also be prioritized over accuracy because our task as educators is to encourage students to communicate and share their ideas rather than focusing on the production of a correct language. Based on this concept, reshaping the target language curriculum is turned to be a necessity in light of the changing global demands of foreign language learning.

Furthermore, the perspective of both categories aligns in terms of error correction strategies as all teachers recognized the importance of output providing feedback. That being said, there are variations among teachers in terms of the more effective type. For instance, the NAST and the NNAST opted for repetition and clarification requests. Similarly, the NEST preferred recasts and elicitation with a minimum focus on correction per se. Along the same line, the NNEST recognized the importance of output providing feedback through highlighting the strategies of clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation. Regardless of the type of the strategy itself, what matters is developing a technique that promotes students' autonomy as this is the best way to achieve a rewarding foreign language teaching experience with a supportive learning environment where students' talents and skills are valued.

Lastly, in addition to the strategies of output corrective feedback, there is consensus among all teachers: both NSTs and NNSTs of AFL and EFL regarding the impact of peer feedback in improving foreign language instruction. The significance of peer feedback is attributed to different reasons which all contribute to creating a learning environment of community which invites students to support each other and learn from each other in a respectful and supportive way. It is another tool that helps to maintain a symmetrical rather than authoritative and obstructive classroom atmosphere. With these findings that emerged from a comparative analysis of EFL and AFL teachers' interview, in what follows the findings achieved from triangulation will be compiled and analyzed.

6.3. Findings Obtained from the Three Data Collection Methods

The overall purpose of this study is to explore the interactional features that characterize the talk of foreign language teachers following Walsh's (2006) modified version of Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk framework. To delve more into this topic and to provide an inclusive picture of how foreign languages are taught in different contexts, an analysis of teacher talk is conducted by considering both NSTs and NNSTs of EFL and AFL in the Algerian and American contexts, respectively. To put it another way, the study discusses the similarities and differences between both categories of teachers in both contexts in terms of three interactional features: turn-taking, questioning techniques, and oral corrective feedback.

This section is devoted to the discussion of the most significant findings obtained from the three data collection tools, namely classroom observations and audio-recordings, students' questionnaires, and teachers' interviews. The discussion is presented considering three main research questions and thirteen sub-questions which guide the study, and they are as follows:

Research question one

To what extent do native and non-native language teachers diverge from each other in the observed classes of EFL and AFL?

Sub-questions

- 1.1. What is the amount of teacher talk of both native and non-native speaking teachers?
- 1.2. Following Walsh's (2006) SETT model, how is turn taking organization planned in the classes of native and non-native speaking teachers?

1.3. What types and frequency of questions asked by native and non-native speaking teachers?

1.4. How is the wait-time strategy planned by native and non-native speaking teachers?

1.5. What are the different types of feedback provided by native and non-native speaking teachers?

Research question two

From the students' standpoints, what makes high quality interaction that boosts up students' production of the target language?

Sub-questions

2.1. What is the best turn-taking organization that FL teachers should implement in their classes?

2.2. What are the most effective questions that should be asked by FL teachers to trigger learners' responses and to encourage L2 development?

2.3. What are the most effective questioning techniques that should be implemented by FL teachers to promote students' responses?

2.4. What are the types of feedback that should be provided by FL teachers to encourage SLA?

Research question three

From the FL teachers' standpoints, what makes high quality interaction that boosts up students' production of the target language?

Sub-questions

3.1. What is the best turn-taking organization that FL teachers should implement in their classes?

3.2. What are the most effective questions that should be asked by FL teachers to trigger learners' responses and to encourage L2 development?

3.3. What are the most effective questioning techniques that should be implemented by FL teachers to promote students' responses?

3.4. What are the types of feedback that should be provided by FL teachers to encourage SLA?

The researcher's aim is to provide an answer to the three main questions. To achieve this end and to facilitate the task of the interpretation of the results, the discussion will be initiated by answering the sub-questions that spring out from each main research question.

Research question one: To what extent do native and non-native language teachers diverge from each other in the observed classes of EFL and AFL?

This is the main research question of the study, and it could be answered by depending on the three data collection sources (lesson observations and audio-recordings, students' questionnaires, and teachers' interviews) that make up the matrix for this study.

1.1. What is the amount of teacher talk of both native and non-native speaking teachers?

From the analysis of lesson transcripts, it was found that the IRF sequence is the prevailing type of interaction in the classes of NAST, NNAST, and NNEST. This factor probably has an impact on the results achieved regarding the amount of teacher talk in the FL classes under investigation. In the case of EFL classes, the results confirm that NNEST talk exceeds that of the NEST. More specifically, the NEST works towards minimizing her teacher talking time with (27%) as a percentage of teacher talk and maximizing learners talking time with a percentage of student talk equal to (73%); however, the NNEST organizes classroom talk in a way where turns are equally divided between the teacher (51%) and the students (49%). As already mentioned, these findings could be justified by the way interaction is organized in the observed classes. Indeed, both the NEST and the NNEST reported that they work toward promoting meaning and fluency

contexts, and the analysis of the actual data reveals that both are seeking to achieve this aim throughout their instruction; yet the organization of classroom talk in both classes is not the same. The NNEST is depending heavily on the traditional IRF pattern of interaction; so, the teacher dominates the interaction by occupying two thirds of classroom talk which are mainly devoted to teacher initiation and feedback, whereas only one third is devoted to students' response. This fact probably leads to restricted and less creative interaction which is not the case with the NEST. To put it differently, the NEST diverges from NNEST in the sense that she is working towards generating authentic classroom interaction where there is a symmetrical relationship between the teacher and the learners; hence, the essence of student-centered classrooms.

Similar to the previous findings with the NNEST, the analysis of the NAST and the NNAST lesson transcripts reveals that there is a huge reliance on the IRF sequence of classroom interaction. Additionally, the analysis of AFL classes in terms of the distribution of talk shows that the amount of both the NAST and the NNAST talk is almost equal to learner talk with very slight differences noticed in the NNAST classroom. Given these points, we can conclude that there is a remarkable difference between the NEST and the NNEST classes which are not marked in AFL classes. Furthermore, the equal distribution of classroom talk between the teacher and the students in the three observed classes, namely the NNEST, the NAST, and the NNAST classes could be attributed to three different factors: *teacher's philosophy about teaching, teachers' training,* and *learners' proficiency level*.

First, pertaining to the factor of *teacher's philosophy about teaching*, some teachers still hold a traditional teaching methodology and believe that it is more appropriate to teach the way they are taught. Likewise, their actual practice in the language classroom totally contradicts with their perceptions about how the learning/ teaching process should be. For instance, the analysis of the interviews indicates that teachers are aware of "meaning and fluency classroom contexts" pattern of classroom interaction and its contribution to the development of students' fluency, yet the analysis of the NAST, the NNAST and the NNEST actual classes reveals that the traditional IRF sequence is the prevailing pattern of classroom interaction.

Secondly, the difference between the NEST and the NNEST classes could also be justified by the instructor's background knowledge, training, and teaching experience in the implementation of innovative teaching methodologies. For instance, the NEST foreign training in TESOL and her international teaching experience probably justifies her awareness of developing authentic classroom interaction.

Thirdly, *learners' proficiency level* is considered as another significant factor which has a great impact on classroom talk. The analysis of AFL lesson transcripts reveals a huge dependence on IRF pattern of classroom interaction with an amount of classroom talk divided equally between the teacher and learners. In this context, it is fair to say that both the NAST and the NNAST maximize their talking time because they are dealing with elementary learners who do not have yet the required level to engage in conversation; therefore, sufficient input is essential until the students reach the level in which they can express themselves freely in the target language. This point has been already discussed by Nunan (1989) when he considered teacher's dominance of classroom talk as a normal behavior as far as it serves the purpose of comprehensible input.

1.2. Following Walsh's (2006) SETT model, how is turn taking organization planned in the classes of native and non-native speaking teachers?

This question is discussed with reference to three features of teacher talk proposed by Walsh (2006) in his Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk model: teacher interruptions, extended teacher-turn,

and turn completion. Based on Walsh's (2002) arguments, the integration of these features may either facilitate or obstruct the process of SLA.

The comparison between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the three features reveals that the NEST is more cognizant than the NNEST regarding the integration of interactional features that promote rather than hinder the process of SLA. First, whereas the NEST interruption is related to classroom management reasons, such as sustaining a classroom interaction devoid of problems related to turn taking organization, the NNEST interruption of students is linked to the message itself. This practice of consistent teacher interruption combined with the NNEST huge reliance on IRF pattern of classroom interaction led to the production of very short student turns compared to the NEST class. Secondly, both the NEST and the NNEST have a tendency toward avoiding extended teacher turn; a feature which contributes to the facilitation of second language acquisition. Thirdly, there are remarkable differences between the NEST and the NNEST in terms of turn completion. The latter is observed to depend on this practice more than the former despite its detrimental effects on the process of SLA.

Considering the NAST and the NNAST classes, the findings are quite different. It is noticed that both converge more than they diverge in terms of the treatment of the three interactional features. Despite the increased number of extended teacher-turn cases of the NAST compared to the NNAST which could probably be justified by his proficiency in the target language as an L1, both teachers are working toward a minimum use of teacher interruption and turn completion which could be viewed as a sign of teachers' awareness and mastery of turn taking rules.

Overall, it could be inferred that the NEST is more aware than the NNEST with respect to the patterns that contribute to the process of turn taking organization which, according to Walsh's

(2002) claim, contribute rather than impede the process of SLA. Meanwhile, there are no marked differences between the NAST and the NNAST compared to EFL classes which could be attributed to two reasons: their awareness of turn-taking rules and classroom cultural idiosyncrasies which dictate on them to respect the rules of turn-taking.

1.3. What types and frequency of questions asked by native and non-native speaking teachers?

The findings divulge significant differences between the NEST and the NNEST in terms of the use of different types of questions. First of all, the NEST is observed to use more procedural questions than the NNEST, and a possible interpretation of this result is the NEST's tendency to promote students' autonomy. Additionally, despite the analogous results achieved from both the NEST and the NNEST classes in terms of the use of divergent questions, the results obtained from the NNEST classes reveal an extensive use of convergent questions compared to the NEST. These findings do not align with the ones obtained from Kayaoğlu (2013); instead, both EFL teachers have a tendency toward promoting students' critical thinking skills with the NNEST's extensive focus on fostering aural skills, vocabulary, and whole-class participation compared to the NEST.

Another worth mentioning point is that the NEST uses more referential questions than the NNEST which justifies her tendency towards promoting greater learner productivity (Chaudron, 1988). Alternatively, the NNEST shows preference toward using display questions more than the NEST, which could probably be justified by the NNEST's intention to promote more meaningful communication between herself and the learners (Chaudron, 1988). Eventually, the findings of the study are not consistent with those of Kayaoğlu (2013).

Moreover, the research findings reveal that both the NEST and the NNEST diverge in terms of meaning negotiation techniques. The NEST opted for an extensive use of comprehension checks at the expense of confirmation checks and clarification requests which are either barely used or neglected; a possible interpretation for this is the NEST's focus on ensuring students' understanding. Conversely, the NNEST's extensive use of clarification requests and confirmation checks could be attributed to her emphasis on the delivery of the message by the learners.

Finally, a fascinating observation which sprung out from the analysis of the NEST's lesson transcripts is the integration of a new type of questions which has psychological effects rather than pedagogical ones. This type which I would call "attitudinal" or "psychological" questions is frequently posed with the aim of checking students' attitudes, point of view, or feeling toward a specific activity.

With respect to AFL classes, the research findings obtained from classroom recordings do not resemble the ones achieved from EFL classes. First, the NNAST uses more procedural questions than the NAST which is already justified by two reasons: students' proficiency level and classroom activities. Secondly, similar to the results obtained from EFL classes, there is no difference between the NAST and the NNAST in terms of the use of divergent questions. That being said, the NAST is observed to have a tendency towards using more convergent questions than the NNAST; the results which unpredictably contradict with the ones obtained from EFL classes and could be justified by the NAST tendency towards encouraging whole class participation and promoting aural and vocabulary skills (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) rather than generating genuine classroom interaction. Thirdly, in parallel with the findings obtained from EFL classes, the results show that referential questions are used by the NAST more than the NNAST, whereas display questions are preferred by the NNAST more than the NNAST. Fourthly, like the results achieved

from EFL classes, there is a total neglect of the use of clarification requests by the NAST. Meanwhile, although there is no significant difference between the NAST and the NNAST in terms of the use of confirmation checks, the NAST use of comprehension checks exceeds that of the NNAST; a similar result which is obtained in EFL classes with a different frequency.

Notwithstanding the substantial differences which exist between native speaking teachers and non-native speaking teachers, both categories of teachers do share some common features. First, both native and non-native speaking teachers equally use divergent questions in their classes although the percentage in AFL classes exceeds that of EFL classes. Secondly, native speaking teachers have a tendency towards integrating more referential questions than the non-native speaking teachers. On the other hand, non-native speaking teachers use more display questions than the native speaking teachers. These findings confirm the fact that native speaking teachers have a tendency towards promoting classroom discussion and debate by integrating questions that stimulate learners' productivity, whereas non-native speaking teachers give priority to display questions as their main objective is to encourage meaningful classroom communication (Chaudron, 1988). Thirdly, native speaking teachers use more comprehensions questions than the non-native speaking teachers. This conclusion could be justified by the difference of proficiency level between native speaking teachers and their learners which increases the instructor's thoughtfulness about their students' learning.

1.4. How is the wait-time strategy planned by native and non-native speaking teachers?

Wait-time is defined as the amount of time that the teacher pauses after asking his / her question (Chaudron, 1988). It is an instruction technique that is used by foreign language teachers to scaffold students in the learning process. It has been also proven that giving students enough

time to think about teachers' questions is very effective in increasing their responses (e.g., Chaudron, 1988; Hyman, 1989; Cazden, 2001).

The analysis of the results in terms of the way wait-time strategy is planned in the classes of teachers under scrutiny does not reveal remarkable differences between teachers with regards to being native or non-native speaking: the NNEST uses more wait time strategy than the NEST, whereas the NAST uses more wait time strategy than the NNEST. With that in mind, I argue that the extent of integrating this teaching strategy is contingent on two factors: *the pattern of classroom interaction* and *the choice of classroom activities*. Therefore, the more student-centered are classroom activities, the less wait time is devoted to learners. Moreover, the more authentic and discussion oriented is the language class, the less wait time is likely to be used by the language teacher. So, in discussion and student-centered activities, students are free to express themselves, and they are not constrained by teachers' questions which is the case with teacher-centered classes.

It is worth noting that these findings contradict with the ones achieved from teachers' interviews where the native speaking teachers' statements indicate that they are more aware of the significance of extended wait time strategy and its effectiveness in increasing students' responses compared to the non-native speaking teachers. Despite this fact, the findings of the lesson transcripts align with the results achieved from the questionnaires of both AFL and EFL students. In both the Algerian and the American contexts, students admitted that they receive enough amount of wait time from their teachers to express themselves freely when they are assigned turns to talk. However, there is no association between the way this strategy is planned and teachers' background, i.e., being a native or a non-native speaking teacher.

1.5. What are the different types of feedback provided by native and non-native speaking teachers?

The analysis of classroom audio-recordings in terms of the treatment of oral errors divulges a discrepancy between the native and non-native speaking teachers. The data consist of ample examples to argue that native speaking teachers of either AFL or EFL are more likely to tolerate learners' errors than the non-native speaking teachers. It is the same conclusion drawn from the responses of interviewees as both the NEST and the NAST reported that they do not devote too much attention to students' errors unless they cause comprehension problems.

Concerning the type of oral corrective feedback provided by both native speaking teachers and non-native speaking teachers, the results reveal that the NNEST extensively uses explicit correction while the NNAST opts for the strategy of repetition. To put it another way, the NAST is working towards encouraging student self-correction or "output providing feedback", whereas the NNEST prefers her own feedback or "input providing feedback".

One thought provoking point that sprung out from the data is that teachers' actual behavior does not reflect their perceptions or beliefs about the different strategies of oral corrective feedback. To elaborate on this point, the responses obtained from teachers' interviews reveal that there is no difference between both categories of teachers in terms of the most frequently employed type of feedback. Rather, there are individual differences which are mainly attributed to teachers' perceptions and beliefs about oral corrective feedback. For instance, both the NAST and the NNAST consider repetition and clarification requests as the most effective oral corrective feedback strategies because they promote students' autonomy and encourage them to work on their own errors. This, in turn, would help them identify and process the correct form easily which is not the case with feedback that is directly provided by the teacher. Moreover, the NEST and the NNEST completely diverge in terms of their beliefs. The NEST is totally against correcting students' errors especially when they do not affect communication. However, she believes that if feedback is really needed, recasts is what is recommended since it represents a constructive feedback strategy which encourages rather than hinders the process of SLA. Conversely, the NNEST has a different philosophy as she devotes too much attention to error correction. Additionally, her beliefs about the most effective error correction strategies do not align with her actual behavior in the classroom. All the corrective feedback strategies that were recorded are instances of explicit correction; yet, she believes that output providing feedback, namely metalinguistic clues, elicitation, and clarification requests are the most effective ones.

Research question two: From the students' standpoints, what makes high quality interaction that boosts up students' production of the target language?

The second research question is designed to explore teacher talk features that contribute to the creation of high-quality interaction which fosters students' production of the target language from the learners' perspective.

2.1. What is the best turn-taking organization that FL teachers should implement in their classes?

In contrast to ordinary occurring conversation, communication in foreign language classes is regulated by a number of turn-taking rules which contribute to the institutional nature of the classroom. To put it another way, one of the characteristics which distinguishes the language classroom from other settings, for example, is the asymmetrical relationship between the teacher and learners; the fact that gives the right for teachers to direct speakership and orchestrate turntaking rules (e.g., McHoul, 1978; Walsh, 2004). Based on what is stated, do these facts align with students' preferences in terms of turn-taking organization?

The findings of the surveys reveal that above half of both EFL students (60%) and AFL students (60.86%) opted for "self-selection" over "wait my turn" as a turn allocation strategy. The overall analysis of their arguments revolves around the idea that teacher selection would just put them under the pressure of being forced to answer the question, which, in turn, causes a psychological state of anxiety especially with introvert students. Alternatively, giving students the freedom to self-select their turns increases their self-confidence and encourages them to frame better responses rather than focusing merely on answering the question for the sake of pleasing the teacher.

Although students opted for the freedom of selecting their own turns, there are instances when they feel obliged to follow their teachers' instruction regarding turn-taking rules. In response to the question of the most effective turn allocation rules, the majority of both EFL (76.66 %) and AFL (69.56%) students expressed their preference for "calling on students' name" strategy due to the positive psychological effects it has on their personality, mainly self-esteem and self-confidence.

Even though there is no ultimate conclusion regarding native speaking teachers' and nonnative speaking teachers' reaction to simultaneous talk in foreign language classes, the percentage of students who opted for an explicit instruction of turn-taking rules exceeds that of students who favored their implicit acquisition within the classroom. These results are applicable in both the Algerian and the USA contexts.

294

Respecting students' perceptions of rigid turn-taking organization and its contribution to foreign language learning, the results of the analysis reveal two opposing views: EFL students believe that inflexible turn taking organization would better contribute to L2 learning as this would create a more structured learning environment where all students have equal participation opportunities. Conversely, AFL learners expressed their objection to rigid turn taking organization. According to them, flexible turn taking organization is the optimal choice because it restricts students' responses and reduces the level of their involvement in classroom activities.

2.2. What are the most effective questions that should be asked by FL teachers to trigger learners' responses and to encourage L2 development?

Regarding the most effective questions that should be asked by language teachers to trigger learners' responses and to encourage L2 development, four key features emerge from our analysis. To begin with, both EFL and AFL learners recommended the use of divergent questions, and this explains their awareness of the importance of divergent questions and the impact they have on promoting their critical thinking skills. Secondly, although there is no clear conclusion obtained from EFL students' responses in terms of the importance of procedural questions, the results achieved from AFL classes indicate that this type of questions is highly recommended at the elementary more than the advanced level. One possible justification of this is that students are still beginners in learning a foreign language; hence, more guidance is required on the part of their instructors to get them acquainted with classroom routines, to guide them, and to keep them focused throughout the different stages of the lesson. Thirdly, although there is no clear conclusion that could be inferred from EFL students' responses, AFL alluded to the importance of referential questions which have good effects in promoting students' productivity. One last important observation is associated with meaning negotiation techniques; hence, the research findings

indicate that FL students recommend more comprehension checks than confirmation checks or clarification requests. One possible interpretation for this finding is that students' emphasis on this consistent checking on whether they grasped teachers' explanation probably instils in them a feeling of being esteemed and taken care of by their teachers.

2.3. What are the most effective questioning techniques that should be implemented by *FL* teachers to promote students' responses?

There are many strategies that could be used by FL teachers to scaffold their learners and help them increase their responses. However, the effectiveness of one strategy over another remains equivocal as this depends on students' experiences. Based on students' responses in both EFL and AFL classes, the findings indicate that "preformulation" and "reformulation" are the two optimal teaching strategies recommended by learners with insufficient attention devoted to "wait-time strategy". A possible interpretation for this is that students do not really perceive "extended wait time" as strategy that would help them frame better answers; rather, they have the desire of being guided by their teachers to help them decipher the messages transmitted to them through either "preformulation" and "reformulation". In doing so, they will be in a better position to offer responses as expected by their teachers. One point which is worth mentioning in this context is related to students' responses in terms of the way the wait-time strategy is planned in the FL classroom. The analysis of students' responses in both EFL and AFL classes reveals no clear association between the amount of wait-time assigned to students and teachers' background, i.e., either a native or a non-native speaking teacher.

2.4. What are the types of feedback that should be provided by FL teachers to encourage SLA?

Students of both AFL and EFL classes strongly appreciated the act of feedback provided by their teachers in response to the errors they committed. Therefore, these findings call for a careful consideration of the appropriate feedback strategy that should be adopted by foreign language teachers to facilitate the learning process.

The research findings obtained from both EFL and AFL students' surveys divulge their preference for output prompting feedback compared to input providing feedback. Although the strategies of "explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback" and "recasts" are strongly preferred by a minority of students that considers teacher's feedback more efficient, output corrective feedback strategies recommended by learners are "repetition", "paralinguistic signals", and "metalinguistic clues".

Another key finding in the data that confirms students' preference for autonomous learning is their response to the question pertaining to peer feedback. The results indicate that students strongly validated its effectiveness and recommended its use by foreign teachers. To back up their position, they alluded to the three main benefits of this strategy: creating a supportive learning environment, improving their performance, and instilling in them the spirit of teamwork.

Research question three: From the FL teachers' standpoints, what makes high quality interaction that boosts up students' production of the target language?

3.1. What is the best turn-taking organization that FL teachers should implement in their language classes?

There is no clear difference between native and non-native speaking teachers in terms of the best turn taking organization; rather, the overall analysis of interviews reveals that all teachers opted for a mixture between a flexible and a rigid one, although the choice depends on the context. To put it another way, FL teachers recommended flexibility when dealing with adult learners because the imposition of turn taking rules confines their freedom and reduces their motivation level. Contrariwise, the interviewed teachers alluded to those situations which dictate on foreign language teachers to intervene and impose turn taking rules, especially when they are not being respected by learners.

Another significant finding which relates to this point is the absence of consensus among teachers on whether rigid turn-taking organization contributes to or impedes L2 learning. According to the NAST and the NNEST, rigid turn-taking impedes L2 learning; hence, their task is to encourage students to be involved in classroom discussions and debates in order to help them improve their speaking. Meanwhile, the NEST and the NNAST believe that being rigid or flexible is contingent on two main factors: *teachers' personality and beliefs* and *students' level*.

Regarding the instruction of turn-taking rules, the respondents believe that they do not require explicit instruction; rather, they can be acquired implicitly from the context. To back up this claim, they adopted two different arguments. First, turn taking is described as a life skill which comes from experience either in natural occurring conversation or in institutional settings like the language classroom. So, figuring out or getting adjusted to those rules is just a matter of time. Second, the instruction of turn-taking rules gives students the impression that they are controlled which, in turn, is likely to confine them from focusing on the important points.

Finally, regarding the amount of teacher talk, the respondents reported that their talking time falls between 30%- 40%, which is considered too much from their perspective. When delving into their perceptions about this point, the findings reveal their awareness of the principle which calls for minimizing teacher talking time and maximizing student talking time; the requirement which is highly recommended in overcrowded classrooms to ensure that all learners have equal opportunities of participation. In addition to that, the respondents alluded to the point of considering students' level. To put it another way, while teachers are required to maximize their talking time with elementary learners since the latter need exposure to the target language, teacher talking time should be minimized with advanced learners as they have the required competence to communicate in the target language.

3.2. What are the most effective questions that should be asked by FL teachers to trigger learners' responses and to encourage L2 development?

Similar to the question assigned to students, teachers were also enquired about the different questions which they employ in their classes to elicit students' responses. The interviewees admitted that they use a variety of elicitation techniques depending on three variables: *The appropriateness of the question to the context, Students' linguistic competence,* and *students' motivation and level of interest.* The most effective questions that trigger students' responses and encourage L2 development, from the teachers' perspective, are compiled according to their frequency into divergent questions, convergent questions, procedural questions. With reference to students' responses, we can deduce that both teachers' and students' perceptions match in terms of divergent questions, convergent questions, comprehension checks, and referential questions. Alternatively, there is no overlap in terms of confirmation checks and

clarification requests. One possible interpretation for this is that this type of meaning negotiation questions has purposes which serve the teacher more than the learners.

One point which is worth mentioning in this context pertains to the close association which exists between integrating different types of questions in the foreign language classroom and the effect that this would have on ameliorating the learning outcomes. Based on our research findings, three interviewed teachers have already confirmed this in their response to the types of questions they use in their classes. In addition to that, they overtly admitted their total agreement with mixing up different types of questions in the foreign language classroom and highlighted two significant effects which contribute to students' learning. According to them, in additions to improving students' level and enlarging their thinking and communicative capacities, using different types of questions has a great effect in raising students' motivation and interest in learning the target language.

3.3. What are the most effective questioning techniques that should be implemented by FL teachers to promote students' responses?

Teaching a foreign language, especially at the elementary level, requires a lot of scaffolding from the instructors to help students frame their responses to the questions assigned to them. The interviewed teachers strongly called for this strategy by criticizing the act of "disregarding the learner and assigning the question to another one" as inappropriate and rude. In terms of the strategies, they gave priority to "reformulation" and "performulation"; however, only two teachers went for the "wait-time" strategy. These findings are similar to the ones achieved from students' responses; a possible interpretation for this is teachers' unsatisfactory awareness of the importance of the wait time strategy in refining learners' responses. Another interpretation is teachers' belief that increasing learners' responses requires assistance from the teacher since the wait-time would not suffice to achieve this aim. Since some respondents, mainly the NNAST and the NEST, embraced a student-centered teaching methodology, they referred to what I would call "peer scaffolding" as another effective strategy. So, in addition to being assisted by the teacher, each student has the option of selecting a friend/peer to help him/her with the answer.

3.4. What are the types of feedback that should be provided by FL teachers to encourage SLA?

The results of the findings reveal a noticeable discrepancy between native and non-native speaking teachers in terms of their treatment of errors. NSTs expressed their tolerance and flexibility towards students' errors unless they are relevant to comprehension; hence, they tend to focus more on pragmatic errors. On the other hand, NNSTs perceived the act of corrective feedback as compulsory, yet a careful consideration should be devoted to the way it is provided since students need a learning environment where they feel more comfortable and less interrupted. In terms of types of errors, the NNSTs tend to give a priority to grammatical and phonological errors over pragmatic ones.

Considering these facts, teachers acknowledged the use of a variety of corrective feedback strategies; however, the findings reveal no ostensible divergence between native and non-native speaking teachers in terms of the types of feedback they integrate in their classes. The finding which is worth mentioning here is that all the interviewed teachers expressed their strong preference for output corrective feedback due to the tremendous effects that self-correction has on fostering students' autonomy and assisting them in processing the correct form easily. To put it another way, in input providing feedback, the teacher provides the correct form, but learners might

fail to realize or identify it. More specifically, both the NAST and the NNAST opted for the strategies of "repetition" and "clarification requests"; the NNEST acknowledged the use of "metalinguistic clues", "elicitation", and "clarification requests", and finally the NEST valued the use of "recasts" and "elicitation" as the most effective feedback strategies.

Conclusion

In addition to the description and analysis of teachers' interviews, this chapter discussed the findings obtained from the three data collection methods. The discussion revolved around the following three main themes: The points of convergence and divergence between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the amount and features of their talk, the characteristics of high-quality classroom interaction from students' perspectives, and then the characteristics of high-quality classroom interaction from teachers' perspectives.

Key feature throughout the findings was that all the observed teachers, except for the NEST, dominate classroom talk along with a prevalence of the IRF pattern of classroom interaction. This is revealed through the high percentage devoted to teachers' turns compared to the students' turns in the classes of the NAST (50 % for TT Vs. 50 for LT), the NNAST (52 % for TT Vs. 48% for LT), and the NNEST (49% for TT Vs. 51% for LT). Conversely, classes of the NEST which are characterized by less teacher talking time compared to learners talking time (27% for TT Vs. 73% for LT) are characterized by authentic classroom interaction, where there is no room for an asymmetrical relationship between the teacher and the students. It is worth pointing out that the amount of classroom talk and how it is divided between teachers and learners is contingent on three factors: the instructor's philosophy about teaching, teacher's training, and learners' level.

The second significant finding pertains to turn taking organization. While the research findings revealed marked differences between the NEST and the NNEST, there are no remarkable differences recorded between the NAST and the NNAST. Therefore, the implementation of patterns of interaction that either contribute to or impede SLA highly depends on teachers' awareness of the effective turn-taking rules and classroom culture.

The third important finding is related to teachers' questioning techniques. One interesting observation is that both NSTs and NNSTs have a tendency towards fostering students' critical skills through their extensive use of divergent questions. Also, whereas the NSTs integrate more referential questions in their classes to stimulate students' discussion and debate, the NNSTs give priority to display questions with the aim of encouraging meaningful classroom communication (Chaudron, 1988). Further, the NSTs are observed to use more comprehension checks than the NNSTs; hence, the difference of proficiency level between NSTs and learners is likely to increase the thoughtfulness of instructors about their learning.

The fourth key finding is related to the way the wait time strategy is planned in the observed classes. The analysis of lesson transcripts reveals no striking differences between NSTs and NNSTs. Instead, the integration and length of wait time strategy is dependent on two factors: the pattern of classroom interaction and the choice of classroom activities. Therefore, the more student-centered are classroom activities, the less wait time is devoted to learners. Moreover, the more authentic and discussion oriented is the language class, the less wait time is likely to take place.

The fifth finding pertains to oral corrective feedback. The analysis reveals remarkable differences between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the way they address learners' errors. Thus,

303

unlike NNSTs, NSTs are more inclined towards tolerating learners' errors. Despite this fact, the results do not reveal any significant differences between both categories in terms of the use of different types of corrective feedback strategies; instead, the discrepancies are merely related to individual differences ascribed to teachers' beliefs and perceptions about corrective feedback.

The final key finding is relevant to students' perspective regarding the features that make high quality interaction. Although there is no consensus among AFL and EFL learners regarding rigid/ flexible turn taking organization and its contribution to L2 learning, both AFL and EFL learners perceive freedom in self- selecting their turns as more preferable due to the great impact it has in increasing their responses as well as their level of self-confidence. In addition to that, they consider the explicit instruction of turn-taking rules as an effective strategy that should be implemented by every FL teacher. In terms of questioning techniques, both AFL and EFL learners recommended the integration of three main types of questions: divergent questions as they play a significant role in stimulating their critical thinking; procedural questions as they contribute to sustaining their focus especially at the elementary level, and comprehension checks due to their effects in instilling in learners the feeling of teachers' thoughtfulness about their learning. Finally, in addition to the importance they assigned to reformulation and preformulation as scaffolding techniques, both AFL and EFL students highly encouraged the correction of their errors with a maximum use of output providing and peer feedback; both have a substantial contribution in increasing their autonomy and comfort level.

Chapter Seven: Summary of the Results, Implications and Suggestions for Further Research

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the quality of interaction in AFL and EFL classes at the tertiary level and from native and non-native speaking teachers' perspective in both the Algerian and American contexts. This chapter starts with key answers to the three main research questions of the study. Thereafter, the subsequent sub-sections address the contribution of the thesis to the literature on classroom interaction and teacher talk. This is followed by highlighting the limitations of the study. Finally, recommendations for future research and concluding remarks are presented.

7.1. Summary of the Results

This study explored the nature of classroom interaction in EFL and AFL classes in the Algerian and American contexts from both the teachers' and the students' perspectives. More specifically, it spelled out the nature of native speaking teachers and non-native speaking teachers' talk in EFL and AFL classes in terms of three main interactional features, including teacher talk, questioning techniques, and the treatment of oral errors. Following Walsh's (2002) claim, the study is based on the premise that there are interactional features which should be exploited as they foster SLA. In reverse, there are those features which should be avoided as they hinder the process of SLA.

The first finding is that the IRF sequence is the prevailing pattern of interaction in three of the observed classes, namely the NNEST, the NAST, and the NNAST. Therefore, teachers' heavy

reliance on this pattern justifies the equal amount of talk between learners and teachers in these classes. Another possible justification to the percentage of classroom talk and how it is equally divided between teachers and learners, mainly in AFL classes is students' competence in the target language. As elementary or intermediate learners, they need abundant exposure to the target language until they reach a stage when they able to communicate effectively in the target language. The same results were not obtained from the NEST classes. Rather, the findings indicate that the number of learners' turns in her classes exceeds that of the teacher. This probably explains her intention in generating authentic classroom interaction where there is a symmetrical relationship between the teacher and the learners in terms of the discussion and debate of activities; hence, the essence of student-centered classrooms.

In terms of the quality of turn-taking, the NEST strives to minimize the use of the features that obstruct the process of SLA. Therefore, only very few cases of teacher interruption or turn completion emerge in the data. Conversely, the NNEST heavy reliance on the IRF pattern of classroom interaction with constant instances of teacher interruption and turn completion had a great impact in the production of very short turns from leaners compared to learners taught by the NEST; hence, it could be considered as an indicator of impediment to the learning process. This is not the case with both NAST and NNAST classes which could be justified by teachers' avoidance of these features. Moreover, whereas EFL teachers avoid the use of extended teacher turn, there are cases recorded in AFL classes; one possible interpretation for this is students' insufficient competence in the target language which requires AFL teachers to increase their talking time.

Another key finding pertains to the use of different types of questions in the observed classes. The data show no difference between NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the use of divergent questions as both categories of teachers in both AFL and EFL classes have a tendency towards fostering students' critical thinking skills; however, there are remarkable differences between NSTs and NNSTs with regards to other types of questions. To elaborate on this point, NSTs strive to promote greater learner productivity more than NNSTs which is justified by the extensive use of referential questions. Conversely, NNSTs use more display questions than NSTs with the aim of promoting meaningful communication inside the FL class. Respecting the use of techniques of meaning negotiation, the data reveal no remarkable differences between both categories of teachers as these differences are simply individual. Yet, one point which is worth noting is that NNSTs employ more clarification requests than their NSTs counterparts.

With reference to the wait-time strategy, the results also reveal no clear differences between NSTs and NNSTs. In this respect, we can conclude that its planning is contingent on two important factors. The first factor is related to students' level. In fact, there is an increased use of wait-time strategy with elementary and intermediate level rather than advanced one as students need more time to frame their answers due to their linguistic competence. The second factor is associated with the pattern of classroom interaction. Therefore, the more authentic and discussion oriented is the language classroom, the less wait-time strategy is used. Conversely, the more the language classroom is based on the traditional IRF sequence, the more we expect an increasing number of wait-time strategy.

Pertaining to the treatment of learners' errors, the findings divulge significant differences between NSTs and NNSTs. Whereas the NNSTs devote too much attention to oral corrective feedback with a special focus on phonological or grammatical errors, the NSTs are more likely to tolerate learners' errors. In this respect, they tend to minimize the practice of oral corrective feedback unless those errors have an impact on comprehension. In response to students' errors, both categories of teachers opted for an output providing feedback and peer feedback as a strategy which fosters students' autonomy, creates a supportive learning environment, and assists them in processing the target form easily. It is also worth noting that there is no difference between NSTs and NNSTs as far as the focus of feedback, i.e., form or content is concerned.

The last findings are related to students' reflection on the characteristics that make high quality interaction. In terms of turn-taking organization, both AFL and EFL students perceive "self-select turn" strategy as more ideal, although they diverge in a few points. Whereas AFL students consider both implicit and explicit instruction of turn-taking rules to be effective, EFL students opted for explicit instruction as it keeps them guided. Regarding the relationship between turn-taking and L2 learning, there is no consensus among students on the most effective turntaking organization. AFL learners opted for flexibility as it better contributes to L2 learning, yet EFL learners perceive rigid turn-taking organization as more preferrable. With reference to types of questions, both AFL and EFL learners validated the significance of divergent questions and comprehension checks due to their impact in increasing their learning opportunities. However, since AFL are still not advanced, they highly recommended the use of procedural questions. In response to the best questioning strategies that increase their responses, both AFL and EFL learners agree with the use of Preformulation and reformulation as the most preferred teaching strategies; the perspective that is shared by teachers as well. Finally, regarding error correction, students' perceptions resemble the ones achieved from teachers' responses in terms of the strong preference of peer feedback and output providing feedback; both types have a tremendous impact on encouraging learners' autonomy.

7.2. Contribution of the Study

7.2.1. Contribution of the Study to the Literature on Classroom Interaction

This study supplements the literature on classroom interaction and teacher talk at the tertiary level in two different contexts with different pedagogical traditions. Throughout addressing the features of teacher talk, the study contributed in raising teachers' awareness of classroom interactional features. It draws on educators' experiences to pinpoint the different features which could either facilitate and foster SLA or rather hinder and obstruct SLA. In highlighting these interactional features in different foreign language classes of native and non-native speaking teachers, the study guides foreign language instructors in terms of the teaching practices that should be promoted and those that should be avoided to ensure a successful and effective instruction of the target language.

The study also addresses important research gaps in the literature. Although there is previous comparative research conducted in this area, it remains insufficient as it is limited to EFL classes in only some contexts such as Turkey. With respect to AFL classes, there is no research that has been conducted before on classroom interactional features or teacher talk. Therefore, the research findings could be considered as a starting point to initiate further research in this area given the importance assigned to the instruction of AFL in the Western context. The study also paves the way for the discussion of the features that characterize teacher talk of other foreign languages apart English and Arabic.

Another major contribution is that the study offers insights into how interactional features that characterize teacher talk operate in two different pedagogical traditions: the Algerian and American contexts. Thus, the findings may enrich the literature that discusses the close association existing between classroom cultural differences and their impact on the features that characterize classroom talk. This topic is relevant and timely especially in the age of globalization where educators use their academic and professional background, they achieved in the native country to seek teaching opportunities in the global market.

