

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA  
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH  
UNIVERSITY OF DJILLALI LIABBES, SIDI BELABBES  
FACULTY OF LETTERS, ARTS AND LANGUAGES  
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH



**Teachers' Attitudes and Practices to Promote  
Classroom Interaction:  
A comparative study between the ESP Teacher and  
the General English Teacher in Dr. Moulay Tahar  
University, Saida**

Thesis submitted to the department of English in Candidacy for the degree of  
Doctorate in Applied Linguistics and English Discourse Studies

Presented by:

DINE Radia

Supervised by:

Dr. MENEZLA Nadia

**Board of Examiners**

Pr. BOUHASS BENAÏSSI Fawzia	Prof (Chairperson) University of Sidi-bel-Abbès
Dr. MENEZLA Nadia	MCA (supervisor) University of Sidi-bel-Abbès
Pr. MOUHADJER Nourredine	Prof ( External Examiner) University of Tlemcen
Dr. BARAKA Abdellah	MCA ( External Examiner) University of Mascara
Dr. BENSEDDIK Belkacem	MCA (Internal Examiner) University of Sidi-bel-Abbès

Academic Year: 2020/2021

## Dedications

*“Be with those who help your being.”*

*Rumi*

This work is dedicated to all the people who have been a crucial part of my journey:

To my beloved father, I am forever grateful for your constant support and unwavering belief in me.

To my sweet mother, I am blessed to have your kindness, prayers and encouragement.

To my sisters, Nessrine and Jihane for being a sweet breeze of joy in my life

To my dear friends, for being my strength when I had none

Without your unconditional love, encouragement and affection, this work would have fallen into ashes.

I am and will always be grateful to you

*Dine Radia*

# Acknowledgments

I am indebted to a number of people for making this doctoral thesis possible.

First and foremost, I would like to express my utmost gratitude to my supervisor Dr. MENEZLA Nadia; for helping me with her insightful comments and constructive feedback, patience and encouragement in times of despair.

I would like to extend my heartfelt appreciation to Dr. Boroumi Rekia for being an exemplary mentor and teacher.

My profuse thanks are also extended to Dr. Emily Hofstetter from Linköping University in Sweden for her constructive feedback and invaluable remarks on my transcripts and data analysis.

For the honorable board of jury namely: Pr.BOUHASS BENAÏSSI Fawzia , Pr.MOUADJER Nourredine, Dr.BARAKA Abdellah and Dr.BENSEDDIK Belkacem

For accepting to read and examine my work

For the teachers who accepted to take part in my research

A special feeling of gratitude goes to Medjoub Wafaa, the owner of the bookstore “Book & Inspire” for providing me with the necessary books I needed from abroad.

*Dine Radia*

## **Statement of Originality**

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained  
and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I  
also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited  
and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Date: April 10<sup>th</sup>,2020

Signature: Dine Radia

## **Abstract**

The present title was the original title of the research. The researcher was supposed to explore teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices in regard to promoting classroom interaction through a comparative study between the ESP teacher and the General English teacher. Nevertheless, in light of unforeseen issues, the context of the study needed to be changed. Thus, the researcher conducted her research in the secondary school context. Evidently, the change in the context deemed the comparative study unnecessary. Unfortunately, due to administrative hindrances, the modified title failed to be authorized. Hence, the essence of the research which is investigating teachers' beliefs, attitudes and practices remains steadfast whilst the research population was altered to secondary school teachers.

This doctoral study is a thorough in-field investigation set out to uncover the realities of teachers' beliefs and attitudes regarding interaction in Algerian secondary school classrooms. It is also an attempt to shed light on teachers' unfolding interactive practices. It allows the researcher to discover whether teachers' beliefs are aligned with their actual practices in the classroom. By doing so, the researcher seeks to provide an overview about the realities of EFL teaching in Algerian secondary school with respect to teachers' beliefs and practices. In fact, it is an attempt to "arrange the pieces of the puzzle" regarding the curriculum's expectations and the classroom realities in the Algerian education sphere. Furthermore, it is hoped that this study would provide a platform for teachers to voice their opinions about the problems and mishaps of classroom interaction and even their needs and suggestions to improve the current EFL educational situation. To achieve these objectives, the researcher has opted for a mixed method approach with an explanatory sequential design due to the exploratory-explanatory nature of the research. The research starts by a questionnaire administered to teachers in order to have an initial overall idea of teachers' attitudes towards their interactive attitudes and practices as well as the demands of the educational curriculum and how they execute them in the classroom. As a second step, the researcher selects five secondary school teachers to conduct a series of classroom observation sessions. Next, a follow up interview with the selected teachers is administered in order to compare their practices against their beliefs. The research findings have revealed valuable insights into classroom interaction in Algerian classrooms. They accentuated the interface between classroom discourse, interaction and learning opportunities. In addition, results have also unveiled inconsistencies between teachers' professed beliefs and actual practices. In conclusion, the study provides implications for teachers' professional development by revisiting the teacher education and training programs for pre-service and in-service teachers. In addition, practical recommendations are suggested to improve the interactional environment in the EFL secondary school classrooms

**Key words:** Classroom interaction, Learning opportunities, Teachers' beliefs, Teacher talk, Teacher development

# Table of Contents

<b>Dedications</b>	<b>I</b>
<b>Acknowledgments</b>	<b>II</b>
<b>Statement of Originality</b>	<b>III</b>
<b>Abstract</b>	<b>IV</b>
<b>Table of Contents</b>	<b>VI</b>
<b>List of Abbreviations and Acronyms</b>	<b>XI</b>
<b>List of Figures</b>	<b>XI</b>
<b>List of Tables</b>	<b>XIII</b>
<b>General Introduction</b>	<b>01</b>

## **Chapter One: Conceptual Framework**

### **Section One: Interaction and Language Learning: Theoretical underpinnings**

<b>1.1.Introduction</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.2.Definition of Interaction</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.3.Classroom Interaction Defined</b>	<b>12</b>
1.3.1. Classroom as a social setting for learning	14
1.3.2. Classroom as a site of co-construction of knowledge	15
<b>1.4. Interaction and L2 learning theories</b>	<b>16</b>
1.4.1. Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory (1978)	16
1.4.2. The Input Hypothesis	20
1.4.3. The Output Hypothesis (1985-1995)	22
1.4.4. The Interaction Hypothesis	24
<b>1.5. Interaction and Foreign Language Teaching</b>	<b>26</b>
1.5.1. The Grammar Translation Method	27
1.5.2. The Direct Method	28
1.5.3. The Audio-Lingual Method	29
1.5.4. The Silent Way	30
1.5.5. Suggestopedia	31
1.5.6. Total Physical Response	31
1.5.7. The Communicative Approach	32
1.5.8. The Competency based Approach	33

### **Section two: interaction in the EFL classroom**

<b>1.6. Patterns of Classroom Interaction</b>	<b>35</b>
---	-----------

<b>1.7. Aspects of Classroom Interaction</b>	<b>37</b>
1.7.1. Negotiation of meaning	37
1.7.2. Teacher Talk	38
1.7.3. Student Talk	45
<b>1.8. Classroom Interaction and discourse</b>	<b>46</b>
1.8.1. Teachers' control of the interaction	47
1.8.2. Speech modification	48
1.8.3. Elicitation	50
1.8.4. Repair	51
<b>1.9. The importance of interaction in the EFL classroom</b>	<b>52</b>
<b>1.10. Approaches to Classroom Interaction research</b>	<b>53</b>
1.10.1. Discourse Analysis	54
1.10.2. Interaction Analysis	55
1.10.3. Conversation analysis	56
<b>1.11. Conclusion</b>	<b>58</b>
<b>Chapter two: Teacher attitudes, beliefs and practices</b>	
<b>2.1. Introduction</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>2.2. Section one: Attitudes</b>	
2.2.1 Defining attitudes	62
2.2.2. Attitude structure	64
2.2.3. Components of attitudes	65
2.2.4. Functions of attitudes	66
2.2.4.1. The utilitarian function	67
2.2.4.2. The ego-defensive function	67
2.2.4.3. The value-expressive function	67
2.2.4.4. The knowledge function	68
<b>2.3. Section two: Beliefs</b>	
2.3.1. Towards an understanding of beliefs	68
2.3.1.1. Defining beliefs	68
2.3.1.2. Teacher beliefs	69
2.3.1.3. Features of beliefs	71
2.3.2. Categories of teacher beliefs	73
2.3.3. The nature of teacher beliefs	74