7.2.2. Contribution of the Study to Practice

In practice, the findings may contribute to compiling a few pedagogical recommendations which would guide foreign language teachers in their classes. Since teachers' input has a great impact on either facilitating or hindering the learning process, these guidelines will probably help improve the quality of foreign language teaching and from teacher talk perspective. These guiding principles are even more relevant with the increasing need of teaching English as a Foreign language in Algeria and Arabic as a foreign language in the USA. The suggested recommendations are discussed in the section that follows.

7.3. Pedagogical Recommendations

Based on our research findings, we conclude that the teaching/learning process could be improved if instructors developed an in-depth understanding of classroom interaction and the interactional features that make up their talk for the reason that, the mastery of these parameters is likely to have a positive impact on students' learning. In view of this, the following pedagogical recommendations are addressed to foreign language teachers who teach either their native or nonnative language.

• Creating a genuine classroom interaction

Teachers should break the traditional IRF cycle and work toward promoting genuine classroom interaction. To achieve this end, they are required to maximize their learners' talking time, offer them more opportunities to talk and express themselves in the target language, and increase their chances of initiating classroom interaction. Therefore, classroom power dynamics should change from asymmetrical and authoritative to a more symmetrical and friendly where both teachers and students discuss the subject matter in a way that allows them to learn from each other rather than putting learners in a situation where they are compelled to accept every single concept presented by the teacher. Ideally, we need to cultivate learners who think critically, learners who are in consistent search of knowledge as learning is not limited to the formal environment but extends to the informal and real-life experiences i.e., lifelong learning. So, the way we address learners through the way we talk and converse in the class should contribute to the achievement of this goal.

• *Promoting scaffolding strategies*

Teachers are recommended to value the use the wait-time in their FL classes. As a scaffolding strategy, a long wait time is proved to have a great impact in increasing students' responses, confidence, and comfort level, especially at the elementary stages of learning. Therefore, the importance of this aspect should be highlighted in teachers' professional development programs.

• Diversifying questioning strategies

Teachers should integrate a variety of questioning techniques in their classes, as the more the questions are diversified, the more likely they will increase students' learning opportunities. With that in mind, the use of some types of questions should be amplified than others if teachers considered important factors such as students' level and lesson objectives. For instance, teachers working with elementary level students are advised to increase the use of procedural questions, as they play an important role in guiding the learners throughout the different stages of the lesson. Meanwhile, divergent, and referential questions are highly recommended if teachers aim at increasing students' productivity and critical thinking skills; although this aim should be achieved with learners belonging to different levels, critical thinking skills are highly recommended in advanced levels.

• Tolerance of Students' Errors

In authentic classroom interaction, the main aim of the teacher is to promote students' fluency. This aim will be achieved if more importance is devoted to students' ideas over their errors. Therefore, tolerating students' oral errors should be the philosophy of every foreign language teacher who is seeking to foster rather hinder the process of SLA.

• Considering students' choices and preferences

Stimulating FL learners' motivation to talk is probably based on the relevance of the topic/ theme to their interest. Therefore, to increase students' output, teachers are required to consider students' preferences and personal choices. A combination of this strategy along with interactional features that contribute to building up a successful teacher input would likely generate high quality classroom interaction that every FL teacher is striving to achieve.

• Refining teacher training programs

Teachers usually teach the way they are taught; thus, they are less likely to consult the upto-date literature relevant to the different strategies used to deal with learners' errors. Based on this fact, more insights about learners' errors and the different corrective feedback strategies

312

should be introduced explicitly to teachers as well as learners in different teacher training programs as this would familiarize them with the different types of oral corrective feedback and their relevance to the type of activity at hand.

• Generating flexible turn-taking organization

Promoting foreign language learning is probably based on teacher's philosophy about teaching and the way he/ she deals with learners inside the FL class. Although an explicit instruction of turn-taking rules is also required to instill in students the essential knowledge to function appropriately in the language classroom, teachers' flexibility in terms of the management of turn taking rules is also of paramount importance. I hold this view because the immediate aim of any FL teacher, either NST or NNST, is to generate a healthy learning environment where students can express themselves spontaneously without any external constraints.

• The practice of reflective teaching as part of professional development

To hone instructors' teaching skills, special training should be planned to raise their awareness of the most effective interactional features required to conduct successful instruction and provide FL learners with language input that increases their second language acquisition. In addition to the formal teacher training, teachers should invest in their own professional development through initiating their personal efforts in reflecting about their teaching practice in terms of the features that characterize their talk. To achieve his aim, they should work as their own ethnographers by constantly recording their classes. This could be done once or twice a week by working in groups. For instance, they can create a platform where every teacher uploads the video of his/ her speech, they reflect on their own and others' talk, and then they check whether the interactional features they have employed truly lead to the improvement of learning. These findings could be then shared on the same platform for the benefits of all teachers. To boost teachers' motivation, a training portfolio could be used by their supervisors to evaluate them based on their performance. This portfolio could also be considered in future opportunities of teacher recruitment or promotion.

• Fostering teacher exchange programs

Exchange programs which host native speakers serving as EFL fellow teachers or teaching assistants should be increased in the Algerian context and extended to other universities rather than being just limited to teachers' Colleges. This project would probably give the chance to both NSTs and NNSTs to collaborate with the aim of improving the quality of instruction since they both complement each other. This point is highlighted by Mosbah (2007) in the following quotation:

In a workplace where NSTs work alongside with NNSTs, there is a valuable opportunity of benefiting from each other. Only when the two groups realize their differences, appreciate their existence and take the necessary steps to learn from them, will they be able to enrich their knowledge and develop their practice. (p.148)

• Assigning courses according to teachers' academic and cultural background

Based on our research findings, the quality of instruction could be improved if NSTs are assigned courses such as speaking, pronunciation, vocabulary, and culture as they can better contribute through their native knowledge of the target language. Meanwhile, subjects such as grammar, reading, and writing demand NNSTs teachers' who have already had an experience in learning the target language. In doing so, NNSTs will not only be a better source in predicting learners' errors, but also of great help for students regarding the recommendation of the best learning strategies. In addition to these practical pedagogical recommendations, a hypothetical lesson plan that embraces the findings achieved in this research is suggested.

A Suggested Lesson Plan

Course: Listening and Speaking Level: First year LMD students Skill: Speaking Topic: *Ethnic diversity, cultural discrimination and empathy* Duration: 1 hour and 1/2

Learning objectives

• Cognitive

Explore different terminologies relevant to the topic of diversity and discrimination;

Develop analytical and critical thinking skills to discuss the topic of discrimination and other related topics.

• Pragmatic

Successfully engage in a debate on the topic of discrimination by implementing the correct turn-taking rules.

• Socio-emotional

Develop empathy for excluded groups locally and globally;

Experience the pain and frustration of ethnic, linguistic and religious discrimination;

Suggest alternative ways to be more inclusive, tolerant and fair;

Materials

Badges, pen, paper

N.	Task	Description	Timing
1	Reflect on your identity by using different adjectives that you think could describe you	Students work individually on the task; they are allowed to ask the teacher from time to time in case they need assistance or feedback on their work. Students are then invited to share their contribution with the rest of the group. The teacher does not assign learners. Rather, he/ she offers the floor to students who self-select themselves. Students can follow the chart below to prepare their ideas.	
			15 min

		Adjectives that describe me	
2	Mingle with another student (if possible) from another ethnic background	 -In this task, students will share their cultural background with their classmate and share a personal experience of discrimination that they experienced. - Developing different sets of differently shaped badges, which will be distributed to learners according to their ethnic background (circles, rectangles, squares) - Students are requested to go to the back of the classroom; each selects a partner from a different background; they engage in conversation about the topic. In this activity, the teacher alerts the students to respect each turn. - At the end of the activity, volunteers will be invited to tell the stories of their partners in front of the class. 	15 min
3	Discussion of the documentary 'That Black British Feeling' BBC Newsbeat	experience because of their skin color?	30 min

4	In the USA, some schools are segregated according to white and black communities. Other schools are desegregated with the integration of learners from different ethnic and racial background. Discuss the pros and cons of segregated schools.	 favor of segregated schools and those who are against segregated schools. A student from each group states an argument; in reverse, another student from the opposite group provides a counterargument. The teacher plays the role of a moderator. students are previously informed about the rules of turn 	30 min	
	aluation of the teaching ctice (attitudinal questions)	 What did you know before the lesson? What did you want to learn from the lesson? What did you learn from the lesson? How do you evaluate the different activities provided in this lesson? What did you like about the activities? what you did not like about the activities? what would you suggest? 		
	Formative assessment	Students are requested to reflect on how to treat people from different cultural and ethnic background.		

7.4. Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study are mainly about data collection. The first limitation is related to the choice of participants in both the American and Algerian contexts, which is based on convenience sampling. At Wellesley college, two AFL teachers (one native and one non-native speaker) took part in the study. In fact, they are the only available teachers at the department of Middle Eastern studies which is a very small one compared to other departments. Similarly, two EFL teachers (one native and one non-native speaker) participated in the study in the Algerian context. In fact, most EFL teachers are non-native speakers of the target language, and it is generally uncommon to find native speaking teachers at the university level except for some Algerian Teachers' Colleges which offer exchange programs to host native speaking teachers. To conduct the study, the researcher reached out to the US embassy in Algiers and got informed that there are only three native speaking teachers sent on different programs funded by the US department of state: one English language fellow in ENS-Constantine, one English language fellow in ENS-Algiers, and one Fulbright scholar at the University of Oran. Due to professional duties and time constraints, we were able to conduct the study with only the native Englishspeaking teacher at ENS- Constantine. So, we could have achieved better results which could be generalized if we managed to get access to an ample number of native speaking teachers.

The second limitation is linked to the course. In EFL classes, the course of "Listening and Speaking" was considered because it is taught by the NEST; hence, we were urged to choose the same course taught by the NNEST. Despite this fact, the course of "Listening and Speaking" better served the aim of the study as it includes discussions and debates; hence, it is more likely to come across the interactional features relevant to the present study. With that being said, the same results could not be achieved with other lesson types.

The third limitation pertains to the data analysis. Although the researcher used a very sophisticated digital recorder to record the observed classes, the process of transcription reveals the existence of some parts of interaction which were not audible in the audio-recordings. This is attributed either to the overlap between teachers and students talk, or due to the noise which is made by some students. So, the process of transcribing the data manually was really challenging and time consuming.

7.5. Suggestions for Further Research

The findings of this study serve as a resource for AFL and EFL teachers; they contribute in the sense that they raise their awareness of the features that characterize their talk and assist them in making informative decisions regarding the interactional features that should be implemented in their speech to ensure successful instruction of the target language. As it is the case with any research, these findings should be used to explore further areas relevant to the present research. Therefore, a few suggestions are put forward for academics who are interested either in the field of classroom discourse or native and non-native speaking teacher instruction.

The first suggestion is to extend the results of the study by exploring the use of interactional features in other foreign language classes, namely turn-taking organization, questioning strategies, wait-time, and oral corrective feedback. Supplementing this research with a solid background on classroom cultural differences in different contexts can also reveal significant nuances existing in the instruction of different foreign languages. In fact, the Algerian context serves as a good field of study as the teaching of foreign languages other than English is recently maximized. The findings will probably serve in improving the instruction of these languages.

Additionally, in terms of the analysis of teacher turn-taking, the study tackled only the amount of teacher talk vis a vis learner talk in different FL classes of NSTs and NNSTs. What is

recommended for further research is a comparative study that delves into the different types of turn-taking, i.e., prospective, retrospective, concurrent, and neutral turn-taking in FL classes of NSTs and NNSTs.

Another significant area of research pertains to the study of speech modifications (foreigner talk) made by both NSTs and NNSTs in terms of phonology, lexis, and syntax. This study could be more effective if it is conducted at the elementary level of FL teaching. As another area that contributes to the field of SLA, the examination of these modifications could be used as a resource for novice FL teachers at the beginning stages of their professional career.

Finally, the present study offered a description of the interactional features of both NSTs and NNSTs; however, further research is needed around instruction itself with reference to NSTs and NNSTs. This could be achieved by highlighting their use of the target language, their attitudes towards teaching the target language, and lastly their attitudes towards teaching the target language culture.

General Conclusion

This study was conducted with the aim of delving into the features that characterize Foreign Language classroom interaction. It sought to find out the features that characterize EFL and AFL classes in the Algerian and American contexts from both teachers' and students' perspective in an attempt to suggest a model of classroom interaction that advances learners' contribution in the target language. To this end, the nature of native speaking teachers and non-native speaking teachers' talk in EFL and AFL classes was explored according to the different features that characterize teacher talk including turn-taking organization, questioning strategies, wait-time strategy, and oral corrective feedback strategies. To ensure high-quality interaction, teachers are supposed to invest in the features that promote and facilitate the acquisition of the target language. Equally, they should avoid the features that prevent or block FL learners from maximizing their opportunities in the acquisition and the production of the target language.

The findings indicated that the IRF sequence remains the predominant pattern of interaction in most of the observed classes. As previously stated, this could be attributed to two factors: *instructors' philosophy about teaching* and *students' proficiency level*. In terms of instructors' philosophy, teachers acquired certain norms and behaviors through the way they learnt the target language as static and valuable; hence, they should be respected. With regards to students' proficiency, a high percentage of classroom talk is devoted to teachers in intermediate and elementary levels; however, less percentage is devoted to teacher talk with advanced learners, mainly in the NNEST class. According to the collected data, the results achieved from the observation of teachers' actual behavior inside the classroom contradicts with the survey findings. In fact, teachers' responses showed that they hold perfect theoretical beliefs about the way teaching should be with both categories of teachers opted for a classroom interaction with an amount of learner talking time that exceeds teacher talking time. Therefore, raising teachers' awareness about this topic is turned to be essential. In this regard, to ensure effective classroom interaction that advances students' L2 development, more opportunities should be given to the learner to engage in genuine classroom interaction by breaking the IRF sequence. Additionally, teachers should navigate alternative ways to reverse the roles into a symmetrical relationship with their students.

Findings pertaining to the quality of turn-taking reveal different teaching practices which are contingent on whether the teacher is a native or a native speaking. The NEST strives to minimize the use of the features that obstruct the process of SLA and maximize the features that foster second language acquisition with few cases of teacher interruption or turn completion emerge from the data. Conversely, there is a heavy reliance of the NNEST on the IRF pattern of classroom interaction along with the existence of teacher interruption and turn completion; all these features impacted students' output as revealed in the short turns produced by learners. In the AFL classes, both the native and the non-native speaking teachers tend to avoid these features although teacher extended turns were prevailing due to the elementary and intermediate level of students. While the level of students matters in this case, teachers are required to be aware of the three interactional features that should be avoided to foster acquisition of the target language. As mentioned by Walsh (2006), these features include teacher interruptions, extended teacher-turn, and turn completion.

With respect to questioning strategies, the data revealed significant similarities and differences among NSTs and NNSTs. For instance, both categories converge in terms of the use of divergent questions attributed to their tendency in fostering students' critical thinking skills. Conversely, there are remarkable differences between NSTs and NNSTs when it comes to the use of other types of questions. For instance, whereas NSTs are inclined toward promoting more learner productivity through an extensive use of referential questions, NNSTs strive to use more display questions as they aim at promoting meaningful communication inside the FL class. All teachers, however, use meaning negotiation techniques with varying degrees of frequency. Considering these nuances, all types of questions are valuable; however, an efficient way of making use of them is probably based on the learning objective and learners' proficiency level. With that being said, divergent questions should always be encouraged as they promote students' creativity and critical thinking; hence, the aim that we are seeking to achieve to cultivate autonomous and effective learners.

Moreover, wait-time is proved to be an effective pedagogical strategy due to its contribution in increasing students' responses (Chaudron, 1988; Hyman, 1989; Ellis, 2008) as well as its impact on students' language use and logic (Cazden, 2001). Following the analysis of data, not all teachers seemed conscious of the strategy based on the interviews. In actual classes, however, all teachers were observed to apply wait-time although with different frequency. It should be noted that most cases of wait time recorded in the observed classes are below 5 seconds. This fact reveals that while teachers implement it in practice, they might not be aware of the effective wait-time strategy needed to promote the production of the target language. Regardless of the type of classroom interaction, either based on IRF sequence or authentic one, teachers should recognize its importance and implement it in a way that increases students' participation and production of the target language.

Furthermore, oral corrective feedback is the last interactional feature examined in this research. The findings disclosed significant variations among NSTs and NNSTs in terms of the strategies adopted in the treatment of students' oral errors. While the NSTs were observed to tolerate learners' errors as they give value to learners' fluency, the NNSTs were observed to be less tolerant to learners' errors as they devote importance to accuracy such as the focus on phonological or grammatical errors. These findings match with the ones achieved from the study

conducted by Inan (2012) and Mosbah (2017); both concluded that whereas NSTs are fluency oriented and more tolerant to learners' errors, NNSTs are accuracy oriented and less tolerant to errors. Despite these differences, both NSTs and NNSTs are still aware of the importance of output providing feedback and peer feedback as two effective strategies that fulfil the requirement of student-centered instruction that is based on less controlled interaction, students' autonomy, and a supportive learning environment where students are more comfortable to exchange their ideas.

Lastly, the results of the study revealed a significant impact of the cultural context on students' perceptions about the features that would either facilitate or hinder an effective development of the foreign language learning. Therefore, in addition to raising teachers' awareness of the different interactional features that have an immense impact on ensuring high-quality classroom interaction, teachers' decisions about these interactional features should be made in accordance with the cultural context where the foreign language is being taught.

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Appendix 1

The Original Version of Walsh's SETT Model (Adopted from Walsh, 2006, p.67)

Interactional features	Description- Reformulation (rephrasing a learner's contribution)- Extension (extending a learners' contribution)- Modeling (correcting a learner's contribution)				
1. Scaffolding					
2. Direct repair	-Correcting an error quickly and directly				
3. Delayed repair	-Postponing error correction				
4. Content feedback	-Giving feedback to the message rather than the words used				
5. Form focused feedback	-Giving feedback on the words used, not the message				
6. Extended wait-time	- Allowing sufficient time (several seconds) for students to respond or formulate a response				
7. Referential questions	-Genuine questions to which the teacher does not know the answer				
8. Display questions	- Asking questions to which the teacher know the answer				
9.Clarification requests	 Teacher asks a student to clarify something the student has said Student asks teacher to clarify something the teacher has said 				
10. Comprehension checks	Teacher checks students understanding				
11.Teacher echo	-Teacher repeats a previous utterance -Teacher repeats a learner's contribution				
12.Teacher interruptions	-Interrupting a learner's contribution				
13. Extended teacher turn	-Teacher turn of more than one clause				
14. Turn completion	-Completing a learner's contribution for the learner				

Appendix 2

The Modified Version of Walsh's (2006) SETT Model

Teacher Turn-taking and SLA (Waish, 2000)							
	Teacher interruptions	Extended teacher-turn	Turn Completion				
NST1							
NST2							
TOTAL							
NNST1							
NNST2							
TOTAL							
TOAL							

Teacher Turn-taking and SLA (Walsh, 2006)

Types of Questions (adapted from Walsh, 2006)

	NEX	Ref Qs	Dis Qs	Diver Qs	Proc Qs	Clar Rsts	Conf checks	Comp checks
NST1								
NST2								
Total								
NNST1								
NNST2								
Total								
Total								

Teacher Wait-time (Walsh, 2006)

	1 second	2 seconds	3 seconds	4 seconds	5 seconds	6 seconds	7 seconds	More than 7 seconds
NST1								
NST2								
Total								
NNST1								
NNST2								
Total								
Total								

	Nex	Nec	NCE		NIE	Т	EC	RC	MF	EL
			Feedback on form	Feedback on content						
NST1										
NST2										
TOTAL										
NNST1										
NNST2										
TOTAL										
TOAL										

Types of Oral Corrective Feedback (Adapted from Walsh, 2006)

Direct or Delayed Feedback? (Walsh, 2006)

	Direct feedback	Delayed feedback
NST1		
NST2		
Total		
NNST1		
NNST2		
Total		
Total		

Appendix 3

Transcription Conventions

(Adapted from Ellis, R. & Barkhuizen, G. 2005)

T: teacher.

- L1: learner (identified as learner1).
- L: unidentified learner.
- LL: several or all learners simultaneously.

MARK: participant identified by name.

(1.5) the number of brackets indicate the elapsed time in tenths of a second.

(.) a dot in brackets indicates a very short gap in time of one tenths of a second or less within or between utterances.

foo-	an abrupt cut-off of the prior word or sound.					
[indicates the phase where overlapping talk starts.					
]	indicates the phase where overlap terminates.					
word	underlying indicates speaker emphasis.					
WOrd	louder talk is indicated by upper case.					
?	rising intonation, not necessarily a question.					
Yes,	a comma indicates a continuing intonation.					
end.	a full stop indicates falling (stopping) intonation.					
$^{\circ}$ word $^{\circ}$	degree signs indicate quieter (lower volume) talk					
Yea::r	colons indicate lengthening of the preceding sound; the more colons the greater					
	the extent of the lengthening					
hh	outbreath; more h's indicate longer outbreath					
((hands go up)) transcriber's comments including those about non-verbal actions.						
((unintelligible)) talk that is unintelligible.						

Appendix 4

Transcripts of a Sample Arabic Lesson Taught by a Native Speaking Teacher

((Teacher and students are correcting a previous homework which is a song in Arabic, and students are required to fill in the gaps))

1 L: al ħub

T: al ħub nasam

2 ?aj ∫aj? ?a: Xar?

3 L: a kul kul

4 T: kul ſaj? kul ſaj??

5 L: la la la al kuħl al

6 T : al kawn ? the universe?

7 L: la al kuħ

 $8\ T$: al kuħu: l? al kuħu: l. ?aw?

9 L: aħja: nan

10 T: aħja: nan na<code>Sam</code> wa huna: ka ma<code>@</code>alan huna: ka ma<code>dymu: Sa</code> sofia group ma<code>dymu: Sa</code> sofia <code>?</code>ismuhum al ħa<code>fa: fi: n</code>

11 L: naSam

12 T: nasam al hasa: si: n wa min ism al hasa: si: n dza: sat kalimat assasin bi: lu**u**a al singli: zija fa kalimat assasin b lu**u**a al singli: zija fa hija sasluha hasa: si: n bi lu**u**a al sarabija

13 ((teacher writes on the board))

14 hafa: \int huwa faxs judaxin ?aw ja?kul al hafi: \int hafa: \int wa hafa: fi: n huwa al dzam? wa min al Sarabija ?ila al ?indzli: zija fwaja fwaja fwaja fwaja ?asbahat assassin wa ajðan li ?ana fi: ha: ðihi al madzmu: Sa ka: n fi: ha Sunf violence wa madzmu: Sa: t al hafa: fi: n ka: nat taqtul kill (0.1) ka: nat taqtul ?aj faxs (0.1) juSa: riduhum somebody against them ka: nu jaqtulu: nahu wa jaqtulu : nahu bi: tariqat assassination naSam fa liða: lika ?ismuhum al hafa: fi: n ?aStatna kalimat assassin bi: lu**ka** al ?ingli: zija wa ka θ : ir min ha: tihi al madzmu: Sa: t fa kalimat kalimat a Sofia

15 ((teacher writes on the board))

16 ma: hija ajza? parts? ma: hija ajza? haðihi al kalima? (0.2) naSam?

17 L : Ṣu: f

18 T : Ṣu: f dʒajid fa na?xuð ?alif la: m ta: ? marbu: ta wa ajdan ja: wa naħsul Sala Ṣu: f

19 ((teacher writes on the board))

20 ma: hija kalimat Şu: f? (0.3) naSam?

21 L : Șura

22 T : Ṣu: ra ? Ṣu: ra ? Ṣu: f

23 L: Ṣufu:f Ṣuħuf

24 T : la lajsat Şufu: f şu: f Şu: f (0.2) tajib sa aſraħ haða bi lu**u**a al ʕarabija wa inshAllah sa tafhamu: n a şu: f a şu: f huwa ma: ða material na?ɣuðuhu min ħajawa: n sa**u**i:r jamſi miθl hakaða wa jaqu: l baʕ baʕ

25 ((teacher acts like a sheep))

- 26 nasam wa minhu na?yuð ha: ðihi al kalima
- 27 ((students are laughing silently))

28 T: you don't have to have to you don't have to hide your laugh you can laugh it's funny

28 I will really I be angry if you don't laugh it's really funny

- 29 ((students are laughing loudly))
- 30 nasam fa ma: huwa a Su:f?
- 31 L: wool?

32 T: dzajid wool a lan ?a: xuð dza: ?izat Oskar I will never win an Oskar in acting su:f haða wool fa lima: ða ?ism madzmu: Sa di: nija religious group ?ismuhum min kalimat a Su: f

33 L: oh

34 T: bi al Sarabija faqat lajsat huna: ka ?ingli: zija maSa salama ?ingli: zija ?ingli: zija xalas

35 ((students are laughing))

36 L: li ?ana al su: fija a a a jalbas em em mal

37 T: mala: bis dzajid

38 L: mala: bis a a fancy and comfortable

39 T: nasam li ?ana sufiju: n?

40 L: lajsa **u**aniju: n

41 T: mumta: z dzajid nasam a şu: f a şu: f

42 ((teacher writes on the board))

43 T: haða rafi: \S wa haða xaſin li ?ana su: f wa lajsa xaſin fa maθalan al ħari: r mina si: n from china huna: ka ħari: r wa haða mumta: z wa rafi: \S dzidan lakina su: f haða xaſin wa lajsa §indama nalbas su: f §ala al dzild da: ?iman naſ§ur bi ħaka lima ða? li ?ana su:f lajsa rafi: \S a su:f xaſin fa şu: fija ka: nu: la: juridu: n an jalbasu: ?aj mala: bis rafi: \S a li ?ana bi nisba lahum al ħaja: t lajsat hija al hadaf the goal wa §indama nalbas mala: bis xaſina haða jusa: §iduna ?an naku: n ?aqrab mina Allah wa ba§i:di: n §an al ħaja: t al ma: dija ma: dija ma: dija lajsat fi al fikra

44 ((teacher knocks on the board))

45 haðihi ma: ða haðihi ma: ða ?ſja: ? ħaqi: qija nalmasuha fa bi nisba li Sofia liba: s a Ṣu: f liba: s xaſin jubʕiduna jubʕiduna ʿani al haqi: qa ʕan al wa: qiʕ ʕani al ma: da wa juqaribuna ?aqrab qari:b mina Allah wa haða bi nisba li sofia huwa al ?qtira: b mina Allah wa ?ajdan ?an naku: n waħid mina Allah al ?insa: n wa Allah fi nafs al makan wa nafs a faj? li ?ana Allah da: xil (0.3) da: xil al ?insa: n lajsa faj? ?a: xar fa haðihi al ?afka: r muhima fi: Sofia wa ibn Arabi kana wa: ħid min ?akbar al fala: sifa fala: sifa fala: sifa fajlasu: f aristo

46 LL: Aristotle

47 T: naSam fa Ibn Arabi ka: na fa: Sir wa ka: tib wa fajlasu: f wa ?ajdan sa: fara ka θ i: ran dzidan fa huwa Sa: fa fi: ?ispa: nja fi: al andalous Sa: fa fi al Maghreb wa ?ajdan Sa: fa fi al mafriq wa zusu: san madi: nat dimafq fi: balad su: rija tajib fa al qasi: da al lati: ?istamaSna ?ilajha ma hija al kalima: t al lati: fi: al qasi: da

48 ((the teacher is distributing handouts))

49 fa laqad Samalna haða fi saba:
ħ $\$ Samalna: hu fi: saba: ħ $\$ laqad qultu na
Sam? $\$ laqad kuntu qabla al jawmi
 Zunkiru sa: ħibi

50 ((the teacher is writing on the board))

51 ?iða: lam jakun nasam? ?iða: lam jakun di: ni:

52 ((the teacher writes on the board))

53 ?ila ? ?ila?

54 LL : ((unintelligible))

55 T : Liz

56 Liz: di: nihi

57 T: mumta: z ?ila di: nihi da: ni

57 laqad ?

- 58 ((the teacher writes on the board))
- 59 ((He calls on Emerson to reply to his answer))

60 Emerson: em Sa: ra

61 T: mumtaz laqad Şa:ra qalbi qa: bilan kula naSam kula Şu: ra

61 fa: ? yousra

62 Yousra: marsa:

63 T: fa marsa: fa marsa: li al **u**izla: ni

63 wa? Hydrian

64 Hydrian: ðirSun

65 T: ðirsun mumta: z

66 ((the teacher writes on the boad))

67 ðir \mathfrak{S} un li ruhba: n wa? bajtu aw θ a: n wa?

68 Amina: ((unintelligible))

69 T: nasam amina

70 Amina: al kasba 71 T: al kaSbatu 71 wa? 72 ((the teacher writes on the board)) 73 kaSbatu ta: ?ifi: n wa? Emily 74 Emily: alwa: ħ 75 T : mumta: z 75 alwa: \hbar tawra: t? (0.3) soufi 75 (0.4)75 nasam? Zoulaykha 76 Zoulaykha: mi§ħafu 77 T : nasam mishafu wa mishafu qur?a: n 77 na\$am? (0.4) Maria 78 Maria: a a b di: n 79 T: bi di: n 79 aheh ? 79 (0.4)79 naam? ma: $\mathbf{\delta}$ a? 79 ?adi: nu bi di: nihi okay al ħubu ? (0.5) al ħubu? nasam? wa? 80 L: ?i: ma: n 81 T: ?i: ma: n mumta: z 81 tajib hal baħaθtuna fi: al qa: mu: s qa: mu: s dictionary Sala kalimat kuntu Sa: ħibi di: n? 82 L: my religion 83 T: a di: nihi? 84 L: his religion 85 T: his religion dzajid 85 Ṣa: ra? (0.3) ha: ða miθl ?aṢbaħa okay? 86 L: morning? 87 T: lajsa morning haða fisl ?aṢbaħtu Ṣu: ra? 88 (0.2)89 L: picture

90 T: for picture or image xuSu: San fi: a di: n for and picture in poetry

90 marSa? (0.3) naSam Alia

91 Alia: pasture

92 T: pasture mumta: z raising ground

 \rightarrow 92 deer? maria yousra

93 Yousra: monastry

94 T: monastry mumtaz monastry bajt ma: masna huna? nasam? wa lakin lajsa mi@l bajti

94 bajt li al qur?a: n bajt li house of (0.2) a kasba? what is al kasba? al kasba wa ?ajna al kasba?

95 LL: Mecca

96 T: fi: madi: nat Mecca wa hija markaz al hadz hija markaz al hadz

96 alwa: h dʒams dʒams wa mufrad lawh haða lawh haða lawh

97 ((the teacher points to the board))

98 dzajid mu
haf? (0.5) mumkin nutardzim mu
haf mi
haf mi
hai kita: b (0.3) ?adi: nu bi di: ni?

99 (0.5)

100 L1: bi di: ni: is

101 (0.5)

102 L2: religion

103 T: religion

103 so ma: masna ?adi: nu bi di: ni? (0.3) I follow the religion of

103 al kalima al ta: lija? ?adi: nu bi di: ni?

104 L2: al ħub

105 T: al hub I follow the religion of?

106 L2: love

107 T: love

(0.3)

107 f al ħubu di: ni mara ʔuɣra wa? ʔima: ni ?ima: ni min ʔima: n min fisl a: mana juʔminu ma: hija a tardʒama li haðihi al dʒumla? Alia you already did the translation?

108 Alia: I follow the religion of love

109 T: so ?adi: nu b di: ni al ħubi I follow the religion of love and we have ?ajna tawadʒahat raka: ?ibuhu

110 Alia: wherever it goes a a a

111 T: wherever where it goes? what did you find for raka: ?ib? or a tardʒama for raka: ?ib?

112 Alia: caravan

113 T: dʒajid caravan so ?adi: nu b di: ni al ħub ?ana tawadʒahat raka: ?ibuhu 113 wa ma maʕna tawadʒahat? (0.2) tawadʒaha ?ana al ?a:n ?atawadʒahu ?ila al ba: b ?ana al ?a: n ?atawadʒahu ?ila al computer ?atawajah na3am?

114 L: ((unintelligible))

115 T: fa ?adi: nu b di: ni al ħub ana tawadʒahat raka: ?ibuhu ?ana is a contraction

116 ((the teacher is writing on the board))

117 ?ila ?ajnama: tawadzahat raka: ?ibuhu to whatever his caravan goes mumtaz

117 li nabda? mina al ?awal ma hija a tardzama li a satr al ?awal? satr line a tardzama li satr al ?awal laqad kuntu qabla al jawmi ?unkiru sa: ħibi

118 (0.3)

119 ((the teacher allocates the turn to one of the students by using non-verbal language))

120 L: like before today I denied my friend

121 T: good so days before today or before today I used to ?unkiru Ṣa: ħibi it is really could be translated as I denied my friends or you distanced yourself from those friends you don't associate with them so before today I used to deny my friends

121 and then we have a conditional clause ?iða: lam jakun di: ni ?ila di: nihi da: ni ?iða: lam jakun di: ni ?ana ?ila di: nihi huwa da: ni ma: masna da: ni?

122 L: close

123 T: close or qari: b so it's synonym for qari: b so before today I used to distance myself from my friends if their or if my [religion is not close to their [religion

124 LL:

[religion

125 T : mumta: z (0.5) laqad Ṣa: ra qalbi al ʔa: n fa ha: ða fi al ma: di: wa al ʔa: n natakalam ʕan al ʔa: na laqad Ṣa: ra kalima: t miθla qad

126 ((the teacher writes on the board))

127 ?aw laqad nafs ?aſaj? emphasis qad already is already an emphasis and laqad is even more emphasis ha: ðihi al kalima: t ha: ðihi al kalima: t muhima dʒidan fi al kita: ba bi: lu**ʁa** a al ʕarabija la: nastati: ʕ al kita: ba bi lu**ʁ**a al ʕarabija bidu: n ?istiʒda: m kalimat qad wa hija lajsa Ṣaʕba wa lakin mumkin ?an taku: n muħajira aħja: nan confusing ʃaj? basi: t li nataʕalam naʕrif kajfa nataʕa: mal how to deal with qad

128 ((the teacher writes on the board))

129 huna: k darfajn two cases qad za: ?id fis1 ma: di qad za: ?id fis1 muda: ris you have to look at the verb that follows qad is it past? or is it present?

129 (0.4)

129 ?iða ka: na al fisl ma: ði

130 ((the teacher writes on the board))

131 ?iða ka: na al fiSl al muda: riS fa ?iða qult ma θ alan qad ðahabtu ?ila cinema qad ðahabtu ?ila cinema it's a ridiculous sentence indeed I went to the movie as a matter of fact truthfully I swear by God I went to the movie ?iða ka: na al fiSl muda: riS faj? muxtalif tama: man qad ?ðhabu ?ila cinema al jawm ?iða: lam jakun Sindi wa: dʒib I may go to the movie tonight or I might go to the movie tonight if I don't have a homework okay?

131 fa undurna ?ila qad huna ma: ða basdaha ma: di: ?aw muda: ris?

131 (0.3)

131 ma: di so it's just emphasis laqad Sa: ra qalbi qa: bilan kula Su: ratin and my heart?

132 L: has become accepting any image

133 T: good my heart has become accepting of all?

134 L: images

135 T: images good may I tell you about the fa what does it do maða: tafSal al fa: ?

135 (0.4)

135 it explains the big statement that you just made which is that my heart has become accepting of all the images fa gives as the explanation how are we accepting acceptance formulates

135 how does it show up or what does it mean fa marsa li **B**izla: n?

136 (0.6)

137 L: a pasture for deer

138 T: it's a pasture for deer

139 L: ((unintelligible))

140 T: wa di: run li ruhba: ni? a monastery for?

141 L: for the monks

142 T: for the monks mumta: z wa bajtun li ?aw θ a: nin and a house of idoles wa kaSbatu ta: ?ifin

143 L: does he say

144 T: and a kaSba of a pilgrim

144 wa ?alwa: hu tawra: t (0.5) and tablets of the torat

144 wa muṢħafu qur?a: n

145 (0.5) Emerson

146 Emerson: a book of

147 T: and a book of? muShaf is just book

148 Emerson: oh a book of a a quran

 \rightarrow 149 T: no tricks then wa muṢħafu qurʔa: n okay? ?adi: nu bi di: ni al ħubi ʔan tawadʒahat raka: ?ibuhu fa al ħubu di: ni wa ʔi: ma: ni I follow the religion of love wherever its caravans head to or go towards fa al ħubu di: ni wa ʔi: ma: ni for notice the fa again wherever that

caravan goes I will follow it this is the explanation fa al ħubu di: ni wa ?i: ma: ni for love is my religion and my faith okay mumta: z tajib fa haðihi qasi: da li Ibn Arabi ?aj ?as?ila?

149 (0.3)

149 ?aj ?as?ila aw ?aj ?afka: r ?uxra?

149 (0.6)

149 fa haðihi qaṢi: da min al qarn al θ a: ni Ṣaʃar θ a: li θ Ṣaʃara qarn century qaṢi: da mina al qarn a θ a: ni Ṣaʃar a θ a: li θ Ṣaʃar wa haða: fa: Sir muslim jaqu: l haða: fa fi: raʔjjkuna ʔaj fajʔ huna: k Ṣaʕb ʔaj ʔafka: r saʕba? fi haða al waqt that period lajsa faqat fi al islam fi: ?u: rupa ajḍan maʕa Jilane ?ataðakar maʕa Jilane maða ħaṢala li Jilane ah maða ħaṢala li: copernicus maða ħaṢala li kuli na: s fi: ?uru: pa fi: haða: al waqt fa hal huna: k ʔaj ʔafka: r huna xați: ra dangerous ideas ?aw rubama: kabi: ra ?afka: r kabi: ra bi nisba li di: n a di: n al orthodoxy a di: n a laði Ṣinduhu kul ſaj? lajsa huna: k tafki: r fi haða: al dʒa: nib da: ?iman kul ſaj? huna fa ma: hija al ?afka: r ?alati: rubama tuzaʕziʕu a fa: riʕ tuzaʕziʕal fikr fi: haða al waqt ?

149 (0.4)

149 la? la: ∫aj??

149 lima: ða haða a naS muhim? lima: ða haða a naS muhim dzidan?

150 L: maybe crusades

151 T: nasam crusades nasam fa al huru: b a Ṣali: bijia crusades sa ta?ti fi: haða al waqt haða al waqt fi: hi al muslimu: n wa al masi: hiju: n Muslims and Christians da: ?iman fi: harb 151 mm wa lakin Ibn Arabi (0.2) lajsa huna: k harb fi nas no war lajsa huna: k harb fa ma: hija basd al ?afka: r al muhima huna: fi nas?

151 (0. 6)

151 ma: hija al ?adja: n ?a lati takalama Sanha? ?adja: n di: n di: n di: n ?adja: n ma: hija al ?adja: n ?a lati takalama Sanha fi: naS? naSam?