<b>2.3.4. Dimensions of teacher beliefs</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>2.3.5 Research on teacher beliefs</b>	<b>77</b>
2.3.5.1. Behaviorist impact on teachers' beliefs research	78
2.3.5.2. Cognitivist impact on teachers' beliefs research	78
2.3.5.3. sociocultural impact on teachers' beliefs research	79
<b>2.3.6 The relationship between teachers' beliefs, attitudes and classroom practices</b>	<b>80</b>
<b>2.3.7. Factors affecting teachers' beliefs and practices</b>	<b>82</b>
<b>2.3.8 Conclusion</b>	<b>84</b>
<b>Chapter Three: Situation Analysis and Research Methodology</b>	
<b>3.1. Introduction</b>	<b>88</b>
<b>3.2. Part one: The place of Interaction in the Algerian Educational Policy</b>	
<b>3.2.1 The place of ELT in the Algerian educational policy: a historical overview</b>	<b>90</b>
<b>3.2.2 ELT in Algerian Secondary Schools</b>	<b>94</b>
<b>3.2.3. The place of Interactional competence in Secondary Education Curriculum</b>	<b>96</b>
<b>3.2.4. Teachers' roles in the Competency Based Language Teaching approach</b>	<b>98</b>
<b>3.3. Part two: Research Methodology</b>	
<b>3.3.1 Research rationale and motivations</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>3.3.2. Ontological and Epistemological stance</b>	<b>101</b>
<b>3.3.3 Research Design</b>	<b>103</b>
<b>3.3.4 Research approach</b>	<b>106</b>
<b>3.3.4.1. Mixed Methods</b>	<b>107</b>
<b>3.3.4.2. Types of Mixed methods design</b>	<b>107</b>
<b>3.3.4.2.1. Convergent parallel methods</b>	<b>108</b>
<b>3.3.4.2.2. Explanatory sequential mixed methods</b>	<b>108</b>
<b>3.3.4.2.3 Exploratory sequential mixed methods</b>	<b>109</b>
<b>3.3.5. Sampling</b>	<b>110</b>
<b>3.3.5 1. Sampling design</b>	<b>111</b>
<b>3.3.5.2. Sample population</b>	<b>114</b>
<b>3.3.6. Data Collection Procedures</b>	<b>116</b>



3.3.6.1. Quantitative method	116
3.3.6.2. Qualitative method	117
<b>3.3.6.3. Teachers’ reflective questionnaire</b>	<b>118</b>
3.3.6.3.1 Aims of the teachers’ questionnaire	119
3.3.6.3.2. Description of the teachers’ questionnaire	119
<b>3.3.6.4 Classroom Observation</b>	<b>122</b>
3.3.6.4.1 Aims of the Classroom Observation	124
3.3.6.4.2 Description of the Classroom observation	124
<b>3.3.7. Teachers’ interview</b>	<b>125</b>
3.3.7.1. Aims of the Teachers’ Interview	127
3.3.7.2. Description of the Teachers’ Interview	128
<b>3.3.8. Data Analysis Procedures</b>	<b>129</b>
3.3.8.1 Quantitative Data analysis	130
3.3.8.2 Data analysis with SPSS	130
<b>3.3.8.3. Qualitative Data analysis</b>	<b>131</b>
3.3.8.3.1. Classroom Observation Grid	131
3.3.8.3.2. Walsh’s Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk framework	132
<b>3.3.9. Coding software</b>	<b>135</b>
<b>3.3.10. Triangulation</b>	<b>136</b>
<b>3.3.11. Pilot study</b>	<b>136</b>
<b>3.3.12. Ethical and methodological considerations</b>	<b>137</b>
3.3.12.1 Informed consent	137
3.3.12.2. Validity and reliability	138
<b>3.3.13. Limitations of the study</b>	<b>140</b>
<b>3.14. Conclusion</b>	<b>141</b>
<b>Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Discussion</b>	
<b>4.1. Introduction</b>	<b>142</b>
<b>4.2 Teachers’ questionnaire</b>	<b>142</b>
4.2.1. Section one: Teachers’ profile	142
4.2.2. Section two: Teachers’ schemata and beliefs regarding classroom interaction	145
4.2.3. Section three: Teachers’ self-report on their interactive practices	150
4.2.3.1 Input and interactional activities	150

4.2.3.2 Turn taking techniques	155
4.2.3.3 Section three: Repair strategies	159
4.2.4. Discussion of the main findings	162
<b>4.3 Classroom Observation</b>	<b>164</b>
4.3.1. Interactional features and dominant classroom modes	164
4.3.1.1. Teacher (A)	164
4.3.1.2. Teacher (B)	168
4.3.1.3. Teacher (C)	172
4.3.1.4. Teacher (D)	176
4.3.1.5. Teacher (E)	181
4.3.2. Teachers' Practices and Emergent Themes	185
4.3.2.1. Questioning techniques	185
4.3.2.2. Error correction and feedback	186
4.3.2.3. Use of multilingual resources	187
<b>4.4 Teachers' interview</b>	<b>187</b>
4.4.1. Personal and pedagogical influences on teachers' beliefs	188
4.4.1.1. Teachers' learning experiences	188
4.4.1.2. The impact of teachers' learning experiences on their interactive methodology	189
4.4.1.3. Teachers' pedagogical influences	189
4.4.2. Teachers' views regarding interaction in the classroom	190
4.4.2.1. The status of interaction under the current educational system	190
4.4.2.2. The impact of classroom interaction on students' learning outcomes	191
4.4.2.3. Teachers' practices to promote interaction	191
4.4.3. Teachers' evaluation of their students' interactional competence	193
4.4.4. . Teachers' suggestions and recommendations	194
4.4.5. Summary and interpretation of the main findings	195
<b>4.5 Discussion</b>	<b>197</b>
4.5.1. Teachers' professed attitudes and actual practices towards Classroom interaction	197
4.5.2. The impact of the pedagogical discourse of creating or hindering learning opportunities	198

4.5.3. Further considerations	199
4.5.3.1 Teachers' and Learners' motivation	200
4.5.3.2. Teachers' teaching styles	200
4.6 Conclusion	201
<b>Chapter five: Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations</b>	
5.1 Introduction	202
5.2 The need to synergize educational policy and teacher beliefs	202
5.3 The need to revamp teacher education programs	203
5.3.1. Pre-service teacher training	204
5.3.2. In-service teacher training	204
5.3.3. A suggested course in classroom interaction for EFL teachers	206
5.4. Promoting teachers' reflective practice	210
5.5. Developing teachers' Classroom Interactional Competence	211
5.6. Promoting learners L2 socio-pragmatic competence	215
5.7. Fostering Learner/learner interaction	215
5.8. Time or Quality? Revisiting the Teacher Talk conundrum	217
5.9. Enhancing questioning techniques	218
5.10. Promoting interactional Feedback	220
5.11. Future directions	221
5.12. Conclusion	222
General Conclusion	225
Bibliography	231
Appendices	244

## Abbreviations and Acronyms

<b>CA</b>	Conversation Analysis
<b>CBA</b>	Competency Based Approach
<b>CBLT</b>	Competency Based Language Teaching
<b>EFL</b>	English as a Foreign Language
<b>FIAC</b>	Flanders' Interaction Analysis Categories
<b>FT</b>	Foreigner Talk
<b>GTM</b>	Grammar Translation Method
<b>INSET</b>	In-Service Education and Training
<b>NNS</b>	Non-native speaker
<b>NS</b>	Native speaker
<b>NT</b>	Native Talk
<b>PGCE</b>	Postgraduate Certificate in Education
<b>S (s)</b>	Student (s)
<b>SETT</b>	Self-evaluation of Teacher Talk
<b>SLA</b>	Second Language Acquisition
<b>STT</b>	Student Talking Time
<b>T</b>	Teacher
<b>T T</b>	Teacher Talk
<b>TALOS</b>	Target Language Observation Scheme
<b>TCU</b>	Turn Constructional Unit
<b>TL</b>	Target language
<b>TTT</b>	Teacher Talking Time
<b>ZPD</b>	Zone of Proximal Development

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 01.01</b>	Classroom interaction (Ann Malamah, 1987:7)	<b>13</b>
<b>Figure 01.02</b>	Patterns of Pedagogic interaction in a language classroom (Ann Malamah, 1987:39)	<b>35</b>
<b>Figure 02.01</b>	The Tripartite Attitude Model (Oppenheim 1992 in Alias 2002)	<b>65</b>
<b>Figure02.02:</b>	Factors affecting Teachers' beliefs and practices (source Borg 2006:283 as cited in Li 2017: 19)	<b>84</b>
<b>Figure03.01</b>	Interactive aims in Secondary Education (all levels)	<b>98</b>
<b>Figure03.02</b>	Three Basic Mixed Methods Designs (Creswell 2014:270)	<b>109</b>
<b>Figure03.03</b>	Types of sampling design	<b>111</b>
<b>Figure 03.04</b>	Screenshot of the TRANSANA 2.10 software	<b>137</b>
<b>Figure03.05</b>	Research Design	<b>140</b>
<b>Figure 04.01</b>	Participants' age	<b>143</b>
<b>Figure 04.02</b>	Participants' gender	<b>143</b>
<b>Figure 04.03</b>	Participants' educational background	<b>144</b>
<b>Figure04.04</b>	Participants' teaching experience	<b>145</b>
<b>Figure 04.05</b>	Participants' associated terms with classroom interaction	<b>146</b>
<b>Figure 04.06</b>	Participants' viewpoint about Classroom interactional competence	<b>148</b>
<b>Figure 04.07</b>	Participants' opinions regarding the teachability of classroom interaction	<b>148</b>
<b>Figure 04.08</b>	Teaching Classroom interaction as an integrated or a separate course	<b>150</b>
<b>Figure 04.09</b>	I explain, give examples and synthesize ideas throughout all the stages of the lesson	<b>151</b>
<b>Figure 04.10</b>	When planning my lessons, I prepare oral activities	<b>151</b>
<b>Figure 04.11</b>	I provide Learners with authentic materials and visual aids to promote discussion	<b>152</b>

<b>Figure 04.12</b>	I encourage learner-learner interaction by fostering cooperative activities	<b>153</b>
<b>Figure 04.13</b>	I ask the learners to summarize, paraphrase or re-explain a notion to their peers	<b>153</b>
<b>Figure 04.14</b>	I interfere in my learners' seating arrangement	<b>155</b>
<b>Figure 04.15</b>	I elicit learners' answers by asking open questions	<b>155</b>
<b>Figure04.16</b>	When learners are answering, I avoid interrupting them	<b>156</b>
<b>Figure 04.17</b>	I ask the learners to discuss, elaborate their ideas and give more details to their answers	<b>157</b>
<b>Figure 04.18</b>	I check learners' knowledge through personal soliciting	<b>158</b>
<b>Figure 04.19</b>	I allocate interactional space based on learners' oral proficiency level	<b>158</b>
<b>Figure04.20</b>	If learners make mistakes, I tend to request for repetitions so that learners may self-check	<b>159</b>
<b>Figure 04.21</b>	I correct their oral production in terms of grammar and vocabulary mistakes	<b>160</b>
<b>Figure 04.22</b>	I give verbal judgments to students' mistakes with words like bad, no, you are wrong	<b>161</b>
<b>Figure 04.23</b>	I prompt learners' correct answers	<b>161</b>
<b>Figure 05.01</b>	Kolb's Experiential Learning cycle	<b>210</b>
<b>Figure 05.02</b>	Development in Classroom Interactional Competence and teacher's beliefs	<b>214</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 03.01</b>	Teaching Load of English at the Secondary Level	<b>94</b>
<b>Table 03.02</b>	The official units' distribution of the three levels	<b>95</b>
<b>Table03. 03</b>	Coefficient of English in secondary education	<b>95</b>
<b>Table03.04</b>	Summary of Probability Sampling procedures	<b>112</b>
<b>Table03.05:</b>	Teachers' demographic profiles	<b>115</b>
<b>Table03.06:</b>	Selected research methods	<b>129</b>
<b>Table 03.07:</b>	L2 Classroom Modes (Walsh 2006:94)	<b>134</b>
<b>Table 04.01:</b>	Recurrent classroom modes for teacher (A)	<b>166</b>
<b>Table 04.02</b>	Recurrent classroom modes for teacher (B)	<b>169</b>
<b>Table 04.03</b>	Recurrent classroom modes for teacher (C)	<b>173</b>
<b>Table 04.04:</b>	Recurrent classroom modes for teacher (D)	<b>177</b>
<b>Table 04.05</b>	Recurrent classroom modes for teacher (E)	<b>182</b>
<b>Table05.01</b>	A suggested course design in Classroom interaction for EFL teachers	<b>209</b>

# **GENERAL INTRODUCTION**



## General Introduction

---

### General Introduction

It is amply acknowledged that learning a language is a social practice par excellence. Throughout the years; researchers such as Bakhtin, Searle, and Vygotsky have highlighted the social nature of the language either by accentuating its pragmatic dimension or by highlighting its interactive essence. This paradigm was in line with the post-structural approach to language learning which stressed the centrality of cultural and social influences on the teaching/learning process. In this regard, the educational landscape has witnessed a paradigm shift from a structural outlook to language teaching to a more functional orientation. In the ELT field, teaching methods have changed from the rigid transmission to more communicative and engaging methods. Naturally, the focus has shifted to classroom interaction as an integral component in the L2 instruction.

Classroom interaction hinges upon a shared experience between the teacher and the learners. It is created, elaborated, and maintained through the use of a set of dialogic mechanics used by both the teachers and the learners. It “serves an enabling function: its only purpose is to provide conditions for learning’ (Malamah Thomas 1987:vii). This suggests a reflexive nexus between pedagogy and interaction. Ergo, classroom interaction can be perceived as a mediator between teaching and learning regardless of which pedagogic approach is conducted.

In essence, Teaching can be seen as “a series of interactional events” (Ellis 1998:145) taking place within the confines of the classroom. Teachers, as well as learners, assume certain responsibilities and roles and interpret them into their actions and interaction with each other. Evidently, both of the stakeholders i.e. teachers and learners carry a set of beliefs and attitudes that may affect and orient their interactional dynamics.

## General Introduction

---

In fact, there are a plethora of studies that affirm the impact of teachers' attitudes and beliefs on their instructional choices and practices.

Algeria, like many other countries has adopted the Competency based approach and integrated it into its educational policy. The Competency Based Approach is considered as the Zeitgeist of modern EFL teaching pedagogies. It is based on socio-constructivist tenets which considered learning as an active collaborative effort shared by the teacher and the learners. Arguably, the CBA perceives the teaching/ learning process as an interactive, dynamic and socially constructed conduct that is collaboratively instigated and mainly mediated by the teacher.

In this respect, teachers play a critical role in the dynamics of the classroom. In fact, the CBA endorses a democracy- based learning environment in which the idea of a teacher being the “controller “of the classroom is no longer valid. Therein, teachers' roles are extended to guides, facilitators, mediators and the like. It also promotes creating conducive learning environments for the learners in which there are ample opportunities for the learners to develop their linguistic, social, and interactive skills. Thus, it is fair to say that the CBA perceives the teacher as a “linchpin” that contributes to the success or failure of interactional environment.

In language classrooms, teachers as well as the learners enter the classroom with a set of beliefs and attitudes towards the target language. These beliefs may include classroom environment, teaching /learning strategies, culturally bound influences that may affect the interactional environment of the classroom as well as actual teaching/learning process. These attitudes and beliefs are an accumulation of teachers' educational and practical experiences that may contribute in shaping teachers' own “philosophy” of

## General Introduction

---

teaching. Besides, teacher' beliefs and attitudes can be considered as an inherent factor in teachers' identity construction and reconstruction.

Accordingly, research on teacher beliefs has become a central line of inquiry in the domain of language teaching, teacher identity or teacher education and development. Researchers sought to untangle the complexities of this construct, delve into its characteristics and attempt to unfold the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. Thus, an understanding of linguistic, social and interactive dimensions of the classroom requires an "awareness of what participants bring to a classroom, in terms of their beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, expectations, conditioning and so on "(Kumaravadivedu ,1999 ;Walsh ,2013).

Nevertheless, when it comes to teacher cognition and classroom interaction in the Algerian context. Literature reviews revealed scant studies that focus on teacher cognition through a classroom interactional lens. In fact, most of the studies focused on the product rather than the process despite the fact that the teaching/learning process in the language classroom is predominantly interactive in nature.

As a point of departure, the present study attempts to find answers to the following questions:

- 1. What beliefs and attitudes do EFL secondary school teachers hold regarding interaction in the classroom?**
- 2. To what extent are teachers' interactional practices aligned with their beliefs and attitudes in the classroom?**

The aforementioned questions generated the following sub-questions:

## General Introduction

---

- How do EFL secondary school teachers perceive the construct of classroom interaction in their teaching?
- Are teachers aware and informed about the role interaction in the EFL classroom?
- How do EFL teachers create or hinder opportunities for learning in the classroom?

The present study is an attempt to investigate the realities of classroom interaction by conducting a careful analysis of secondary school teachers' attitudes, beliefs and interactive practices. It is motivated by a number of factors. Firstly, teachers' cognition and classroom interaction has not been closely examined enough. In other words, despite the centrality interaction in the EFL classroom, it has received scant attention vis-à-vis its relation to teachers' attitudes and beliefs. As a matter of fact, classroom interaction is, by and large, perceived as a natural concomitant of classroom management and it needed to be studied from a more ethnographic vantage point, i.e teachers' cognitions. Secondly, the main focus was placed upon secondary school teachers for they are required to use the CBA approach which holds interactive tenets. Thus, understanding teachers' attitudes and beliefs in regard to interaction in general and their practices in particular would offer us insights into the realities of CBA instruction in EFL classrooms. Thirdly, this study attempts to access teachers' *insitu* interactive practices by shedding light on their interactive decision-making actions in the time of lesson delivery.

Therefore, the present study sets out to achieve the following aims:

1. Expounding the attitudes and viewpoints of secondary school teachers about the construct of interaction in their classrooms.
2. Exploring the interactional environment of the classroom and delving into the discursive structure of the classroom.

## General Introduction

---

3. Identifying teachers' interactive practices that promote or hamper learning opportunities in the classroom.
4. Emphasizing on the role of teacher cognition as an effective component for the success of the educational process. In addition, directing the researchers' attention to the processes of classroom interaction by collecting data from the classroom itself.

To reach these aims, the researcher has opted for a constructivist research paradigm in which a mixed-method approach is employed. Due to the exploratory-explanatory nature of the research, the researcher has utilized an explanatory sequential design using quantitative and qualitative research methods. As a point of departure, the research is conducted initially using a large-scale questionnaire administered to secondary school teachers in order to have an initial overall idea of teachers' attitudes towards their interactive attitudes and practices as well as the demands of the educational curriculum and how they execute them in the classroom. Secondly, five secondary school teachers are selected to be the main research subjects. Herein, the researcher conducts a series of classroom observation sessions; the sessions are audio-recorded, transcribed using a transcription software (TRANSANA 2.1) and analyzed using Walsh's (2011) classroom observation grid SETT (Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk). Next, a follow up interview with the aforementioned teachers is administered in order to compare their practices against their beliefs.