152 L: Judaism

153 T: nasam takalama san al jahu: dija a di: n al jahu: di

154 ((the teacher writes on the board))

155 fa huwa jatakalam Sani di: n tabSan huna: ka a di: n al ?isla: mi huna: ka a di: n al jahu: di maða: ?ajḍan? ?aj di: n ?a: ʒar? naSam Sofi

156 Sofi: I just have a question about jahu: di?

157 T: yes jahu: di a di: n al jahu: di

158 Sofi: isn't it like the word has like a negative meaning?

159 T: la la la

160 Sofi: okay

161 T: a di: n al jahu: di haða: faqat ja\$ni jahu: d jahu: di lajsa huna: k Şuhju: ni haða: muxtalif Şuhju: ni zionist haða: muxtalif jahu: di haða: ?ismuha bi lu**u**a al \$arabija lajsa huna: k ?aj Sindama taqu: l a di: n al jahu: di its Jewish religion or judaïsm lajsa huna: ka ?aj a negative connotation fi haðihi al kalima wa haða: bi ta?ki: d and that is one hundred percent Israel when it writes the prnciples of judaism for arab speakers uses a dija: na al jahu: dija there is no absolute a haða huwa al ?ism al rasmi li dija: na al jahu: dija fa huna: ka a di: n al ?islami a di: n al jahu: di wa aj di: n aɣar?

162 L: al masi: iħi

163 T: al masi: iħi

164 ((The teacher writes on the board))

165 dzajid fa mumkin ?an naqu: l a di: n al jahu: di a di: n al ?isla: mi a di: n a masi: ħi wa ?ajḍan jumkin an naqu: l al isla: m al jahu: dia wa al masi: hija

166 ((The teacher writes on the board))

 \rightarrow 167 mumkin ?an naqu: l a di: n al jahu: di a di: n al islami a di: n a masi: ħi wa ?ajḍan jumkin ?an naqu: l al isla: m al jahu: dija wa al masi: ħija faqat lakin lajsa faqat haðihi al ?adja: n fi haða a naṢ huna: ka ?adja: n ?uɣra fi: ha: ða a naṢ lajsa faqat al masi: ħijia al islam wa al jahu: dija huna: ka ?aſja: ? ?uɣra fi: haða a naṢ

168 ((The teacher writes on the board))

169 huna: ka ?ajdan a di: n al wa θ ani paganism fi: haða a na
Ş wa al kalima huna hija al wa θ anija

170 ((The teacher writes on the board))

171 al wa θ anija al islam al jahu: dija al masi: ħija wa al wa θ anija wa haða muhim dʒidan haðihi fikra muhima dʒidan fi: haða: a nas jaku: n huna: k a a fa: Sir muslim jatakalam San a di: n

171 lajsa muhim lajsa muhim a di: n al masi: ħi ?aw al jahudija li ana haðihi bi nisba li al islam haðihi kuluha: kuluha: ?adja: n min nafs Allah fa haðihi kuluha ?adja: n min nafs Allah

171 al masi: ħija wa al jahu: dija kuluha min nafs min nafs Allah huna: ka ?ixtilafa: t bajnaha lakinaha min nafs al maka: n haða kabi: r dʒidan li ?ana haða muxtalif dʒidan

171 haða Saduw li al islam li al masi: ħija wa li al jahu: dija wa lakin bi nisba li Ibn Arabi haða: ?ajḍan muhim dʒidan wa Sindama dʒa: ?at haðihi al qaṢi: da al jawm lajsa kul al na: s kanu: ah haða: mumta: z haða: ʃiSr mumta: z li ?ana bi nisba li al muslimi: n haða lajsa dʒajid ?an taqu:l ?ana al waθanija haða ?ajḍan di: n miθl al islam miθl al masi: ħija wa miθl al jahu: dija

171 Ibn Arabi Sa: $\int a$ fi al andalous fa huwa ka: n jaSrif na: s jahu: d kana jaSrif na: s masi: ħiju: n jatakalam maSahum kula jawm haða lajsa bi dzadi: d fi al qasida al dzadi: d huwa Panahu jatakalam Pajdan San al wa θ an wa haða muhim dzidan a $\int aj$? al Pa: zar al muhim dzidan fi nas huwa Pajna jatakalam Sani al wa θ anija which line?

171 (0.2)

171 ?ajna jatakalam Sani al waθanija?

172 L: a a a satr xa: mis

173 T : fi: satr al xa: mis wa bajt li $2aw\theta a$: n

173 ?aj maka: n ?a: xar?

174 L: wa

175 T: it's more than once (0.5) wa?

176 L : ((unintelligible))

177 T : na§am?

178 L: marSa

179 T: when he says marSa li **B**izla: n what is that? (0.3) what religion is that?

179 (0.3)

179 okay so it's it's it's serves natural like you don't need a new God you can just worship the sun the moon ?ila ?a: xirihi marsa li al **u**izla: n fa haða: ?ajdan di: n ?a: xar huna: k rubama a $\int aj$? al muhim dzidan huna: huwa ?inahu ?ajdan juri: d ?an jadfas to push al muslimi: n li tafki: r ?akθar to think a little deeper of religion li ?anahu jaqu: l wa bajt li al ?awθa: n a 179 house of idols what does he say? wa kasbatun li ta: ?ifi: n what is he doing there? haða muhim dzidan

180 L: ((unintelligible))

181 T: naSam

181 it's a comparison there it's a comparison there to remind Muslims not to be so judgmental of people who worship idols because he is actually putting the two together it's like when you walk around the kaSba there is something in that gesture that is similar to a gesture of somebody who worships an object but you need to step beyond that and think of the symbolic of that religion fa ka θ : r min al qura? al ?awa: ?il earlier readers of this text lam juhibu haðihi al muqa: rana wa lakin li haða: a ſuSara: ? mi θ l Ibn Arabi muhimi: n dʒidan fi ta: ri: x a ſiS al Sarabi wa al ?isla: mi li ?anahum juStu: na fikra they give us an idea San al muna: qaſa: t discussions al lati ka: nat bajna a ſuSara? wa al fala: sifa San a di: n a

181 ?aj su?a: 1? na3am

182 L: ((unintelligible))

183 T: this is a nickname this is a nickname the sun of the Arab and Ibn Arabi Sindahu ?ism tawi:1 dʒidan wa na: s la: jataðakaru: n al ?ism a tawi: 1 faqat jataðakaru: n ?ana ?ismahu Ibn Arabi

183 al u**u**nija ?ismuha qaṢi: datu Ibn Arabi the poem of Ibn Arabi wa al mu**u**anija ?ismuha amina Alawi

184 ((the teacher writes on the board))

185 wa Amina Alawi hija mutaxaṢiṢa specializes mutaxaṢiṢa fi: ʃiʕr wa al mu: si: qa min al andalous w hija tuʁani bi al luʁa al ʕarabija al fuṢħa tuʁani bi al ʕa: mija al maʁribija tuʁ ani ʔajdan bi al ʕibrija ʕibrija tuʁani ʔajdan bi latinu latinu hatihi al luʁa ka: nat ʕinda al jahu: d fi ʔispa: nja wa tuʁani ʔajdan bi al ʔispa: nija wa bi al latinija fa ʕindaha: tadri: b training kla: si: ki fi al mu: si: qa al ʕa: lamija fa hija mumkin naqu: l ethnomusicologist wa ʔajdan muʁanija mumta: za

185 ?aj $\int aj$? ?a: xar Sani al u**u**nija? fa ța: liba tuSti: na tardzama ka: mila li naȘ complete translation li naȘ? (0.6) did you update your translation? Alia did you update your translation as we were going along it today? did you make any changes?

186 Alia: just a little bit

187 T: we will work on it together

187 al dzumla al ?u: la kajfa nutardzim haða:? (0.1) nasam kat

188 kat: I follow love wherever its caravan goes, love is my faith and my religion

189 T: yes

189 al Șatr al θa: ni ?

190 L: before today I used to deny my friend if we don't share the same religion

191 T: good and here for laqad Sa: ra qalbi there is no temporal switch there she doesn't say Arabi didn't say al jawm but we can add a a a you know a a we can add I mean we can say..

191 Zoulaykha do you want to translate it or Maria?

192 Maria: and my heart is accepting every picture

193 T: good

193and the next line?

194 Maria: and a pasture for gazelles and a convent for monk

195 T: good

196 L: it is a a house for idols

197 T: is a ?

198 L: a house for idols

199 T: and a ?

200 L: Kaa'ba for pilgrims

201 T: and a house for?

202 L: and a house for idols

203 T: and a Kaa'ba for pilgrims

204 L: a Kaa'ba for pilgrims

205 T: a Kaa'ba for pilgrims the in english we would use the plural as general in arabic you can switch bewteen singular and plural and Kaa'ba for pilgrims

205 what else?

206 L: and tables for the Torah and a book for the Quran

207 T: good and tables for the Torah and a book for the Quran

207 and the last line?

208 L: I follow love wherever its caravan goes, love is my faith and my religion

209 T: mumta: z dzajid

209 hal ?aħbabtuna haðihi al qaşi: da? ?aħbabtuna haðihi al qaşi: da? did you like this poem?

210 LL: naSam

211 T: ha:ða fa

212 ((The teacher is preparing to display a number of pictures of calligraphy on the projector for students))

213 fa hal nastați: § ?an naqra? ha: ða a naș?

214 ((laughter))

215 tajib fa ?ajna nabda? ?ajna al bida: ja?

216 L: oh

217 T: mina al jami: n ?ila al jasa: r? ?asla ?asfal?

218 L: a a jami: n

219 T: tajib huna

220 L: ?adi: nu

221 T: ?adi: nu dama

222 L: ?adi: nu

223 T: ?adi: nu bi di: ni al ħubi kasra ʃada ?ana tawadʒahat raka: ?ibuhu wa huna al ħubu di: ni wa: ?i: ma: ni da: ?iman fi fi al ɣat al ʕarabi the calligraphy da: ʕiman huna: k ɣuṭuṭ kaθi: ra dʒidan wa muɣtalifa kaθi: ran wa lakin da: ?iman al qira: ?a tabda? mina al jami: n so the reading is gonna always start mina al jami: n wa ʕa: datan min fawq ?ila taħt lajsa min taħt ?ila fawq fa ʕa: datan mina al jami: ni right to left and if there is a choice between up and down it's gonna start from up to down so if you have a text like this and you need to decipher it that's usually where you need to start start from the right and usually towards the top a a fa haða min nafs al qaṣi: da wa huna: ka al kaθi: r mina al ɣaṭ calligraphy a a li ʃiʕr Ibn Arabi lajsa faqat haði hi al qaṣi: da not only this poem wa lakin ʃiʕr kaθi: r li Ibn Arabi tajib al ?a: n natakalam ʕani a tardʒama ʕani al qur?a: n

((the teacher writes on the board))

225 ?aj ta: liba li tutardzim a naș al ?awal ?aw al faqra al ?u: la?

225 (1.9)

225 ?aj mutardzima li al faqra al ?u: la? naSam liz

226 Liz: ((unintelligible))

227 T: dzajid mumta: z

227 any variations here? because these choices here you don't have to translate all of them you can just pick up one and use it and I would say do not use markazi because it is probably the one that everybody in class understands so before you wanna use one that is new to you mm maybe mardʒiʕi is the lowest probably new to you so probably use al mardʒiʕi instead al qur?a: n ?aw al kitab al mardʒiʕi fi di: n al islam

227 ?aj ?ixtila: fa: t fi al tardzama ? Hydrian maða: katabti ?anti fi tardzama? ma: hija tardzamatuki?

- 228 Hydrian: ((unintelligible))
- 229 T: aheh
- 230 Hydrian: and muslims
- 231 T: wa ju?minu: na ?anahu kitabu Allahi al munazal
- 231 nasam Maria?
- 232 Maria: and God
- 233 T: and they believe and they believe that it is?
- 234 Maria: the word of God
- 235 T: good
- 236 Maria: and revealed to his prophet
- 237 T: good revealed to his prophet revealed to his prophet Muhamed
- 237 and how do we translate the expression between parentheses?
- 238 L: peace be upon him
- 239 T: peace be upon him dzajid
- 239 mmm al dzumla al ta: lija Emerson hal Sindaki al tardzama li haðih ma hija tardzamatuki?
- 240 Emerson: a a I have a this is and a
- 241 T: aheh it is?
- 242 Emerson: kitab
- 243 T: wa muslims
- 244 Emerson: ?axir is
- 245 T: the last
- 246 Emerson: a a a
- 247 T: ?axir al kutub al samawija
- 248 Emerson: samawija

249 T: the last of the divine books the last of the divine books after the tables of Abraham peace be upon him wa tawra: t a nabi Moussa and the Torah of prophet Moses peace be upon him as well a a wa ?indʒi: l al masi: ħ Issa and the bible of [Jesus peace be upon him as well

250 LL:

[Jesus

251 T: dzajid ħi: na nazala al waħj Sala al nabi Mohamed ka: na fi ʁa: ri ħira:? wa huwa 251 kahfun saʁi: r jaqaSu fi dzabali al nu: r qurba madi: nat Mecca

251 how do we translate hi: na?

252 L: is when

253 T: nasam when so sindama you always use sindama in your writing start switching sindama and use hi: na instead okay hi: na nazala al wahj

253 so when?

254 L: revelation

255 T: when revelation came to the prophet Mohamed he was?

256 L: he was in the cave

257 T: in the cave of hira: ? jaqaSu fi dʒabal al nu: r located in the mountain of al nu: r 257 no need to translate the name located in the mountain of al nu: r qurba madi: nati Mecca

258 L: near the city

259 T: near the city of Mecca okay? wa ðalika fi ſahr Ramadan min sanat situ mi?a wa ʕaʃara mila: dija on the month of ramadhan in the year six ten a.d right? wa ħasaba ʕulama? ta:ri:x al islam ?ana ?awal ma nazal mina al waħj ka: na a sitatu al ?a:ja:t al ?u: la min su:rat al ʕalaq 259 Hydrian Hydrian wa a ħasab? ħasaba?

260 Hydrian: according to

261 T: according to

262 Hydrian: ((unintelligible))

263 T: so Sulama? al ta:ri:x al islami how do we translate them? Sulama:? scholars ta: rix history al islam together scholars of islamic history so scholars of islamic history

264 Hydrian: a the first

265 T: the first verses to be revealed to the prophet Muhamed right? to be revealed were?

266 Hydrian: the first six verses of the chapter

267 T: sitat al ?aja: t al ?u: la the first six verses of the chapter

268 Hydrian: of the chapter of al ?alaq

269T: for su: ra the chapter the chapter al ?alaq so the first six verses to be revealed are from the su: ra the first six verses are from the su: ra of al ?alaq

269 mmm in your final translation that you are gonna include in your portfolio this also needs to be translated so the six verses have to be translated naSam you can draft your translation of al qur?a: n double check it and then you are gonna finalize that translation by consulting existing translation of al qur?a: n so no need to be just putting your own translation you are gonna do your own and then compare it to the actual translation as already accepted as a translation of al qur?a: n a you have to do only until six so you have to stop at six then.

270 L: and this is for monday?

271 T: no you have time for this you ca .. no the for monday the full translation for is this the translation I sent you for let me double check

272 ((The teacher is checking his notes))

273 the translation of Quran not for monday so what we do now coz I want you to type it up before you forget what we did in class today so the text that we wrote together and I wrote is the translation for monday but for the translation of Quran take your time then it requires a little bit of flavor

273 (0.4)

273 we are almost done with this a a al dzumla al ta: lija jatakawanu al qur?a: n min mija wa ?arbaSata SaJara sura tanqasimu ?ila şinfajn aw nawSajn makija hasaba madi: nat Mecca ?aw madanija ħasaba madi: nat al madi: na ?awal su: ra fi al qur?a: n hija surat al fa: tiħa wa taħtawi Sala θama: nijati ?aja: t ?aj mutardzima huna? Alia

274 Alia: madania?

275 T: madania

275 and it comprises or it contains eight verses ?a: xir su: ra fi al qur?a: n hija su: rat al nas

275 (0.7)

275 ?a: xir su: ra fi al qur?a: n hija su: rat a nas wa hija su: ra qaşi: ra dzidan wa tatakawan min sitat ?a: ja: t faqat

276 (0.9)

277 Aliza: and the last sura in the quran is surat a nas and it is a very short sura wwhich comprises only six a a a

278 T: six verses

279 Aliza: verses

280 T: six verses mumta: z (0.8) wa haðihi surat al nas so you also have to include the translation of this in the final version em em

280 (3.6)

280 tajib fa haða mina al qaşi: da from the poem haða ka: n sa
Sb na<code>Sam? qira: ?a haða ka: n sa<code>Sb wa haða</code></code>

281 ((The teacher is showing pictures))

282 ?as ab na an? this is more difficult ?aj xat haða? I forget to tell you the name of this in the previous the previous dialogue writing

282 (0.6)

282 fa al xat al ?awal al laði ∫a: hadtum min qabl

283 ((The teacher is showing a picture))

284 haðajn al xaṭajn muxtalifajn kaθi: ran fa haða al xaṭ al al xaṭ al maʁribi wa al xaṭ al maʁribi da: ?iri da: ?iri?

285 L: circular

286 T: circular haða al xat al kufi min madi: nat al kufa ?ism madi: nat al kufa wa hija madi: na kanat fi balad al Sira:q al laði naSrifuhu al ?a: n wa al xat al kufi huwa lajsa da: ?iri huwa

murabas square haða xat murabas wa al xat al kufi huwa fi al ħaqi: qa min ?aqdam al xutu: t from the oldest styles fi kita: bat al lu**k**a al sarabija

287 ((The teacher writes on the board))

288 fa al xaț al kufi nisbatan ?ila madi: nat al ku: fa wa al xaț al ?a: xar al xaț al ma**u**ribi nisbatan ?ila bila: d al Maghreb nisbatan?

289 LL: silence

290 T: after fa al khat al kufi al khat literally means line al khat al kufi but when you say al khat we also think of handwriting style of writing calligraphic style fa al xat al kufi haða al xat nisbatan ?ila madi: nat al kufa wa al xat al maæribi nisbatan ?ila bila: d al Maghreb lajsa balad al Maghreb ?ila bila: d al maghreb ma huwa al ?ixtila: f bajna balad al maghreb wa bila: d al maghreb haða bi al ?ingli: zija?

291 (0.2)

292 T: Morocco balad al maghreb bila: d al maghreb haða $\int aj$? muxtalif bila: d al maghrib haða al andalous al maghreb murita: nja al dzaza:?ir tunis kul haða ka: na jusama bila: d al maghreb limaða? li ?anahu al uarb al ?islami the islamic west fa Sindama naqu: l bila: d al maghreb haða ma naSnih fa al khat al mauribi ka: na mawdzu: d dzidan fi bila: d ?ifri: qija wa bila: d al andalous fa haðihi sa nuħa: wil an naqra? haðihi maSa baSd

293 ((The teacher writes on the board))

 \rightarrow 294 fa bi nisba lana naħnu ka na: tiqi al luʁa al ʕarabija native speakers of arabic and muslimi: n fa hada lajsa sahl it's not easy to read haða lajsa sahl haða saʕb fi al qira: ?a li ?ana li ?ana al ɣuṭu: ṭ muʕaqada complex muʕaqada dʒidan wa lakin mumkin mumkin ?an naqra? a naş maʕa baʕd sorry I have your handout

295 ((The teacher is distributing the handouts))

296 T: can we read this one? (0.3) haða hal haða nafs al xat? hal haða xat mauribi? wait time

297 LL: la

298 T: la hal haða xat kufi?

299 LL: la

300 T: haða xat θa: liθ ?aj xat haða? (0.3) haða xat ?ismuhu di: wa: ni wait time

301 ((The teacher writes on the board))

302 di: wa: ni min kalimat diwa: n haðihi al kalima mina al lu**x**a al fa: risija a a wa bi al Sarabija al fa: risija taSni court so it's the court style jaSni fi bajt al malik the sultan's house haða huwa al xat a rasmi fa haða al xat dzami: 1 dzidan wa ?ajdan saSb fi al kita: ba it's kind of the official royalty styles of writing fa nafs a sura huna the same chapter that is here huna and we can see the very beginning there is a word

302 what's the first word? ma hija al kalima al ?ula?

303 (0.2)

304 L: ((unintelligible))

305 T: nasam ? ma hija al kalima al ?ula?

306 (0.3)

307 L: qul

308 T: qul can we spot that? it's in the right al hamdulillah okay ? qul so once you find the start you know that you go to be going right that helps you a little bit and al kufi is a spiral style which means that the end of the verse is going to be the end of the sura is going to be in the middle and it goes around and comes back to the left

308 so I have to let you go wa lakin mumkin nasmal al dzumla al ?ula faqat qul?

309 L: ?aSu: ðu

310 T: $2aSu: \delta u$ right ? and here we have alif Sajin wa: w δa : l and then bi rabi right? ba? ra? ba? $\int aj$? 2aSu fi al Sat al kufi ?anahu kul murabaS wa kul al huru: f all the letters Sindaha nafs al had3m has the same size so it does break one of the fundamental rules of writing arabic that the alif em and other letters have to be the dominant right? that does not shrink the alif but other letters into small letters to make them fit in the square

310 last question what do you what kind of what kind of why did you think this kind of writing was the most popular? (0.2) what kind of usage would you make?

311 L: curved one

312 T: yeah the sculpture you wanna work with is kufi that's why you find it a lot in mosques and monuments em I am not assigning you any homework for tomorrow whenever you need to catch up on this is a chance to catch up and practice reading go visit the teaching assistant ?ila liqa: ?

Appendix 5

Transcripts of a Sample Arabic Lesson Taught by a Non-Native Speaking Teacher

Students are first asked to write sentences on the board which are part of a previous homework. After that the teacher reviewed the lesson of numbers through drills.

- 1 T : sabSa
- 2 LL : sabSa
- 3 T : Safwan? clar
- 4 LL: sabSa
- 5 T: sabsu: n sabsu: n
- 6 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 7 LL: sabSu: n
- 8 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 9 LL: tissa wa sabsu: n
- 10 T: mara θa: nija
- 11 LL : tissa wa sabsu: n
- 12 T: sabSu: n
- 12 tissa wa sabsu: n
- 13 LL : tissa wa sabsu: n
- 14 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 15 T : θama: nu: n
- 16 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 17 T : θ ama: nu: n θ ama: nu: n θ ama: nu: n
- 18 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 19 T: Safwan? Clar
- 19 mara θ : anija masa based
- 19 tissu: n
- 20 LL: tissu: n
- 21 T : tissu: n
- 21 xamsa
- 22 LL: xamsa

- 23 T: wa tissu: n xamsa wa tissu: n
- 24 LL: xamsa wa tissu: n
- 25 T: wa: diħ? Comp
- 25 mafhu: m? comp
- 25 χamsa wa tissu: n
- 25 mafhu: m? dʒajid comp
- 25 wa: ħid iθni: n θala: θa arbasa χamsa
- 26 ((laughter))
- 27 wa: ħid iθni: n θala: θa
- 27 waħid iθni: n θala: θa arbaSa χamsa
- 28 ((teacher is splitting up students into groups of five))
- 29 T: θala: θat madzmu: Sa: t
- 29 Sandik su?a: 1? Conf
- 30 L: ((unintelligible))
- 31 T: nasam kajfa naktub?
- 32 L: ((uninteligible))
- 33 T: very good right?
- 33 when I write ?iθni: n I write it ħa: kaða right?
- 33 θala: θa
- 33 naktub ha: kaða right?
- 34 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 35 when we see the difference this one is written like this and this one i:: s
- 35 if you see the sideways you are gonna recognize the difference
- 36 ((teacher illustrates on the board))

37 LL: oh that's fun

38 T: if you really wanna write it like this you can but just be consistent otherwise you are gonna confuse yourself

- 39 L: wa: ħid
- 40 T: wa: ħid
- 40 ?alif ahah
- 40 in text two usually it is written like this
- 41 L: ((unintelligible))

- 42 T: that sounds like a good question you don't know that
- 42 you need to compare it with you don't know that
- 43 ((unintelligible))
- →44 ?antuma
- 44 wa ?antuma
- 44 wa: ?antuma
- 45 ((laughter))
- 46 f ha: ðihi al madz mu: Sa: t ma: ða ?urid?
- 46 f ha: ðihi al madz mu: Sa: t ma: ða ?urid?
- 46 maθalan fi ha: ðihi al madz mu: sa: masa Samara wa Erika
- 46 Samara taqra? raqm
- 46 raqm raqm raqm mina ?al ?arqa: m nafham?
- 46 hija taqra? raqm θuma hija taqra? taqra? raqm ma: ji?
- 46 wa bada **ð**a: lik after that bada **ð**a: lik
- 46 Erika taxta: r chooses taxta: r raqm mina ?al ?arqa: m wa taqra? ?araqm
- 46 wa hija tuxamin hija tadzid finds hija tadzid ?araqm
- 46 ah hal qara?ti: a tissa wa tissu: n? nasam
- 47 ((teacher uses gestures to support his explanations))
- 48 nafham? maslu: ma: t wa: diħa? clear?

49 LL : yes yes

- 50 T : al hamdulilah yalah arbaς daqa: ?iq arbaς daqa: ?iq ?aw θala: θ daqa: ?iq
- 51 ((a break to do the assignment))
- 52 T: daqi: qa wa: ħida daqi: qa wa: ħida

(9.0)

- 52 ?a: sif Sala: ?al muqa: taSa ?a: sif Sala: ?al muqa: taSa
- 52 wa lakin man? man turi: d ?an taqra? raqm mina ?al ?arqa: m?
- 52 man turi:d?
- (0.1) ja: kira ?iqra?i: raqm mina ?al ?arqa: m wa naħnu

(0.1)

- 52 nuxamin ?aw nadzid ?raqm ?asaħi: h inshallah
- 53 kira: ?arbaSa wa θama: nu: n?
- 54 T: mmm (0.1) ?ana: la: ?aSrif
- 54 Anna ?ajna huja ?araqm?
- 55 ((the teacher is requesting Anna to go to the board and indicate the number))
- 56 T: ma: huwa ?araqm? ?iqra?i: h min fadlik
- 57 Anna: ?arbasa wa θama: nu: n
- 58 T : wa θ ama: nu: n?
- 59 L: wa θ ala: θ u: n
- 60 T: mara θ : ania
- 61 Anna: ?arbaSa wa θala: θu: n
- 62 T: masa basd
- 63 LL: ?arbaʕa wa θala: θu: n
- 64 T: ?aḍun qa: lat ?arbaʕa wa θama: nu: n
- 64 wa lakin f ?al ħaqi: qa? ma huja ?araqm? mara θa: nija?
- 65 LL: ?arbaʕa wa θala: θu: n
- 66 T: saħi::ħ
- 67 ((teacher points to another student to read the number))
- 68 ?iqra?i: h
- 69 L: Şifr
- 70 T: mmm sahl nasam masa basd?
- 71 LL: sifr
- 72 T: Erika ?iqra?i min fadlik ?iqra?i ?araqm
- 73 (0.3) wait time
- 74 Erika: θama: nija wa sab\$u: n
- 75 T: aheh (0.2) mmm ana: la: ?aSrif la: ?aSrif (0.1) taSrifi::n?
- 76 Erika : aheh
- 77 T: jalah
- 78 ((Erika goes to the board))
- 79 T : ma: huja ?araqm?
- 80 Erika : θama: nija wa sabSu: n

81 T : masa basd 82 LL : θama: nija wa sabsu: n 83 T : dzajid 83 aa Rachel uh uh ?iqra?i raqm (0.1) tissa wa tissu: n 84 Rachel: aa 85 T : mmm 86 (0.7)87 T : saħi::ħ? wa ma: huwa ?araqm? 88 (0.1)89 Rachael : tissa wa tissu: n 90 T: masa basd tissa wa tissu: n 91 LL : 92 T : dzajid 92 oh Medanet ?iqra?i min fadlik 93 Medanet: emm iθna: n wa xamsu: n? 94 T: la: aSrif 95 ((student goes to the board)) 96 (0.4)97 T: masa basd 98 LL: iθna: n wa xamsu: n 99 ((teacher points to another student) 100 T: ?iqra?i: raqm 101 L: Sifru: n 102 (0.3)103 T: man taSrif? (.) mara θa: nija 104 L: Siſru: n 105 ((laughter)) 106 ((student goes to the board)) 107 (0.4)108 T: ma: huwa ?araqm? 109 L : Sifru: n

110 LL: Sifru: n

- 111 ((laughter))
- 112 T: tajib su?a: l (0.1) ma: zilna masa ?al ?arqa: m
- 112 ha: ða ?araqm ma: huwa? mija? masa basd mija?
- 113 LL: mija
- 114 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 115 T: ?iħda Sasar maSa baSd
- 116 LL: ?iħda Sasar
- 117 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 118 T: ?i0na Safar
- 119 LL: ?iθna Safar
- 122 LL: ?arbasa safar
- 123 LL: θama: nu: n
- 124 T: 0ama: anu: n? 0ala: 0u: n masa basd
- 125 LL: 0ala: 0u: n
- 126 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 127 T: wa: ħid wa? situ: n
- 128 LL: situ: n
- 129 T: wa: ħid wa situ: n
- 130 LL: wa: hid wa situ: n
- 131 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 132 LL : sabSata Safar
- 133 T : saħi: ħ
- 133 mara θa: nija masa basd
- 134 LL: sabSata Safar
- 135 T : su?a: 1? Comp
- 135 sahl sahl
- 135 al ?a: n nantaqil ?ila al wa: dʒib wa tamri: n wa: ħid
- 135 tamri: n wa: ħid
- 135 wa katabtuna ?al ?adʒwiba ?
- 135 al ?adʒwiba li tamri::n wahid inshalah
- 135 nasam?

(0.2)

nafam?

- 135 nasam al a: n fi nafs al madzmu: sa: t in the same groups
- 135 fi nafs al madzmu: Sa: t ?iqra?i ma: ða katabti
- 135 yaSni lil (0.2) ?iqra?i al dzumal li zami: la: tiki inshaallah right?
- 135 (0.3)
- 135 al ?a: n naqra? al ?ad
zwiba wa ba S
d θ ala: θ daqa: ?iq naktub al ad
zwiba Sala sabu: ra $% \theta$ inshaallah
- 136 ((students are doing the assignment))
- 137 T: al jawm? al jawm huwa al xami: s

137 nasam?

- al jawm huwa al xami: s (0.1) hal Sindana al ta: wila al Sarabija al jawm?
- 137 mata al ța: wila al Sarabija? naSrif?
- 138 L: al xami: s
- 139 T: fi: ?aj sa: ?a?
- 140 L: ((unintelligible))
- 141 T: b al ingli: zija in english
- 142 L: twelve thirty
- 143 T: twelve thirty na^cam
- 143 wa ?ajna al ta: wila al Sarabia?
- 144 LL: Lulu
- 145 T: fi: ?aj **u**orfa?
- 146 L: three oh five
- 147 T: three oh five θ ala: θ mija wa xamsa na xam inshaallah
- 148 ((after a short period of time))

149 man katabt raqm wa: ħid?man katabet ha: ða:?

man katabet raqam wa: hid?

- 150 ((a student volunteered))
- 151 yalah ?iqra?i raqam wa: ħid wa naħnu nastami? ?ila samara
- 152 ((student is writing on the board))

¹⁴⁹ T: raqam wa: ħid

- 153 T: naktub ta::skun? ma: hija al tardzama? nataðakar kalima al tardzama?
- 153 ma: hija al tardzama li ha: tihi al dzumla? (0.3) ma: hija al tardzama?
- 154 L: ((unintelligible))
- 155 T: ahah naktub wellesley ha: ka ða we lles ley wa masa si::n
- 156 L: where my aunt
- 157 T: my aunt? or her aunt? hajθu taskun kajfa naqu: l my aunt?
- 158 LL: xa: lati
- 159 T: xa: lati
- 159 hajθu taskun χ: alati
- 159 hajθu taskun χ: alati
- 159 saħi: ħ? saħi: ħ conf proc
- 159 kajfa naqu: l (0.1) Anna lives in wellesley where she studies?
- 159 Anna lives in wellesley where she studies?
- 160 LL: taskun
- 161 T: taskun f wellesley?
- 162 LL: hajθu
- 163 T: haj θ u? haj θ u?
- 164 LL: tadrus
- 165 T: hajθu tadrus
- 165 tajib mara θa: nija
- 166 LL: hija taskun f wellesley haj θ u tadrus
- 167 T: hija taskun f wellesley haj θ u tadrus
- 168 T: mara θa: nija
- 169 LL: hija taskun f wellesley hajθu tadrus
- 170 T: kajfa naqu: l Reda? nataðakar Reda? Reda ajna yaskun Reda?
- 171 LL: faransa:
- 172 T: faransa:
- 172 kajfa naqu: l Reda lives in france where he studies? Reda?
- 173 L : Reda jaskun fi: faransa haj θ u jadrus
- 174 T: masha Allah
- 174 aaa kajfa naqu: l aaa la a§rif Mika (0.1) lives in wellesley where she works?
- 175 LL : Mika taskun fi: wellesley hajθu taSmal

176 T: taSmal						
177 LL : tasmal						
178 T: tasmal						
179 LL : tasmal						
180 T : wa: diħ?						
180 nafham ħajθu?						
ħajθu? ma masna hajθu?						
181 LL: where						
182 T: where						
182 is it a question where?						
183 LL: no						
184 T: kajfa naqu: l where? like where does he live?						
185 LL: ?ajna						
186 T: ?ajna ?ajna ?ism ?istifha: m that's the question						
186 raqam ?iθnajn man katabat? Inviting students to participate						
187 ((a student volunteers))						
188 T: katabti ha: ða?						
188 ?iqra?i min fadlik ja: Maddy						
189 Maddy: asmal fi: fi: al lajl wa adrus fi: al m						
190 T: fi al ma: ? ?						
191 Maddy: yeah						
192 T: in the water?						
193 Maddy: no						
194 ((laughter))						
195 T: fi: lmasa: ?						
196 ((the teacher writes on the board))						
197 Maddy: oh fi: al masa: ? yeah						
198 T : al ma: ??						
198 ?adrus naqu: l fi lmasa: ? ?aw fi al masa: ?						
198 maSa baSd? fil masa: ?						
199 LL: fil masa: ?						
200 T: wa huna naqu: 1 fi naha: r						

- 201 LL: fi naha: r 202 T: fi naha: r fi naha: r masa basd 203 LL : fi naha: r 204 T : fil masa: ? 205 LL: fil masa: ? 206 T: su?a: 1? 207 L: ((unintelligible)) 208 T: ma: ? aw masa with mubtada? 208 fil masa: ? 208 mara θa: nija? 209 LL: fil masa: ? 210 T: fi nahar 211 LL: fi al nahar 212 T : fi al nahar? la 213 LL: fi nahar 214 T: fi nahar 214 why? why do we say fi nahar? 215 LL: silent letter 216 T: silent letter harf ∫amsi: 217 ((teacher writes on the board)) 218 fi nahar masa basd fi nahar 219 LL: fi nahar 220 T : fil masa: ? 221 LL: fil masa: ? 222 T: tajib 222 kajfa naqu:l I study? ma: ma\sina fi naha: r? (0.1)ma: masna haða:? 223 LL: in the day during the day 224 T:
- 224 I study during the day and I work during the night fi naha: r

225 LL: ((unintelligible))

- 226 T: kajfa naqu: 1 I study in the during the day and work at night?
- 226 ah I work in the evening excuse me
- 227 LL: nadrus fi naha: r wa aSmal fi: al masa: ?
- 228 T: nadrus fi naha: r aSmal?
- 228 fi: al masa: ? fi: al masa: ?
- 229 LL: fi: al masa: ?
- 230 T: masa basd
- 231 LL: fi: al masa: ?
- 232 T: fi: naha: r
- 233 LL: fi: naha: r
- 234 T: dzami::1
- 234 kajfa naqu: l Olivia Olivia works during the day and studies during the evening?
- 235 T : Olivia?
- 236 LL: taSmal fi: al masa: ?
- 237 T: taSmal fi: al masa: ?
- 237 mara θ a: nija fi: l masa: ? fi: naha: r
- 238 LL: fi: nahar
- 239 T: masa basd? fi nahar
- 240 LL: fi nahar
- 241 T: Olivia?
- 242 LL: Olivia taSmal fi nahar wa tadrus f al masa: ?
- 243 T : tasmal mumtaz
- 243 kajfa naqu: 1. Reda? Reda studies during the day and works at night?
- 244 LL; Reda jadrus fi nahar wa jaSmal f al masa: ?
- 245 T: Reda? jadrus aheh? mara θ : anija? fi naha: r
- 246 LL: fi naha: r
- 247 T: fi al masa: ?
- 248 LL: fi al masa: ?
- 249 T: kajfa naqu: l in the morning? (0.1) kajfa naqu: l in the morning?
- 250 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 251 T: aheh?

- 252 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 253 fi: saba: ħ
- 254 LL: asaba: ħ
- 255 T: wa lakin naqu: l fi al saba: ħ?
- 256 LL: fi al saba: ħ
- 257 T : fi al saba: \hbar ?
- 258 LL : fi saba: ħ
- 259 T : fi saba: ħ
- 260 LL: fi saba: ħ
- 261 T: kajfa ?aqu: 1 I work in the morning?
- 262 LL: asmal saba: ħ
- 263 T : aSmal fi saba: ħ
- 264 LL: aSmal fi saba: ħ
- 265 T: and I study ::: in the evening
- 266 LL : wa adrus
- 267 T : wa adrus ?
- 268 LL : fi al masa: ?
- 269 T: fi al masa: ?
- 269 mafhu: m? wadiħ?
- 269 tajib raqam θala: θa ?uri:d dʒumlama: ða katabti fi haðihi al dʒumla?
- 271 L: ana mutaxasi mutaxasi mutaxasis mutaxasisa fi: al oh fi: al ?iqtisa: d
- 271 ((teacher write on the board))
- 273 T: mutaxasisa fi: al ?iqtisa: d economics?
- 274 L: yes
- 275 T: nasam fi al ?iqtisa: d
- 275 masa basd? al ?iqtisa: d
- 276 LL: al ?iqtisa: d
- 277 T: ana: mutaxasis
- 278 LL: ana: mutaxasisa
- 279 T: fi al ?iqtisa: d
- 280 LL: fi al ?iqtisa: d

281 T: kajfa naqu: 1 mutaxasisi: n in arabic? (0.1) ma: ða katabti?

- 282 L: mutaxasisa
- 283 T: mutaxasisa?
- 284 L: fi al Sarabija
- 285 T fi al Sarabija fi al Sarabija
- 285 lima: ða naktub al Sarabija?
- 286 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 287 lima: ða al Sarabija maSa ta: ? marbu: ta? ref
- 288 (0.3)
- 289 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 290 T : lima: ða naktub al Sarabia ha: kaða maSa ta: ? marbu: ta?
- 291 L: ((unintelligible))
- 292 T : why?
- 293 L: ((unintelligible))
- 294 T : saħi::ħ
- 294 kajfa naqu: l language? Display
 - (0.3)
- 294 lu**в**а
- 295 LL: Іива
- 296 T: lu**k**a masa ta:? marbu: ta wa liða: lik naqu: l sarabija masa ta:? marbu: ta
- al lu**k**a al Sarabija b ta: ? marbu: ta
- ana: mutaxasisa f al Sarabija maSa baSd
- 297 LL: ?ana: mutaxasisa fi al Sarabija
- 298 (1.0)

299

- 299 T: ?ana: mutaxasisa fi al Sarabija dzami: l
- 299 wa fi: wellesley ana: adrus? ma: ða?
 - ana adrus?