The present research is structured into five chapters. *Chapter one* presents the conceptual and theoretical framework of the research. It is divided into two main sections: section one is directed towards interaction and its concomitant theories such as Social Constructivism, the Input hypothesis and other second/foreign language acquisition theories. Furthermore, the researcher reviews foreign language teaching methods from an interactional point of view. In fact, a thorough analysis of how interaction was perceived

## General Introduction

---

and conducted is presented in order to better approach the construct of classroom interaction in the EFL context. In the second section, the researcher presents a theoretical overview of Classroom interaction in the EFL classroom. This is by reviewing previous studies that shaped and contributed to our understanding of interaction. In addition, aspects of classroom interaction such as teacher talk repair and questioning strategies are also expounded.

In *the second chapter*, the researcher delves into the theoretical framework of teachers' attitudes, beliefs and their practices. The first section is dedicated to the construct of attitudes. In essence; the researcher offers a close up look to the concept of attitudes by providing its definition, structure, component and functions. In the second section, the researcher offers a theoretical background to the construct of beliefs in general and teachers' beliefs in particular. Hence, the researcher presents teacher beliefs, features, dimensions and categories. Moreover, a compendium on teacher beliefs research is also presented. Finally, the researcher discusses the nexus between teacher beliefs and practices as well as the factors affecting that relationship.

The *third chapter* represents the empirical part of the research. It is structured into two main parts: Situation Analysis and Research Methodology. In the first part, the research offers insights into the place of interaction in the Algerian educational policy. First of all, a historical overview of ELT in Algerian educational policy is presented. In this overview, the researcher explains the status of English instruction throughout the different educational curricula in the midst of political, social and economic reforms. In the next step, the position of ELT in secondary school education is also expounded and discussed. In addition, a discussion of teachers' roles under the umbrella of the CBA approach is also provided. The first part is concluded by shedding light on interactional

## General Introduction

---

competence and the extent to which this construct is valued and employed in secondary educational curricula.

In the second part, the research presents the research methodology by describing the guiding objectives and motivations for the inquiry as well as its ontological and epistemological stance. Furthermore, a detailed explanation of research design, methods and data collection procedures is also provided.

The *fourth chapter*, the researcher provides a thorough analysis of the collected data. By doing so, the researcher sheds light on the interactive environment in EFL secondary classrooms through providing a comprehensive account of teachers' attitudes, beliefs towards classroom interaction. Furthermore, teachers' actual practices in the classroom are also tackled and discussed. Ergo, this chapter provides a thorough analysis of the EFL teaching realms through dissecting teachers' professed beliefs and actual practices.

In *the fifth and final chapter*, the researcher exposes pedagogical implications that are based on addressing some of the issues reported when conversing with the teachers. As a matter of fact, implications and recommendations are presented at macro and micro levels. This involves revisiting teachers' education programs, developing teachers' reflective practices as well as promoting teachers' agency. In addition, the researcher puts forward practical suggestions to ameliorate classroom interactional environment, and create conducive learning opportunities.

**Chapter one :**  
**Conceptual Framework**



# **Chapter One: Conceptual Framework**

## **Section One: Interaction and Language Learning: Theoretical underpinnings**

### **Introduction**

### **Definition of Interaction**

### **Classroom Interaction Defined**

**1.3.1.** Classroom as a social setting for learning

**1.3.2.** Classroom as a site of co-construction of knowledge

### **1.4. Interaction and L2 learning theories**

**1.4.1.** Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory (1978)

**1.4.2.** The Input Hypothesis

**1.4.3.** The Output Hypothesis (1985-1995)

**1.4.4.** The Interaction Hypothesis

### **1.5. Interaction and Foreign Language Teaching**

**1.5.1.** The Grammar Translation Method

**1.5.2.** The Direct Method

**1.5.3.** The Audio-Lingual Method

**1.5.4.** The Silent Way

**1.5.5.** Suggestopedia

**1.5.6.** Total Physical Response

**1.5.7.** The Communicative Approach

**1.5.8.** The Competency based Approach

## **Section two: Interaction in the EFL classroom**

### **1.6. Patterns of Classroom Interaction**

### **1.7. Aspects of Classroom Interaction**

**1.7.1.** Negotiation of meaning

**1.7.2.** Teacher Talk

**1.7.3.** Student Talk

### **1.8. Classroom Interaction and discourse**

**1.8.1.** Teachers' control of the interaction

**1.8.2.** Speech modification

**1.8.3.** Elicitation

**1.8.4.** Repair

## **1.9. The importance of interaction in the EFL classroom**

### **1.10. Approaches to Classroom Interaction research**

**1.10.1.** Discourse Analysis

**1.10.2.** Interaction Analysis

**1.10.3.** Conversation analysis

### **1.11. Conclusion**

## Chapter One:

### Conceptual Framework

#### **Section One: Interaction and Language Learning: Theoretical underpinnings**

##### **1.1. Introduction:**

Recent educational theories have accentuated the role of interaction in the teaching/learning process. Giving its multidimensional nature; interaction is perceived as a dynamic and reflexive conduct that is carried out and maintained by the teachers and the learners. The present chapter offers a theoretical account of classroom interaction. In the First part, the researcher defines the construct of interaction, introduces its concomitant theories and shed lights on the teaching methods from an interactional perspective. In the second part of the chapter, the researcher delves into the theoretical underpinnings of Classroom interaction, its aspects, patterns and approaches to its study.

##### **1.2. Definition of Interaction**

The term *Interaction* is derived from two Latin words “*inter*” which means “among” and “*agere*” which means “to do “(Rivers,1987, p.57). Thus, interaction is *a reciprocal action or influence* (The Oxford Dictionary of English, 1997, p.80). Hence, interaction means *acting reciprocally, acting upon each other*” (Malamah-Thomas, 1987, p.07). Accordingly, interaction can be defined as a dual, constant, reciprocal action and impact between different participants in any active social setting such as the classroom.

Similarly, Wagner (1994,p.08) defines interaction as a set of “reciprocal events that require two objects and two actions “.According to him, interaction occurs when these objects and events naturally influence one another. From these definitions, we may conclude that interaction is a two-way process that is characterized by initiatory or responsive acts. It can be seen as a process of “*mutual accommodation*” (Malamah-

Thomas, 1987, p.37) in which the addressee and the addresser impacting each other and acting upon one another's actions.

### 1.3. Classroom Interaction Defined

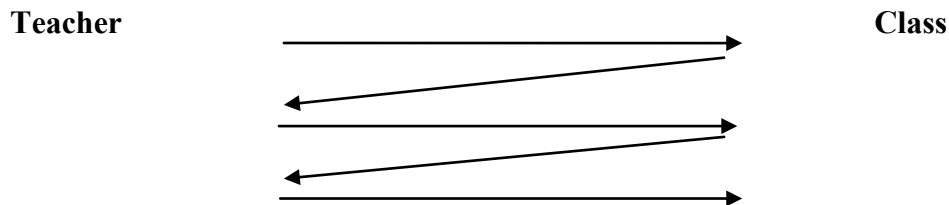
The classroom, being a social context in its own right is fundamentally characterized by the interactive exchanges that take place between the interactants (mainly the teacher and the learners). Needless to say, classroom interaction is the *sine que non* of classroom ethos and pedagogy. It has attracted the attention of many educationalists and scholars. Its multi-dimensional nature offered a multitude of definitions and conceptualizations of the term.

The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2002, p.72) defines Classroom Interaction as “*the patterns of verbal and non-verbal communication and the types of social relationships which occur within classrooms* “. This means that Classroom Interaction is a set of linguistic and non-linguistic patterns used by the participants (mainly the teacher and the learners) for the purpose of communicating with each other.

In her seminal book (Introducing Classroom Interaction 1995), Tsui describes Classroom interaction as a *co-operative effort among participants*. This clearly manifests the joint nature of the classroom where the direction and the outcome of the interaction are co-produced and determined by the participants. This view is supported by Allwright and Bailey (1991, p.19) who assert that “..... Interaction is obviously not something you can just do *to* people, but something people do *together*, collectively”.

In other words, Interaction is not a linear process where the teacher controls the interaction and determines its course. It not merely a set of mechanical endeavors where

the teacher initiates and learners respond and executes the teacher's commands. In fact, it is a two-way process where the teacher acts upon the class and the class reaction subsequently modifies his next action.



**Figure 01 (Ann Malamah, 1987:7)**

Following a purely pedagogical stance, Malamah-Thomas (1987, p.3) offers a detailed definition of the term; she identifies four main features: Classroom action, Action and reaction, Co-operation and conflict and communication. These could be considered as the primary pillars for understanding the construct of interaction in the classroom. These features include:

**a. Classroom Action**

Any classroom lesson is based on a plan. Its execution, however, may differ greatly from what the teacher has intended to do. This is because “*teacher and students may work out a plan together to determine how their lesson is to proceed*” (ibid: 3).

**b. Action and Reaction**

The act of teaching and learning naturally entails the existence of active and reactive activities so that the learning takes place. In fact, *action and reaction are not interaction (ibid: 06)*. Admittedly, the teacher's plan of action, translated into action in the classroom, is bound to evoke some sort of student reaction which can be sometimes unpredictable and unexpected.

### *c. Co-operation and Conflict*

Interaction in the classroom does not have predictable, consistent agenda when it comes to teacher/learner practices. Sometimes, the lesson can proceed in harmony following the teacher's designated plan. Nonetheless, it may have been some unforeseen factors be them positive or negative that may affect the course of the classroom ethos. In fact, the interaction situation may be affected by the attitudes and intentions of the people involved and on their interpretations. This duality is a feature that may exist in any classroom setting.