(0.1)

299 Silm al insa: n masa basd? Silm al insa: n

- 300 LL: Silm al insa: n
- 301 T: Silm al insa: n
- 302 LL: Silm al insa: n

303 T : Silm ma: maSna kalimat Silm?

(0.2)

- 303 science
- 303 al ?insa: n?
- 303 human
- 303 Silm al ?insa: n science of human
- 303 man? mutaxasisa fi: Silm al ?insa: n?
- 304 L: ((volunteer))
- 305 T: anti? ?uri: d dzumla
- 306 L: ana
- 307 T: ana ?
- 308 L: ana muta mutaxasisa
- 309 T: mutaxasisa?
- 310 LL: mutaxasisa
- 311 T: aheh? fi:?
- 312 L: al in
- 313 T: al insa: n Silm al ?insa: n
- 313 wa man? man? jadrus aw man tadrus Silm al ?insa: n?

(0.2)

313 la: aħad? Conf

fi al mustaqbal inshalah Silm al ?insa: n muhim dʒidan

- 313 nasam wa huna: k sulu: m al bju: ludzjia al ki: mja al handasa
- 313 hal jumkinuna ?an nadrus al handasa fi: wellesley?

314 LL: ((silence))

- 315 T: al handasa? al handasa?
- 315 hal jumkinuna ?an nadrus al handasa? fi wellesley?
- 315 1 la la ?ajna jumkinuna ?an nadrus al handasa? ?ajna?
- $316 \ L: \ fi \ MIT$
- 317 T: fi MIT
- 317 wa man? man tadrus al handasa fi MIT?
- 317 (0.2)
- 318 ((laughter))

319 T: dira: sat al gender (0.2) wa ta: ri: x a ta: ri: x 319 man tadrus a ta: ri: x? 320 L: ana 321 T: a ta: ri: x history a ta: ri: x 322 Mika: ana: 323 T: anti mutaxasisa fi ta: ri: x? 324 Mika: nasam fi wellesley? 325 T: 326 Mika: nasam 327 T: la aSrif kajfa naqu: l Mika is an expert? specializes in specializes in history? 328 LL: Mika Mika mu 329 T: mutaxasisa 330 LL: mutaxasisa 331 T : fi: a ta: ri: x_{1} 332 LL: fi: a ta: ri: x 333 T : na\am 333 wa huna: k (0.1) afja: ? kaθi: ra maθalan ?atib ?atib huna ?atib 333 man turi: d ?an tadrus ?atib yasni fi al mustaqbal? jasni basd wellesley? 333 man turi: d ?an tadrus ?atib? 334 LL: ((silence)) 335 T: nasam ?atib basd Wellesley inshaallah la asrif (0.3) Wait time 335 al mu: si: qa al mu: si: qa man tadrus al mu: si: qa? 336 Olivia: ?ana 337 T: ?anti? aheh ?anti? ?aw olivia? 338 LL: olivia 339 T: mutaxasisa 340 LL : fi fi: 341 T: fi al mu: si: qa? fi al mu: si: qa 342 LL: fi al mu: si: qa 343 T: dzajid dzidan

343	tajib I'm	gonna see if	you are eligible to	use some helpful words

- 343 if you wanna use them inshaallah
- 343 su?a: 1? compre
 - (0.3)
- 343 tajib raqam arbaSa
 - (0.2)
- 343 raqam arbasa man katabat ha: ða? (inviting students to participate)
- 343 katabti ha: ða ya Rachel?
- 344 Rachel: nasam
- 345 T : mumta: z ?iqra?i
- 346 Rachel : aaa ana: mez
 - (0.1)
- 347 ((laughter))
- 348 maʃ maʃ ru: Տ
- 349 T: ma∫?
- 350 Rachel: mafa
- 351 T: maſ?
- 352 Rachel: ma∫
- 353 Т: ma∫ **в**и: la
- 354 Rachel: ma∫ **u**: la
- 355 T: maf \mathbf{w} u: la maf a baf d? maf \mathbf{w} u: la
- 356 LL: ma∫ **ʁ**u: la
- 357 T: ?ana? huna naqu: 1 da: ?iman ?aw da: ?iman? da: ?iman? maſ **u**: la
- 358 Rachel: ma∫ **u**: la
- 359 T: wa ?anti fi al haqi: qa da: ?iman ma∫ **u**u: la?
- 360 Rachel: naSam
- 361 T : na\$am
- 361 kajfa naqu: 1 a a a ?aw kajfa naqu: 1 ? aaa dan
 - (0.1)
- 361 professor dan is always busy? kajfa naqu: l ha: ða?
- 362 LL: usta: ð Dan
 - (0.1)

da: ?iman 362 363 T: so awful 364 LL: ((laughter)) 365 T: usta: ð Dan ?aw al usta: ð Dan? 366 LL: da: ?iman maſ maſ **k**u: la 367 T: da: ?iman ma∫ **u**: la? da: ?iman maſ**k**u: l da: ?iman maſ**k**u: l (0.2)367 wa kajfa naqu: 1? la: aSrif usta: ð Dan is always tired? always tired? 368 LL : usta: ð Dan da: ?iman 369 T : usta: ð Dan da: ?iman? 370 L : ta\$ba: n 371 T : Safwan? 372 L : ta\$ba: n? 373 T : ta\$ba: n masa basd? 374 L : ta\$ba: n 375 T: always hungry 376 LL: jaws jawsa: n 377 T: da: ?iman jawSa: n 377 always thirsty 378: ((unintelligible)) 379 T: ?aw happy? kajfa he is always happy? 380 ((laughter)) 381 LL: da: ?iman 382 T: da: ?iman? 383 L: sasi: d 384 T: sasi: d 385 LL: sasi: d 386 T: da: ?iman sasi: d ((laughter)) 387 388 T: xamsa raqm xamsa 389 L: ?ana

- 390 T: katabti ha: ða?
- 391 L: nasam
- 392 T: nasam ma: ða katabti?
- 393 L: aa ?ana maſ**ĸ**u: la bi al wa: dʒiba: t da: ?iman
- 394 T: mmm nafham?
 - (0.2)
- 494 nafham al dzumla? did you understand? nafham? al dzumla?
- 494 jumkinuna an naqu: l masu: la bi? masu: la b al wa: dziba: t masu: la
- 494 kajfa naqu: l with work? nasrif al kalima al dzadi: da? mina al mufrada: t al dzadi: da?
- 495 LL: la
- 497 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 498 fi al Samal
- 499 T: kajfa naqu: 1 Mouna is always busy with work?
- 500 (0.2)
- 501 LL: Mouna Mouna
- 502 T: aheh?
- 503 T: Mouna is always busy with work
- 504 LL: ma∫**в**u: la
- 505 T: masu: la?
- 506 LL: maʃ**в**u: la
- 507 T: aheh (0.1) b al Samal
- 508 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 509 masu: la comes with this preposition preposition okay with something
- 509 maſ**u**: la b al Samal
- 510 LL: masu: la b al Samal
- 511 T: tajib any other question?
- 511 aj su?a: 1 San haðihi al mufrada: t?

(0.2)

- 511 or anything challenging huna: ?
- 511 raqam sabSa
- 512 ((teacher points to the board))

- 513 ana: ara: muſkila ma: ða katabti?
- 514 L: usrati kabi: r
- 515 T: usrati kabi: r naqu: l ha: ða?
- 515 usrati: kabi: r?
- 516 LL: kabi: ra
- 517 T: kabi: ra
- 517 lima: ða kabi: ra?
 - (0.3)
- 517 lima: ða kabi: ra? lima: ða? why?
- 518 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 519 T: nasam
- 519 usra (.) kabi: ra
- 519 usrati kabi: ra
- 519 wa bi al Saks? my family is small?

520 LL : usrati sa**u**i: ra

- 521 T: usrati sa**u**i: ra
- 521 wa nafs ?achaj? huna raqm θama: nija
- 522 ((teacher points to a student))
- 523 katabti ha: ða? li nara ma: ða katabti huna?
- 524 Samara : wa: lidati qasi: si: qasi: ra

525 T : saħi: ħ? Conf

(0.2) wait time

- 525 wa: lidati qasi: r?
- 526 Samara: qasi: ra
- 527 T : qasi: ra lima: ða?
- 528 Samara : qasi: ra
- 529 T : nasam wa: lidati qasi: ra
- 529 naqu: l wa: lidi (0.1) wa: ladi qasi: r wa: lidati qasi: ra
- 529 wa: dih? Comp
- 530 L: ((unintelligible))
- 531 T: very good
- 531 so it is fiSlan fiSlan right?

what is this?

532 ((teacher writes on the board))

532 so this is called tanwi: n al fatha or it's like it's it's creating it looks like this but it's creating this aa fatha and ?anu: n so it becomes fislan

(0.1)

- 532 have you seen this word? the wo:::rd dzidan rheto
- 533 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 534 dzidan dzidan which is very dzidan

534 ?ana: sasi: d dzidan dzidan dzidan I am very very happy

534 dzidan naktub ha: ka ða the same thing with da: ?iman

(0.1)

534 da: ?iman

535 ((teacher writes on the board))

536 L: okay so can why can it go is there any rule where it can over like ...

537 T: it goes it goes you will see it in a number of different places

537 here it's like it's like used like an adverb in situations we will understand it okay? comp

su?a: l mu mta: z we will will encounter we saw another one in another homework

what is another word we saw?

nasam da: ?iman?

538 L: ?ajdan

539 T: ?ajdan ?ajdan

539 nataðakar ?ajdan? ma: ma\na ajdan?

540 ((teacher writes on the board))

541 LL: also

542 T: also okay?

542 ana: ța: liba fi: wellesley wa veivei ța: liba ajdan

542 wadiħ?

542 tajib adun haða ka: fi tajib

542 al ?a: n nantaqil ?ila: al video wa kajfa ka: n al video?

543 LL: mmm sasb

544 T : sasb al video ka: n sasban qali: lan? (0.1) w lakin qabl ?an nusa: hid al video dasu: na natakalam qali: lan sani al video wa ma: δa a a nata δa kar san al video wa jumkinuna ?an nastydim ha δ ihi al bita: qa: t wa ha δ ihi al bita: qa: t suwar mi θ la ha δ ihi ?asu: ra

(0.2)

545 jaSni maða uri: d? uri: duki ?an tatakalami maSa zami: la: tik oh ?a: sif

546 ((teacher is picking up the photos from the floor))

(0.3)

546 ?uri: duki an tatakalami $ama: \delta a$ tata δa kari: n min al mina al video what do you remember? mafi:? comp wa jumkinuki ?an tasta χ dimi: ha: δ ihi al bita: qa: t you can use this to remember inshalah ma θ alan ana ara: su: ra wa ana ata δ akar ahhh (0.1) ha: δ a wa: lidu Maha wa huwa ya α malu f al umam al mutahida huwa da da da huwa da: ?iman maf**u**: l

(0.2)

546 wa: diħ? Comp proc this is just jasni ha: ða like warm up qabla an nusa: hid al video

547 ((students are using the textbook to do the assignment))

548 ((Teacher interrupts the students))

549 T : lakin ja: ja: tula: b la: uri: d la: uri: d asmas al ?ingli:zija la:: urid ?asmas al ?ingli:zija al Sarabija faqat

550 ((students proceeded in doing the task))

551 T: daqi: qa wa: ħida daqi: qa wa: ħida

(6.0)

551 ?a: sif ?awalan nufa: hid al video wa bafa **ð**: alik natakalam fa al video

551 wa ma: ða uri: d min kul ta: liba? ma: ða uri: d? min kul ta: liba? uri: d?

552 L: dzumla

553 T: dzumla nasam ?uri: d dzumla min kul ta: liba san al video

wa fi: kul dzumla fi: kul dzumla ma: ða uri: d? uri: d?

554 L: new word

555 T: nasam

555 kajfa naqu: l new word? kalima?

556 LL : dzadi: da

557 T : kalima dzadi: da kalima dzadi: da Inshallah ma: ſi?

557 yalah nuſa: hid al video maratajn θuma natakalam

558 ((the teacher is playing the video))

The transcript

wa: lidi mutardzim mutaxasis fi: al tardzama min wa ila al lu**u**a al Sarabia wa ingli: zija wa al faransjia wa wa: lidati muwadafa fi: maktab al qubu: l fi: ja: miSat new York wa: lidi masu: l da: ?iman wa wa: lidati ?ajdan masu: la bi al Samal fi nahar wa bi suli al bajt fi al masa: ? li: xa: la ismuha ismuha nadia taskun fi: madi: nat los angeles fi: wila: jat California haj θ u tasmal fi: bank ana: al bint al wahi: da fi al usra wa ana fislan wahi: da

559 ((laughter))

560 T: nufa: hid al video mara θ a: nija

The transcript

wa: lidi mutardzim mutaxasis fi: al tardzama min wa ila al lu**u**a al Sarabia wa ingli: zija wa al faransjia wa wa: lidati muwadafa fi: maktab al qubu: l fi: ja: miSat new York wa: lidi mas**u**: l da: ?iman wa wa: lidati ?ajdan mas**u**: la bi al Samal fi nahar wa bi su**u**li al bajt fi al masa: ? li: xa: la ismuha ismuha nadia taskun fi: madi: nat los angeles fi: wila: jat California haj θ u tasmal fi: bank ana: al bint al wahi: da fi al usra wa ana fislan wahi: da

561 T : tajib ma: ða fahimtuna mina al video? ma: ða nasrif san maha? man hija?ref

(0.4)

561 aheh? ma: hija al dzumla? dzumla tawi: la inshallah

562 L: okay wa: lid maha jaSmal aa mutardzim fi al umam al mutahida

563 T: mmmm mashallah sahi: h al umam al mutahida nasam

563 wa huwa? fi al umam al mutaħida huwa?

564 L: huwa jatakalam

565 T: oh Safwan qabla ða: lik

565 ma: hija al kalima al dzadi: da fi: dzumlatiki? ma: hija al kalima al dzadi: da fi: dzumlatiki?

566 L : oh huwa yaSmal mutardzim

567 T: yaSmal mutardziman

568 ((teacher writes on the board))

569 T: mmm mutardzim jasni huwa mutardzim f al umam al mutahida

569 aheh?

570 L: al ?ingli: zija wa al Sarabija wa al faransija

571 T: kajfa naqu: l english? Display converg

572 LL: al ?ingli: zija

573 T: al ?ingli: zija

574 LL: al Sarabija

575 T: al Sarabija wa ?

576 LL: al faransija

577 T: al faransija wa hija qa: lat min wa ?ila min wa ?ila al lu**u**a al Sarabija wa ?ingli: zija al faransija nafham?

(0.3) wait time

577 ja\$ni ahja: nan huwa yutardzim min al ?ingli: zija ila al \$arabija wa al \$aks mina al \$arabija ila al ?ingli: zija aw mina al ?ingli: zija ila al faransija aw mina al faransija ila al \$arabija

(0.2)

577 na§am?

577 atardzama atardzama nasam mina al ?ingli: zija ila al sarabija aw mina al sarabija ila al ?ingli: zija al kalima al dzadi: da? atardzama atardzama atardzama

578 ((the teacher writes on the board))

579 ma: masna atardzama?

(0.3)

580 L: translation

- 581 T: kajfa naqu: l he specializes in translation?
- 582 L: mutaxasis
- 583 T: mutaxasis? mutaxasis? aheh mutaxasis fi: al tardzama mutaxasis fi: al tardzama
- 583 Aheh min wa ?ila? ?aj lu \mathbf{k} a: t? mara θ a: nija? ?aj lu \mathbf{k} a: t?
- 584 LL: al Sarabija
- 585 T: al Sarabija
- 586 LL: al ?ingli: zija
- 587 T: ?ingli: zija
- 588 LL: al faransija
- 589 T: al faransija
- 589 tajib haða: huwa wa: lid maha aheh wa wa: lidat maha? aheh?
- 590 L: ((unintelligible))
- 591 T : dzumla nasam
- 592 L : aa nadia hija ta\mal
- 593 T : mmm ma: hija al kalima al dzadi: da
- 594 L : xa: la
- 595 T : naqu: l xa: lat maha
- 595 ma: masna xa: la ? in arabic ma: masna xa: la?
- 596 L: wa: lidati
- 597 T: wa: lidatik? uxt wa: lidat maha hia xa: lat maha mafhu: m?
- 598 LL: yes
- 599 T : dzami: 1
- 599 wa ma: ða na§rif San xa: lat maha?
- 600 L : tasmal fi: dza: misat los Angeles

601 T : dza: misat los Angeles?

602 LL : fi: madi: nat

603 T: fi: madi: nat los Angeles

604 L: fi: bina: jat california

605 T: fi: bina: jat california?

fi: wila: jat california

606 L: taskun fi al bank

607 T: taskoun fi bank?

hija taskun?

608 L: oh nasam tasmal

- 609 T: tasmal fi bank saħi::ħ dʒumla tawi: la wa mumtaza ʃukran
- 609 ∫aj? ta: ni masmuha?

610 LL : nadia

611 T: nadia aheh

611 wa wa: lidat maha ma: ða nasrif sanha? aheh?

612 L: wa: lidat maha muwadafa fi: al maktab al qubu: l

- 613 T: dzami: l
- 613 al kalima al dzadida?
- 614 L: muwadaf
- 615 T: muwaḍaf ?aw muwaḍafa
- 616 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 617 muwadaf masa basd muwadaf

618 LL: muwadaf

619 T: ana muwadaf fi: wellesley ana ana aSmal fi: Wellesley ana muwadaf fi: wellesley

620 LL: muwadaf

621 T: masi? muwadaf

621 wa wa: lidat maha hija muwadaf?

muwaḍafa

622 LL: muwadafa fi: dza: misat new york

623 T: fi: dza: misat new York sahi: h

623 nafham?

muwadafa yasni hija tasmal fi: dza: misat new York sindaha sub sindaha wadi: fa

(0.1)

623 fi: dza: misat new york saħi: ħ wa ?ajna tasmal?

624 L: admission office

625 T: nasam

625 kajfa naqu: l admissions office?

625 this is an important office is an important word to know

625 kajfa naqu: l office? office is an important word

625 kajfa naqu: l office? kajfa naqu: l office ja olivia?

626 Olivia: maktab?

627 T: maktab

627 ma: ma\sina maktab?

628 LL: office

629 T: naSam maktab desk aw maktab office

630 ((teacher writes on the board))

631 nasam wa ma: ða nasrif san (0.1) wa: lidat maha?

631 hija (0.2) tatakalam masa maha fi nahar wa al masa: ??

631 hija tadylis masa maha wa tatakalam masa maha?

632 LL: ma**∫и**: la

633 T: nasam

- 633 hija?
- 634 LL: maʃ**ʁ**u: la
- 635 Т: ma**∫в**u: la

635 nataðakar ha: ðihi al kalima masu: la masu: la bi ma: masu: la?

(0.2) Wait time

635 hija maf \mathbf{k} u: la bi : (0.2) bi?

- 636 LL: Samal
- 637 T: bi al Samal
- 637 fi: al masa: ?

(0.3)

637 hija maſ**u**: la bi al Samal fi al masa: ??

(0.4) Wait time

637 ma: masna fi al masa: ??

637 hija taSmal fi al masa: ??

638 L:la

- 639 T : la mata: taSmal?
- $640 \ L: fi \ fi$
- 641 T : fi: ?
- 642 L : fi nahar
- 643 T : fi nahar
- 643 nataðakar haðihi al kalima?
- 644 L : fi nahar
- 645 T: fi nahar nasam
- 645 wa fi: masa: ? hija maſ**ʁ**u: la bi?
 - (0.9) Wait time
- 645 tajib wa wa: lid maha? huwa? masu: la?
- 646 L: ma∫**ʁ**u: l
- 647 Т : maʃ**ʁ**u: l
- 647 da: 2iman? (0.3) la? (0.2) mata: lajsa ma $\int \mathbf{B} u$: la: n? when he is not busy?
- 648 L: oh was he always busy?

(0.4)

- 648 nuſa: hid al video nuſa: hid al video mara θa: nija yasni ?a: xir mara
- 648 urid ?an asrif hal wa: lid maha masuu: l wa: bima masuu: l

(0.2)

- 649 ((the teacher is playing again the video for the third time))
- 650 T : wa : lidat maha?

(0.9)

651 wa: lidat maha?

```
(0.3)
```

- 651 ma: ða? (0.2) hija?
- ajna wa: lidat maha al ?a: n? hija? fi al masa: ? fi al bajt fi al bajt
- 651 nasam wa hal hija mas**u**: la?
- 652 L: nasam
- 653 T: nasam
- 653 bi ma: ða?

654 L: f nahar

655 T: fi? ma: ða qa: lat? fi nahar? fi nahar hija maʃuu: la

655 wa fi al masa: ? hija ajdan maſ**ʁ**u: la bi? ʃu**ʁ**l al bajt

655 ma: masna ſu**ʁ**l al bajt? nasam ʃu**ʁ**l al bajt?

(0.3)

655 wa maha hal hija hal li: maha aw Sindaha aw laha: ?usra kabi: ra?

656 LL : la

657 T : la

657 ma: ma\second laha? laha ?uxt?

658 LL : la

659 T: la

659 laha: ?ax?

660 LL : la

661 T : la

661 hija al bint?

662 LL: al waħi

663 T: al waħi: da

hija al bint al waħi: da fi al ?usra wa hija qa: lat fi niha: jat al video when she said

663 ?ana? nasam nasam b al sarabija? ?ana: ?

664 LL : waħi: da

665 T : wahi: da ?aw fislan wahi: da

666 ((teacher writes on the board))

667 wahi: d it means only ?ana: al bint hija qa: lat ?ana al bint al wahi: da and it can also mean lonely ?ana fiSlan wahi: da

(0.2)

667 when you go home tajib ha: δa dzuz? min al al wa: dzib or over the week-end

667 watch the video again or tonight this is part of the homework watch the video again

667 wa: dzib wa: dzib huwa tamri: n raqm ?arbaSa tamri: n raqm ?arbaSa

667 wa huna nadrus adama: ?ir subject pronouns subject pronouns inshallah

667 ?ajdan ?iqra?i: safħa ?iθn: n wa Siſru: n

667 ?ajdan safha ?arbaSa wa Sifru: n ?ila xamsa wa Sifru: n you are gonna learn a list of nouns

667 look over a list of nouns and see how you can translate them

Appendix 6

Transcripts of a Sample English Lesson Taught by a Native Speaking Teacher

1 T: I know you don't wanna be here, but I am really happy you are here. Okay? I know you wanna go home, but I'm happier [so for me, I'm happy for you I am sad.

2 LL: [((laughter))

3 T: Okay is this it or is anyone else coming?

4 LL: yeah ((unintelligible))

5 T: Oh I saw them I saw them

5 Just the two of them?

6 LL: Yes

7 T: okay

8 ((The teacher is preparing the equipments for a listening activity))

9 T: here we have a listening exercise a listening exercise and we're not going to be doing it with a video. I have a video but it's not going to be with the video obviously because we're here, okay? but I do have speakers and hopefully all the excited students will quiet down soon and you'll be able to hear it, I have a transcript, <u>transcript</u> (0.2) does everyone understand the word transcript?

10 LL: yes

11 T: So I have the transcript of the video and I will share that with you (0.3) but what I would like you to do is not look at it first (0.2) do not Look at it first.

11 Clear? Let's do this. I'm going to find out who's here and who's not here (0.8) so Lena, of course, Nada absent Rym hum . Amani (0.2) sara (0.2) hadil (0.2) no hadil?

12 LL: no she is here

13 T: aheh I thought I saw your face and then where is she?

14 ((laughter))

15 T: okay Maya, Ines, Nour. right in the front. Leena (0.2) Leena, no Leena, Nouria (0.2) Faiza is go::ne, romaissa i::s here, Ahlem gone and the boys are gone obviously. Ismahan gone too. Mariam she is not coming?

16 LL: yes

17 T: Ilham also gone, Fatma also, Amira, no Marwa no. I keep hoping somebody is going to come through the door like in my imagination, Linda, I don't see Linda. salma obviously salma is here I think that you have not missed a single day. You Romaissa, amani. You've always have a perfect attendance and khawla have perfect attendance. Now, very good. Ikram (0.2) no Ikram (0.2) Manal I'm going to keep calling and I'm hoping you know Khawla. Yes, of course. Of course. And kawthar. Not here. Not here. Okay. Thank you (0.2) So many of you are saying you'd really, really like to go with. What I would like to do is have one session and if you agree to come meet in my office for an hour or sometime in the next term or next year, I'll let you have the next session for you. That's fine. Okay? Just for those of you who came, not for the ones who decided to take an entire day. I will give that to you. Is that fair?

18 LL: yes

19 T: yes, but you have to agree to to come and spend an hour with me in the office. I can do it together as a group or we can do it individually. It's up to you, but you will have to find the time to do it when I'm available.

20 LL: yes

21 T: Is anybody not happy with this? Does anybody have a problem with this?

22 L: maybe we need to leave early ten minutes before the end of the session because we need to catch the bus

23 T: so I give you a big chunk and you asked me for more (0.2) I can't do that. I can't let you go early. Right? Physically, I'm not going to stop you from getting up and leaving class. I'm not going to stop you, but I can't volunteer to say yes. You can leave early even after I've given you a whole session. Okay? so we might. If we take a break early then fine, but I can't do that. Okay.

23 alright okay So today I have a listening activity for you and then we're going to have a discussion, perhaps even a little bit of a debate okay? and listening activity I have that I brought for yesterday was a debate on a topic that is somewhat controversial. Now you may all agree with one side or the other, but we need to make sure that we have both sides and it shouldn't be controversial for you should you be able to maintain a cool hip I hope. Alright? Okay. So what I want you to do when you listen, this is not a conversation, these are points in a debate. I want you to listen to those points. Try to understand what they are and take notes. Okay? What do you take notes on?

24 LL: ((unintelligible))

25 T: Everything?

26 LL: no

27 T: No. The key points, the key points. See if you can catch them off. Okay? and then I have. I have the transcript.

27 Okay? Do you want me to give this now? Can you not look at it? Can You keep it separate?

28 L: no no miss keep it with you

29 T: Yeah, I think you're probably right

30 ((laughter))

31 T: alright let's try this and see if you can hear it. Okay (0.2) see if you can hear this time. I actually got it on the right. I had downloaded it yesterday, but I put it in the wrong folder and I couldn't find it (0.3) So let's see if this works. Can you hear it?

32 LL: yes

The transcript

"polls of incoming college freshmen show that at least one in three has used smart drugs. We can pretend that this isn't, that this isn't a choice that large swaths of people are already making, or we can embrace that smart drugs for just one of the many ways that people exercise free choices in their lives"

People have the right to choose what they would do uh or have done to their bodies and college students have the right to choose

By providing equal access to these medications to everyone. All the things that we really value are going to be jeopardized.

Banning Smart Drugs disempower students for making educated choices for themselves and it denies them their ability to think smarter

When people are ill and really have serious health conditions. We you know we are willing to take some risks but when someone's healthy you know it ain't broke don't fix it

We enhance our brains all the time and every day from coffee we drink first thing in the morning, the SAT prep classes we take to gain college admission.

You could be more eager to work yet those effects could be those also responsible for their addictive properties. You know, there are things we don't know about these drugs.

What colleges are in the business of doing is educating students to navigate complicated situations where there's a certain amount of ambiguity.

When you insert smart drugs into the equation, into a really competitive society, what you're doing is you're using competition, you're making it possible for some people to up the ante even more.

I would suggest that the use of these medications don't increase people's competitiveness, and so if that's your concern deal with the competitive nature of our society

Maybe you can get better grades, get that really awesome job right, but remember if everyone has access to those awesome medications all of us get exactly the same advantages to the extent that smart drugs work to improve focus, motivation, attention, concentration, or memory. We should celebrate that, not prohibit them. I think there are genuine ways for individuals and

societies to improve themselves. It's not rocket science. It's not smart drugs. Basic and plain and boring. It's education."

33 T: what's the first thing in your mind?

34 LL: smart drugs smart drugs

35 T: okay

35 so my question to you is have you heard of this before today?

36 LL: no

37 T: okay

37 do you know what it is based on the uh the recording?

37 (0.2)

37 Okay let's talk about what is it what do you think it is?

38 ((teacher allocates the turn to one student))

39 L: it is something we use to improve our mind to uh to

40 T: so something that you take to uh improve your mind ahah?

41 L: students take that medicine to be motivated to be enthusiastic to be eager to study more

42 T: So perhaps, it's about enthusiasm what so they make you?

43 LL: smart

44 T: to make you? [smarter

45 LL: [smarter

46 T: so are they really taken to make you smarter?

47 ((silence))

48 T: It's a good question right?

49 ((laughter))

50 LL: yes

51 T: but obviously some people think that they are drugs that can help them be smart. So this video was about pros and cons about pros and cons. Okay. uh So what words did you hear that maybe you aren't quite so sure about?

- 51 (0.9)
- 52 T: Nothing. You guys are amazing.

52 (1.7)

- 53 L: ambiguity
- 54 T: ambiguity.
- 54 What does it mean?
- 55 L: big something big IE
- 56 T: Something big. Something [unclear

57 LL: [not clear

- 58 T: ahah what about ?
- 59 ((teacher writes on the board))
- 60 LL: Jeopardize
- 61 T: What does that mean?
- 62 L: to threaten to do harm
- 63 T: to threaten to make it harmful
- 64 L: at risk
- 65 T: Absolutely. At risk. Okay, good. Alright.
- 65 What about disempower?
- 66 L: maybe the opposite of empower

67 T: the opposite of empower. So please don't use a word to describe the word. Let's think of some other way to say it (0.2) If you want to, we can describe the word power. What is something?

67 What does it mean to empower something?

68 ((bidding))

- 69 T: to empower
- 70 L: to make it powerful

71 T: to make it powerful

71 so to disempower is?

72 LL: to weaken

73 T: to weaken or to take [the power

74 LL: [the power

75 T: alright to take the power

75 What does it mean to exercise free choice?

76 LL: To do whatever you want

77 T: to do whatever you want to exercise fee choice it means to be Capable of making decisions.

77 Competitiveness?

78 L: competition

79 T: competitiveness has to do with the word [competition

80 LL:

[competition

81 T: right competition so competitiveness is?

82 ((teacher writes on the board))

83 L: it's a noun

84 T: it's a noun

85 L : like challenge someone who wins a challenge

86 T : someone who is competitive they must have their competitive nature, competitive nature,

86 right? how competitive are they? Are you competitive?

87 L: yes

87 L: yes

88 T: It's alright are you competitive?

89 L: not really

90 T: a little bit

91 ((The teacher is using gesture to ask another student))

92 T: absolutely

92 Yeah?

92 No?

92 Yeah?

93 L: I can say that I am competitive but I don't know how

94 T: I think you are

95 L : because I don't know how can I decide if I am competitive

96 T: it depends yeah yeah okay You don't know if you're competitive or not. Do you like to win?

97 L: uh it depends on the situation.

98 T: okay it depends on the situation Competitive Nature is someone who every time you're put in a situation where you have to compete with someone you try to win you try to win when I put in a situation where I need to compete with someone, I don't feel like I want to win I'm very bad to be on teams when the team really wants to win. It's not that I don't try, but it doesn't matter to me what matters to me is the activity, right? so for me, I am not a competitive I don't care if it is the process that we use to get to the end. I would like to get to the end and then would like to get the answer, but I don't need to compete with someone else to get, but some people, their personality, their nature is trying to get to that final goal. Meeting everyone else. And you guys, I think the majority of students probably competitive because you've worked so hard to get here, alright so there has to be some of that nature to get to this point. Ahah okay. So then they talked about competitiveness. We talked about that. We talked about motivation, focus.

What about rocket science? It's not a rocket science?

99 L: it's especially to say that something which is not that hard it's not a rocket science you make it rock

100 T: yes maybe it's rocket science I don't know

101 ((laughter))

102 ((The teacher is distributing the handouts of the transcript))

103 T: thank you so what I'd like you to do is look at your notes, think about what you heard. was it hard or easy to understand?

104 L: somehow hard

105 L: hard

106 T: so you said okay so you may say It was. It was super, super easy or thumbs up, sideways. I struggled a little bit, but it was okay. I really could not understand it at all until about halfway through when I started. Okay? So I managed to get through. I found it really easy or I didn't understand it all. Okay? All right. That's about where you need to be. Good. This is a good level. Now the challenge here is you're used to seeing the video.

107 LL: Yes.

108 T: ahah ahah so this is going to be a challenge for you to pick up more information. So do you think you should be looking at the transcript now?

109 LL: yes yes

110 T: okay

111 ((laughter))

112 T: So what I would like you to do, and I would like you to try to get, if you divide your paper even on the back of the transcript, paper pros, pros, pros, cons, okay on the back of your paper pros and cons pros and cons

113 ((teacher is writing on the board))

114 what does this mean?

115 LL: the benefits the benefits

116 T: so for and against for is the advantages okay? Opposites. and when you take your notes this time, I want you to put your notes in the appropriate category and I know you told me you didn't understand, so nobody should be looking at their paper yet. Okay?clear?

117 LL: yes

118 T: All right. Let's listen to it again. This time. Please put notes in the appropriate category. You can use one word, two words, but you need to be able to write something that will remind you of what it was. Okay? Ready?

119 L: yes

120 ((Teacher is playing the audio file again))

121 ((after finishing the audio file, the teacher is writing the question on the board))

122 T: this is our question today. Are the benefits of smart drugs outweigh the risks?

122 (0.4)

123 L: yes

124 T: What kind of risks?

125 L: the risks of smart drugs uh of uh so

126 T: risks of smart drugs

126 (0.2)

126 of taking drugs

126 (0.3)

126 Now we don't have all the information [about smart drugs

127 L: [yes

128 T: We don't know about smart drugs but we have people who are speaking for and people who are speak against. Okay? and there are points. What I'd like you to do is we're going to divide into two groups, one for one against one pro one con. You've made your list. I want you to compare your lists. You could use the transcript on the other side if you need more details. Okay?

129 ((silence))

130 Okay?

131 LL: yes

132 T: okay ((laughter)) and then we're going to have a little bit of a conversation or a debate over the benefits or the disadvantages of taking smart drugs for students. Okay? (0.2) can you do this?

133 LL: yes

134 T: Do you think you're ready?

135 LL: yes

136 T: Alright. So before we talk about the pros and the cons separately, we're going to divide into two groups okay?

137 ((the teacher is counting the students))

138 T: fourteen students so seven seven as you guys look like you're already divided up. So we'll just do it this way, right in the middle.

138 Okay? You want a pair for pros for cons or do you guys think that just your partner will tell you ?

139 L: no no just a partner will tell me

140 T: special points just special points.

140 does everybody understand what are you doing?

141 LL: ((unintelligible))

142 T: Does everybody understand what are you doing?

143 LL: yes

144 T: okay

145 ((students are working on the assignment))

146 T: you need to work with skimming ladies don't read it. read intelligently skim (0.7) okay let's start to get the points. The first thing to do is to look at the dialogue or the transcript let's not read fully we already got a long-detailed conversation

147 (4.0)

148 LL: ((unintelligible))

149 T: Are you ready?

150 LL: no

151 T: which part are you in?

152 LL: ((unintelligible))

153 T: You are in the first one? How many points do you have?

154 L: three

155 T: three okay maybe two more minutes,

156 LL: yes

157 ((students are working on the assignment))

158 T: Okay. One more minute.

159 T: Okay. Can I have your attention for one moment please? (0.4) It should be your attention eventually yeah yeah (0.7) alright What I'd like you to do is to sit seven people in each group you're gonna have five points in each right? so at least five people in each are going to talk. Okay? I want one person to introduce your side of the topic (0.3) okay?

160 L: okay

161 T: Can you do that? one person introduce your side of the topic?

162 L: yes

163 T: alright You don't need to give all of your points. Just introduce your side of the topic. We think blah, blah, blah. We shared this we shared this. we're going to make an argument for this. You're going to make an argument against this. Okay?

163 Is that clear or are you confused?

164 L: it's clear

165 T: it's clear. Okay. You have your points.

165Do you have counterpoints?

166 L: Yes.

167 T: yes?

168 L: yes

169 T: Okay. I want you to think of who's going to make the points and who is going to be ready to make counterpoints. I do not want the same person doing everything okay? Please everybody needs an opportunity to part to participate. If you're a little worried about being able to make counterpoints, then maybe you should be the one making the original point.

170 L: yes

171 T: Okay? (.) People making counterpoint sometimes have to think on their feet

172 L: yes

173 T: right? So please divide up into group. You have one minute to do this who is going to make the points who is going to do an introduction. All right? And then we can start

174 ((students are offered time to organize their notes))

175 T: Are you ready?

176 L: no

177 T: How much time do you need? Another minute? Everybody needs one minute?

178 LL: yes

179 T: so one minute

180 ((after one minute))

181 T: okay your chance is done (0.2) Can you do this?

182 L: yes

183 T: Can you do this?

184 L: yes

185 T: Got it?

186 L: yes

187 T: okay so let's line up facing each other.

188 ((students are rearranging the tables))

189 ((unintelligible))

190 T: Alright, can you stand up where you are or do we want to do this sitting down?

191 LL: sitting down

192 T: I know if I were put in the same situation I would choose siting down

193 ((laughter))

194 L: me too miss

195 T: ah?

196 L: sit down

197 T: okay ((laughter)) only this time this time next time you have to stand up. If for some reason you are too quiet and I cannot hear you, you will stand up. Okay?

197 how will we start?

198 L: with the introduction

199 T: who's gonna do the introduction?

199 Amani okay So (0.3) we're all friends

200 ((laughter))

201 Alright?

202 L: We know each other ((laughter))

203 T: we know each other which sometimes is a great thing and sometimes it's not. Right? ((laughter)) okay So please be polite. Yeah?

204 LL: yes

205 T: what about hand gestures?

206 L: don't warn each other

207 T: don't warn each other yes

208 L: I don't think that it's gonna be sensitive (student initiates the turn)

209 T: no it's very sensitive talking and using hand gestures [is very sensitive

210 L:

[sometimes it's a good job

211 ((laughter))

212 T: okay okay So you guys, if she starts to stand up this way you start to pull her back okay?

213 L: okay

214 T: and we'll take off this are you ready?

215 LL: yes

216 T: okay I'm going to let you go. You're going to start with one the introduction, then a point for and then counterpoint to that point where you can make a point against even the guests.

217 ((laughter))

218 Okay? You don't get out of it just because you're visiting

219 ((laughter))

222 Alright? Okay so I'm going to sit up here. I don't think I'll need to time you for the arguments however if you exceed the time recommended, I'll stop you. Okay?

221 LL: yes

222 T: alright So let's start with the pros

223 L: okay good morning (0.2) uh today is a debate on the question that is like uh that concerns smart drugs and their use in the college uh we think as a group that uh the smart drugs outweigh the risks uh the benefits of the smart drugs outweigh the risks through three different points to make our arguments or points to uh maybe convince you maybe not.