### *d. Communication*

Having only action and reaction cannot be described as communication. In fact, *knowing what to do, what to communicate to the students* is key to having an effective communication. This can be done through managing conflict and fostering co-operation between the interactants in the classroom.

To sum up, Classroom interaction can be seen as an ongoing process which is characterized by constant pattern of mutual influence and adjustment.

### **1.3.1. Classroom as a social setting for learning**

The classroom can be considered as a sociolinguistic setting in which teachers and learners are gathered to achieve academic tasks while engaging in social interaction. It is often perceived as a "communicative setting" in which teachers and pupils collaborate "instructional conversations" (Green & Wallat 1981 as cited in Weinstein, 1991, p. 495). Herein, learners construct their learning while being engaged in interactional exchanges with their teachers and peers. In fact, social cultural theories emphasize the social nature of the classroom and its underlying dialogic mechanism. In this regard, Hudgins *et al* (1981, p. 01) views teaching as "a type of everyday social interaction, rather than a specialized

type of human behavior”. Hence, the process of learning can also be viewed as a byproduct of a joint effort between the teachers and the learners.

In this regard, the social dimension of the classroom postulates the interrelatedness of, cultural social and psychological factors such as motivation, support, communication as well as power relations. Hence, teachers are expected to promote a socially hospitable learning environment for learners to actively engage in the learning process.

In this light, Kounin & Sherman (1979, qtd. in Weinstein 1991) argue that "the classroom is composed of numerous sub-settings that vary in the kinds of social behaviors they elicit from both teachers and pupils”. These *subsettings* were referred to as “activity segments” by a variety of ecological psychologists. In fact, these segments are identified as “action structure”. They indicate "who shall do what, to whom, when" and a physical milieu, the "container" for the activity segment (Gump 1982 cited in Weinstein, 2000, p.201),

### **1.3.2. Classroom as a site of co-construction of knowledge**

Many educationalists have agreed on the fact that the classroom is a sociolinguistic context in which a variety of factors intertwine. It is mainly characterized by constant interaction between its main stakeholders: the teacher and the learners. This social interaction is based on a joint effort by the teacher and the learners for the purpose of learning. Tsui (1995:22) includes teachers’ and students’ educational and social backgrounds, experience, knowledge and expectations. In the EFL classroom, the language is both the medium and the object of the instruction. Hence, Classroom interaction is vital for a successful attainment of the pedagogical goals.

### 1.4. Interaction and L2 learning theories

Research on interaction was the main interest for a myriad of researchers. Due to its multi-dimensional nature, Research findings on classroom interaction can be found in sociological, psychological and educational research spheres.

Broadly speaking, research in classroom interaction can be viewed in the following theoretical frameworks:

1. Negotiation oriented research, chiefly the **Socio-cultural theory and Interaction hypothesis.**
2. Input oriented research, mainly the **Input Hypothesis.**
3. Output Oriented research, namely the **Output Hypothesis**

#### 1.4.1 Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory (1978)

Socio cultural theory is an educational paradigm that is advocated by the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978). It is rooted in the sociological theories about the social construction of reality mainly that of Mead (1934) and Berger (1966) (Markee,2015, p. 196). In addition, anthropological studies that investigated the relationship between learning and culture (e.g Splinder and Splinder ,1955) had influenced its emergence.

Socio-cultural theory is one of the most predominant theories of learning in the modern era. It is based on the tenet that learning is a socio-cognitive process. In fact, it emphasizes the role of social interaction in the development of learning.

Socio-cultural theory emerged as a rejection to the cognitive theories of Jean Piaget who perceived learning as a purely cognitive process having no influence from external



stimuli such as learner's interaction with his peers and the environment around him. Thus, Piaget overlooked the social nature of human development.

According to Vygotsky (1978), knowledge is constructed in a social context and then appropriated by individuals (Bruning et al, 1999). That is to say, individuals construct their knowledge throughout engaging in a process of social interaction with other individuals. Thus, community is integral in the process of meaning making which is socially constructed.

In this light, Vygotsky (1978, p.57) views learning as a process that takes place at two levels:

**Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals.**

Put simply, there are two phases of learning: First, interpsychological, which is related to the social aspect of learning. It includes interaction between the individual and his peers or a "*More Knowledgeable other*" (Vygotsky (1978) or an "*expert knower*" (Rohler 1996:02). In addition, the second phase is *intrapsychological*. It is concerned with the internalization of knowledge by the individual. As Walsh (2013, p. 06) points out "**learners collectively and actively construct their own knowledge and understanding by making connections, building mental schemata and concepts through collaborative meaning making**".

Another prominent concept in Socio-cultural theory is *Mediation*. The latter is explained by Lantolf (2000) as follows “**we use symbolic tools or signs to mediate and regulate our relationships with others and with ourselves and thus change the nature of these relationships**” (cited in Walsh, 2013, p.07). In other words, individuals make use of existing tools in collaboration with others so as to develop understanding.

In the case of SL/FL classrooms, language is considered a mediator for “**language is a means for engaging in social and cognitive activity**” (Ahmed,1994, p.158). That is to say, it is through language that new ideas are presented, negotiated and established. Hence, language acts as an” intermediary “that links the social (inter-psychological) with the cognitive (intra-psychological) phases in the process meaning making. These processes occur in the so called “Zone of Proximal Development “and through a process of Scaffolding.

### **a. The Zone of Proximal Development**

Central to the socio-cultural theory is the concept of “the Zone of Proximal Development” (ZDP henceforth). As Vygotsky (1978, p.86) defines it: “**the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers**”.

Put simply, it is basically the difference between the learner’s current level of knowledge and prospect knowledge through interaction with more knowledgeable other such as the teacher, or more advanced peers., This clearly accentuates the role of social interaction in mediating and establishing knowledge.

Lantolf (2000) suggests a similar definition to the ZPD: “*the collaborative construction of opportunities ...for individuals to develop their mental abilities*” (as cited in Walsh, 2013, p. 09). From these definitions we can clearly view the social dimension of the ZPD. In fact, its social nature lies in its dialogic essence. i.e., it is through dialogue that new knowledge is constructed and acquired. Thus, it provides opportunities for learning or “*affordances*” Van lier (2000). These affordances are provided through a process of “*scaffolding*”.

### **b. Scaffolding**

The term scaffolding is defined as “**a process that enables a child or novice to solve a task or achieve a goal that would be beyond his unassisted efforts.**” Wood et al. (1976: 90). It was coined by Jerome Bruner as an attempt to “*operationalise the concept of teaching in the zone of proximal development (ZPD)*” (Wells,1999, p.96). It is thus, “*an instructional tool that reduces learning ambiguity*” (Doyle 1986.qtd in Walsh, 2013, p.09).

Scaffolding can be considered as the *sine que non* of the zone of proximal development. It is an integral component for the construction and development of the learning process. It clearly highlights the jointly constructed nature of learning. In other words, through scaffolding, learners collaborate to achieve different academic tasks. This can be achieved through teachers’ provision “*appropriate amounts of challenge to maintain interest and involvement and support to ensure understanding*” (Walsh, 2006,p.35)

The basic tenet of the Vygotsky’s social theory is that learning is a social process. It is originated within the construct of society and culture and through the dynamic interaction between the individuals who are taking place in the learning process. In addition, Vygostky perceives learning as a semiotic process where participation in socially

mediated activities is essential (Turuk 2008). In other words, we use symbolic tools or signs to mediate and regulate our relationships with others and with ourselves and thus change the nature of these relationships (Lantolf, 2000, p.1).

### 1.4.2. The Input Hypothesis

As its name implies, the input hypothesis focuses on the nature of input that is provided for the learners and its impact on learning outcomes. The input Hypothesis is one of the prominent studies of input-oriented research.

American linguist Stephen Krashen (1981) proposed the monitor model, this theory attempts to offer explanations on second language acquisition. This theory encompassed five hypotheses; the Acquisition-learning hypothesis, the Natural order hypothesis, the Monitor hypothesis, the Affective filter hypothesis and the Input hypothesis.

The input Hypothesis is based on the tenet that acquisition takes place when the learner is exposed to 'comprehensible input' "which is the input that is a little beyond the learner's current understanding: this is referred to as  $i+1$ . The "i" stands for learner's current level of language expertise and the +1 refers to the linguistic forms and functions which are above the learner's actual level. That is to say, language acquisition is only successful when there is a gradual transition from learners' prior knowledge to the new one.

This is achieved through the use of linguistic and extra linguistic cues. In addition to that, the application of input modifications strategies that is also found in foreigner talk<sup>1</sup>. These modifications may include using simpler syntactic and lexical constructs of

---

<sup>1</sup> It is the variety of talk used by native speakers when addressing non- native speakers

language, and slower rate of speech. Furthermore, Krashen contends that natural, communicative, roughly-tuned, comprehensible input is more advantageous than adjusted input that is deliberately aimed at  $i+1$ .

In a nutshell, teacher talk is considered as a vital source of input to learners. Features of teacher talk such as corrective feedback, error correction and questioning techniques played a role in “reducing the syntactic complexity of input” (Chaudron, 1988).

The Input Hypothesis has also its share of criticism. One of the widely agreed on criticism, is the conceptualization of learner’s current level and the determination of the learner’s higher level. McLaughlin (1987, p.19) argues that the concept of a learner’s level is hard to define, just as the idea of “ $i+1$ ”. These “unknown structures” makes it hard and seemingly vague to determine what constitutes as “comprehensible input” for learners’ current level and what triggers their development. This led to considering Krashen’s work as poorly grounded lacking empirical evidence and relying on “intuition” and not verified by scientific research (Lightbown & Spada 1999. qtd in Al Ghazali ,2006). Similarly, Glew (1998, p. 01) posits that comprehensible input is “an insufficient condition for second language acquisition to occur”. This means that providing simplified input to learners may become redundant and it may be having a counter effect on acquisition (Musumeci,1996. qtd in Walsh ,2006, p.20).

Additionally, White (1987, p.101) contends that the concept of “simplified input” is “misguiding”. That is to say Comprehensible Input does not always mean “caretaker speech” (ibid). In addition, she argues that the Input hypothesis greatly ignores the internally driven aspect of language acquisition regardless the context or the meaning.

In the same line of thought, Swain criticized the input hypothesis on the grounds that it ignores the role of learners' production in the second language acquisition/ learning process. She suggested that input was not the only element that plays a significant part in language acquisition. In fact, verbal production was also needed in order to enhance accuracy and fluency in L2 acquisition and learning.

### 1.4.3. The Output Hypothesis (1985-1995)

Due to the shortcomings of the previous theory, Swain attempted to rectify the limitations Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis. In 1985, she introduced a counter hypothesis to that of Krashen's: The Output hypothesis.

The output Hypothesis was formulated based on a Swain's study on French immersion programs in Canada. In the study, Swain has shown that despite the fact that students have received comprehensible input in French, they were not able to grasp and acquire its grammatical structures. This showed that students' syntactic acquisition of the target language was not fully achieved. Hence, according to Swain (1985) ,the idea that input was the sole factor of SLA was invalid . Arguably, Swain introduced another factor that should be taken into consideration: the "Comprehensible Output". This served as the basis for Swain's Output Hypothesis.

Swain does not refute the role of input of language learning. However; she argues that is insufficient for successful L2 process. In fact, she stresses the effect of production.

In this vein, Swain (2005, p.471) claims that "*the act of producing language (speaking and writing) constitutes, under certain circumstances, part of the process of second language learning*". This means that producing language (whether in an oral form or written one) is a factor that helps in L2 learning.

In this light, Swain postulates that the Output hypothesis is *“the need for a learner to be pushed toward the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately”* (Swain, 1985, p. 246). In fact, she asserts that the act of “pushing” learners to produce messages that are comprehensible, i.e, syntactically and socially appropriate .This is due to the fact the *“Negotiating meaning needs inappropriate language. Negotiating meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed toward the delivery of a message”* (Swain,1985,p.248).

Admittedly, it is argued that in the process of meaning negotiation; learners are pushed to produce language. That is to say, they move from semantic (top-down) to syntactic (bottom-up) processing with little syntactic analysis of the input (Tavakoli, 2013, p.256). This will promote automatization in use and language fluency.

Swain identifies three features of the “Output hypothesis”:

➤ ***Noticing Function***

It refers to the act of recognizing some linguistic problems that learners have in the process of producing language. Through the act of producing, they notice the “gap” between their current knowledge of the target language in terms of form or function and the actual usage of these elements of the target language.

Swain and Lapkin (1995) asserted that *this awareness triggers cognitive processes that have been implicated in second language learning in which learners generate linguistic knowledge which is new for them, or which consolidate their current existing knowledge”*.

### ➤ *Hypothesis Testing Function*

Swain (2005) noted that Output may be seen as a “*trial run*” from the learner’s perspective. This occurs as a result of communication breakdown; when the learner is “forced” to reformulate the utterance (Tavakoli,2013, p.257). This means that when learners engage in a process of negotiated interaction, they tend to experiment and “*test*” linguistic forms that are more likely to achieve successful communication. This view is supported by many researchers (Pica, 1989; Gass,1997; Loewen, 2002) who agreed that through the process of meaning negotiation and feedback, learners develop analytical awareness and proficiency in target language.

### ➤ *Metalinguistic (reflective) Function*

It claims that using language to reflect on language produced by others or the self, mediates second language learning (Swain ,2005). It posits that in the process of interaction with others (whether the teacher or native speakers); learners acquire language in collaboration with others. Through this process of meaning negotiation and social interaction, the learner develops his linguistic performance.

This means that production of language provides opportunities for learners to reflect on their language forms and eventually grasp the target language forms.

### **1.4.4. The Interaction Hypothesis**

The Interaction Hypothesis was formulated by American linguist Michael Long (1981). Its theoretical pillars are primarily found in Hatch’s (1978) discourse analytical study on the role of interaction on L2 development and to a greater extent Krashen’s Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (1977) . In fact, Long’s study in 1981 was an attempt to develop Krashen’s theory and extend its scope. According to Long, Language development



is promoted through the process of face-to-face interaction and communication. Furthermore, Comprehensible Input is a necessary factor in Second Language Acquisition. Besides; modified interactional strategies were instrumental in ensuring better communicative opportunities.

In his introduction of the Interaction Hypothesis, Long (1981) offers a distinction between *linguistic modifications* and *interactive modifications*. He posits that these modifications or adjustments are manifested in the process of interaction between NS and NNS. According to Long (1981), the following interactive modifications employed so as to achieve more conducive and facilitative SLA:

- Topics are treated simply and briefly as compared to NS talk to NSs (NT).
- Topics are dropped unexpectedly and shifted to accommodate miscommunications by the NNS.
- Topics initiated in FT are signaled by additional stress, left dislocation, intrasentential pauses, question forms as topic initiators, and frames (i.e., "ok," "well").

(cited in Hall and Verplase ,2000, p.3)

These modifications are found “in all cases of the successful acquisition of a full version of SL” (Long,1981, p. 275). They are considered as interactional strategies to provide a “comprehensible input” to the interlocutors, i.e convey meaning and accommodate communication between the participants.

In fact, the degree of input “comprehensibility” lies in the communicative strategies that interlocutors use when they are interacting. Put simply, when participants engage in a process of *meaning negotiation*; communication breakdowns may occur. This allows space for interactional adjustments made by the interlocutor to convey their meaning. These

adjustments include phonological, syntactical and interactional features such as slowing down speech, requests for clarifications or repair of speech.

The notion of *Meaning negotiation* is highly regarded by Long. As Long (1996) puts it: “negotiation of meaning ... facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capabilities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways” (pp. 451-452). This can be seen in the process of “noticing” which occurs due to communication breakdowns. Moreover, Feedback –which is a valuable aspect of output- is also integral in the SLA process.

This view is supported by Ellis who posits that:”... **interaction works by connecting input, internal learner capacities, and output via selective attention is obviously a major advance on the early version** “(2008,p. 257).Put differently, interaction guides learner to advancing their language by “restructuring their language production toward greater accuracy and complexity during interactions” (Mackay,2009,p.03). It is also aligned with socio-constructivist theories of language acquisition; it places interaction and communication at the heart of language development process.

### **1.5. Interaction and Foreign Language Teaching**

Throughout the years, research in foreign language education has witnessed a variety of learning theories that were grounded on different cognitive, psychological and social paradigms. Schools of thought like Structuralism and Functionalism had greatly influenced the emergence of a plethora of language teaching methods. In fact, these schools of thought have affected the way we perceive language education. In this light, Classroom Interaction witnessed a multitude of pedagogic requirements starting from the Grammar Translation Method until the Communicative Language Teaching method.

### 1.5.1. The Grammar Translation Method

Also called “*The Classical Method*”, the Grammar Translation Method (henceforth GTM) emerged in the 19<sup>th</sup> Century due to the constant need of translating Classical languages mainly Latin and Greek. Its main aim was to help students’ read and appreciate foreign literature. This was done through a process of a direct translation of the grammar of the target language in their native language with the goal of familiarizing students with the linguistic structures of the target language ( Sarsody et al, 2006,p.11).

Basically, GTM entails three main pedagogical goals: Translating grammar of the target language, studying conjugations of the target language through a process of comparative approach and memorizing chunks of vocabulary words related to the target language. Put simply, the basic tenets of this method are:

- Characteristic *interaction* in the teaching process is a student – teacher interaction.
- *Teacher’s roles* are very traditional; the teacher is *the authority* in the classroom.
- *Passive* vocabulary and grammar are emphasized at the cost of pronunciation.
- Reading and writing are the primary skills and much less attention is given to speaking and listening.
- The language that is used in class is mostly the students’ native language; the meanings of new words are made clear by translating them into the students’ native language.
- *Error correction* is very important; the teacher always supplies the students with the correct answer. (Larsen Freeman, 2000, p.14)

Thus, we can deduce that the GTM had little attention to the interactional environment in the class. In fact, the ability to communicate was not a goal for this method

(Larsen Freeman,2000, p.16). Accordingly, the nature of interaction in the classroom followed a rigid regime; a teacher fronted teaching style where the teacher is *the authority* in the classroom. Hence, the teacher automatically monopolizes the interaction in the classroom by providing his students with excessive vocabulary, error correction and constant grammatical drills. Consequently, there are little learners' initiatives and little student-student interaction (**ibid: 18**)

### 1.5.2. The Direct Method

The Direct Method emerged due to the shortcomings of the previous method. The GTM was not preparing students to be effective users of the target language. Conversely, the main goal of the Direct Method is **communication**.