224 L: good morning everybody today we are going to talk about smart smart drugs and we are going to argue against these drugs

225 ((unintelligible))

226 ((laughter))

227 T: alright

227 who would like to continue?

228 L: first of all the people who uh get or uh who take smart drugs are students in the college and they are adult people who have free choices but they have to know about the bad effects of these drugs so we can't allow these drugs

229 T: another point?

230 L: so we can say that we are responsible college students to make our uh[uh

231 T:

[to make your choice

232 L: yes to make your decision uh and to make your choice too uh uh I and you and everyone here knows that human being might be into this state (.) all college students even twenty years old they might come into this state this is a very serious issue. This is a drug you are inserting in your blood and it's something that [we can

233 L: [that you

234 T: we have to wait we have to wait wait until she finishes her comment

235 L: this is something that you are inserting in your blood this is something that is going to intervene in your uh in your thinking process with your brain it's not something that we allow people to it's not a choice for people to take it's a choice for doctors to take first and as we have established we don't know about these drugs so you can't exactly trust people to to use these drugs

236 L: not all people like that which uh there are there are some people who have experiences before and they do what is good and what is bad and as you have said uh uh it's not clear if the doctors allow that kind of drugs so we can't decide if it is good or bad

237 L: so as long as doctors don't whether they are good or bad [IE

238 L: are good or not [it's not we don't know if they

239 T: husht husht one person [one person. Okay? Have you decided who is going to be the person?

240 [laughter

241 LL: yes

242 T: okay Please continue

243 L: as I have said, we don't know It's not clear if doctors uh allow these drugs not not (.) they do not allow them we don't know.

244 L: yes, okay here is the deal the person clearly says we don't know about these drugs they don't know enough things about these drugs if we don't know enough things the doctors themselves can't take decisions so until we find out enough things about these drugs until the doctors get to decide it's not a choice.

245 L: it's not allow them and uh and it's not uh so you don't know you can use it as you cannot

246 L: no how did you know that doctors didn't allow them or not or do they know or not

247 L: because the person clearly says we we don't know you know there are there are things we don't know about these drugs

248 L: is it a doctor?

249 L: of course

250 L: It's it's another person we don't know about

251 ((overlapping talk))

252 T: wait wait wait

253 L: we don't know about him whether he is a doctor or not so how can you say?

254 T: So let's stop for just a second. The first comment was about freedom of choice. The second comment was we need a counterpoint of a medical professional to make this decision. Okay? Are we still on track?

255 LL: yes yes

256 T: okay so now we're getting back to whether we know whether or not the doctors know. so you've already clearly stated, we don't know if the doctors know. So the counterpoints are still is it a freedom of choice? or should the doctor still decide regardless of whether or not the doctors now. Right? Okay. So let's keep with that. Did you have something you wanted to add?

257 L: yes as humans when we don't know enough things about uh about stuff we just forbid them we say they are not good and we just move on we are afraid of them because we don't know them well. So these drugs they don't know much about them. So they just say that these are drugs that make us smarter. They make us motivated and concentrate more concentrated and stuff. So they don't know more about and much about it uh and I think it's like it says as forbidden as allowed. 258 L: So your point is?

259 L: they don't know if it's dangerous or not.

260 T: So what's your point? Uh

261 ((overlapping talk))

262 T: Let her finish her. So the point that you're trying to make is, since it's not known, what should happen?

263 L: yes

264 T: so what should happen?

265 LL: free choice yes free choice

266 L: okay use them as they cannot

267 LL: yes

268 L: and since they are obvious

269 T: hush hush wait wait ((a student took a turn without teacher's permission))

270 L: drugs are known for their bad reputation You can't take risk with that bad reputation we can't take risks

271 ((overlapping talk))

272 T: okay ladies we're having trouble with turns. You have to take turns. She's talking, you don't talk, she's talking. You don't talk. Okay? You're taking turns so that everybody can be heard. Okay? We don't talk over each other. I know this is very hard for this culture.

273 ((laughter))

274 Alright? Please continue

275 L: okay we can take risks in everything but concerning drugs we need to be more conscious about the effects that you up that will get after taking those drugs. So we should be aware of that and good effects of those up these drugs before taking it up

276 L: can I talk?

277 ((laughter))

278 T: If you're up for your team but please everybody needs a chance to talk. It's for all people

279 L: they are called smart drugs, so they are not like the other drugs and as we have said there is no proof that they are bad for health. So there are two possibilities either they are good or not so here the choice will depend on the person if he will take it or not IE

280 (0.1)

281 T: You guys decide which one of you is going to respond.

282 L: uh I want just to ask you something I don't want really to ask you a personal question or something but in this situation, if anyone can tell you if you can uh ((laughter)) sorry Can you try these medicine? Can you try to take it? [You said that

283 L: [you cannot this is personal

284 L: yes I know it is a personal [question I am just asking I am just asking

285 L: [can I can I answer ?

286 T: You're you' re asking [a personal question

287 L: [a personal question yes

288 T : on a general debate we don't do that [we're not going to ask personal questions okay? so retract your question

289 L:

290 L: they are but since they are they talking about uh they are saying uh we have uh we don't have we have free choice yes

[yes

291 L: yes because we didn't choose we are not talking about pros or cons we are just discussing its use

292 L: ((unintelligible))

293 L: yeah choosing this doesn't mean that we approve it all

294 LL: yes

295 L: this debate is all about this

296 ((unintelligible))

297 L: we all know each other okay? so when something is in doubt about uh the consequences on our body so we uh cannot uh uh how we say cannot stop since we are not sure about the consequences we will have on our body so [

298 L: [you know people

299 T: okay wait wait wait

300 ((teacher is pointing to a student))

301 you haven't talked yet?

302 L: yes

303 T: yes please go ahead

304 L: You have said that uh uh if something is in doubt we cannot risk taking it but there are some people who have had already uh taken these drugs and nothing happened to them if something happened we will we will know and since they are mature enough, they can have a choice either to take it or no so it's up to them and the consequence uh will be on them. since no one has uh how I can say a drawback or I can say that they didn't have a bad effect on them since that we can have it why not? (IE)

305 ((one student is taking teacher's permission to talk as it's her turn)) turn-taking organization

306 L: well I agree with you that the effects of these drugs are benefits at some point uh beneficial at some point according to some people no one is complaining about their effects or health issues so far, but we should think about the future or further effects on our brain. Well the excessive use of these drugs of course will lead to being addict uh addicted leads to addiction. So I think nothing will be harming our brain. So we consider uh bad effects before good effects we shouldn't only be thinking about the effects we should think about our future

307 L: she is to some point right. So uh everything that we consume and overuse it we will uh we will get hurt we will get addicted and it will have negative effects on our health that's why if you take these smart drugs without overusing them we will not harm your health

308 L: how is that?

309 L: it's

310 L: how is that? How would you

311 L: you use it wisely you don't overuse it

312 L: you are a student and

313 T: Stop. Stop. You just said you

314 L: we are not talking about personal things

315 L: a student who studies five years at ENS for instance will use these drugs for five years excessively for exams like

316 ((overlapping talk))

317 T: you're ((teacher is clapping her hands to get an organized debate)) all you're all talking. We don't need that. Right? (0.1) Okay which side are we working on right now?

318 ((unintelligible))

319 T: She's still talking

320 L: we are moving to other points

321 T: so are we moving to other points?

322 LL: yes we are talking about free choice

323 T: That's fine. They can move to another point if they want to move to another point

324 L: it's our free choice too

325 ((The teacher is laughing))

326 L: I think I thought that we have to discuss each point so to agree

327 L: we can move

328 T: Okay, hold on a second. It's a good question. That's a good question. So they started talking about free choice then you said no doctors should decide it shouldn't be free choice. People can't make decisions for themselves [Okay? So you guys you've got your point, you've got your counterpoint. Alright? Are you going to come to an agreement?

329 L:

[yes

330 LL: no not yes

331 T: is it a debate about coming to an agreement?

332 LL: No, it's not.

333 T: no it's not It's about discussing it's about discussing two sides of an issue. Right?

334 LL: yes

335 T: Okay. So if you aren't coming to an agreement on something, you discuss your points, you discussed your points and then you moved to the next point. Right? So we can move on as you see fit. If you really want to go back to the other point, then you can go back to the other point and not make a counter argument against their point. That's up to you. Okay? I'm not making a clear line between the points. I'm not defining clear lines between the points. I want to make sure everybody talks and that everybody is giving a clear side that you've made a choice either pro or con. Now again, remember you're saying you along ladies, just because they're on the pro side doesn't mean they believe that it should be pro. It means that they are arguing with pro. Just because you're on the site doesn't mean you believe it's con. You wanna argue with the con. Okay? so let's not make it personal. Okay? You can say students in general.

336 LL: yes

337 T: Okay?

338 LL: yes

339 T: Alright. Where were we? We were talking?

340 L: addiction

341 T: a little bit about addiction and who was up?

342 L: ((unintelligible))

343 T: hush hush

344 L: students will lose their concentration they want to be motivated to uh study so they will use them just one uh once a week just to get concentration

345 ((an outsider student interrupted the teacher within class))

346 ((laughter))

347 T: I ladies When someone comes to bother me, a class to interrupt my class, I take it very seriously because your time is valuable to me. I don't want to take away my time to go talk to somebody else while I have class with you. As you've seen it's happened. It's happened and when the administration comes and tells me I have to take the time, but I don't like doing it because it takes away time from you and I really value the time that we have in . We don't have a lot.

348 LL: yes

349 T: It seems like a lot, three hours. There's a lot, but it really isn't much so I try to be respectful of that and I also asked you to be respectful of that. You know, you know when the classes start and end at one end or the other, if you have to interrupt. All right? Okay so one more comment. Yes?

350 ((the teacher assigns the turn to one of the students))

351 L: I think uh uh that they are more beneficial than rather than uh uh ha harmful uh if we take for instance coffee it enhances our memory and our concentration do you think that coffee is beneficial or harmful? (student -student question)

352 L: let me let me explain this point it's science it's pure science it's something way more addictive than others coffee can be addictive but in comparison to other drugs other drugs are way more addictive than coffee the effects the bad effects of coffee are not that bad as other drugs you can't compare you can't compare uh coffee or candy or chocolate to drugs that's you are not making a clear comparison you are saying that all all of them can be addictive but you have to see how how addictive they can be and if that if that was apparent why are we banning other drugs cocaine, and all those things. Why are we banning them?

353 ((overlapping talk))

354 T: hush hush not everybody you guys did you guys decide your group decides who is answering but you can't all answer at once.

355 ((teacher assigns the turn to one student))

356 L: so you've said that that we cannot say how coffee can be more addictive than other things . so first of all coffee can have <u>much</u> more drawbacks than everything else and you said

that those why they are banning those drugs since those drugs have more bad effects on health uh and what else did you say uh I lost my point

357 ((laughter))

358 L: those drugs they know about them they know their effects but these smart drugs they don't know about about them. they're still researching, I'm looking for the making research and another point I was like this. coffee scientifically has effects on the body the whole entire life

359 T: exactly

360 L: so caffeine is running in the in the blood and when once it runs in the blood, like it becomes in the head in your mind. It wants caffeine when it's like it's like uh is going lighter in your blood. so, the mind wants once more caffeine because he wants it to be moving and circling around your blood. So the mind thinks about caffeine so you want to get caffeine and it's like in the long-term effects. It's not like drugs may affect you like right there. And if he is excessively use them they're going to kill you at the end. This is just killing you slowly. It's like a peaceful, peaceful, deadly poison. It's going to kill you at the end if you use it like, like what you bringing once (2IE)

361 L: Okay.

362 L: I don't like coffee I don't like coffee That's why

363 ((laughter))

364 L: I don't like coffee either

365 T: wait wait so can you can you get that back to the point o::f [drugs point and how this, how this compares to a coffee

366 LL:

[drugs

367 L: we are taking about coffee like we drink coffee all the day all day, like from time to time

368 T: because it sounded to me like you were trying to make their point

369 L: what point?

370 T: their point of smart drugs because copying their talk. Then maybe they should use smart drugs either

371 L: no they said coffee is doesn't have drawbacks Like the drugs

372 L: I didn't say it doesn't have drawbacks. you can drink coffee your entire life and it will start affecting you later. But when you are having drugs or excessive use of drugs two years three years uh

373 ((overlapping talk))

374 T: wait wait hush hush I want amani to finish her thought because what I want you to do is I want you to wrap it back around and make your original point about the drugs in relation to coffee. I don't want you to just talk about the coffee. I want you to wrap it around and then bring it back to the drug.

375 Amani: so people people like to drink coffee over although they know about their effects yet they drink it and you see many people that are obsessed with coffee. So like some people would be obsessed with smart drugs. They can use them. (IE)

376 T: thank you that was what I am looking for thank you okay yes

377 ((teacher is assigning turn to one of the students))

378 L: coffee is not like drugs because it is a substance in nature. So we can't compare it with drugs drugs are harmful [caffeine is not as harmful as drugs

379 Amani: [even coffee is harmful to the body it affects your body as well

380 T: stop stop stop okay can we agree coffee affects the body?

381 LL: yes

382 T: Coffee affects the body we're not going to do any more comparison of caffeine and drugs okay? caffeine is a drug we're done alright

383 L: full stop let's discuss another point

384 ((laughter))

385 T: okay next point next point please ?

386 L: we won't compare coffee and drugs so knowing that there is there is some drugs that really affect the body but doctors won't use them just as medicines (IE)

387 L: because they are doctors, they know what are they doing

388 L: yes

389 L: if they don't know what are they doing look if if someone if you give the same medicines that doctors give to patients to another person who doesn't have any they are going to use them excessively and this will hurt them (IE)

390 L: but doctors use those drugs as medicines as we students we we will use those drugs as uh smart drugs to uh to uh concentrate or focus so it's it's about the use of these drugs

391 L: what are you doing here is that you are comparing a student to a doctor and this doesn't work here

392 L: I am not comparing students to a doctor

393 L: you you said in the same way doctors can use drugs to help patients a student can use drugs to uh

394 L:no

395 T: one second one second the decision-making capacity of students not you said comparing students with doctors decision making capacity of student and the decision making capacity of the doctor or the educated opinion of students based on okay, not only students and doctor give us more details

396 L: so do you think education that uh the decision making capacity of a student is as good as that of the doctor

397 Salma : no of course not so but as I said if doctors allow the use of the use of drugs as medicines why they won't allow the use of smart drugs as well

398 T: salma please stop stop

399 Salma: okay

400 L: doctor doctors allow people to use drugs maybe especially with patients maybe, maybe they will affect their body in the positive side but if there is a student who is in a good health maybe it affected affected maybe it will affect him in the negative side

401 L: yes

402 L: but your point is to allow everyone to use drugs as a favor your point is not that you should prescribe these smart drugs to people who need them. Your point is make these drugs allowed to everyone, every single person, every single student can use these drugs, whenever they want.

403 T: make it a question make it a question

404 L: so we are talking about college students

405 L: college students college students make up a huge percentage in society okay let's say just let's only talk about college students. you're talking about college students. This is a college student he is 19 years old. He's got a lot of pressure from his teachers. He has a lot of work he has exams coming. Do you think that this person this person probably doesn't know how to pay bills is able to make a decision that should be made by a doctor.

406 L: it depends on the person

407 L: you are saying that we should allow everybody to use these drugs just because uh uh a small percentage of them are capable of making the right choice. Is that what are you saying?

408 L: yes

409 ((teacher allocates the turn to another student))

410 L: I lost it

411 T: You've got one too which one?

412 L: so first of all, we are not we are not saying we have to allow students to take these drugs. We said that it's a free choice they can take it as they cannot take it's up to them

413 L: this debate is not whether they take these drugs or not

414 L: We are discussing the question of free choice free choice is not is not just restricted to allowance

415 L: here's the deal. When you speak of free choice. It means that the government is going to make a law smart drugs everybody is allowed to use smart drugs. That means since it's for example coffee if we take excessively coffee everybody can drink coffee, some people choose to drink coffee. [Some people don't choose to take coffee but these drugs may have harmful effects

416 L: [some people don't want to take it

417 L: yes but these drugs may have harmful effects

418 L: I uh I don't agree with you in that point college students take these drugs take them properly only in pressure times they have to take these drugs but we are not saying we have to allow them

419 T: okay finish what are you seeing

420 L: of course doctors uh I lost my point

421 ((laughter))

 \rightarrow 422 T: I'm I just want to point out that I know at least two people who have not said anything

422 (0.3)

422 Can you join others please?

- 423 L: yes one point
- \rightarrow 424 T: Do you have another point you want to bring out?

425 L: yes

426 T: so thank you (0.2) make an argument go ahead

427 L: another point?

428 T: yes carry on

429 L: I think that uh educa the principle the principle aim behind education is to get skillful students and uh skillful students but I think that by consuming these drugs education won't be good for example uh uh a student will be always absent will not attend classes and uh in the last week he will just consume these drugs and make them as good as uh uh as other good students.

430 L: yes

431 L: no I think it's the opposite

 \rightarrow 432 T: which one? Wait

433 L: so it's not fair it's not fair to take these drugs

 \rightarrow 434 T: do you have any other point?

434 (0.3)

434 I know you guys have a lot to say. Okay. Decide which one of you is going to answer

435 L: so we said that smart drugs won't won't make you understand it's just for it's just for concentration and focus it's not just for uh

436 L: it's not uh how can if they didn't attend classes how can they know the lessons how can they work on

437 L: no I don't didn't say that they will always be absent for instance I don't attend classes regularly and there uh another student who is always uh present

438 ((Overlapping talk))

439 T: wait let her finish (0.3) Now, you go ahead and finish what you were saying please

440 L: I think the the smart drugs are working exactly the opposite. They uh uh make the student more competitive and uh gives him the power to work and to participate so these drugs will make him come to the class and participate but not really smart. (IE)

441 T: okay we've got some really quiet people done here. I want to hear from the two of you more. We haven't heard from anybody back here. uh alright If you have already talked, don't talk (.) Okay? Just for the next round, I want to hear these other people who have not talked and then we we're going to conclude. Okay?

442 L: I wanna talk about motivation uh I wanna give an example people who make sports like footballers they take those drugs sometimes they take those drugs to have more energy and strength but they didn't stop exercise for years okay? so if I take smart drugs as a student doesn't mean that I won't go to study It just means having more concentration or focus that's all

443 L: may I add another point?

444 T: no I am sorry ladies you have already talked enough somebody who hasn't yet talked please respond (0.1) or those who have been sometimes quiet

445 (0.5)

446 L: I study english I study yesterday ((a student who came as a guest))

447 ((laughter))

448 L: what a bloggiest?

449 L: do you think that uh the college students nowadays they can have pills on these drugs smart drugs? They can't they are so too young to do that that imagine someone that is twenty years or I don't know he is so so small to do that so so small to do that maybe for workers maybe for teachers but not in the college

250 L: excuses

451 ((laughter))

452 L: ((unintelligible))

453 T: I know wiam do you have anything you wanna say?

454 L: she ha::s

455 T: I know

456 L: she is like encouraging her she is like come on

457 ((unintelligible))

458 T: no no we are waiting for her

458 We have to hear what she has to say

459 ((noise))

460 T: ladies please everybody here is your friend and there's nothing you can say that will make that change okay? but please we need you to participate. Can you try just to say something? Any point? I know it's scary, but you just try any point

461 Wiam: there are some kinds of research that are carried on people doctors allow that people to use medicines why not smart drugs I don't know how to say it in English but paracetamol for instance doctors allow them why not smart drugs?

462 L: can you give us an example

463 T: hush hush okay no please you are attacking her.

464 L: miss I am just asking

465 T: I know. Next time you to the chair. Goodness Okay, one more time please Wiam

466 Wiam: I don't know any people consuming such drugs

467 ((unintelligible))

468 L: But we are not sure about the effects of smart drugs

469 ((overlapping talk))

470 L: everybody thought I was taking them it should be about the effects of smart drugs

471 ((laughter))

472 L: Okay I have I have something that's the reason doctors are asking questions should we start using prespection prespection

473 T: Paracetamol?

474 L: no the uh prospection

475 T: prescriptions

476 L: yes prescriptions should we start prescriptions to for people to buy paracetamol it's not uh people in the past you can buy them anytime anywhere without a prescription but now they saw they have harmful effects now they are asking it's a question in in the medical field should we start using prescriptions for it too and as for the argument for uh families families using uh certain drugs those are illegal those are illegal if he they find out that you are have been using drugs in order to be stronger you are going to be punished and your reputation is gonna be affected throughout the entire life so we have to argue against smart drugs

477 T: okay I would like to have a closing comment, please spend one min together in your groups discussing closing comments how are you going to close your argument and who's gonna do it okay? just one minute in your groups separately

478 ((1 more minute for preparation))

479 Okay. so when you're closing statements remember you are just making a closing statement that is recapping your entire argument okay? okay? we are not debating in the closing statement is that clear?

480 LL: yes

481 T: okay (0.7)

481 are you ready?

482 L: yes

483 T: who is going to be doing closing statements? Okay okay do you want to choose who goes first?

484 L: so uh as friends comment we don't know uh we don't know enough about these drugs we don't know its their source their uh uh effects on body so we cannot encourage ourselves in the uh in the end and proceed in using it

485 T: Thank you

486 L: we've thought that uh we can use those drugs in certain situations, but not excessively and since doctors haven't yet whether to use it or not we cannot ban it (IE)

487 T: Okay thank you give yourself an app

488 ((applause))

489 okay how do you feel about this?

490 L: released

491 ((laughter))

492 T: okay who here got really, really, really stressed? right? Did you feel like you needed to convince her? the other way? No?

493 L: ((unintelligible))

494 L: yes

495 L: ((unintelligible))

496 LL: yes

497 T: it was good listening to you good job ladies for being in the opposing side you did a great job Anything else that you want to comment on about this activity?

498 L: no no

499 L: if next time we do more action

500 T: I'm going to wait until everybody knows how to keep themselves in their chair and look what happened.

501 ((noise))

502 T: and I think we need to be careful that the boys don't end up with just two separate attendance sheets in January

503 L: they have to separate them

504 T: to separate them

505 LL: yes

506 T:. so I expect to see you in my office In January in January. If I don't see you in January I am gonna mark it when I see you if I don't see you in January I will mark you absent in this sheet, so it's up to you on Tuesday. I am available anytime after 9:30.

507 LL: yes

508 T: you don't wanna 9h30

509 LL: yes we have a session

510 T: okay we can stay today I don't mind

511 L: on Monday we don't have a session on Monday

512 T: I am gonna be in my Office on Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays on Tuesday I am free from 9:30 until 11 on Wednesday I have a free time from 11 to 12h30 from on Thursday I have free time from eight until 9:30 the same day.

513 LL: ((unintelligible))

514 L: we can come on Tuesday

515 LL: ((unintelligible))

516 T: But if you all come together we can do an activity together. That's better for me because then I don't have to see fourteen different students over fourteen different days okay it's a lot of time for me. So let's meet all together together. Okay?

517 LL: yes

518 T: we don't have to worry about the day in January, but I need to see you see you.

519 LL: Thank you.

520 T : We need to make up the time between us it's a secret circle don't share it with anybody clear?

521 LL: yes

522 T: okay thank you.

Appendix 7

Transcripts of a Sample English Lesson Taught by A Non-Native Speaking Teacher

- 1 T: is everybody here?
- 2 L: yes
- 3 T: okay welcome back
- 4 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 5 T: who?
- 6 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 7 T: If they don't come soon they are absent
- 8 ((the teacher assigns one of the students to call her classmates who are still outside))
- 9 T: When I say ten minutes it's ten minutes
- 9 (2.7)
- 9 is it your turn Nashwa?
- 10 Nashwa: yes
- 11 T: number seven your friend says it's a plate
- 12 LL: no
- 13 T: seven is a plate is it a ?
- 14 LL: no miss
- 15 ((noise))
- 16 L: miss
- 17 ((noise))
- 18 L: miss
- 19 ((noise))
- 20 T: because of the last choice of number five

- 21 L: ((unintelligible))
- 22 T: I got your point I got it I got your point life is unfair
- 23 ((laughter))
- 24 T: number thirteen
- 25 L: napkin
- 26 T: eleven is a napkin twelve is a napkin ring
- 26 thirteen?
- 27 ((bidding))
- 28 T: shall we give the chance to the others?
- 29 LL: no::
- 30 T: okay next group then
- 31 LL: yes
- 32 T: what is it?
- 33 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 34 T: and then
- 34 ((a student is writing on the board))
- 35 T: that's it so it's your tu::rn? Akram?
- 36 LL: yes
- 37 T: twenty
- 38 ((akram is transcribing the word))
- 39 T: fifteen fifteen it's correct she is saying?
- 40 LL: mug
- 41 T: mug that's it so one point
- 41 T: seddik number?
- 42 Seddik: five it's tea pot

43 T: tea pot yes

- 43 number five?
- 44 ((the student is writing the transcription on the board))
- 45 T: is it t ei
- 46 LL: tea:: long i
- 47 ((laughter))
- 48 L: it's correct
- 49 T: aa Aya she didn't write the mark Seventeen?
- 50 LL: bidding
- 51 ((unintelligible))
- 52 T: sorry?
- 53 L: they all corrected twice
- 54 T: they all corrected twice?
- 55 LL: no
- 56 T: okay correct
- 57 ((noise))
- 58 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 59 T: it's correct
- 60 L: long a
- 61 T: flowers five flowers
- 62 LL: yes
- 63 ((a representative from the group of five flowers goes to the board))
- 64 L: number eighteen eightee::n coffee cup
- 65 LL: no::
- 66 L: eightee::n it's coffee cup

67 T: yes it's coffee cup or cup coffee cup or cup it's correct? coffee cup or cup coffee cup 68 ((the student is writing the transcription on the board))

69 T: coffee that's it Cup tha's it quickly:::::

69 nineteen

70 L: saucer

71 T: su ?

72 LL: sau saucer saucer

73 T: with long o sau:: cer sau::cer

74 ((the student is transcribing the word on the board and the teacher is correcting her mistakes))

75 T: small small no capital letters in the transcription we have an eraser for that es like thi::s

75 as you have written it in the first time but smaller that's it long o sau: cer es o::

76 L: number one

77 T: number one?

78 L: yes

79 T: number one?

80 L: stern stern

81 ((noise))

82 T: hush hush

83 L: it's stern

84 T: ten or one?

85 L: stern one one

86 T: what is it?

87 L: stern

88 T: ten?

89 L: stern

90 T: stern she is saying stern

91 ((noise))

92 T: hush hush

- 93 T: your friend is saying stern stern table?
- 94 LL: yes correct
- 95 T: okay or side table it's correct also
- 96 L: shall I write stern table or side table?
- 97 T: as you like write side table Si::de ta:::ble that's it
- 98 L: nine
- 99 T: nine? It's okay we have already dealt with nine
- 100 L: I don't know maybe it's six?
- 101 T: okay choose choose something else
- 102 L: twenty-four
- 103 T: twenty four
- 104 L: spoon
- 105 T: all of them are spoons
- 106 ((biding))
- 107 T: hush-hush hush hush
- 107 You have said spoon?
- 108 L: yes
- 109 T: okay group one
- 110 L: table spoon
- 111 T: table spoon? no
- 112 L: desert spoon
- 113 T: desert spoon desert spoon desert spoon

- 113 a a a what is after the?
- 114 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 115 T: number four sorry? give me the number number four?
- 116 L: yes motion
- 117 T: fou:r number fou:: r
- 118 L: candle
- 119 T: that's it candle candle great great
- 120 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 121 T: just?
- 122 LL: ((Unintelligible))
- 123 T: four: r where is number four four ?
- 124 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 125 T: candle stone yes just a way of decoration It's a candle we do not mean the plate under
- 125 Uh uh group two
- 126 L: number fourteen
- 127 T: fourteen: n?
- 128 L: it's a mat mat
- 129 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 130 T: hush hush hush
- 131 ((bidding))
- 132 T: you have said a mat it's not a mat
- 133 ((bidding))
- 134 T: it goes directly normally to: to other groups
- 135 L: no
- 136 T: we what? what are you trying to say?

137 ((bidding))

- 138 T: the chance goes to other groups
- 139 L: yes to the next group
- 140 T: the chance goes to the other group which one?
- 141 L: to coaster
- 142 T: to coaster coaster (1.1) coaster
- 143 T: where is it? where is it?
- 144 L: twenty two
- 145 T: twenty two twenty two
- 146 L: fork next group
- 147 L: it's twenty six
- 148 T: twenty six go on what is it?
- 149 L: soup spoon
- 150 T: soup spoon
- 151 ((bidding))
- 152 T: sorry? number twenty six?
- 153 L: it's a serving spoon
- 154 T: no it's not a serving spoon here
- 155 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 156 T: no it should be [bigger should be bigger than this bigger than this
- 157 LL: [yes
- 158 T: twenty-three
- 159 L: knife
- 160 T: knife
- 161 LL: ((unintelligible))

- 162 T: twenty-three no yes it's knife
- 162 number one number o::ne Six It's sweet plate Can you say it sweet plate?
- 162 repeat for your friends
- 163 L: sweet plate
- 164 LL: unintelligible
- 165 ((laughter))
- 166 T: it should go to the flowers
- 167 LL: ye:::s
- 168 ((noise))
- 169 T: so what is it?
- 170 L: cake plate
- 171 T: okay cake plate what's the number?
- 172 L: three
- 173 T: okay cake stern cake stern
- 174 LL: cake stern
- 175 T: cake stern
- 175 ((unintelligible))
- 176 LL: why?
- 177 T: no she said cake she doesn't say stern
- 177 flower the wind went in favor of the flowers
- 178 LL: what?
- 179 T: The wind went in favor of the flowers twenty six she is saying
- 180 L: yes there is twenty six here
- 181 LL: we did it
- 182 T: We have already done twenty six

183 LL: yes

184 T: Shall we count?

185 LL: Yes

186 ((one student is counting the marks of each group on the board to indicate the winner))

187 T: great which group is the winner?

188 LL: [Vikings

189 T: [Vikings good the losers are ? who are the losers?

190 L: victory

192 ((laughter))

193 T: I am so sorry I am so sorry are you thinking about asking the victory group to do something for you?

194 ((noise))

195 don't be mean don't be mean ask for simple thing

195 (3.5) come on (6.3) come on (0.5) It will be a very few minutes

195 ask what are you going to ask from your friends?

196 LL: ((unintelligible))

197 T: they have to do what?

198 L: sing a song

199 T: come on

200 LL: sing

201 T: sorry?

202 LL: they are going to sing

203 T: a song they sing a song? would you sing a song?

204 LL: no

205 T: no?

206 ((noise))

207 Would you tell a joke?

208 LL: what?

209 T: a joke

- 210 LL: ((unintelligible))
- 211 T: No?
- 212 LL: dance
- 213 (0.5)
- 214 T: you are bad losers you are bad be good losers (0.2) you have a joke? (1.0) come on
- 215 (1.4)
- 216 T: she is going to sing
- 217 LL: yeah
- 218 T: come on hush hush hush
- 219 ((noise))
- 220 L: titanic
- 221 LL: okay
- 222 ((unintelligible))
- 223 L: I am going to sing a song of titanic
- 224 ((noise))
- 225 T: go on
- 226 (0.7)

227 L: every night in my dreams I see you I feel you that is how I know you go on o:::n

228 LL: ((applause))

229 T: it's great it's great thank you very much

230 ((laughter))

231 now we are going to do a small debate

232 ((students are arranging the table to run a debate))

233 T: is it okay?

234 LL: yes

235 T: okay So brexit brexit brexit and for years we have been only hearing about the brexit deal okay? what does brexit mean? I am not asking about brexit deal I am just asking what does the word brexit mean? [okay? go on yes

236 L1: [yes

237 L: brexit is abbreviation which is composed of two parts [bre and exit which refers to the fact of Britain leaving the European union

238 T:

[okay

238 very good

238 so you are what are you are trying to say? you are trying to say that Brexit is a new coined word?

239 L: yes

240 T: it is used as a shorthand way to say [Britain and exit

241 LL: [Britain and exit

242 T: so we take the br form? [britain and exit

243 LL: [britain and exit

244 T: so and we have a new word which is? [Brexit. Okay?

245 LL:

[Brexit

246 T: so Britain leaving the:: [European union

247 LL: [European union

248 T: what is the European Union? (0.2) What is the European Union? So Britain is leaving the European Union We know what is Britain [but what is the European Union?

249 LL:

[yes

250 ((bidding))

251 T: yes

252 L: ah ah it is people and a partnership that a that a includes the:: twenty eight European countries

253 T: twenty-eight [European countries. Okay. It has always been twenty-eight European countries?

254 L: [European countries

255 LL: no

256 T: No?

257 L: at first uh uh

258 ((silence))

259 T: at first you are saying at first at first when?

260 L: ((unintelligible))

261 T: When did it start the European Union?

262 LL: after after the world war

263 T: very good

263 so it started after the first or the second world war?

264 LL: yes

265 L: after nineteen forty-five

266 T: forty-five yes. it's after uh it's exactly [in

267 L:

[nineteen fifty

268 T: fifty-one in nineteen fifty-one it started

268 why? (0.2) It's it's uh at that time it encompasses how many countries?

269 (0.7)

270 L: thirty-eight

271 T: No. at the beginning, in nineteen fifty-one, it was only six countries.

271 It was only six countries and Britain was it among these countries?

272 LL: no

273 T: no, it was not among these countries.

273 Why? what was the objective of the EU? Why the EU was created the European Union?

274 LL: economic cooperation

275 T: economic cooperation?

276 LL: and political cooperations

277 AbdelMalek: to provide the citizens of the European union with a free pass

278 T: to provide what Abdelmalek? Sorry?

279 Abdelmalek: is to provide free pass to other people from other European countries

280 T: free pass okay

280 something else? (0.3)

281 ((teacher points to one student))

282 go on

283 L: to avoid war

284 T: very good okay so to avoid to provide peace to provide peace (.) on the basis of economic reasons

284 Yes. go on akram

285 Akram: to be able to rival the biggest countries in economy such as the united states and Asia

286 T: yes.

286 go on something else? (0.3) so it's main reason was to provide peace for

[people, but peace It is built upon economic reasons, how come, how come? so generally when we talk about peace, we talk about military basis we do not talk about economics (.) but here the EU was based on economic reasons

287 LL: [yes

(0.5)

288 T: Yes, akram go on

289 Akram: miss the war has always has financial aims

290 T: it was yeah the war has financial aims yes

291 Akram: and that always caused by financial reasons

292 T: Yes. Tallab, you want to say something? Ah nekkouf sorry

293 Nekkouf: I guess that when a country uh has such uh an economy is flourishing uh it will spread all over the other countries

294 T: okay I got your point

294 yes uh go on stanbouli

295 Stanbouli: uh these countries madam they cooperate together they don't have any walls among them

296 T: very good. very good. so you are trying to say that whenever peace whenever these countries they have uh they have affairs okay and [collaborate and the chance to collaborate between each other so they don't think about getting a wall between each other okay?

296 was it really? did it work?

297 L:

[and the chance to collaborate

298 LL: yes

299 T: and it worked? [Really? really it worked?

300 LL: [yes yes

301 T: and then other countries started to join the EU [okay? when Britain joined the EU?

302 LL:

[yes yes

303 L: uh uh ninteen seventy eight

304 T: nineteen?

305 L: eighty eight

306 T: Yes you are are not wrong you are right when you said

307 L: fifty eight or eighty eight?

308 T: no no seventy three seventy three the negotiations started in nineteen uh maybe sixtynine but Britain reached an agreement and could join the EU only in nineteen seventy three

[so it takes it took four years after the negotiations have started okay? and then Britain has reached an agreement and it became a member of the EU. Okay?

309 LL: [yes

310 T: Now (0.1) why now Britain wants to exit from the EU? (0.9) yes

311 ((the teacher allocates the turn to a student using gestures))

312 L: the main problem is immigrants' problems borders uh are open between the countries and uh uh many immigrants are coming to their country

313 T: So no Britain wants to exit from from the EU because of some reasons okay?

314 LL: yes

315 T: one of the reasons that your friend is saying [uh

316 L:

[to avoid immigrants

317 T: to avoid immigrants

318 LL: yes

319 T: okay do you think that it's really about immigrants?

320 L: No

321 T: no the immigrants is o::ne among the points [okay? I want first of all to discuss this point of the immigrants and then we move to another pa::rt

322 LL:

[yes

323 T: go stanbouli

324 Stanbouli: the aim behind this Brexit is that countries uh cooperate for example somebody who has uh uh for example financial crisis they help him to uh to uh to uh

325 T: yes to solve to solve the problem to fix the problem

326 Sanbouli: yes so especially I guess 2008 people who have a very huge country crisis affected other countries and especially most of people of countries which are very poor so there is a difference of those counties who are poor and suffering from financial crisis they immigrate uh to the uh other countries and most of them is british

327 T: bri britain? (.) ok

328 Sanbouli: it's uh [uh so from this it started from the problem (.) of immigration and then uh uh as it suffered from this cooperation so they decided uh so they decided to stop this cooperation

((coughs))

329 T: [go

329 so they decided to leave ok ok the others? do you agree? on what your friend has said?

upon your readings of course (0.5) are there other reasons?

330 L: yes

331 T: okay what are the other reasons?

332 ((bidding))

333 yes?

334 L: it's about turkey the uh

335 T: it's about?

336 L: turkey they didn't want to uh join the uh the European union

337 T: so they don't turkey doesn't want to join?

338 ((laughs))

339 L: no [UK refused that turkey will uh join the [European uh the European union

340 LL: [UK

341 T: [EU okay refusal upon turkey joining the European union very good other reasons (0.4)

341 these are the only reasons?

342 LL: no

343 T: yes akram

344 Akram: ((unintelligible))

345 T: so inside Britain not outside ok yes?

346 Stanbouli: this is uh this is

347 T: this is ?

348 Stanbouli: uh this is uh yes whenever it comes among the uh as it has ((inaudible))

349 T: we cannot hear you would you speak up? we can't hear you from here

350 Stanbouli: it's I said it's about making decisions (.) the countries among this union they can't make any decisions by themselves [they need to uh uh uh [

351 T: [okay [consult okay

352 Stanbouli: consult yes other countries so the uh so the british systems they have the british systems they wanted to be independent

353 T: Okay. Okay. So they want to be independent and free.

353 Okay. go on yes

354 L: the uh the reason behind UK deciding about leaving the European union is they want to be superior country meaning the rules and the control of the country uh uh want to be in the hand of british people or rule rulers [that's why they decided to exit from the European union]

355 T: [very good (0.2) so you are joining her point?

356 L: yes

357 T: ok you are joining her point very good

357 Something else? another reason?

358 ((teacher gives the turn to one of the students))

359 Yes?

361 T: are you sleeping from here? (0.2) are you sleeping?

362 (0.1)

363 L: no

364 (0.1)

365 T: and then? (0.2) yes go on

366 L: I have read that Britain is trying to keep the European union on at eleven and Britain time of twenty-nine march twelve thirty

367 T: Yes, exactly on that that moment

368 L: and that it warned the united states if one person who were against the Brexit the prime minister

369 T: ok prime minister of Britain?

³⁶⁰ L: I have read that uh

370 L: yes

- 371 T: She is against leaving?
- 372 L: no Cameron
- 373 T: uuuh Cameron Cameron David Cameron (.) he is against?
- 374 L: yes

375 T: okay

 \rightarrow 375 and May she is for or against?