The Direct Method is strongly based on the natural approach to language teaching. As its name implies, its main premise was to immerse students in the target language by *directly* conveying the meaning in the target language through the use of demonstrations and visual aids, with no recourse to the students' native language ( Diller,1978.Qtd in Larsen Freeman, 2000, p.23).

The principles of this method are:

- The initiation of *the interaction* goes both ways, from teacher to students and from students to teacher although the latter is often teacher-directed, at the same time student-student interaction is used as well.
- The teacher and the students are more like *partners* in the teaching/learning process.
- Lessons should contain some *conversation activity* – some opportunity for students to use language in real contexts.

- Students should be *encouraged to speak* as much as possible.
- The teacher tries to get students to self-correct whenever possible.
- Work on all four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) occurs from the start, oral communication is seen as basic
- The teacher should demonstrate not explain or translate (Vadnay et al ,2006,p. 12)

As opposed to the previous method, the interaction pattern in the Direct Method includes student-student interaction. It goes both ways, from teacher to students and from students to teacher. In fact; students' mutual communication is praised and encouraged. However, the Method maintains that the teacher directed the communicative and interactive environment of the classroom.

### 1.5.3. The Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-Lingual Method appeared in the United States in the Second World War after the growing need for communicating in the target language for military purposes. Based on a behaviorist view of language learning, the Audio-Lingual Method emphasized teaching through a process of habit formation –helping students to respond correctly to stimuli through shaping and reinforcement (Larsen Freeman, 2000, p.35). In addition, learners were trained to “*over learn*”. *That is* to answer automatically to verbal and non-verbal cues without stopping to think (ibid).

Similar to the previous method; the Audio-Lingual Method allocates the teacher most of the interactive space, giving him more power and decision making. Although there is space for student-to-student interaction through chain drills or dialogues. Most of the interaction is teacher directed and is initiated by him (ibid, p.46). Hence, classroom communication lacks authentic interactive instances.

### 1.5.4. The Silent Way

Despite the relative success of the Audio-Lingual Method. The rigid automatic way of learning the target language posed a serious problem to its learners: Students were not able to engage in authentic communicative situations a part from the chunks of languages they memorized. Furthermore, the behaviorist approach to language learning was greatly challenged by cognitive theorists mainly Noam Chomsky. He refuted the idea of learning through habit formation and he believed that learners possess an internal knowledge of abstract rules which will allow them to create their own utterances.

In this light, Caleb Gettegno's Silent way suggested that teaching should be subordinated to learning (Larsen Freeman,2000,p.54). This means that teaching serves as a facilitator to the learning process not the dominator and the decision maker. Here, learners are projected to "new" contexts and they are responsible for their own learning through mobilizing their inner resources such as perception, awareness, cognition, imagination, creativity and intuition (ibid:55).

With regards to classroom interaction. This approach implies a certain pattern of interaction; since the teacher is seen as a technician or engineer who creates an educational climate that is conducive for learners' autonomy. Hence, in Gettegno's words the teacher is required "*to work with the students and students' work on the language*" (qtd in Larsen Freeman,2000, p.65). To achieve this end student-student verbal interaction is desirable while teacher silence is encouraged to provide larger dialogic space for learners.

### 1.5.5. Suggestopedia

This method was based on affective –humanistic approach to language learning. Suggestopedia<sup>2</sup> stemmed from a naturalistic view of language learning in which the teacher provides the appropriate learning environment to his/her learners. Basically, this method entails the use a plethora of enjoyable teaching strategies which aims at lowering learners' *affective filter*. The latter is perceived as an influential factor for creating or hindering learning attainment. Thus, the main goal is to overcome the psychological barriers that learners set up when learning a language. In this view, Georgi Lazanov – the Bulgarian psychotherapist who developed this method of learning asserts that learning is optimized when it is in a “*desuggestive*” environment where learners are stimulated through a wide range of fine arts like music, drama and many other entertaining activities.

The premise of this method entails for interaction in the classroom to be somehow light and amusing. At first, the teacher initiates the interaction while learners can respond either verbally or non-verbally. Along with learners' language development, they are given more interactional space and communication opportunities. Moreover, they are encouraged and praised to initiate the interaction in the classroom in any preferable manner whether student-student or student-teacher pattern.

### 1.5.6. Total Physical Response

This method emerged under the influence of the growing research in the 1960's and 1970's. At that time, it was believed that learning begins with an extensive comprehension stage and it is followed by production stage (Winitiz,1982 qtd in Larsen Freeman 2000).

This theory, also known as “the comprehension approach” gave birth to a multitude of

---

<sup>2</sup> It is originally called Desuggestopedia to refer to the concept of “desuggestive learning”. Nonetheless, the terms: Suggestopedia and Desuggestopedia are used interchangeably and both of them can be found in scholarly works.

teaching methods mainly Total Physical Response. The latter was developed by James Asher, who theorized that adults learn a foreign language the same way children acquire their mother tongue.

Under this method, the students are exposed to the target language, they are provided with visual artifacts such as pictures, cards or videos to facilitate the linguistic retention process. Similarly, they are required to respond physically to teachers' command such as "sit down", "get up", "turn around".

In this light, interactive patterns in the classroom may vary in parallel to the development of the linguistic and the communicative competence of the learners. At first, the teacher is considered of the **director** of teachers' behavior, he initiates the interaction and the learners respond nonverbally to his commands. Later on, learners are provided with interactional space. They initiate the interaction verbally and the teacher responds nonverbally.

### 1.5.7. The Communicative Approach

As its name implies, the communicative approach is based on the belief that *communication* is the most appropriate vehicle through which language acquisition and development take place. Although cognitive and natural approaches to learning language are acknowledged, educational theorists have noticed that there is another extension to learning a language that is beyond mere vocabulary and grammar. They emphasized on the social dimension of learning a language; social functions such as arguing persuading and promising are carried out through communicating with language. Thus, developing learners' communicative and interactional competence was at the heart of the communicative approach.



This can be done through creating a content-based, holistic, intercultural and learner-centered communicative classroom (Sarsody et al 2006, p. 23). In such classroom, learners are provided with authentic materials from the target language such as music, videos, brochures. Furthermore, they are also given communicative activities such as games, role plays and problem-solving tasks (Larsen freeman,2000, p.30).

This paradigm shift from linguistic structure-centered approach to a communicative approach had its impact on the nature of interaction in the classroom. Therein, the teacher is perceived as a *facilitator* and a *co-communicator*. *There* is more freedom in the interactional space; The teacher introduces the lesson and learners can initiate different patterns of interaction, i.e., student-student interaction, student –teacher interaction. Learners are given more interactive opportunities since communication is a primary goal of this method.

### **1.5.8. The Competency based Approach**

Competency based education surged in the 1970's in the United States where it was used for vocational training programs. Later on, it gained popularity in Europe in the 1980's and in Australia in the 1990's to measure professional skills (Griffith, 2014).

The competency-based approach (henceforth CBA) was developed on the premise that learning takes place when learners' needs are analyzed and addressed. Learners' needs constitute the focal point of the approach. Hence, the syllabus, activities and pedagogical tasks are built according to learners' learning progress and not on teachers' time bound syllabus.

The CBA is an immersive approach. Put simply, it seeks to involve the learners in real world problems in order to foster their critical thinking skills. Another characteristic of

the CBA is that it has a social constructivist driven methodology. It supports a collaborative learning environment that is characterized by constant interactions with the teacher and the learner and providing hands on experiences.

Furthermore, the CBA 's focal point is built on measurable and usable knowledge in which the learner actively takes part in developing his own skills and abilities. The Competency based approach places the learner at the heart of the learning process, it makes him a partner and a co constructor of his knowledge.

In the EFL context, the Competency based approach or Competency based language teaching has gained momentum since its introduction in the 1970's. The major focus on language education has shifted from knowing about the language to doing with the language. This means that language teaching put emphasis on the functional and the interactional nature of the language (Richards & Rodgers,2001, p.143). In other words, learners should be able to use the target language in real social contexts. Hence; learning should be linked to a social context in order to assimilate the targeted language skills.

In view of what all has been mentioned, one may observe the prominent role of social interaction within the CBA. In fact, it is one of the main pillars for a successful teaching/learning process.

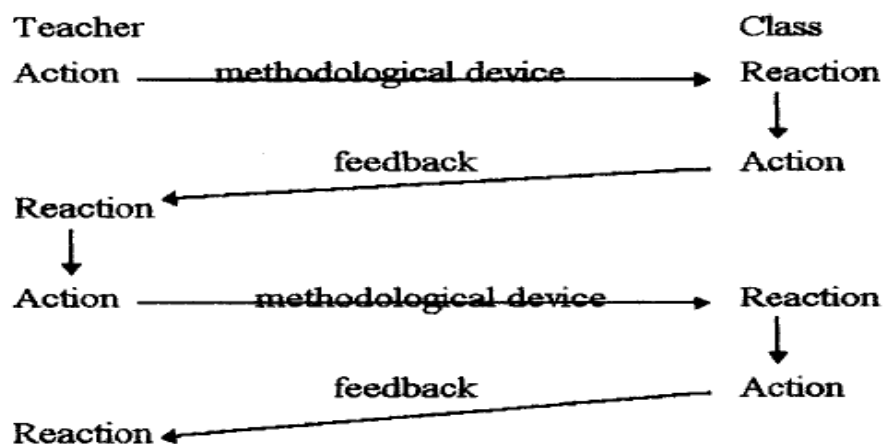
Here, the teacher is considered as a guide; his role is to integrate learners in problem solving situations, stimulate their thinking skills and guide them through their learning process. Thus, there appears to be a dynamic pattern of classroom interaction; the learning process will ideally take place in a process of meaning negotiation, large interactional space for the learners where they are urged to discuss, share and collaborate to construct their knowledge.