376 L: uh uh May

377 T: Theresa May she is for for leaving? or she is for

- 378 L: uh the prime minister after uh uh the results of that uh the uh
- 379 T: referendum of the referendum
- 380 L: he said ((unintelligible))
- 381 T: said what?
- 382 L: yes?
- 383 T: what did he say? are you talking about David Cameron?

384 L: he quit

385 T: ah (0.2) no he didn't quit because of this

386 L: David yes (sign of disagreement of the student with the teacher)

387 T: it was the end of his term (0.4) ok

388 L: I think that the other reasons of the UK union and the EU is that ((coughs)) is that the uh the people the people of UK believe in that Britain have have a big influence political influence with the European union that's why they think if they quit the European union it will have more political influence and power

389 T: okay it will have more influence and power

390 L: I think that the reason behind that people of great Britain believe that yes if they get their independence, they will become more powerful whereas if they joined the European union it would be not beneficial or won't be the same thing.

391 T: ok so you are saying people

392 L: yes (a sign of confidence)

 \rightarrow 393 T: ok so why now people are split? Some are wi::th the brexit, it and others are against? even politicians not all of them are for and none not all of them are against Okay. Why is this split? Yes stanbouli

394 Stanbouli: miss because of the advantages [of the European union itself if they exist this union they will not (0.1) they will not benefit from the advantages like they won't have a free pass to the other countries and a uh

395 T: [the advantages?
395 What are the other advantages? go
396 Stanbouli: miss I heard that [uh [yes
397 T: [you are talking about the free pass which is [one of the advantages.

397 Okay. we list the other advantages and we list the other advantages and we'll see whether they are wrong or right according to our opinion (0.1) Yes

398 Zebich: when they where they deal with everything uh where they buy it's all in Europe the trade so if they exit they won't know how it will work and the laws are the same

399 T: so they need to change the laws?

400 Zebich: yes that's why the politicians are uh uh are are with and the government are against because these people they will have to change the laws of payment especially some laws they will have to find something in the middle which uh is a

401 T: good zebich very good yes this

402 Zebich: miss they have done some statistics about this they have done

403 T: who have done the statistics you have said they have done some statistics?

404 L: politicians

405 T: okay so statistics have been done?

406 Zebich: yes they have just like you say like the Brexit if they don't deal with this situation of the European union they won't even have supplies for for people they won't even have food so they have to find solutions that that's why up politicians are splitting between between being

[being for or against

407 T: [for

407 ok being for do you agree with her?

408 LL: yes

409 T: yes

410 Zebich: the one who wrote the act of fifty said because most of the American countries are still shocked after uh Britain decide to quit uh the EU they they said that because they are shocked uh he used the term soft and hard and he said that uh uh Britain it will be it will be more hard than soft for british people he wait for he wait for he said that we are waiting for british people to change their mind because it's say it brings more negative points more than positive so we are waiting for them to change their minds as he said hard more than soft

411 T: very good very good

411 it seems that all the other European countries which are members of the EU want Britain to stay in the EU.?

412 LL: yes

413 T: What does it mean in terms of in terms of profits? Who is profiting from the other?

414 ((bidding))

415 Okay yes zebich

416 Zebich: I think they are using it like uh

417 T: you think that they are?

418 Zebich: they are using it they are they are

419 T: using Britain?

420 Zebich: yes that's why they don't want it to leave

421 T: they don't want it to leave good

421 yes?

422 Zebich: it was the wealthiest country

423 T: sorry?

424 Zebich: it was the wealthiest country

425 T: it was the wealthiest country it is go

426 Zebich: it has many immigrants from other countries so it uh leaves the European union it will have to bring them back to their countries

427 T: sorry would you repeat?

428 Zebich: it has three million immigrants

429 T: three?

430 Zebich: three millions yes

431 T: only three?

432 Zebich: three millions two millions British people in European countries and one million from the all other European countries in Britain [so they will have to deal with this

433 T:

[in britain

434 Zebich: so if Britain leaves the EU they will send them back to their home countries

435 T: okay is it the solution? they will send them back to their countries?

436 Zebich: yes this is what they have to do

437 T: no Theresa May said that they have to remain where they are okay? she said it she said that they have to remain where they are and as you have said the laws have to be changed and adapt it to the new situation

438 LL: yes

439 T: What's the problem of Ireland? Whenever we talk about the Brexit deal, we talk about, we hear problems about the Irish borders. What's the problem with the Irish borders?

440 (0.5)

441 ((bidding))

442 Yes ((teacher allocates the turn to one student))

443 L: I am not sure but a they said they they don't want to leave

444 T: They don't want to leave. That's it. That's it they do not want to leave

444 So what is [bre?]

445 L: [and Scotland also

446 T: Scotland Scotland in the past signed signed against. It backed. the the stay they wanted to stay and then they changed its position. But the Ireland, the Irish people Irland is fo: r staying with the EU. So what to do with the borders?

446 (0.3)

447 L: miss uh uh they want to uh not to to divide by using how can we say by using uh uh they don't really know what to do

448 LL: yes

449 T: so they don't want who doesn't want to do?

450 L: they don't know

451 T: they don't know? No, I think that uh, May has a plan for everything. She has a plan, hopefully that it would work hopefully for her. Okay?

452 LL: yes

453 T: yes ((teacher allocates the turn to another student))

454 L: I think the if Ireland decides to stay with the European union it will be the same except for the borders the pass and it would only remain with the goods with the trade

455 T: ahah so is sorry is Ireland part of Britain? (0.3) is Ireland part of Britain?

456 LL: No

457 T: no (0.8) we made a distinction between Britain and uh

457 Is Ireland Part of Britain?

458 L: northern Britain Ireland is uh

459 T: it is northern Ireland we are not talking about southern Ireland is totally independent we are talking about northern Ireland

459 Is it part of Britain?

460 L: no

461 (0.4)

462 T: You have said that it's part of?

463 L: it's part of the united kingdom

464 T: it's part of UK it's part o::f [UK what's the difference between UK and Britain?

465 LL: [UK

466 ((overlapping talk between learners which is unintelligible))

467 L: Scotland and wales and England

468 T: so Scotland England and wales this is?

469 LL: Britain

470 T: plus?

471 L: plus britain and uh and uh are

472 T: so let us repeat [England England plus scotland plus wales [makes Britain Britain plus

472 [northern Ireland make the UK make the UK okay? so we are not talking about UK even we are talking about Britain even which means that northern England is no more concerning the Brexit ok so northern Ireland wants to stay about within the EU which means that new regulations will be set okay? overlapping talk

473 L: [UK [are Britain and Britain
473 [northern Ireland make the UK new borders

teacher's spport of overlap

474 T: new borders

475 L: new laws

476 T: new laws (.) go on new borders new laws? (0.5) what to do about immigration? Concerning Ireland and Britain? (0.5) is it the same problem? (0.9) What if there will be no Brexit? (0.7) What is there will be no Brexit on next next March?

477 (0.4)

478 L: ((unintelligible))

479 T: sorry?

480 L: maybe it will affect uh uh like right now uh Britain is still need the EU but they don't want to make this big decision so maybe it will be transition like that after

481 T: so there will be first a transitional period?

482 L: yes they can't make decisions right now

483 T: ok

484 L: maybe later when Britain leaves it will be the same

485 T: it will be the same?

486 L: yes

487 T: ok the others what do you think? What if the [the ?

[they would have a financial crisis

488 L:

489 T: they would have?

490 L: financial cri crisis

491 T: financial crisis will take place within Britain?

492 L: I don't know equal they wanted to leave so if they won't leave uh they will have crisis

493 T: so another referendum will take place [<u>ano</u>ther referendum will take place and ask people whether to leave or not

494 LL:

[yes yes

495 L: it will start a conflict it will start a conflict it will start a conflict especially between the Irish and the uh British

496 T: why a conflict between the Irish and the British?

497 L: although they have a relationship it will cause a conflict between the two since one is uh against the Brexit and the other is for so it will cause

498 T: it will cause them a new?

499 L: dispute

500 T: dispute (.) okey (0.5)

500 Now since we do not have enough time I want just to ask you a question whether as for instance if you were british would you like that Britain remains with EU or leave it?

501 LL: leave it leave it

502 L: stay

503 LL: leave it

504 ((bidding))

505 T: yes

506 L: miss since british people want to exit from the EU of course they believe that they could be a powerful country that can stand by itself so so I think is the right decision

507 T: so for those for those who think that they can [but there are a lot of people who are against the Brexit yes Zebich

508 LL:

[yes

509 Zebich: I think that uh I would prefer to leave because it is a rich even you uh if you leave and uh and uh and get crisis later or or you you stay and don't know about your financial future

with the EU [so I think it would be better as my friend says it's the wealthiest country so nothing wrong is going to happen

510 LL: [yes

511 T: but go thank you go on yes

512 L: I think Britain prefers to stay so uh uh she only decides to leave the EU she the best country

513 T: ok do you think that Britain can face the EU alone? Alone?

514 L: no

515 L: no

516 T: no do you still have the same go on Nashwa

517 Nashwa: I think that before uh before leaving the European union first they make some studies and if does and if their study their study says that uh the situation it's just a theory and uh it's just a theory uh and they are theorical [in theoretical they will not stay in the real uh the same challenge

518 T:

[Theoretical

518 So it's a challenge?

519 Nashwa: yes

520 T: . Ok so a challenge in terms of what?

521 Nashwa: it's a challenge I before they make a decision, they uh they should uh know if they are able to uh to deal with the situation

522 T: okay and you are saying that theoretically it seems to work ok but in reality it would be a challenge?

523 Nashwa: yes

524 T: this is what are you trying to say? That's it?

525 Nashwa: yes

526 T: if if for instance Britain could challenge the EU (0.1) if Britain could challenge the EU what are the consequences on the other countries?

527 (0.6)

528 ((teacher assigns a turn to a volunteer)) yes?

529 L: they want to leave too

530 T: sorry?

531 L: they would love to leave too

532 T: they would love to leave to what?

533 L: they would like to leave the European union

534 T: they would like to leave

535 LL: yes

536 T: ok I got uh yes ((teacher assigns the turn to another learner))

537 L: miss if they uh all countries want to leave it's ok nobody decides who will stay

538 T: okay but the other the other countries are profiting from the EU it's not like the Britain. Britain is helping the other countries, but it's it's not getting any help from the others since it's more powerful than the others (0.1) do you get it?

539 LL: yes

540 T: Okay. So do you still think that the others would like to leave?

541 LL: no

 \rightarrow 542 T: Could they stay by themselves as britain?

543 LL: no

544 T: good

544 Yes. What about the other countries? The other countries like France and Germany, why they don't want to exit. the EU they are also very powerful but they don't want to exit?

545 L: Maybe they are waiting for Britain

546 L: maybe they think that's it

547 T: sorry go on

548 L: Since they have to make uh goods like Volkswagen and many other uh [uh yes they have to [they have market those into the European countries so if if they exit they won't get special passes or discounts or anything like [that and won't be able to market their uh their goods in the European union [especially since London is the main financial center of Europe

549 L:

[cars

550 LL: [yes [yes

551 T: [ahah good good why are you saying yes? Do you agree with him? No?

552 ((silence))

553 YES Akram

554 Akram: yes actually I agree with him these countries in particular establish wealth by making connections inside and outside the uh EU that's why they won't to leave the union because they will make a lost more than they win

555 T: Yes. They will lose more than they win. Okay. and the British thing. Okay. Uh, at least the politicians and people who are for the Brexit they think that they will win. Okay. Um, maybe if, if they succeeded to exit on the 29th 29th of March we will see, otherwise there will be a transitional period or another referendum and it will not exit as soon as uh the I think that's the transition period is of two years [Okay and then we will see, so if they exit on the 29th, of March, maybe we'll have another debate. because it's, it's a very, soon it's less than one month or more?

556 LL: [yes

557 T:.It's more than one. one, two months. Maybe in two months. So maybe in two months we'd have the same debate and we would discuss whether it's good for them all. But yes. Okay. Thank you very much

Appendix 8

AFL Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

This survey is designed as part of research seeking to compare and contrast the characteristics of classroom interaction of both native and non-native Arabic-speaking teachers at the department of Middle Eastern Studies (Wellesley College). Therefore, you are invited to share your perceptions of the features that characterize the talk of your teachers in terms of turn-taking, questioning techniques and corrective feedback. Your responses are only used for the purpose of data collection and your anonymity is guaranteed. Thank you for your cooperation!

I- Native Arabic-Speaking Teachers (NAST) Vs. Non-native Arabic-Speaking Teachers (NNAST).

1- How many native Arabic-speaking teachers have you had while learning Arabic?

- a) My current teacher is the first one
- b) Two
- c) Three
- d) More than three

2- What do you think is the aspect of language that could be best taught by NAST? (circle all that apply)

- a) Grammar
- b) Vocabulary
- c) Listening
- d) Speaking & pronunciation
- e) Reading
- f) Writing
- g) Literature
- h) Civilization
- 3- Please, justify your answer

.....

4- What do you think is the aspect of language that could be best taught by NNAST? (circle all that apply)

- i) Grammar
- j) Vocabulary
- k) Listening
- 1) Speaking & pronunciation
- m) Reading
- n) Writing
- o) Literature
- p) Civilization

5- Please, justify your answer 6- Do you think that there are any differences between NAST and NNAST in the way they teach the target language? Yes No 7- If yes, justify your answer. 8-Do you think that there are any differences between NAST and NNAST in terms of the way they organize their talk in the language class? No Yes 9- If yes, justify your answer. II- Turn-taking organization in Arabic classes 10- What percentage would you give to the amount of your teacher's talk in the classroom? a) NAST 20 % 40 % 60 % 80% 100 % b) NNAST 20 % 40 % 60 % 80% 100 % 11- Would you consider it too little or too much? Justify your answer in both cases. 12- While your teacher asks a question, do you Self-select your turn Wait your turn to be allocated by your teacher 13- Which strategy would you consider more appropriate? Justify your answer

14- W	/hen allocating turns, w	hich strategy	would you prefer	your teacher to use?											
	Calling on your nar	ne													
	Non-verbal languag	ge (pointing w	ith finger, chin, a	rm, or postural orientation)											
	Eye-gazing														
15- P	lease justify your answe	er													
16- D	oes your teacher tolerat	te overlapping	/ simultaneous ta	lk within the classroom?											
	a) NAST	Yes		No											
	b) NNAST	Yes		No											
17- W	hat are your thoughts a	about this situa	ation?												
	o you think that it is yo ized or you can implici			orm you about how turns should be he classroom?											
	The second se Second second s	(inflexible) t	urn taking organ	ization would better contribute to											
	Yes	N	lo												
20- P	lease justify your answe														
21- D	oes your teacher give y	ou enough tim	e to express your	rself when he/she assigns you a turn?											
	a) NAST	Yes		No											
	b) NNAST	Yes		No											
22- D	oes your teacher interru	upt you from t	ime to time durin	ng your turn?											
	a) NAST	Yes		No											
	b) NNAST	Yes		No											

23- How do you consider teacher's interruption?

.....

III- Questioning

Which type of questions would you consider more effective in EFL classes? Rank them according to the order of priority where 1 is most important and 5 is least important

Type of questions	Description	1	2	3	4	5
Convergent	They elicit short answers and do not usually require students to engage in higher level thinking					
Divergent	They encourage diverse responses from students which are not short answers; rather, they require students to engage in higher- level thinking					
Procedural	They are related to classroom procedures, routines and management					
Confirmation	They serve the function of eliciting					
checks	confirmation that the user had heard and / or					
	understood the previous speaker's previous					
	utterance correctly or to eliminate that belief					
Comprehension	They are used with the aim of finding out					
checks	whether that speaker preceding utterance has					
	been understood by the interlocutor					
Clarification	They are used to elicit clarification of the					
requests	interlocutor preceding utterance					
Referential	They are open-ended and genuine questions					
questions	whose answers are unknown to the teacher					
Display questions	They are those questions whose answers are already known by the teacher					

25- How do you usually react to ambiguous questions?

Remain silent and do not take part in the interaction.

Ask

Ask your teacher to reformulate his/her question.

26- In case you are unable to answer the question, what teaching strategies do you prefer?

Reformulation: Your teacher repeats or rephrases more difficult questions several times.

Preformulation: Your teacher provides some hints on the way the question should be answered to make it appropriately comprehensible and answerable within the learners' subject matter and L2 competence.

Wait time: The amount of time your teacher pauses after the question before pursuing an answer or nomination another student.

IV- Oral Corrective Feedback

27- Do you prefer your oral errors to be corrected?

Yes No

28- Please, justify your answer

.....

29- If you are in favor of the correction of oral errors, which type of errors do you think should be corrected?

Grammatical errors: the morphosyntax or word order in incorrect.

Phonological errors: where pronunciation is not correct.

Pragmatic errors: when conventions of meaning are violated (Mackey, Park & Tagarelli, 2016)

30- Which corrective feedback strategy do you think is more effective?

Input-providing Feedback: (feedback is provided by teachers)

Output-prompting Feedback: (your teacher encourages you to self-correct your errors)

31- If you are in favor of input-providing feedback, which of the following strategies would

you prefer?



Recasts: (your teacher repeats back to you the error or the phrase containing an error in its corrected form).

Explicit correction: your teacher explicitly corrects your errors.



Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations: your teacher explicitly corrects your errors and explains the source of the error.

32- If you are in favor of output-providing feedback, which of the following strategies would

you prefer?

Repetition: your teacher repeats back to you the error (e.g., she walk to school?)

Clarification requests: your teacher prompts your response without breaking the communication flow by using expressions such as what? Huh?

Metalinguistic clues: (e.g., you need past tense)

Elicitations: (e.g., say that again?)

Paralinguistic signals: your teacher uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate to you that an error has been made.

33- Do you think that peer-feedback should be encouraged by teachers of Arabic?

Yes

No

34- Please justify your answer.

.....

35- Please, add any suggestions or comments which you would consider relevant to the discussion of the features that characterize NAST Vs. NNAST talk.

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Fadhila Hadjeris Ph.D. Candidate Mentouri University- Constantine

Appendix 9

EFL Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

This survey is designed as part of research seeking to compare and contrast the characteristics of classroom interaction of both native and non-native English-speaking teachers at the department of English (ENS Constantine). Therefore, you are invited to share your perceptions of the features that characterize the talk of your teachers in terms of turn-taking, questioning techniques and corrective feedback. Your responses are only used for the purpose of data collection and your anonymity is guaranteed. Thank you for your cooperation!

I- Native English-Speaking Teachers (NEST) Vs. Non-native English-Speaking Teachers (NNEST).

1- How many native English-speaking teachers have you had while learning English?

- e) My current teacher is the first one
- f) Two
- g) Three
- h) More than three

2- What do you think is the aspect of language that could be best taught by NEST? (circle all that apply)

- q) Grammar
- r) Vocabulary
- s) Listening
- t) Speaking & pronunciation
- u) Reading
- v) Writing
- w) Literature
- x) Civilization
- 3- Please, justify your answer

4- What do you think is the aspect of language that could be best taught by NNEST? (circle all that apply)

- y) Grammar
- z) Vocabulary
- aa) Listening
- bb) Speaking & pronunciation
- cc) Reading
- dd) Writing
- ee) Literature
- ff) Civilization

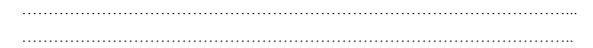
5- Please, justify your answer 6- Do you think that there are any differences between NEST and NNEST in the way they teach the target language? Yes No 7- If yes, justify your answer. 8-Do you think that there are any differences between NEST and NNEST in terms of the way they organize their talk in the language class? No Yes 9- If yes, justify your answer. **II- Turn-taking Organization in EFL/ESL classes** 10- What percentage would you give to the amount of your teacher's talk in the classroom? c) NEST 20 % 40 % 60 % 80% 100 % d) NNEST 20 % 40 % 60 % 80% 100 % 11- Would you consider it too little or too much? Justify your answer in both cases. 12- While your teacher asks a question, do you Self-select your turn Wait your turn to be allocated by your teacher 13- Which strategy would you consider more appropriate? Justify your answer

14- When	14- When allocating turns, which strategy would you prefer your teacher to use?										
	Calling on your na	ime									
]	Non-verbal language (pointing with finger, chin, arm, or postural orientation)										
	Eye-gazing										
15- Please	e justify your answ	/er									
		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •									
16- Does	your teacher tolera	ate overlapping/s	simultaneous ta	lk within the classroom?							
c)	NEST	Yes		No							
d)	NNEST	Yes		No							
17- What	are your thoughts	about this situati	on?								
18- Regar	ding turn-taking r	ules, do you thinl	x that:								
It is	your teacher's dut	ty to overtly info	rm you about tl	hem							
you	can implicitly acq	uire them within	the classroom								
Both	n of them										
- Ot	thers (Specify)										
		•••••••••••••••••									
		••••••									
19- Do yo learning?	ou think that rigid ((inflexible) turn t	aking organiza	tion would better contribute to L2							
Y	Zes	No									
20- Please	e justify your answ	ver									
		•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••									
21-Does	your teacher give	you enough time	to express you	rself when he/she assigns you a turn?							
c)	NEST	Yes		No							
d)	NNEST	Yes		No							

22- Does your teacher interrupt you from time to time during your turn?



23- How do you consider teacher's interruption?



III- Questioning

24- Which type of questions would you consider more effective in language classes? Rank them according to the order of priority (1 most important, 10 least important)

Type of questions	Description	1	2	3	4	5
Convergent questions	They elicit short answers and do not usually require students to engage in higher level thinking					
Divergent questions	They encourage diverse responses from students which are not short answers; rather, they require students to engage in higher- level thinking					
Procedural questions	They are related to classroom procedures, routines and management					
Confirmation checks	They serve the function of eliciting confirmation that the user had heard and / or understood the previous speaker's previous utterance correctly or to eliminate that belief					
Comprehension checks	They are used with the aim of finding out whether that speaker preceding utterance has been understood by the interlocutor					
Clarification requests	They are used to elicit clarification of the interlocutor preceding utterance					
Referential questions	They are open-ended and genuine questions whose answers are unknown to the teacher					
Display questions	They are those questions whose answers are already known by the teacher					

25- How do you usually react to ambiguous questions?

Remain silent and do not take part in the interaction.



Ask your teacher to reformulate his/her question.

26- In case you are unable to answer the question, what teaching strategies do you prefer?

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Preformulation: Your teacher provides some hints on the way the question should be answered to make it appropriately comprehensible and answerable within the learners' subject matter and L2 competence.

Wait time: The amount of time your teacher pauses after the question before pursuing an answer or nomination another student.

IV- Oral Corrective Feedback

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.....

29- If you are in favor of the correction of oral errors, which type of errors do you think should be corrected?

Grammatical errors: the morphosyntax or word order in incorrect.

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Pragmatic errors: when conventions of meaning are violated (Mackey, Park & Tagarelli, 2016)

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31- If you are in favor of input-providing feedback, which of the following strategies would

you prefer?



Recasts: (your teacher repeats back to you the error or the phrase containing an error in its corrected form).

Explicit correction: your teacher explicitly corrects your errors.



Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations: your teacher explicitly corrects your errors and explains the source of the error.

32- If you are in favor of output-providing feedback, which of the following strategies would

you prefer?

Repetition: your teacher repeats back to you the error (e.g., she walk to school?)

Clarification requests: your teacher prompts your response without breaking the communication flow by using expressions such as what? Huh?

Metalinguistic clues: (e.g., you need past tense)

Elicitations: (e.g., say that again?)

Paralinguistic signals: your teacher uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate to you that an error has been made.

33- Do you think that peer-feedback should be encouraged by your EFL teachers?

Yes No

34- Please justify your answer.

.....

35- Please, add any suggestions or comments which you would consider relevant to the discussion of the features that characterize NEST Vs. NNEST talk.

.....

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Appendix 10

Teachers' Interview Questions

This interview is designed as part of research seeking to compare and contrast the characteristics of classroom interaction of both native and non-native speaking teachers at the department of English at ENS Constantine and the department of Middle Eastern studies at Wellesley College, USA. Dear teacher, you are invited to share your perceptions of the features that characterize your talk in terms of the organization of turn-taking, the different techniques you employ in your classes to ask questions and the strategies you implement to provide corrective feedback in your FL class.

I- Teaching Experience

1- During your training as an EFL/ESL/AFL teacher, did you get exposed to any instruction on how your talk should be organized in the language class?

2- Have you ever thought about recording your talk / classroom interaction in attempt to study and improve it? what are your thoughts regarding this strategy?

II-Turn taking

3- Are you rigid or flexible in terms of turn allocation in your classes? Would you allow overlapping or simultaneous talk? Justify your answer

4- Do you think that rigid (inflexible) turn taking organization would better contribute to L2 learning? Justify your answer

5- Do you think that it is your duty to overtly inform your students about the rules of turn-taking or they are supposed to acquire those rules implicitly within the classroom?

6- What percentage would you give to your talk in the classroom? How would you consider it? In either case justify your answer.

7- What is the type of interaction prevailing in your class? Justify your answer.

a- Form and Accuracy Contexts: (teachers hold a tight control of turn-taking system, and they expect learners to produce precise strings of linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which match with the presented pedagogical focus.)

b- Meaning and Fluency Contexts: (teachers focus on meaning and fluency rather than accuracy. They are conducted through pair or group work, and the interaction may be managed by the learners themselves to a greater extent with the absence of the teacher.)

- c- Task-oriented Contexts: (the pedagogical focus is introduced by the teacher who starts with assigning tasks to learners, and then withdraws to allow them to manage the interaction themselves. The focus is neither on linguistic forms nor on personal meanings, but instead on the accomplishment of the task.)
- d- Procedural Contexts: (it refers to the procedural information that the teacher transmits to the students concerning classroom activities to be accomplished in the lesson.)

III- Questions

8- What for/ for what purpose do you think you use questions inside your class?

9- What factors do you think would affect the questioning technique in your class?

10- What sort of questions do you frequently ask in your classes? Convergent questions, divergent questions, procedural questions, confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests, referential questions, or display questions.

11- Do you think that asking different questions would have different learning outcomes? justify

12- In case your student is unable to answer your question, what strategies would you adopt:

a-Reformulation: You repeat or rephrase more difficult questions several times.

b-Preformulation: You provide some hints on the way the question should be answered to make it appropriately comprehensible and answerable within the learners' subject matter and L2 competence.

c-Wait time: The amount of time you pause after the question before pursuing an answer or nomination another student

d-You disregard him/her and assign the question to another student.

13- Is the wait time you offer to your students long or short? Justify your answer.

14-Do you allow your students to initiate the interaction by asking questions? Justify your answer.

VI- Feedback

- 15- Do you correct learners' errors?
- 16- How often do you correct their errors?
- 17- Which type of errors do you focus on in your correction?
 - Grammatical errors: the morphosyntax or word order in incorrect.
 - Phonological errors: where pronunciation is not correct.
 - Pragmatic errors: when conventions of meaning are violated (Mackey, Park & Tagarelli, 2016)
- 18- Why do you think you need to correct learners' errors?
- 19- Do you think that we need to correct the error immediately or delay it? Justify
- 20- Which corrective feedback strategy do you adopt when your students commit errors?

a- Input-providing feedback

- **Recasts:** you repeat back to learners the error or the phrase containing an error in its corrected form.
- **Explicit correction:** you overtly correct students' errors.
- Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations

b- Output-prompting Feedback

You encourage learners to self-correct their errors and produce a modified output through:

- **Repetition:** (e.g., she walk to school?)
- **Clarification requests:** Teachers prompt learners' response without breaking the communication flow by using expression (e.g., what? Huh?).
- Metalinguistic clues: (e.g., you need past tense)
- **Elicitations:** (e.g., say that again?)

- **Paralinguistic signals:** a gesture or facial expression is used to indicate to the learner that an error has been made.

c- You ignore the error completely.

21- Which type of feedback would you consider more effective in promoting learning? Justify your answer.

- 22-To what extent do you think we need to encourage self-correction? Why?
- 23- Do you think that teachers should encourage peer-feedback? Justify your answer.

Appendix 11

Interview Transcripts of the NAST Teacher

Date of Interview: June 14th,2019

Time of Interview: 1 p.m.

Interviewee: MA (Age 28 years old)

Affiliation: the American University (AUC), Cairo, Egypt

Length of Interview: 1 hour and 30 min

FH: okay Mona, so the first question is how many years have you been teaching Arabic?

MA: so I have been teaching uh for 6 years uh most of them are online and then I am teaching this year at the university

FH: during your training as an Arabic as a foreign language or Arabic as a second language teacher, did you get exposed to any instruction regarding how your talk should be organized in your class?

MA: how what?

FH: your talk, the organization of your talk in your class

MA: I already have my masters in applied linguistics particularly in teaching Arabic as a foreign language and we took two courses. we have like a teaching methods course and and two that was a theory like how much talk you should give to the students in terms of increasing the student talk time versus the teacher's talk time. So, there was a bit of discussion on that. Sometimes, the teacher sticks to the traditional method. They just keep explaining and they don't allow students to talk. So, there was a bit of discussion about that.

FH: wow! That's great! That's interesting! Have you ever thought about recording your talk or classroom interaction in attempt to study and improve it?

MA: we did this in the second in the second course of teaching methods we had a series of something called reflective teaching and the professor she is awesome. She asked us to teach classes, and then three who teach these classes work in three different groups and then after that we put the videos online and then we start reflecting on our and each other videos. So, for example, I upload mine and I start reflecting on it, like oh I should have not said this, I should have given more time for students to talk in this area. Uh I think I should do it more ((laughter))

FH: yeah yeah it's effective

MA: it was the first time I did that because it was part of the course

FH: excellent! what are your thoughts regarding this strategy?

MA: what are my thoughts regarding recording myself?

FH: yes, I mean in your classes

MA: I think it's a great idea. Uh time maybe is not the best idea. Maybe it's a long-time learning process. It is an extremely extremely important. I will tell you about myself like under pressure sometimes I do things that I don't really uh be conditional like I don't know really what I did, but I think it would be great. Sometimes what I want is different from what I do. So, I want my

students to talk more but I find myself increasing my talk time. I think it would be great if I stop doing it?

FH: sorry Mona, can you hear me? Because I can't hear you well

MA: yeah, I can hear you fine. Maybe I need to put my headphone! Is that better?

FH: now I can hear you very well

MA: ?aħsan?

FH: yes, ?aħsan! Yes, so would you please repeat for me. What are your thoughts regarding this strategy? Because the voice wasn't like that good.

MA: I think it's extremely important because for me if I work under pressure, I don't do think that I really want to do. However, it would be great if we can do it once or twice a week.

FH: excellent! Do you consider yourself like rigid or flexible in terms of turn allocation in your class? like when you allocate turns to your students in your class, do you think that you are flexible or rigid?

MA: very flexible and this this the problem ((laughter))

FH: well! It's not a problem anyways

MA: I mean you have to be there are excellent teachers have this balance. There are some teachers who are extremely flexible and there are there are teachers who are extremely rigid. In either way, you need to know why you do this and why you do that. But yeah, I am flexible

FH: So since you are flexible, would you allow simultaneous talk or overlapping in your class?

MA: no like no no. is it about sitting arrangement?

FH: oh no no. it's about allocating or assigning turns to your students to talk inside you class. So, are you the kind of teacher like who is very rigid like in letting them talk or you are very flexible, you allow overlapping talk and stuff like that?

MA: no they can interrupt me if they want to ask a question. I don't mind that. I tell them stop me if you have a question, that's one thing. If they want to say a comment, they can do that. No problem. And when someone is asking me a question, when he is trying to do that, I would say listen to this comment, listen to this question. usually, where there are students who are talking together, I would stop them because they need to hear each other separately.

FH: yeah, so you are not like very very flexible

MA: no ((laughter))

FH: so here your point of view is gonna be changed because that's another topic.

MA: no no uh ((laughter)) I think uh they talk and then me talk. I let them talk as much as possible but just not I cannot concentrate when both of us I mean like talk at the same time. but what I do is that I organize these things. So, they call me if they have a question and then I have a question, and then okay let's hear from you, and then let's do these things and answer this part and then we leave to the other part that's all. But I do not accept doing two things at the same time. But yeah!

FH: So, can we say that you are rigid?

MA: no no I think I think you would say I am not flexiblish like in between, like uh I would say 60 percent flexible 40 percent rigid.

FH: excellent! Yeah. uh let's move to another question. do you think that inflexible or rigid turn taking organization would better contribute to L2 learning? I mean which one would yeah, like teachers who are rigid in their classes would be better than flexible regarding the promotion of foreign language learning?

MA: I just wanna be honest with you here, no. absolutely not. I will tell you why. emm for example some of our classes particularly in media classes, they are rigid with students and they don't allow them to talk when they are allowed to. I am here representation of Arabic teacher or somebody who speaks Arabic. Uh so because if he cannot speak with me because I am so rigid, then I am telling him not to improve his speaking in a way or in another. I think you know this part of the process of knowing me if you are rigid you are telling me this is what I should do during this particular time. You know, dealing with a group that means you have different people within that group with different personalities and different things so we have to consider this.

FH: yeah yeah I do completely agree with you. Let's move to the following, do you think that it is your duty to overtly inform your students about the rules of turn-taking or they are expected to acquire those rules implicitly within the classroom? So like turn taking has a number of rules, so we as teachers do you think we are expected to teach those rules explicitly to our learners or we just let them learn them implicitly?

MA: okay What I do I don't tell them I just it's it's something that it's like a life skill. It comes from experience. Uh because what I will tell them is that me very different problems of another teacher might do. For instance, in my class there are different teachers, three different programs. They think their role is just being rigid, but being like overtalkative. But I think it doesn't you feel worth in my opinion. We should be welcome to others.

FH: that's great! What percentage would you give Mona to your talk in the classroom? So, I don't know like you can have like between 20 and 100 percent; so, what is the percentage or the amount of your talk in your class?

MA: I don't know! Here is the thing. I think in this case this changes from intermediate to advanced. like intermediate, I would say yes. Like 30 to 40 they talk they talk a lot. Elementary they are the other way around, like I would say I talk around 60 percent or 70 and they talk 40 to 50 percent it depends. but yeah yeah I think with elementary they need more explanation in English until they are able to make short sentences and small paragraphs.

FH: okay! so, would you consider it too much? I mean regarding what are you doing with your students. Are you satisfied like with this amount of talk? Would you consider too little?

MA: no it's not too much I just need to make sure that they are able to talk more. In my case, I don't think that it's too much. But, I always remind myself that they need to talk more

FH: yeah! So what is the type of interaction that is prevailing in your class. So, I have a number of types. they are four. I just need to know what is the prevailing type in you class? The first type is form and Accuracy Contexts and here you hold a tight control of turn-taking system, and they expect learners to produce precise strings of linguistic forms and patterns of interaction. the second type is meaning and Fluency. Here you focus on meaning and fluency rather than accuracy. So, they are conducted through pair or group work, and the interaction may be managed by learners themselves with the absence of the teacher. Then, we have task-oriented Contexts: the pedagogical focus is introduced by the teacher who starts with assigning

tasks to learners, and then withdraws to allow them to manage the interaction themselves. The focus is neither on linguistic forms nor on personal meanings, but instead on the accomplishment of the task. The last type is procedural Contexts, and here it refers to the procedural information that the teacher transmits to the students concerning classroom activities and tasks to be accomplished in the lesson. So, among those types I have mentioned, which type would you think is more prevailing in your class?

MA: I would go either with meaning and fluency or task focused. I think I would go with meaning and fluency

FH: why do you think so?

MA: I am not saying I need to do this. I am saying this is the most prevailing in my talk. I think something personal. Most of my students like to speak and then there is a time that I focus on accuracy. So, for instance, they think and then they tell me what did they like. And then maybe later I relate to what they said and give them thoughts. But they feel accomplished when they say something and I respond to them in Arabic and they feel like oh I did something good, and then it's quite more convenient that's why I tell them them before ask your questions and then I will respond. It's not like no it's not like that! It's like this! Rather than answering their questions, it gets them more frustrated. So, it's a more motivation strategy that I focus on meaning and fluency. I do that. and even in my case, you know the feedback types where I respond to them and correct their errors. the idea is that they get motivated when they tell me something, I know that I understood what they said and then they can keep going and particularly at the elementary level this is challenging whether you need to correct them immediately or not. So, I think this is my case.

FH: okay! now let's move to the following question. uh what uh what for or what is the purpose do you think you need to ask questions in your class. I mean what is the aim of asking questions in your class?

MA: me asking questions related to the class content?

FH: yeah! Like considering all types of questions. Regarding the questions you ask in your class, can you tell me a little bit about the aims of asking these questions in your class?

MA: What type of questions? FH: we can say for instance I ask question to I don't know to check students' understanding or to check whether I reached my objectives. These are just some aims.

MA: so definitely, I would say checking, uh comprehension questions. This is. I ask these a lot. I would say I ask students questions that are related to the content like more practice questions. For example, like I taught them before pronouns and then they learn the word "zawdʒa" and my focus right now is the the verb "?asmal", so then I ask them like zawdʒatak tasmal fi: bank for example, and then they uh as a form of practice. That would be a type of question. Then, I ask them questions like ?aj su?a:1? Sandaka su?a:1? Wa: diħ? Is that clear? That would be naħw. Uh what other questions? yeah! I mean yeah! Most of them are related to the content of the lesson. Because I have this thing when explaining is tough, when explaining is tough I may stop and then ask him to continue. So, for example, when I say this is how number one is done, what about number two? What do you think? So it's more helping them in explanation because they get bored. That's it.

FH: ahah yeah okay! so in addition to aims we have a number of factors that affect the questioning techniques inside our class. So, I will ask you later about the types of questions that you employ, but before going to this, there are like a number of factors that we need to consider

when we ask particular questions rather than others. Right? so, what do you think are the factors that you consider mmm when you ask questions to your learners?

MA: number one do they know this or not? So, for example, again I think most of my answers are for my classes that I am teaching right now, but uh uh what will they be able to answer in terms of the language, and in terms of uh not just the linguistic part but also you know how you could ask a question that is not appropriate for you to ask it because it is for example, if it is too personal for example besides the concepts or the things I need to consider , umm in terms of linguistics, linguistically are they able to answer that kind of question? do they give something in response? And also if the question is appropriate for any student, I remember that I gave one of the students an assignment to talk about her father and mother and I didn't know that she she lost her father and then next class hadn't knowing this idea I asked her about her father and finally she informed me that she didn't want to get involved in this particular thing because it is troubling her and makes her feel sad , so I said okay. so, that's how I learnt about this type of question. but yeah these are the types of questions which are not appropriate. It's really interesting to ask me about these questions because I got to reflect about them.

FH: yeah! Thank you, Mona, Let's move to the following question. so, the following question it is about the different questions that you ask inside the class and according to the review of the literature, I found the following. The first type is convergent, they are just questions which do not require high I mean they do not require students to engage in higher level of thinking. Divergent are the opposite. They uh the answers to this question are not short and they require students to engage in higher- level thinking. Procedural are related to classroom procedures, routines and management. Confirmation checks, as you said before, they just serve the function of eliciting confirmation that the user had heard and / or understood the previous speaker's previous utterance correctly. Comprehension checks are used with the aim of finding out whether the speaker I mean your preceding utterance has been understood by the your students, and then clarification requests which are used to elicit clarification of the learners' preceding utterance, for instance when they said something and you cannot understand it; so, you just ask them to clarify, and then we have referential questions are open-ended and genuine questions whose answers are unknown to the teacher like asking them how many brothers do you have? Display questions are the opposite; they are those questions whose answers are already known by the teacher. So, among these types that I have just mentioned, which type do you think mmm that you frequently use inside your class?

MA: May I choose more than one?

FH: of course, yes of course we like we integrate like we integrate all these types but some types are more frequent than others.

MA: uh I do a lot of because I think this is very frequent in terms of what are the responses are. So definitely confirmation checks, clarification requests. So, definitely this would be the case in my classes and all my classes. However, I think in terms of the level uh the other questions might be used differently. So, definitely convergent uh would be more in elementary emm. it's in all classes but higher frequent in elementary, but in higher levels you start asking them divergent questions like what, how they feel or look for their opinion about a certain topic. Considering other questions referential referential uh what are referential again? sorry

FH: so you said you use a lot of divergent because you ask them about their opinion right?

MA: uh yes, for a higher level

FH: okay, for elementary you said convergent

MA: yes!

FH: okay, so the other types include confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests.

MA: Yes for comprehension checks but not a lot. Clarification requests and because I do that every single time, so that we all the classes and all the levels. In terms of referential uh would you please explain it again?

FH: referential questions are open ended questions and the thing here is that the answers are unknown to the teacher

MA: unknown to the teacher?

FH: ahah yeah, you just ask them about information that you don't know

MA: I use them a lot

FH: do you think that asking different questions would have different learning outcomes? I mean not just focusing on one type, so you try integrating all types. Do you think that this would have different learning outcomes?

MA: hmmm I think if I started focusing on one type I start thinking you see this is mostly linked to students' ability to speak. Right? we need a response form the students. So, for example if I decide to have more expressive questions or more referential questions in my classes, then I would choose in a way to give them more speaking opportunities or more input. If I am going the other way around, I would change my outcome. I think you have the outcome and then you have the question that helps get more responses from students

FH: so, what I have understood'. It does really matter for you to integrate all the types as far as the types effective?

MA: I want to integrate all types but definitely an integration of these types would be excellent if I think about the outcome like students speak more.

FH: aheh so Mona, which type of question would you consider more effective, though you integrate some according to the students' level and course level?

MA: Yes, definitely! It depends on the level on the course and the context as well. so I think all of them are effective, but it's the context which dictates to use one type rather than another.

FH: let's move to another question. Sometimes when we ask questions uh students would find difficulties in answering those questions. So, here we may resort to some strategies to help them answer the question. so, which strategies do you think that you use to elicit answers from students? So, the first type is reformulation, you repeat or rephrase most difficult questions, the second type is reformulation, you provide some hints on the way the question should be answered and the last type or the last strategy is the wait type. And here the wait time is about the time we use while we are waiting for the students to give their responses. So, here if the student didn't manage to answer the question, we extend the wait time. So among the three types, which one do you think that you employ in your classes?

MA: uh I think that reformulation

FH: okay! now, like there are some students I don't know, when we ask questions and there are students who spend more time answering. Do you think that disregarding these students is more effective? Like disregarding these students and assigning the question to another one?

MA: this is rude

((laughter))

FH: it is, but there are some teachers who do this.

MA: no no a lot of the answers would depend on whether it is motivating or demotivating for the students; so, if my students didn't like them, I would just say okay move on. That's' how they receive it! That's how the students think about it! So, what you could do in a less rude term, give them time, reformulate the question! that's how they receive it! That's how the students think about it! that I am now taking that privilege that I gave you to maintain that pattern, and then if I didn't work you could tell them what do you think of this, someone else! I mean but just immediately no! it doesn't really help the learning process and it would have a bad psychological outcome. They would just start hating each other. They would feel jealous from each other.

FH: let's move to the following question Mona. Is the the wait time you offer to your students long or short? Just right after asking the question.

MA: it's a bit long

FH: okay. why do you think you need to give them a long wait time?

MA: because it's a foreign language, they need to take more time to think. And as far as they are giving me hints, then I continue waiting for them. So, for example, you know when you talk in a foreign language and you start getting nervous especially at the beginning. So, I do my best to help them feel at ease. You know, it depends on the culture as well. Like my students are foreigners and I should be very cautious in dealing with them. For instance, the Japanese students, as you know their culture, they are not as expressive as Americans. So, for example they would really like worship their teacher, they think of their teacher very high; so, they are very sensitive toward anything that they they would say and it is weird for them. I don't know they don't usually feel like comfortable when you keep just asking them questions. No. but this is not the case for Americans, so, Asian students are kind of quiet. Although I ask them questions, but this is the problem, what I was saving is that sometimes they mm don't understand something and you don't realize for example and then I don't realize that the student doesn't understand something and he is nodding. So, I get that as yes, but then then I realized that this sounds embarrassing to them, disappoint them or don't feel comfortable I think so that's why I have to ask him a lot of questions in terms of to keep following without keeping looking at the face . I depend on the face to find out if that is clear. And then if I didn't use these comprehension and clarification questions, sometimes I can't find out. Remember that I use English with my students while I am teaching and sometimes the level of English of students isn't that high, and then they take the information or instructions of the task, quiz or assignment, but next class the work that is required isn't done as expected. This doesn't mean that the students are lazy! They work really really hard, it's just a problem of misunderstanding but the problem for me is that they don't ask when they don't understand. For Americans, it's very student centered they ask questions they call you by your name they take pictures they put their arms around ((laughter)), they express their opinion if they didn't really like your question. So, they would say can we talk about something else? And I am like okay ((laughter)).

FH: excellent! Mona, let's move to another question. hope this is not too much for you!!

MA: no no it's fine. I think your questions need in my case to express myself as much as I can.

FH: now let's move to the following question. Do you allow your students to initiate the interaction by asking questions? As your class is teacher focused, is it only you who asks questions or you allow students to initiate talk by asking questions?

MA: I ask them to do that because this means that they are following. Yes, I definitely use that and I encourage it.

FH: okay! Why do you think you need to encourage this strategy?

MA: one reason that I have already mentioned is comprehension. If they are following, they would ask questions. If they are not following, they wouldn't ask questions and this means that number one they are not interested in what I am saying or number two they are definitely not interested in what I am saying because they are either tired or not following what I am saying, but you know for sure if they are asking questions, they are interested, they know what are you saying, they are following. If somebody is not asking you would spend all the time skeptical. Is he following what I am saying? It's not one way, I mean you need to know for example, the problem in my current class is that when I explain something and my student asks a lot of questions because he is trying to connect what has just learned with what he already know. So, for example, for the word "gami: la" or sorry the work Wafa and they are like oh and before we studied that ta:? marbu: ta is a sign of feminine and they are like oh this is ta:? marbu: ta and I am like yes! Well done! You see what is he doing, he is connecting what he has already learnt or what is he is learning and sometimes they come with very smart questions that you never thought of them yourself. This happened to me recently when I explain "kabi: r", "xabi: r", "kaθi: r". so, if they do not ask, it means they are not learning. So, for me asking questions is a learning opportunity, this is number one and number two it means that they are following what you are saying that's why I encourage them to initiate questions themselves.

FH: so, Mona let's move to the following section which is about feedback and my question is do you correct learners' errors? I mean in oral interaction.

MA: yes, I do correct them , but sometimes I skip other types. jaSni for example if uh sometimes they deal with some accent issues, you know students they are struggling with the pronunciation of Si: n , they say ?i: n . if this happens with their speaking, I don't correct it. So, I do correct a lot of errors which are related to the meaning and to something very particular like masculine feminine or adjectives and nouns. I would definitely correct them but I would not correct everything they say.

FH: okay! So how often do you think you correct their errors? For example, I don't know like just from time to time or most of the time?

MA: no, most of the time

FH: now, regarding error correction, which type of errors do you focus on in your correction? We have grammatical errors, phonological errors and pragmatic errors.

MA: uh again this of course depends on the level, so it's grammatical mostly, but pragmatic for the high level. For example, Americans would feel confused when translating the expression "I am sorry" which is used to express sympathy into Arabic "samhini". If they say the same thing in Arabic that means, it's their fault. So, I would correct this pragmatic error if it's a transfer from their native culture into Arabic, I would definitely correct it.

FH: right. What about phonological errors?

MA: I do I do. I correct phonological errors as I have already told you if they are really accent issues.

FH: Does this mean that you don't really focus on them?

MA: No I focus on them!! Let me think about it. Uh okay here is the thing. Because usually I would read or state what they said and I say it again, but I would go through the error only if it's not understood for them. So, I would say oh it's not like this and it's like this. If I will give timing for correction, it would be grammatical. Phonetics what do we call to the technique of restating what somebody said?

FH: recasting?

MA: ?ajwa!!! Bravo Sali: ki. So, for phonetics, I do recasting. I think that there is a problem that I want to address. I would just repeat what they have said

FH: Mona, why do you think we need to correct learners' errors?

MA: if it has to do with delivering the message. Like if they couldn't deliver the message. I have to intervene because they really know how to deliver the message. At least, they need to know how to say something, how to communicate the message more accurately, not only to the teacher but to the other students as well. This is a function, if they came up to the classroom with the ability to do this.

FH: Okay! do you think that we need to correct the error immediately or delay it?

MA: uh uh it depends. Again it depends, but mostly o delay it so that I won't interrupt them

FH: which corrective feedback strategy do you adopt when your students commit errors?

MA: I do a lot of recasting

FH: Wonderful! There are other types of corrective feedback. I will give them to you and then you just choose. They are grouped into input-providing feedback and it's you who gives the feedback. Output- providing feedback means eliciting this feedback from students. For input providing feedback, we have recasts, explicit correction and explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations. For output-prompting feedback, we have repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitations, and paralinguistic signals. There is another strategy which is just ignoring the error and moving on.

MA: I don't ignore the error unless for some but not ever. Sometimes I make a facial expression or say what? It gives them the impression that they said something wrong; so, they rephrase what they have said. A lot of times, they would change their answer a little bit. I think this is more an output providing feedback. I use a lot of repetition and I know this is bad. sometimes, you recast things and students are unaware that they did something wrong unless you point. Sometimes, there are students who focus on what they said and what you said, but some other students won't. They don't realize they did something. So, during class, I do a lot of repetition and clarification requests in order for them to correct what they have said.

FH: ahah! now, which type of feedback would you consider more effective in promoting learning? I mean would you consider input providing feedback or output providing feedback?

MA: definitely, output because it comes from them, they realize it and then you can explain it to them.

FH: To what extent do you think we need to encourage self-correction?

MA: to a great extent ((laughter)). like we should encourage it a lot. And the reason for this is to make the student autonomous. He needs to know what does he want, what he has problem on.

FH: Do you think that teachers should encourage peer-feedback?

MA: Okay, like with my students right

FH: yes

MA: yes

FH: Why?

MA: they don't feel lonely somehow because they know they all have problems. I want my students feel that they are helping each other

FH: okay! Thank you so much Mona for taking this interview. I really appreciate your in-depth comments. I was really desperate about finding native Arabic speaking teachers to take part in the interview and you provided me with very rich data. $\int u kran kti: r Mona$.

Appendix 12

Interview Transcripts of the NNAST Teacher

Date of Interview: May 07,2019

Time of Interview: 7 p.m.

Interviewee: DZ (Age 36)

Affiliation: Wellesley College, Boston area, MA, USA

Length of Interview: 40 min

FH: hi Dan! how are you doing?

DZ: hello Fadhila! How are you?

FH: I am good! It's so nice to see you.

DZ: I am good. how are you?

FH: I am good too! I am doing my Ph.D. research as you know and I need your response to my interview as you are one of the participants. This interview is related to the features that characterize your talk in terms of the organization of turn-taking, the different techniques you employ in your classes to ask questions and the strategies you implement to provide corrective feedback in your EFL class. So, let's start with teaching experience. So, how many years have you been teaching Arabic?

DZ: This is my 8th year including two years as a graduate student as a TA.

FH: ahah and then 2- During your training where you have been taking classes, did you get exposed to any instruction on how your talk should be organized in the language class?

DZ: Yes, we had pedagogy pedagogical instructions

FH: yeah ! excellent. Number three. Have you ever thought about recording your talk / classroom interaction in attempt to study and improve it?

DZ: Yeah , no I thought about it ((laughter)) I have never done it but I thought about it. Just listen to myself talk you know? Yes, I definitely thought about it yeah

FH: ahah excellent. then let's move to the second section which is turn taking. Are you rigid or flexible in terms of turn allocation in your classes?

DZ: You mean in terms of students speaking and me speaking?

FH: I mean like regarding like overlapping talk and stuff like this. so, the organization of talk in general so that each one would have the chance to talk or they talk at the same time. This is what we mean by the organization of turn-taking .

DZ: I like to think of myself as being flexible you know I wanna make sure that the students every student get the opportunity in class to speak emm you know I think it's important for them to do pair working or group work em and in that point though you know everyone can just keep talking. I also like to do where it's just me and the whole class and I call on students who raise their hands to take turn in speaking.

FH: excellent. Emm emm . Why do you think that you need to be more flexible?

DZ: why do I need to be flexible?

FH: ahah

DZ: I think because you have students that are more comfortable kind of you know I 've students that I know don't like to talk in front of their class that don't want just because of how they are as persons they're you know shy or they don't like to talk inside the class or get nervous talking in big groups, so I try to create situations where they can talk in smaller groups not in front of the whole class em yeah yeah I think it's important to give them the chance to talk.

FH: ahah do you think that rigid turn taking. Somebody who is very rigid very strict about the rules of turn taking in his class. Do you think that this practice would better contribute to L2 learning?

DZ: Um I think I mean how can I put this I think it depends I think it can be a method that can work uh in that I had an instructor or I had an advisor in Michigan who would you know make everyone is going around the room and everyone talks one after the other em I think it depends on the class. I think in some classes are can handle that. I think in other classes they want to create an atmosphere that's not intimidating for the students. I try to create an atmosphere that's more welcoming you know not so imposing I guess and cheerful where students get afraid you know coz they are oh my chance is coming up. So I try I try to make it more comfortable than making it more random I guess. Uh that maybe for some of them that might not be comfortable they may get nervous they don't know when you're gonna call them and I don't know

((laughter))

FH: yeah that makes sense. exactly! That depends on the personality of students themselves. Let's move to the following question. Can you hear me Dan?

DZ: yes, I can hear you

FH: Do you think that it is your duty to overtly inform your students about the rules of turntaking or they are supposed to acquire those rules implicitly within the classroom?

DZ: Oh that's a good question. I mean I think it is a good idea that they you know they lay out the rules of turn taking but I don't know I have never done that but that sounds like a good idea I mean it sounds you know if they are you know they aware about the system, how it works you know that create they can be much more comfortable in it right? I think you know I don't think I have ever laid out exactly how I do but I think just kind of adjusting, getting used to it and then they figure out what the rules are maybe that would be a great idea actually to mention the rules of turn taking.

FH: yes! Thank you, Dan! Number seven, what percentage would you give to your talk in the classroom?

DZ: of my?

FH: of your talk I mean like what percentage?

DZ: My talk emmm I will probably say like 30 percent to 40 percent. I don't wanna talk as much I want them to talk.

FH: Would you consider 30 to 40 percent too much or too little?

DZ: too much ! oh yeah way too much. I think it should be I that students should be talking more.

FH: excellent! Yeah. let's move to the following question. What is the type of interaction prevailing in your class? So, according to my research I found four types of interaction. The first one is form and accuracy contexts and here teachers hold a tight control of turn-taking system, and they expect learners to produce precise strings of linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which match with the presented pedagogical focus. Then, we have the second type, meaning and fluency contexts in which teachers focus on meaning and fluency rather than accuracy. They are conducted through pair or group work, and the interaction may be managed by the learners themselves to a greater extent with the absence of the teacher. The third type is task-oriented contexts where the pedagogical focus is introduced by the teacher who starts with assigning tasks to learners, and then withdraws to allow them to manage the interaction themselves. The focus is neither on linguistic forms nor on personal meanings, but instead on the accomplishment of the task. And then the last type is Procedural Contexts, and it refers to the procedural information that the teacher transmits to the students concerning classroom activities to be accomplished in the lesson. So, what is the type of interaction that you think is prevailing in your class?

DZ: I would say what was the second one sorry!

FH: the second type is meaning and fluency contexts.

DZ: yes, I would say that with the one of pair work. I tend to do a lot of pair work kind of students navigating the task on their own and I kind of circle around and help them when needed.

FH: why do you think that you need to use this and not the other types?

DZ: I use also the first one . what's the third the first one?

FH: the first one is form and accuracy contexts where you hold a tight control of turn-taking system, and you expect learners to produce

DZ: yeah, that's more of me speaking em you know they are kind of most of class is silent right? you might have one student at a time speaking I mean it can be effective in that students are hearing and hopefully internalizing what their peers are saying and learning from the mistakes of their peers but at the same time you have them as much using the language. there is a lot of this passive watching and listening. So, I would also say that I use the first one.

FH: the first one okay. number or let's move to the section of questions and the first question is what for/ for what purpose do you think you use questions inside your class?

DZ: sorry! I I use what was use what sorry

FH: Actually Dan when we teach use a variety of questions, the question here is what is the purpose or why do we use questions inside the classroom according to your point of view. Why do you think we need to ask questions to the students?

DZ: Ah I think yeah you can you can use them for a number of reasons you can get them to explore uh vocabulary, grammatical feature. you can get them to explore culture em make connections between their own culture and the culture they are learning about through the language uh through the question. It's also questions can be could be at the end of the chapter to review to review material that they have already learned uh or to make connections between each other when I ask each other questions they learn more about each other. you create a more cohesive classroom experience

FH: ahah yeah! So, and the following question, what factors do you think would affect the questioning technique in your class?

DZ: sorry would you please repeat the question one more time what?

FH: yeah there are like different factors that would affect our questioning inside the class can you mention like some of the questions according to your point of view the use of question inside the class. Uh can you mention like some of the factors according to your point of view that you would affect questions inside the class?

DZ: in terms of what type of questions I would ask or?

FH: yeah in terms of questions

DZ: or you can give me an example of that

FH: yeah yeah actually there are a number of factors that we need to consider before we ask like particular type of question rather than another I don't know like students' competence or something like this. These are the factors.

DZ: emm . yeah I mean you get me to think about the level you know the proficiency they have vocabulary that they have to answer the question you have to make the question engaging to them you know you know them explore what the question is asking they have to be interested in the answer or interested in potential answers . uh so it doesn't feel like easy worker not wasting their time right? Uh I think sometimes too depending on the students and what I know about students in class that there are some questions that I wouldn't ask just because you know to create an environment in class which is more comfortable like for example if I have a student whose mother recently passed away so for that I wouldn't ask the question what does your mother do? Have the question that everybody asks each other just to create a more comfortable environment

FH: yeah! That makes sense. the following question is what sort of questions do you frequently ask? So actually we have different types of questions that we ask, for instance the first types is called convergent and they are embodied in short answers and do not usually require students to engage in higher level thinking , the second type is called divergent and they encourage diverse responses from students which are not short answers; rather, they require students to engage in higher- level thinking. Then, we have procedural and they are related to classroom procedures and management. we have confirmation checks, Comprehension checks and clarification requests and we have another type which is called referential questions which are are open-ended and genuine questions whose answers are unknown to the teacher, display questions which are those questions that you frequently ask inside your class?

DZ: I would say the convergent questions that you first mentioned with limited answers they can kind of describe rather than express like their thought and feelings about things I mean just because of the level they are first year they are much more descriptive questions yeah like what does your mother do for a living? You know this missing description I am using vocabulary that they know but at the end of the year I am able to ask them some more of divergent questions I mean I am kind of bringing them up to the higher level right? from intermediate to advanced questions and you know most of them really can't answer but you know I I try to get them at least to attempt it uh but yeah for the most part then it's mostly the convergent questions and then the comprehension checks as well.

FH: yeah thank you Dan. let's move to the following. Number twelve. Do you think that asking different questions would have different learning outcomes? I mean if we if we mix like the different types and not just focus on one type. Would you think that this or do you think that have different learning outcomes?

DZ: Absolutely!! I think you know the more you mix it up you can of get students kind of thinking you know on their feet too you know getting them exploring and using the language in different ways not in unpredictable ways or you kind its keep them engaged or challenges them uh yeah I mean and I think you have also to change up your questions too otherwise they get bored. If you keep asking the same questions over and over again you have to find ways to very challenging ones.

FH: yeah exactly! What type of questions which you consider more effective according to the what you have just mentioned?

DZ: For the first year I would say the convergent questions uh because they are not really able to answer the divergent questions as first years. So, the convergent questions.

FH: yeah! Excellent. In case your student is unable to answer your question, what strategies would you adopt? I will mention some strategies. We have uh reformulation of course you repeat and rephrase back the question. Preformulation, you provide some hints on the way the question should be answered. We have the wait time which is the amount of time you pause after the question, then we have another which is just disregard him/her and assign the question to another student.

DZ: I would say I do all of those strategies except for the last one "disregard". I only do that as the last you know as the resort. I think I tend to do the reformulation first then I will ask if another student knows maybe but I don't know if that is different maybe help that student and if they don't know I will give then a hint maybe start you know start with the first sound of the word to help them finish.

FH: Yes, and then the following is the wait time you offer to your students long or short? I mean the pause you offer the pause you offer after asking the question. is it a short pause or a long one?

DZ: I would say it depends on the students. I mean some students you can tell they need time to kind of restate the question to themselves or some of them have you know intellectual uh you know their their learning style or their hearing style is kind of pause and them response is usually 10 to 15 seconds before I repeat or rephrase the question but I try to give them some time to think about it think about their response before moving on or giving the answer yeah.

FH: Yeah Why do you think you need to adopt this strategy you have just mentioned?

DZ: Uh like I said I know for some students they need the extra time because you know I don't know what the condition is. I think they have like a a kind of condition when they need extra time. I think some of the students are nervous and kind of when you especially I tend to call on students I think they get nervous some students who are nervous they kind need to calm themselves before they giving a response. And I wanna give that time too and I give them a moment to kind of think about their response before they answer I don't want them to be over bearing in this sense of uh yeah.

FH: ahah the following uh do you allow your students to initiate the interaction by asking questions?

DZ: Oh of course! yeah!

FH: justify your answer

DZ: uh justify your answer. Uh I think that's great! I mean especially when they are in asking in Arabic right? I don't want them asking in English. I ask them say it in Arabic. You know Though I think when they are doing that or using the language I think that encourages other students in the class as well too you know they are seeing their peers taking active role in the class and I think it encourages them in the sense they are taking with each other and then I can step back or just kind help them negotiate the conversation rather than maybe the focus of the conversation.

FH: excellent. Uh let's move to the section of feedback and the following question is do you correct learners' errors inside the class?

DZ: I do. I probably do it too much. I but yes, I will correct. it depends I mean if someone is giving me like a long if giving me a long sentence. I won't stop and correct them I will let them finish and then if there is one or two things I wanna correct I will I will correct it at the end but I try not to interrupt the students with too many corrections. again I want to make them feel comfortable speaking and not feel you know there is type of students who talk and look at you and they are expecting you to completely correct everything and I want them to get out of that habit I want them just to speak without yeah feel like they are judged the whole time.

FH: so the following emm so how often How often do you correct their errors? You said before yes, but how often?

I would say I mean frequently I would say you know ((silence)) like a percentage or?

FH: yeah

DZ: Uh more than 50 percent maybe 75 percent uh I would say 50 percent 50 percent.

FH: Which type of errors do you focus on in your correction? Uh I will mention some of the types if you would like we have grammatical errors, we have phonological errors and we have pragmatic errors. So, which type of errors do you focus on?

DZ: I would say mostly grammatical and phonological errors. That's it.

FH: yes nineteen why do you think you need to correct learners' errors?

DZ: emm I mean I think that they need the the feedback is important from the teacher obviously. uh I think it's also good just to kind of remind students of some of those common errors. You know I won't correct every error because again I don't want students to feel like they can't that it's not safe to make mistakes in the classroom but you know a lot of times I try to use the good errors errors the ones that everyone's making I can use that as like a as an example to everyone just to recall some of the rules of pronunciation yeah or long and short vowel distinction that's the thing yeah.

FH: uh do you think that we need to correct the error immediately or delay the correction?

DZ: Oh that's a great question!! em I prefer to delay slightly until they are done with their thoughts right? Where they complete their sentence I don't like to interrupt them when they are speaking because again I don't want them to to feel I want them to be to feel like they can express themselves fully and then you know free to express a full thought before looking for feedback.

FH: exactly and what follows is which corrective feedback strategy do you adopt when your students commit errors? And I will mention some. so here we can have like input-providing

feedback which is divided into recasts, Explicit correction and Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations. Or we have the second type is which output-prompting feedback. you encourage learners to self-correct their errors and we can have like repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitations and paralinguistic signals. So, among these strategies, so which one do you think you use it most and we have another one which is you ignore the error completely and you just move on.

DZ: I would say that I do a lot of repetition where I kind of repeat back what they heard what they said in kind of like a question like "*huwa darasat*?" right ? you know or something like get them to think about like *huwa* like repeat *huwa*? instead of the correct conjugation. And then if once they get it I will get the whole class recite it back right? Just just kind of remind them. get them you know and it also gets them to kind of focus on that word when correcting that error together as a class. So, a repetition then recast yeah is fine.

FH: why do you think that you need these two strategies and not others?

DZ: emm I I like to use the repetition because I think it can give the students ownership over correcting themselves in correcting themselves. But if I just give them the correction, they may not internalize it. But if I kind of force them to think about what the rule is and how they apply the rule and how they should be applying the rule. I oblige them to make the correction and then doing the uh the repetition is just remind me you know the students are saying and hearing the correct form and hopefully you know with the context hopefully you know they are would concretize in their uh in their memory so they will be able to repeat it in the future yeah.

FH: yeah! That makes sense. uh so, let's move to the following. Which type of feedback would you consider more effective in promoting learning?

DZ: In which kind of learning sorry?

FH: Yeah Which type of feedback would you consider more effective in promoting learning?

DZ: I would say the recast.

FH: uh I mean in general is it the input prompting, the output prompting or the total ignorance of the error?

DZ: Uh I would say definitely not the totally ignoring the error. You are saying input in the correction?

FH: exactly, input is the teacher who initiates but the output is just getting the learners to correct their own work.

DZ: I would say the output prompting feedback

FH: why why it's the output?

DZ: Again coz using output corrective feedback means forcing learners to become self-regulating self-checking and getting them into the habit of monitoring their own speech as well too. Uh you know I think it's important that students are listening to what they are saying as well too and then you know they start realizing okay I am not applying this rule correctly and then they correct themselves over the course of this semester they correct themselves so I don't have to correct them anymore.

FH: yeah, then emm yeah the following question to what extent do you think that we need to encourage self-correction?

DZ: Uh Totally. I think I am I am for self-correction. You know kind they are speaking on their own someday hopefully I won't be there ((laughter)) or there are other instructors who want them to do it on their own so the sooner they can get used to correcting themselves that's that's good and beneficial to them.

FH: why? why do you think so?

DZ: Because again you know they're gonna go out to the world on their own. They have to they have to start developing that skill as soon as they can. Also it's it's helpful coz you know they have to do a lot of pair work too and I am not there I am not there to give you know to correct every mistake that's being made but if they are able to kind of self-correct or correct their partner right? or clarifications you know that's more beneficial to their leaning than being completely relied on me.

FH: yeah exactly! The last question. so, do you think that teachers should encourage peer-feedback? Oh yes peer-feedback. Do you think that teachers should encourage peer-feedback?

DZ: Yes. Well respectful uh peer- feedback and I think that's done as me as a teacher kind of modeling good respectful feedback giving. I give them feedback. You know I hope in pair work they give the same feedback you know ask for clarification or a recast to their partner I think that their partner is using the wrong conjugation or something you know using the wrong grammatical feature that would lead to miscommunication. No I think it's important but at the same time it should be done respectfully. I don't want them yeah uh uh to criticize you know when feedback turns into criticism and they don't wanna talk to each other anymore right? because they are they are fearful that they are gonna be policed by their partners . I don't want that.

FH: yeah yeah that makes sense. I will just give you two minutes to add any comments that you can add like to the discussion of turn-taking, questions or feedback regarding teaching Arabic as a foreign language.

DZ: I mean uh. I don't know if I have anything to add I think a teacher has to be with all of those I think a teacher has to be flexible and know their students and has a sense who is in the room and who's gonna respond these different styles and forms of feedback and make people to adapt accordingly right so that they uh. I had a I had a mentor and colleague who is really great in these he said it is always it's important an atmosphere in class and atmosphere of learning you cannot use all these theories if not in an atmosphere that is not welcoming and caring for the students they are not gonna be engaged fully. So, through my methodology I would create an atmosphere where students feel free to make mistakes to share with each other to correct each other yeah.

FH: Okay Dan thank you so much for taking part in my interview.

DZ: It's so great to see you and we will keep in touch ok!

FH: It's so great to see you too bye!

Appendix 13

Interview Transcripts of the NEST Teacher

Date of Interview: May 07,2019

Time of Interview: 10:30 a.m.

Interviewee: EW (Age 50)

Affiliation : Ecole Nationale Supérieur des Enseignants- Constantine

Length of Interview: 1h 03 min

FH: This is an interview designed for native English-speaking teachers teaching EFL in the Algerian context and I am interviewing Erin Watters. Okay. all right. let's start first you're your teaching experience and how long have you been teaching English either as a second or foreign language?

EW: I started teaching emmm are you meaning in the classroom or as a tutor or uh?

FH: let's say formal teaching

EW: and then 9 years

FH: ahah and during your training as EFL or ESL teacher, did you get any instruction on how your talk should be organized in the language class?

EW: Mmm not explicitely.

FH: How?

EW: so I I believe there was because we had a lot of practical applications and examples and we picked it up in that manner. we did a lot of observations in our program observing teachers

FH: so observation as part of I don't know or you were doing like emm

EW: to receive my Master's degree in TESOL. Part of the program requires that you obtain a portfolio. You collect a portfolio and part of that was observation observing classes, uh teaching classes and tutoring. so different situations.

FH: okay.Have you ever thought about recording your talk / classroom interaction in attempt to study and improve it?

EW: no

FH: no this is ideal! Like no! Me too. what are your thoughts regarding this strategy?

EW: what's funny is I always I always encourage students to record themselves in lessons so that they can correct their mistakes, uh as far as teaching goals I have never thought about recording and observing myself teaching. Uh I think that it would be effective and helpful to give me points on where I can improve. But it just it could be just as likely that it will make me uh conscious and not as effective in the classroom for a while I. I am just guessing for myself.

FH: okay. So, let's move to another point! Turn-taking. Em are you rigid or flexible in terms of turn allocation in your classes? Would you allow overlapping or simultaneous talk? This is just a general question and then we will have a stimulate recall procedure based on my findings upon the analysis of your recording. Just talking in general you rigid or flexible in terms of turn taking?

EW: Uh I am pretty flexible with that, pretty flexible. I try to ensure that everyone gets an opportunity to take a turn and then that I can be more rigid but I don't consider myself rigid in regards to turn taking.

FH: Why do you think so? I mean justify why do you need to be flexible?

EW: Not everyone is ready to speak for one. I am trying to think. I have to think of examples too. I believe that if we allow students the opportunity to try things themselves and to use their own best judgement that you are empowering them to be better themselves without forcing them from your point so requires that I be more flexible in my strategies when approaching turn taking in itself. But that I am observing what's happening so that I can intervene if it needs to happen. I am teaching an adult I am not teaching children, If I was teaching children it might be different.

FH: yeah yeah . let's move to number five. Do you think that rigid (inflexible) turn taking organization would better contribute to L2 learning?

EW: no

FH: no. why?

EW: I think they are pretty equal I think there are situationally useful depending on the situation. So, very low levels you might have them have rigid turn taking in order for them to understand the process, but in higher levels they need the freedom to be able to express themselves fully and if you hold them to specific turns that might not happen. you lose the language.

FH: Exactly! Number six. Do you think that it is your duty to overtly inform your students about the rules of turn-taking or they are supposed to acquire those rules implicitly within the classroom?

EW: So as with previously, I think it requires that I observe what they are doing first and then intervene if necessary. I don't like to impose so many rigid restrictions and rules because it feels like it keeps them from focusing on the important things.

FH: exactly! And then what percentage would you give to your talk in the classroom in general?

EW: More than I would like ((laughter)) em depending on the day and the activity. Emm probably, anywhere from 30 to 60 percent. yeah And the beginning it is more because it's me who is talking it takes me a long time to give them the warm up.

FH: Would you consider 30 to 60 percent too much or too little?

EW: I think once you get pass 50 percent it's too much. I think that at least for the classes that I have right now and their level of confidency that they should be speaking more. They should be producing more and they can be taking the conversations they need to have without me having to do more than give them guidelines of what they are supposed to be doing with their activities. so, I would give uh them instructions and whatever the content is that we are covering and then they need to do the rest.

FH: ok yeah emm so em we have already justified that it's it's too much I think that is okay. so in uh in our classrooms we can implement different types of interaction. Before I give you types of interactions that I got in my research, I would just ask you about types of interactions that you implement in your class. So, The idea is that do you focus on uh fluency do you focus on accuracy for instance or do you focus like just give tasks to students and let them work on these tasks or in your interaction you would use a number of uh instructions that you give to students and you just let them work?

EW: so I would say I more focused on communicative competences uh fluency and vocabulary are probably the primary focus that I use. Emm they want me to focus on pronunciation but uh I don't wanna stop ideas so I don't hyper focus on pronunciation. I do it in their exams and I do it individually when I talk to them but not overall. I give some instructions and let them go. It depends on again the activities that they were doing. I prefer they work in pairs and in small groups than the whole class but when we are doing presentations, then we have to do something as the whole class.

FH: these are the four types I fund in my research and just tell me which one you implement in your class. So, A it's an accuracy contexts and here teachers hold a tight control of turn-taking system, and they expect learners to produce precise strings of linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which match with the presented pedagogical focus.

EW: that's probably not me ((laughter))

FH: b meaning and Fluency Contexts, teachers focus on meaning and fluency rather than accuracy. They are conducted through pair or group work, and the interaction may be managed by the learners themselves to a greater extent with the absence of the teacher. I have recognized this through observing your class.

EW: yes, that's a lot what I do

FH: c Task-oriented Contexts: the pedagogical focus is introduced by the teacher who starts with assigning tasks to learners, and then withdraws to allow them to manage the interaction themselves. The focus is neither on linguistic forms nor on personal meanings, but instead on the accomplishment of the task.

EW: sometimes, I would do that. I depends on specific contexts

FH: and then we have Procedural Contexts: it refers to the procedural information that the teacher transmits to the students concerning classroom activities to be accomplished in the lesson.

EW: we did that with peer feedback em but it is not in every lesson in. in situations for this class I give them instructions in one class and then they practice it throughout the course of the class when another student is giving a presentation so they are retrieving vocabulary from the person who is speaking and they are also uh expressing themselves when they give the feedback and within their small groups. So there is a lot of peer learning and that more than anything else but the instructional side of it it's just checking to make sure that they are still on task after giving them an instruction in the next few days to make sure that they are doing what they need to be doing

FH: right right I got you, let's go the next question What for or for what purpose do you think you use questions inside your class? In general what are the purposes

EW: so I love this Socratic method uh basically when they ask a question asking them a question or engaging them more with questions than with answers uh to make them think, to draw them out, to encourage their use of vocabulary and their inevitable development of their own critical thinking, and why they think the way they do, how they think the way they do what they are thinking sometimes they don't even know what they are thinking emm I don't know if that answers the question. I I do ask questions. I I like asking questions I like opening the questions I like questions that lead them to discover the answer rather than me telling them.

FH: yeah but the purpose here. I don't know, it's like what for do you use this? In order to test whether students have achieved your objectives or I don't know, so this is just one purpose.

EW: so for the purpose of usually it's for formative assessment. to check whether they have understood the content, they 've understood the materials, the connections.

FH: yeah okay so it's related to the content?

EW: yeah yeah

FH: yeah uh ten what factors do you think would affect the questioning technique in your class? While you are questioning your students in your class, do you think that there are any factors that would affect like the type of the questions you are using?

EW: absolutely!!! The students' competency, their level of competency, uh their attendance. Oftentimes, I would start out with uh uh more open-ended question only to come down to yesno question or to lead them to the answer because sometimes I have to go back and scaffold to get what I am looking for. Like maybe the question I am asking isn't getting the answer that I need, so I need to change it so that they can understand me. So it's their competency primarily.

FH: uh also which type of questions do you frequently ask before I give you the types. I just wanna have an idea about the types of questions.

EW: what do you think about that? emm How would you approach this? Emmm Have you heard of? What do you know about this? These are a lot of questions that I ask.

FH: Okay. I will give you the types of questions that I found in my research.I found like different types of questions. Convergent . They are embodied in short answers and do not usually require students to engage in higher level thinking. Divergent. They encourage diverse responses from students which are not short answers; rather, they require students to engage in higher-level thinking. Then we have Procedural which are related to classroom procedures, routines and management. Then we have Confirmation checks which serve the function of eliciting confirmation that the user had heard and / or understood the previous speaker's previous utterance correctly or to eliminate that belief. Then we have Comprehension checks. They are used with the aim of finding out whether that speaker preceding utterance has been understood by the interlocutor. Then we have Clarification requests. They are used to elicit clarification of the interlocutor preceding utterance). Then, we have referential questions. They are open-ended and genuine questions whose answers are unknown to the teacher and Display questions which is the opposite. They are those questions whose answers are already known by the teacher.

EW: uhah I probably don't use rhetorical questions uh that's not usually

FH: yeah I didn't find them even in the classes that I recorded

EW: so I have a tendency that if I ask a question and nobody answers in the classroom, I would say am I talking to myself? You know which is are you expecting that this is a rhetorical question? you know that kind of a question because they won't answer they will be really quiet and I will be like you know why I am not getting an answer. probably, divergent clarification what was the one after divergent procedural depending on what I am doing. I would go through all them at some point or another just depending on the situation in the classroom, but those three are the primary ones that I use.

FH: all of them okay. but as you said your focus is on engaging students in higher level thinking

EW: ahah. I want them to use and develop their vocabulary, so that they can express themselves appropriately.

FH: and then we have twelve. Do you think that asking different questions would have different learning outcomes? Yes. If yes, which types of questions would you consider more effective?

If we talk about effectiveness, we think that we ask too much open-ended questions or too much like display questions?

EW: this question is hard to answer because it depends on the purpose. Your question needs to be aligned with the purpose of whatever you are doing. If you are trying to elicit production from students, asking closed-ended questions aren't going to be useful, but if you are trying to find out if they understood what was said in a quick way so that you can go through the entire class , so short questions would do the work. So, it's a hard question to answer based on just you know what can be more useful or more productive or more effective. If you use them appropriately, that would be effective. I don't know that rhetorical questions are effective in the classroom.

FH: ahah okay. uh then we have in case your student is unable to answer your question, what strategies would you adopt?

EW: so I have done a couple of things with that one is that ask them if they need more time, ask them if they would like a friend to help them and then they can choose somebody to help them and either let that person answer or have that other person give them the answer so that they can say it. Uh I do the same thing with comprehension when they don't understand you know you can ask your friend what you have to ask for them to translate for you or to give you an explanation. I rarely rarely use the one to give the answer myself. I ask them to ask someone else.

FH: so I found like these strategies and they are three or four. The first one reformulation. You repeat or rephrase more difficult questions several times, and then we have Preformulation. You provide some hints on the way the question should be answered to make it appropriately comprehensible and answerable within the learners' subject matter and L2 competence. Then we have this strategy of wait time. The amount of time you pause after the question before pursuing an answer or nomination another student and maybe we give them enough wait time as you've said. and we have you disregard him or her and assign the question to another student.

EW: I never do the last one if I am aware that I have never done it. I don't think I ever just I automatically moved to another student. I find that to be rude.

FH: exactly

EW: emm and really can be destructive in a learning environment. Uh If they ask me to go to someone else, I will ask them to pick up someone else. But reformulation I probably would do that more often probably I have done all three I've done all three when you scaffold and prepare the students for what the answer should be if I am looking for a particular grammar component, then I might give them an example first. But, as far as just conversational type answers, I will leave it open to them.

FH: Is the wait time you offer to your students long or short?

EW: it depends. everything depends yeah

FH: yeah we are like I know like everything depends on the context or your objectives, but in general. Okay? so, do you think that we should give them more wait time after asking the questions or just like uh?

EW: So I try to give them at least as long as it would take me to have a drink of water. Ask the question, stop, take a drink, pause, and then if they haven't answer, I ask them if they need more time. Emm rather than just moving on or prompting them because I know at least from my own foreign language experiences. If I am trying to think of the answer and you keep asking me questions and you keep talking to me I don't I can't stop to think of what I am thinking what all I can do is to listen to you I can't do both. So, I try to make time for the students who actually think through. I have some students that will never answer regardless of how long I get them. I have some students that if they are given enough time to come up with their answer and process their answer, they will answer and I have some that are shy, they have an answer but they need a little more prompting. Right? so it really really the classroom and really the students like know these know these things when they are in that process and then being conscious whether or not they need more time. That's a long answer to something probably that should be .

FH: so you said that it's not long, it's not short. It depends. So, can we justify here why?

EW: why does it depend?

FH: ahah

EW: because students are different! Because you cannot just walk into the classroom and assume all your students are the same. And learning language is not something that you can automatically say after 20 hours of seat time all students will know this. after 15 hours of seat time all students will know this. Some students they may have learnt it in the first five weeks of classes but are not able to produce until the end of the term. Right? so if I don't give them that time to think about it and to process it, I am doing everyone at his service.

FH: fifteen. do you allow your students to initiate the interaction by asking questions?

EW: absolutely!

FH: ahah. justify your answer, why do you think so?

EW: how would I do it otherwise. Emmm questions is how we learn, questions are the key to finding answers if we don't know the questions we don't get answers and students have questions. I may redirect it if it's off topic or if it's going in a direction I don't want but yeah.

FH: yeah let's go to feedback. Because I noticed like many differences that's why I am asking. This question is related to my data analysis in classroom. This gonna give me like other perspectives. feedback. do you correct learners' errors?

EW: sometimes uh I would say probably in a discussion rarely. If it is the only time I would correct feedback this is probably in a question. the only time I would correct feedback in a discussion or a scenario where we're doing a big group thing is if it's affecting comprehension. If it's affecting people's ability to be able to understand that's the only time I would really focus on correcting something ; otherwise I usually if it's understandable I leave it and move on.

FH: How often do you correct their errors?

EW: ((silence))

FH: so here we can just say like occasionally.

EW: yeah, occasionally.

FH: So, on which type of questions do you focus on in your correction?

EW: comprehension, uh word usage, vocabulary usage.

FH: I find like grammatical errors is about word usage, phonological errors and pragmatic.

EW: pragmatic

FH: then nineteen, why do you think you need to correct learners' errors?

EW: because they need to be understood, they want to be understood.

FH: ahah, why?

EW: for accuracy for comprehensibility, because I am their teacher ((laughter)) you didn't ask why you don't correct students' errors.

FH: why you don't correct ((laughter)) yeah! we will go to the stimulated recall procedure; so, don't worry ((laughter)) this is like for everybody and then we will focus on the data. Do you think that we need to correct the error immediately or delay it?

EW: it depends on the students.

FH: okay. uh which corrective feedback strategy do you adopt when your students commit errors?

EW: emmm I might uh use the term mimic it back, repeat it, uh repeat it back to them. I do that with pronunciation sometimes and I don't really I am not really conscious of that one. So, if they say something that's really not very good in pronunciation, I will just repeat and ask like questing and I won't say and include it in a sentence. So, what are you saying is blab bla bla bla and make the correction in my sentence; so, it's implicit it's not explicit.

FH: okay. I found the following types. Uh we have like a Input-providing feedback. Here, we have recasts: you repeat back to learners the error or the phrase containing an error in its corrected form., explicit correction you overtly correct students' errors. explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations. Then, we have the second strategy output-prompting feedback, repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitations, paralinguistic signals and then the last strategy you just ignore the error completely.

EW: so I do ignore in many instances if I stop for every error the students made I would be stopping all the time and nobody will get to see anything uh

FH: what about elicitation?

EW: so yes, occasionally I use metalinguistic if I know that a student is comfortable with that but a lot of them aren't like in presentations, at the end I would say you really need to work on your present perfect or something along those lines. if it's a comprehensive problem.

FH: yeah! So you repeat back. Do you mean you repeat back the error or a recast?

EW: a recast

FH: uh, which type of feedback would you consider more effective in promoting learning? Oh, before moving to this question you've already provided me with the repeating back using recast, elicitation and occasionally metalinguistic. Why do you think that you need to implement those strategies? you are implementing like a mixture of both: input and output prompting feedback

EW: It depends on it depends on the issue it depends on what they are doing what the focus is overall if there is no breakdown in communication, then I don't feel that it's entirely necessarily.

Some students would ask me for more feedback or more more correction, and I do that for them, but in general I don't correct.

FH: which type of feedback would you consider more effective in prompting learning among those?

EW: So it depends on the student, it really depends on the student, because Some students if you repeat their error back to them they will get frustrated and they won't even continue. They will be focused on that the rest of the day, and then they won't be able to produce. Uh and that's actually my greatest concern when giving feedback uh for constructive feedback for uh correction is whether or not it's going to cause anxiety which would cause students to stop producing. The idea is not to create an anxiety in such situations. So, I think recasts are really good in that. There is also a very good communicative strategy for showing that you understand, that you have been listening. So, it's not just in in communication strategies. When you are in a communication strategy, recasting what someone said or repeating in a different way what someone said is very good way to show someone that you are listening to them; so, I can do it kind of under the way that are as a communicative strategy as well as giving them the correction whereas the entire class will either hear it as one or the other right? so, In that sense, that one is really helpful. If someone makes a repeated error in the same grammar structure, then give them the metalinguistic formulation so that they can look it up and go home and and revisit that that structure in their own time. that's helpful, I think.

FH: yeah. to what extent do you think we need to encourage self-correction?

EW: oh a lot

FH: why?

EW: because it shows that they know the rules and they are aware of making that mistake. If they can't self-correct, they are not aware they are making a mistake and that gives you a window into how you need to approach the lack of knowledge.

FH: the last question, do you think that teachers should encourage peer-feedback?

EW: absolutely!! You came to my classes; you know that I use this strategy

FH: why?

Ew: why this goes back to the zone of proximal development with Vygotsky and I taught this in a number of different professional development settings. It students oftentimes will take better feedback from each other than they will from their teacher and that will take it to heart more if someone that they admire in their class too than the teacher that they only see few hours a week. So, their peers are going to have a more it's gonna give a strong emotional impact on the students and emotional responses generally stick with us longer

FH: yeah, I personally benefited from attending your classes because I implemented this in my classes as well and my students really liked this strategy, they really liked it. yeah

EW: yeah being able to tell someone how do you feel about something without insulting them is huge ((laughter))

FH: yeah exactly yeah

EW: yeah so

FH: so thank you so much Erin for your collaboration and devoting your time to answer my questions.

Appendix 14

Interview Transcripts of the NNEST Teacher

Date of the Interview: May 15, 2019

Time of Interview: 12h30 p.m.

Interviewee: FD

Affiliation : Ecole Nationale Supérieur des Enseignants- Constantine

Length of Interview: 1h

FH: All right! let's start. The aim of this interview is to find out your perspective regarding the features that characterize your talk in terms of the organization of turn-taking, the different techniques you employ in your classes to ask questions and the strategies you implement to provide corrective feedback in your EFL class.so, let's start with the fist question. the first question is how many years have you been teaching English as a foreign language?

FD: emm a foreign language here at the university?

FH: uh you can also like count the number of years at the high school

FD: almost ten years

FH: ten years okay! uh during your training as an EFL or ESL teacher, did you get exposed to any instruction on how your talk should be organized in the language class?

FD: no at all. I have never been exposed to such training. I would like to be. Uh as a training strategy but I have never been exposed to it

FH: Okay! and then uh have you ever thought about recording your talk or classroom interaction in attempt to study and improve it?

FD: Yes, I try to record my speech to check my strength and weaknesses and improve myself

FH: so now what are your thoughts regarding this of recording your talk?

FD: I like this strategy and I think I can see in details my strength and my weaknesses and most importantly my weaknesses so that I work on I improve myself and I even urge my students to record themselves and to listen to themselves. They have to speak outoud and to serve as audience to themselves and they will improve themselves for sure

FH: Excellent! Now let's go to turn taking. Would you consider yourself like rigid or flexible in terms of turn allocation?

FD: rigid or?

FH: flexible in terms of turn allocation in your class?

FD: I am trying to be flexible I am trying to be flexible but sometimes I think of myself as rigid. From time to time I would like to correct my students not only in terms of correctness of language or accuracy also in terms of ideas when I feel that my students are very far from the norms and I like to correct things and in this way I really blame myselves myself. I say I should be more flexible but I cannot allow anytime of mistake. Do you understand? the language is not only the language, but also the way we say things, the way we believe things to be. We are in front of minds of young and our duty to correct them whatever they say because I give opportunity to say whatever they want and I do not put taboos there is no taboos, so they are very free to say whatever they want. And when I feel that they are in a very dangerous area, I would like to bring them back and it makes me very talkative person but it's okay.

FH: so, uh here the point would you allow like overlapping or simultaneous talk in class? I mean while you are teaching you are you are talking at the same time there are other students who are interrupting or for instance students are talking at the same time. Would you would you allow like this overlap or simultaneous talk?

FD: Yes, simultaneous talk I I allow it because it is the natural way people speak generally. When we speak in habitual settings uh in natural settings, we don not give to each other time to think. From time to time we interrupt the speech of each other, we interrupt each other and I would like that my students learn the language in the natural setting, so okay language is turn taking. Of course politely and we do not shout, we do not scream. It's a matter of turn taking and I am for this strategy and I would like to be okay with this strategy.

FH: okay! so does this mean that uh yeah like of course we have difference between turn taking when it comes to natural setting like a conversation with friends and turn taking in the classroom. Do you think that that we shouldn't like I don't know differentiate between both because in both cases we are communicating so you don't really need like to impose like rules in your class?

FD: no no it's not it cannot be totally like habitual settings or habitual natural setting. It cannot be like this. because in an artificial situation we cannot deny the fact we are learning the language. we are not acquiring the language. we are learning the language in artificial situation with a teacher with the students. Okay It's not teacher centered approach. It's learner centered approach but we have to to research rules conversation or a debate etc. it cannot be like a conversation in a street or at home or no, though it it should be spontaneous it should be natural etc. but we follow rules and conventions.

FH: uh yes so now you have provided me with the justification. why do you think that we need to like maintain this simultaneous or overlapping talk

FD:To avoid being bored. If I just give the opportunity to only some students. It would be like. it would be like lecturing. it would be like giving presentation or something else and whenever we are just imposing things or we are teaching and there is no interaction between you and you interlocutor. You will be bored and he will lose the thread of thought, and he will forget about you. So, it's better to have this turn taking in conversation. It would be better to exchange.

FH: okay. do you think that rigid or inflexible turn taking organization would better contribute to L2 learning?

FD: I don't think so I don't think so

FH: you are for you are for like flexible

FD: I am for flexible.

FH: yeah. Justify your answer

FD: uh I have to do that because I am rigid have just to say to my students to have to stop now. it has nothing to deal with thinking with the process of thinking the process of following each other. I have to to start where he stopped and I have to correct his what he has said and he has just to to comment on what they have said. if if I am rigid it means that I will not finish a lot of

things and I have to deal with a lot of ideas and it's no more a conversation it's no more a debate it would be something different.

FH: excellent! Six, do you think that it is your duty to overtly inform your students about the rules of turn-taking?

FD: sorry would you repeat please,

FH: Do you think that it is your duty to overtly inform your students about the rules of turntaking or they are supposed to acquire those rules implicitly within the classroom?

FD: well generally, I generally I prefer that students learn explicitly things. I do not impose rules but it happens that sometimes when they just uh uh interact with each other I just stop them and I show them in a very in a very polite way that they have they have to follow some ethics and some rules and some conventions but but before 2interrupting I try always to be an example. I do not interrupt, I do not impose, I do not say bad things and I just help my students to acquire the rules to know these rules in a natural setting without saying them overtly.

FH: so explicitly you would go for this stating this explicitly like the rules of turn taking.

FD: no I have told you I do not state them explicitly implicitly. I do not I do not I do not tell them you do not have to do this you do not have to do that. I prefer that they learn them from the context from the context because when you impose on students things, they they react they react but when they they learn them and they are convinced they are just convinced they have to follow these and they never forget about them.

FH: uh what percentage would you give to your talk in the classroom?

FD: What?

FH: percentage would you give to your talk? of course you are like my talk as a teacher and like learners' talk so like a percentage that you think

FD: 30 percent

FH: 30 percent okay okay

FD: though sometimes I told you sometimes I exceed 30 percent I feel that a teacher in this module in this course should not exceed 30 percent, should give the opportunity to students to express themselves

FH: It's like always 30 percent can you give me I don't konw like an interval

FD: So between between 30 and 40 maximum

FH: Okay! would you consider it too little or too much?

FD: what 30 percent?

FH: yeah 30-40 percent

FD: I would consider it mmm because you know that a teacher, I am in front of 30 or 45 students so my 30 percent I am alone with 30 percent and 45 with 70 percent okay? if I just distribute this 70 percent to each one of them they will have a very very low percentage. So, you will talk about 30 percent and a mass a group of 70 percent. So, sometimes when we spend a whole session, we have one or two students who do not participate at all and we are proud that we

have 70 percent of students but it's it's not really 70 percent for the whole class but for few students who really participate.

FH: so, we have justified the percentage and why it's too much. Now, uh what is the type of interaction prevailing in your class? So I will give you a number of types that I found in the literature and just tell me which one. We have the first type is form and accuracy contexts and here you hold a tight control of turn-taking system, and you expect learners to produce like precise strings of linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which match with the presented pedagogical focus. We have meaning and Fluency Contexts, and here you focus on meaning and fluency rather than accuracy and they are conducted through pair or group work, and the interaction may be managed by the learners themselves with the absence of the teacher. And here we have task-oriented contexts, and the pedagogical focus is introduced by the teacher. You start with assigning tasks to learners, and then you withdraw to allow them to manage the interaction themselves. The focus is on linguistic forms sorry the focus is neither o, linguistic forms nor on personal meanings, but instead on the accomplishment of the task. So it's about the task itself. We don't have like uh linguistic goals.

FD: it's about tasks

FH: yeah. Then, the last type is procedural contexts, and here it refers to the procedural information that the teacher transmits to the students concerning classroom activities to be accomplished in the in the lesson.

FD: okay

FH: ahah so which type would you consider like more prevailing in your class?

FD: so I cannot say that only one is prevailing only one is used but one is prevailing the second one meaning and accuracy meaning and fluency meaning and fluency. I I always emphasize and I always focus on the idea that my students need to be fluent. They need to be fluent and their messages and their speech need to have context and needs to have meaning and for this I worked on the mmm on some strategies called compensation strategies. So, I have always whenever I teach this course I give uh to my students to my students hints about the compensation strategies. That is to say, that the students have to be fluent and have to finish their ideas even if they don't find the accurate word Okay? I try to say if you do not find the adequate word, just use an explanation, use an example, avoid gestures, avoid paralinguistic, use the language itself but you are not supposed always to give the accurate meaning because if you stand spend much time, you can't find the exact meaning you will find something like the language low word block you will find yourself in front of a wall you cannot we call this also message avoidance, you will avoid the message taken time only to think about what is the word I should say what is the word I should say no! you should carry on speaking even if you do not find the accurate meaning you do not find the exact meaning just replace it with with examples with words that have near the nearly the same meaning or just explanations or paraphrase. Do anything, but do not have a gap in your speech.

FH: excellent! So, justify your answer; so, this is like the most prevailing type okay?

FD: ahah

FH: yeah

FD: it's the most prevailing type OK.

FH: yeah. why do you think like why do you think you need to use this type of interaction and not other types?

FD: because I focus on fluency I focus on fluency and uh uh passing the meaning

FH: ahah yeah okay. now let's move to another section. It's about questions. Why what for or for what purpose do you think you use questions inside your class? Just some of the I don't know the purposes of the the questions that you are using in your class.

FD: uh I like really students to think. Sometimes sometimes when they are just asked to think asked to talk. They cannot they need to have something to talk about and we have learned when we learned the competency-based approach. We have we have talked much about uh about the uh problem solving problems problem solving activities. So, students whenever a student is put in a situation when he has to solve problems, all his abilities will be awake; for example, in the cost of speaking the the the problem solving is a question. I just raise their interest using a question and like this their uh their interest and their thinking goes in different different directions and this enhance them to talk and to uh and to improve their talking.

FH: okay! so it's mainly about like uh so you think that the purpose is just to elicit or trigger students' thinking?

FD: yes

FH: okay! what factors do you think would affect the questioning in your class while you are asking questions. Which factors do you think would would have like an effect on like types of questions you are using?

FD: in terms of meaning I think questions that uh uh that should have interest in relation to students

FH: ahah

FD: yes, the students students need to be interested in that question; for example, if they do not have if they do not have an interest if they are not interested in a given domain in a give field, they are not they they won't talk they won't even think and also I focus on challenging questions. Questions that need students need to find an answer need to find an argument need to interact, need to find arguments to convince each other; so, students need to be interested and also challenge is very important in the conversation.

FH: so uh so here the main factor is students' interest. there is no other like a factor that would intervene and control like your use of a particular question and not another?

FD: which kind for example

FH: So, we have like different types of questions that we are going to go through

FD: maybe later I do not remember right now but maybe when I remember I will talk about them

FH: so it's only about interest ok. uh what sort of questions do you frequently ask? What is the type?

FD: uh you want to say type of questions WH questions or

FH: yeah yeah

FD: yes WH questions but uh open open-ended questions not only those questions which to which students are supposed to give yes or no questions that do not elicit students to think. Always, I focus on open ended questions that elicit students to think and to find solutions for different situations and to think about and to think about different to find solutions for problems

for issues. To discuss issues even if they are taboos as I have already told you I have no taboos. So, everything is subject to discussion, we can discuss everything, we can find solutions for everything and here I come back to interest. Everything is interesting whatever whatever comes to the class is interesting and is worth discussing and is worth finding solutions.

FH: okay! I will give you like a number of questions and just like pick up the question that you use. Okay?

FD: ahah

FH: we have convergent questions and they are like kind of like emm they don't really require students to engage in higher level thinking.

FD: ahah

FH: and we have divergent which is the opposite of convergent uh they encourage students or they require like higher- level thinking. We have procedural uh they are related to classroom procedures, routines and management. For instance, when you tell to students mmm did you finish the task? uh how much time do you need? Like any question which is related like to classroom procedures and routines. We have confirmation checks; uh they serve the function of eliciting confirmation that the user had heard or understood the previous speaker's utterance. We have comprehension checks when we when we try to find out whether students have understood what we are saying and clarification requests when we uh ask students to clarify their previous utterance. Then, we have referential questions. They are open-ended. We have display they are those questions whose answers are already known by the teacher, for instance when we ask the students what's the past of write. I know already that it's wrote, but we are just asking students uh

FD: for confirmation

FH: yeah for confirmation. Among these types that we have mentioned, which one do you think that you use more in your class?

FD: of course, of course I use all of them, but I focus more on the prevailing one is divergent. uh the divergent one which engages students in uh in conversation in thinking about a lot of things in reconsidering things; for example, I have had a lot of debate and a lot of conversations about different topics and thanks to these questions and to these debates and at the end of either a debate or at the end of the semester I see that students and I repeat some other questions and I see that students have really changed their minds. And they have improved. It's very it's magnificent when you see a student has changed his behavior or has changed his mind or has changed his way of thought, he changed his argument. It means that he has benefited from what you have said. He is thinking and he is arguing and he is taking advantage from the others' argument and he is building his personality and he is building his way of thinking.

FH: Okay! uh let's go to another question ahah, yeah. Do you think that asking different questions would have different learning outcomes? I mean like you use like you have to integrate like different types on questions and not only focus on three or four types or two. So, the idea here is the more we integrate different types of questions, the more we would have like good learning outcomes?

FD: of course! Of course! Integration is uh uh uh is a high level in the uh in the learning process either integration of the of the skills, or integration of the questions or any type of integration which which shows us that students can grasp a meaning from different things. For example, I use integration of the skills uh from listening to speaking. When we listen we we pick up some

vocabulary and I urge students to use this vocabulary when they are talking or when they are writing plays or etc . also, integrating the questions. This helps students improve their level, this helps students to understand a lot of things and not to be narrow-minded. They can understand things and this will help to read between the lines because I do not think only about the immediate result. We have also uh other resource this will help students to be more intelligent, read between the lines, understand the conversation. Understand both the locutionary and the illocutionary force from the conversation

FH: aheh so, of If yes, which types of or which type of questions would you consider more effective?

FD: which type of question?

FH: would you consider more effective

FD: I have already said divergent question

FH: so you integrate divergent questions maybe for instance this is like related to the nature of the course itself Okay, but from your point of view, the if you say for instance divergent questions, this doesn't mean that yes or no questions they are not like good questions

FD: no it depends on the situation, it depends on the case.

FH: exactly! So, the point here is like from your point of view, which one would you consider more effective? As you said it's divergent

FD: it's divergent, it's divergent . Sometimes, I do not I do not say whether uh uh for example yes uh yes or no and then why it is yes why it is no. sometimes, I say directly why. Do you understand ? sometimes I say directly why and the students if they are for something, they sart arguing, they say yes but they do not say it explicitly and they start to argue why they think that it is yes , and others for example they do not directly say no , but they start arguing. do you understand? So, It's not a matter of saying yes, no, why etc and we go from one step to another. All this can be for example when I say why do you think? why do you think it's not it's not for example I am talking about given. I say or why do you think this is positive or negative for example. So here, I am just integrating some some questions like do you think it is positive or negative what are your arguments, why do you think this? If I have really understood your question, is this what you mean?

FH: so , yeah! What what I mean is just like among like the types of quetions, each one has a particular purpose and each one like is used in a particular context. But I don't know like based on your experience with the students, which one would you consider more effective.

FD: divergent

FH: divergent, excellent. Now, in case your student is unable to answer your question, what strategies would you adopt?

FD: explain the question, I give example, I make uh uh I make the question easier for him. I adapt the question to the level of the student.

FH: so, here I have a number of strategies, and just let me know which type do you use. We have reformulation in which you repeat or rephrase more difficult questions several times, preformulation in which you provide some hints on the way the question should be answered to make it appropriately comprehensible and answerable within the learners' subject matter and L2 competence. We have wait-time and the amount of time you pause after the question, so you

give like more wait-time for students to think about your question, and then we have the last strategy you disregard him or her and assign the question to another student.

FD: No, I reformulate the question to make it easier for students.

FH: exactly. Now, uh is the wait time you offer to your students long or short? I mean the wait time you use after asking a question.

FD: relatively short

FH: short, why? Why do you think that we need to provide like short wait time?

FD: because uh because in speaking it's not like in writing. In writing, we need to think a lot about a lot about grammar about spelling about a lot of things. However, in speaking, we do not think, we do not think about a lot of things. Just about the idea. You can answer directly. You cannot, no need to wait for a long time. There are a lot of aspects that we do not take into consideration while answering.

FH: yeah, great! Then, number fifteen do you allow students to initiate the interaction?

FD: yes

FH: by asking questions themselves

FD: yes by asking questions themselves, by interacting, by asking the students, their classmates, having interaction in the classroom. Yes, I encourage that strategy.

FH: why do you think you need to do this? Like when you allow students to initiate the interaction by asking asking questions?

FD: it doesn't come like this a student will just get in the classroom and he will interact, no! we assign him an activity, okay? we just assign him an activity and he uh and we encourage him or we encourage her to initiate the interaction within the classroom, and then with time when they are used to this strategy, each you you assign uh an activity to a student, the interaction starts taking place

FH: okay. so, uh the my my point here like uh what's the aim behind allowing students to initiate interaction or do you think it's effective and to what extent? I mean, what would students gain if you allow him or her to initiate this interaction?

FD: he will he will learn how to how to manage a conversation, how to manage uh because we are teaching future teachers; so, a teacher is supposed to to have an interaction in his classroom. We are not they our students as future teachers, they are not supposed to learn as we used to learn in the classroom. They are supposed to be prepared and trained; so, we are offering them training here in the school; so, once they are in the classroom, they start from the first day as professional teachers.

FH: now, let's go to feedback. Do you correct learners' errors?

FD: yes, I do

FH: ahah. how often do you correct their errors? I don't know you can use like a percentage or a frequency adverb

FD: well well uh whenever a student speaks or whenever a student has uh uh has a presentation or a debate or it depends. Whenever a student takes part in a conversation, and I think I correct the student but I do not uh uh I do not exaggerate even if the student has made a lot of mistakes,

I do not correct all the mistakes, for example this morning I was correcting, I have given remarks to a student whenever she talks, she has a problem with tense, with verb tense; so, instead of using the present tense, she always uses the the past tense. But, I didn't say that in this example you have said and you said this, I just mention that you have a serious problem with tense and you have to work on this and emm next time, I will have eye on you. I am just I am just uh I am following each one of you but I take notes that this problem that this student has this problem etc. for example, I have a student who does not . she has a presentation but she doesn't interact with her classmates. I was like lecturing, It was not a real presentation with interaction etc. So, I do not give feedback on each details, but I have an overall remark and I give it to students and I urge them to work on it to improve themselves.

FH: so, here like what can we say like overall. Emm like a percentage if you can indicate it ..

FD: first of all, I would not say that it's correcting mistakes. I would say that it's attracting the students to their weakness. OK. mistake happens once. When it's repeated it's an error.

FH: here, I am talking about error.

FD: error, yes. So, I do not correct single mistakes, but when I see that it's a real error, that the student is uh repeating the same mistake which becomes an error; so, he has deficiency in his speech. So, I attract his attention and I give him uh time to change things. He has to change things, it's not my duty to change things. My duty is to attract his attention to his weaknesses and not to correct each time his weaknesses, because I spend each time, she says this and when she says this, I correct each time, it's not beneficial to her. I am not helping her like this. She she has to work on herself, he has to improve herself. But, I am here just to say that it's extremely dangerous what she is saying but using soft words. I do not say it's extremely dangerous, it's it's

FH: okay! so, we can say like you always correct their errors.

FD: yes

FH: You don't tolerate them

FD: no, I do not. I do not

FH: Okay. Which type of errors do you focus on in your correction? We have grammatical errors, phonological and pragmatic errors. Grammatical like morph-syntax or word order, phonological like pronunciation and pragmatic are related to meaning; when conventions of meaning are violated.

FD: well it depends, each student has special mistakes but uh

FH: I mean, which one you don't really tolerate inside the class? Like errors that really like leads you leads you immediately to correct without any tolerance.

FD: pronunciation mistakes

FH: ahah

FD: pronunciation mistakes. Students mispronounce words and keep on mispronouncing words

FH: what about grammatical?

FD: uh I told you, I correct but uh

FH: you don't really focus on them

FD: yes, honestly when a student overexaggerates. Ok. when it's an error, I attract the student's attention toward such thing, but when it's not repeated, it's not repeated. Here, here I can can close my eyes. But I never close my eye on pronunciation mistakes. So, pronunciation comes the first.

FH: Why do you think you need to correct learners' errors?

FD: why?

FH: ahah

FD: so that they improve and they speak correct english

FH: okay! uh do you think that we need to correct the error immediately or delay it? Like for instance a student is talking, and he made an error. Do you think that we need to correct it immediately on the spot or just like wait until the student like finishes his talk?

FD: no, delay it, delay it. Once once he finishes, I give my whole feedback.

FH: aheh, why do you think so?

FD: because, uh because it may hinder the the student when each time I I cut his I interrupt him. Each time I interrupt him, it may hinder his self-confidence or it may hinder him first of all. Second, I have first of all to say to to make sure that it's an error it's not a mistake. So, I cannot from the first mistake the first time he has the mistake or she has the mistake, I start uh I start uh giving my feedback. Maybe, in the second uh in the coming he will directly correct his mistake, okay? so, I wait till he finishes his speech, he finishes his interaction and then I have an idea about what he has said okay? whether it's an error or a mistake, whether he exaggerates on making some types of mistakes, and then I say you have serious problem with pronunciation mistake and you have said this and that and you have mispronounced this many times. like Students for example. I have a student who said uh I guess uh informations and she said I have forgotten and I told her we do not forget we forget once or twice we do not forget forty times. Okay, you spend time repeating the same mistake, and it's a problem and you have to work on this.

FH: yes, twenty-one which corrective feedback strategy do you adopt when your students commit errors? umm like the strategies that you really adopt when students commit errors.

FD: I attract their attention and sometimes I ask the others to give the correct answer to her. I give the floor to the student who made the mistake if he is unable, I ask the student to do it, before as a third strategy, I use the dictionary. I do not give. I do not don't like when students are passive okay? they are just waiting for us to correct their answers. No, either you give it if you do not know it just check your dictionaries check your dictionaries and we can find uh a correct answer. Sometimes, when they are mixing between the American and the British, I interfere.

FH: ahah yeah for instance here I found these strategies. Maybe maybe you employ them, but you really don't really know the name.

FD: the name, sometimes

FH: this is the case of any teacher. So, the first like type is the input-providing feedback and here we have under this one we have recasts, you repeat back to learners the error or the phrase containing an error in its corrected form. explicit correction: you overtly correct students' errors. Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanations, of course explicitly and you provide why, why it's like this and this and it's not like that. And then we have b we have

output encourage learners to self-correct their errors and produce a modified output through repetition like when a student says she walk to school, you would repeat the error, you would say she walk to school and you repeat it back to him. Clarification requests, you would what? Huh? for instance. Metalinguistic clues, uh you tell him like you need past tense instead of like giving him the uh walked for instance. We have elicitations, you would tell them like say that again?. We have Paralinguistic signals: a gesture or facial expression to indicate that an error has been made. Which one of the strategies do you adopt?

FD: the output prompting feedback.

FH: the output. So you are mainly for the output

FD: yes, I want students to work on their errors. I told you that I give the floor to the student who made the mistake himself by just as you have said clarification request and if I see that he is unable, I move to the students, to his friends, asking the same sort of questions okay? metalinguistic clues or elicitation or clarification requests. I use these strategies, but I just didn't know their names, Okay? So, but I focus that it's the student who corrects. It's a self and peer-correction before I interfere

FH: okay, so within the output, do you think that it's repetition, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitation?

FD: honestly, I use all of them but repetition. I use repetition, I use clarification, sometimes uh I use elicitation

FH: okay. what about ignoring the error completely. You just tolerate them?

FD: no no no

FH: Which type of feedback would you consider more effective in promoting learning? Which type of feedback? I mean the input one? The output one?

FD: output

FH: exactly because you are working on developing like I don't know like uh to get this studentcentered learning, so the teacher is just guiding them.

FD: guiding, yes. It's learner-centered approach, it's not teacher centered approach. the teacher here is a mentor, he is helper, he is a guide but he is not a source of knowledge that students should learn from him. No, students have to rely on themselves to learn. He has to to teach them how they have to learn okay? but they have to learn on themselves, because learning doesn't occur only in the classroom, doesn't occur only in the university. Learning occurs wherever the student in, okay? wherever he goes, at home, using TV, using media, using social media, using anything he can learn, because he has the strategies of how to learn and how to correct himself.

FH: so, to what extent do you think we need to encourage self-correction?

FD: you need me to give you a percentage here?

FH: yes!

FD: ninety percent

FH: okay! do you think that teachers should encourage peer-feedback?

FD: yes

FH: ahah, why?

FD: they have to encourage peer-feedback, students can learn from each other, they have to learn from each other. Uh they also need to interact with each other and it's not about who to correct it's rather in speaking and also in writing, but they should be encouraged because uh it's better to learn from a peer rather than to be corrected from an authority, from the teacher for example. Students are less uh. they are more at ease let's say if they are corrected by their friends rather than their teachers. Okay? so, it is a step. I start with my self-correction, then move to peer-correction, then teacher correction.

FH: Okay excellent. Thank you so much for your collaboration!

Résumé

Cette étude s'efforce de comparer les interactions qui existent entre la langue anglaise et la langue arabe en tant que classes de langues étrangères avec des professeurs natifs et des professeurs non natifs. En effet, une attention particulière est accordée aux caractéristiques du discours des enseignants en termes d'organisation de la prise de parole, de techniques d'interrogation, de stratégie des temps d'attente et de traitement des erreurs verbales. La recherche s'appuie sur des données qualitatives et quantitatives recueillies auprès des classes de professeurs anglophones natifs et des professeurs anglophones non natifs au sein de l'École Normale Supérieure Assia Djebbar, Constantine, Algérie. Ainsi, auprès des professeurs arabophones natifs et des professeurs arabophones non natifs au sein de l'université de Wellesley College, Massachusetts, États Unis. La source principale de données repose sur une série de leçons qui ont été enregistrées, transcrites, puis analysées selon la version modifiée de Walsh (2006) Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk Model, des questionnaires avec les étudiants et des interviews qui ont été menées avec les enseignants participants. Premièrement, les résultats de la recherche indiquent que l'Initiation-Réponse-Evaluation (IRE) représente le modèle le plus courant d'interaction dans les trois classes observées. Deuxièmement, les enseignants natifs et les non natifs de la langue partagent la même perspective en termes d'utilisation des questions divergentes, dans l'objectif de favoriser les aptitudes de la pensée critique chez les étudiants. En effet, les enseignants natifs de la langue s'efforcent de promouvoir une grande productivité chez les apprenants grâce à l'utilisation étendue des questions de référence. Cependant, les enseignants non natifs de la langue utilisent plus de questions d'affichage dans le but de favoriser une communication utile. Troisièmement, les enseignants natifs de la langue ont tendance à fournir un minimum de remarques correctives à l'orale afin de favoriser la production orale chez les apprenants, tandis que les enseignants non

natifs de la langue sont plus susceptibles à se focaliser sur le développement d'une production orale qui a tendance d'être exacte chez les apprenants, avec moins de tolérance à leurs erreurs. L'intérêt est porté ici sur le point de vue des enseignants concernant les caractéristiques qui favorisent une interaction de grande qualité, tout en s'alignant avec les apprenants. Autrement dit les enseignants et les étudiants optent pour l'idée de développer l'autonomie et la compétence de réflexion chez l'apprenant qui occupe en effet, une importance primordiale. À la lumière de ces constatations, quelques suggestions d'ordre pratiques sont proposées dans l'objectif de générer une interaction en classe basée sur un ensemble de fonctionnalités interactives qui favorisent le processus d'apprentissage des langues étrangères.

ملخص

تهدف هاته الدراسة إلى مقارنة التفاعل الذي يجري في اقسام اللغة الإنجليزية والعربية كلغتين اجنبيتين للمدرسين الناطقين وغير الناطقين بها. هناك تركيز محدد على مميزات خطاب المدرسين من حيث تنظيم تناوب الأدوار، تقنيات الأسئلة، استراتيجية وقت الانتظار وكذا معالجة الأخطاء الشفهية. يعتمد البحث على بيانات نوعية وكمية تم جمعها من اقسام اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة اجنبية للمدرسين الناطقين وغير الناطقين بها في المدرسة العليا للأساتذة اسيا جبار بقسنطينة، الجزائر بالإضافة الى اقسام اللغة العربية كلغة اجنبية للمدرسين الناطقين وغير الناطقين بها في كلية من الزلي، ماساشوستس بالولايات المتحدة الامريكية. إن المصدر الرئيسي للبيانات يستند إلى سلسلة من الدروس التي تم تسجيلها على هيئة ملفات صوتية والتي تم كتابتها ثم تحليلها وفقاً للنسخة المعدلة من نموذج والش (2006) للتقييم الذاتي لحديث المعلم. ولمعالجة الموضوع من منظور آخر، أجريت مجموعة من الاستبيانات مع الطلبة وكذا مقابلات مع المدرسين المشاركين. أولاً، تشير نتائج البحث إلى أن تقييم استجابة المبادرة هو النمط السائد للتفاعل بين الفصول الدراسية على الأقل في ثلاثة من الفصول الدر اسية المرصودة. ثانيًا، يتشارك كل من المدرسين الناطقين باللغة الأجنبية وغير الناطقين بها نفس المنظور من حيث استخدام الأسئلة المتباينة بهدف تعزيز مهارات التفكير النقدي لدى الطلاب؛ ومع ذلك، في حين يسعى المدرسون الناطقون باللغة الأجنبية إلى تعزيز إنتاجية أكبر للمتعلم من خلال الاستخدام المكثف للأسئلة المرجعية، يستخدم المدرسون غير الناطقين باللغة الأجنبية المزيد من أسئلة العرض بهدف تعزيز التواصل الهادف ثالثًا، يميل المدرسون الناطقون باللغة الأجنبية إلى تقديم الحد الأدنى من الملاحظات التصحيحية الشفوية بهدف تعزيز طلاقة الطلاب، في حين أن المدرسين غير الناطقين بها هم الأكثر احتمالا للتركيز على تطوير دقة الطلاب مع قدر أقل من التسامح مع أخطاء الطلاب. ومن المثير للاهتمام ان منظور المدرسين حول المميزات التي تعزز التفاعل عالى الجودة تتماشى مع تلك الموجودة في الطلاب بمعنى أن كلاهما يدرك الأهمية القصوى لفكرة تعزيز استقلالية المتعلمين ومهارات التفكير النقدي. في ضوء هذه النتائج، تم طرح بعض الاقتر احات العملية لإنشاء تفاعل في الفصل الدراسي بناءً على مجموعة من الميزات التفاعلية التي تعزز عملية تعلم اللغة الأجنبية