**Section two: Interaction in the EFL classroom**

Interaction is a *defacto* construct in the EFL classrooms. It is one of the chief factors that determine the learning environment and educational climate. In addition, it can be a valuable indicator of the extent to which learning opportunities are created or hindered. In this regard, it can be seen as dynamic and an ongoing process that is characterized by a set of patterns and aspects that help researchers or teachers understand and evaluate their classrooms. In this section, a thorough introduction and explanation of these patterns and aspects will be presented and discussed.

**1.6. Patterns of Classroom Interaction**

Teaching is an interactive act. It entails the co-operation and active engagement of its participants: the teacher, the learners. They create an environment that is referred to as “pedagogic interaction” .It is a “continuous, ever-changing process” (Malamah-Thomas, 1987, p.39). It is characterized by reciprocal reaction and negotiation between the teacher and the learners.



**Figure 02: Patterns of Pedagogic interaction in a language classroom**

(Source: Malamah-Thomas 1987:39)

From the above figure, we may observe that there two main patterns of interaction that are taking place: Teacher /Learner or Learner/Learner interaction. Another important pattern in the classroom is Learner/learner interaction.

- **Teacher-Learner Interaction**

Studies in Classroom discourse (Sinclair and Coulthard,1975; Larsen Freeman,1986; Allwright & Bailey,1991) have revealed that teacher-learner interaction is the dominant pattern in the classroom. Whether communicating with a single learner or a group of learners; the teacher performs various tasks through interacting with his learners. These tasks may include: explaining, asking, criticizing, allocating turns, providing feedback and reinforcing knowledge. This interactive domination is ascribed to the fact that teachers are considered as primary providers of comprehensible input in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, it is through teacher /learner interaction that classroom management is established and maintained.

- **Learner/Learner Interaction**

It is another pattern that can be found in the classroom. It takes place in a form of sharing ideas, providing feedback, negotiating and constructing meaning. Educational theorists have often praised the impact of learner/learner interaction socially and cognitively. In this view, Hay et al, 2004, p.195 posit that through interaction learner can: “gain better understanding of the knowledge and become more committed to further learning” (qtd in Costa,2014, p.78). Along similar lines, Nunan (1991) contends that language learning is facilitated when learners are actively involved in interactive communications.

### 1.7. Aspects of Classroom Interaction

Interaction in the classroom is anchored on its main actors: the teacher and the learner besides the act of meaning negotiation. Aspects of Classroom Interaction can be manifested in teachers' talk and students' talk as well as negotiation of meaning.

In this light, Tsui (1995, p.12) identifies three main aspects of Classroom interaction; these aspects include: Teacher Talk, Input and Interaction, Student Talk. Broadly speaking, there are three aspects that are representatives of classroom interaction: Negotiation of meaning, Teacher Talk, Student Talk.

#### 1.7.1. Negotiation of meaning

It is an integral part of interaction. Any communicative event is built on the process of meaning negotiation and making. Negotiation of meaning is a mechanism through which participants arrive at a clear understanding of one another.

According to Ellis (2003, p.346), Negotiation of meaning is “the process by which two or more interlocutors identify and then attempt to resolve a communication breakdown” . Pica (1987, p.200) defines it as “activity that occurs when a listener signals to the speaker that the speaker’s message is not clear and the speaker and listener work linguistically to resolve this impasse”. Thus, negotiation of meaning is a repair-oriented process (Cook,2015, p.250) that aims at facilitating communication between interlocutors. It is a focal aspect of classroom interaction that contributes in enriching classroom communication through the use of “interaction strategies” or “conversational adjustments” (Pica1986 as cited in Tsui,1995, p.98). These interaction strategies include: comprehension checks, clarification requests, repetitions, echo and repairs. Thus, these strategies

characterize the joint-construction of meaning especially in the language classroom. In fact, it is a most common feature in the language classroom.

Hence, strategies of meaning negotiation are used to achieve a multitude of interactional aims. First, the teacher employs these “adjustments” in order to provide favorable learning situations for the learners. This is in line with Krashen’ “comprehensible input” and Long (1996) “interaction hypothesis”. Second, employing strategies is an indicator of positive learning environment. This occurs when the teacher and the learners modify their “output” to create genuine communicative events and thus facilitate language acquisition and learning. In this respect, Foster and Ohta (2005,p.402) posit that “Negotiation [of meaning] is one of a range of conversational processes that facilitate SLA as learners work to understand and express meaning in the L2” (as cited in Hartono,2017,p. 02). Similarly, Swain (1985, p.249) theorizes that during interaction learners are “pushed” to negotiate meaning through the use of interactional strategies. This allows them to convey their message coherently and appropriately. Furthermore, negotiation of meaning provides with corrective feedback. This provides the learners ample opportunities to overcome communication breakdowns in the target language.

### **1.7.2. Teacher Talk**

It is an axiomatic pattern of Classroom Interaction. According to Richards (1992, p.471) Teacher Talk is defined as:

**”that variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching. In trying to communicate with learners, teachers often simplify their speech, giving it many of the characteristics of foreigner talk and other simplified styles of speech addressed to language learners”**

It is the medium through which the teacher performs some specific communicative acts, such as explaining, giving instruction or direction, lecturing and most importantly asking and responding questions. Undeniably, teacher talk (TT) plays an important role in the language classroom. This is because teachers are considered as language input providers and language models for their students. Teacher talk not only” takes up the largest portion of –classroom- talk but also determines *the topic* of talk and *who* talks” (Tsui,1995, p.13).

### 1.7.2.1 Teacher questions

Questions are an inevitable aspect of teacher talk. They are used to check students’ comprehension, to catch their attention and to engage students in the lesson. Several studies on teachers’ questioning behavior indicate that questions constitute 20 to 40 percent of classroom talk (Chaudron 1988 qtd in Tsui,1995, p.23).

Richard and Lockhart (1996, p.185) identify the main reasons for asking questions:

- ✓ They stimulate and maintain students’ interest.
- ✓ They encourage students to think and focus on the content of the lesson.
- ✓ They enable a teacher to clarify what a student has said.
- ✓ They enable a teacher to elicit particular structures or vocabulary items.
- ✓ They enable teachers to check students’ understanding.
- ✓ They encourage student participation in a lesson.

(qtd in Zobrabi *et al*,2014,p. 70)

From the above reasons, we may deduce that teachers’ questions serve several instructional, pedagogical and communicative goals such as stimulating students’ interest, checking their understanding and encouraging participating in the lesson.

There are two main categories of questions; one is concerned with the nature of the questions.i.e., Open and Closed questions. The second category of questions deals with the nature of interaction that is created through Display and Referential questions. Admittedly, each type has its pedagogical goal and all of them affect the quality of the response provided by the learners.

- **Open and Closed questions**

The terms Open and Closed questions refer to “*the amount of built-in’ freedom ‘or scope which the questioner gives the respondent for her/his answer*” (Dalton-Puffer ,2007,p.96).They are called factual and reasoning questions (Barnes 1969 as cited in Tsui, 1995,p.24). These types of questions are classified according to the question word used.

Put simply, questions that start with “what” ,”when”, “who” and “where” are called “Open” or “Factual” questions. They are somehow limited, the answers to these questions have strict modal that should be followed and expected to be learned and considered as a “fact”.

On the other hand, Open questions usually begin by “how” and “why” offer more possibilities of interaction and communication since they are not limited in its scope.

- **Display and Referential questions**

Display questions are simply the ones that the teacher knows the answers to. They are “*knowledge checking*” questions (Long and Sato, 1983). This means that display questions are used to test learners’ knowledge of previously taught studies. In other words, display questions are used for instructional purposes. In other words, through display questions the teacher can assess the extent to which the learner has assimilated the lesson.



However, one of the main negative assets of this type of questions is that they lack interaction, communication and authenticity.

Referential questions are also referred to as information seeking questions. The purpose of using these questions is not to check understanding. They are perceived as more “natural” because they generate genuine communication where the learners are not judged based on the “correctness” of their answers. The teacher does not have prior knowledge of the answer, and he/she is genuinely looking for an answer. Questions such as “where did you spend your holidays?” do not have a pre-determined answer. Content wise, the teacher does not have any judgments or evaluation to it. However, he/she may interfere to correct grammatical mistakes of the learners’ production.

Several studies sought to tackle the dichotomy of using display /referential question in the language classroom. Seminal studies of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Chaudron (1988) have concluded that teachers tend to use display questions more regularly in the classroom as opposed to referential questions. In fact, display questions made up 70% to 90% of all teachers turn initiations in classroom talk (Musumeci 1996, qtd in Dalton-Puffer ,2007, p.96).

In this vein, Tsui offers a neat distinction between display and referential questions. She posits that display questions generate interactions that are typical of didactic discourse, whereas referential questions generate interactions typical of social communication. (1995, p. 28)

### **1.7.2.2. Teachers’ explanation**

Explanation is a vital part of Classroom Talk. In fact, it takes up most of teacher talk. The word explaining is defined as “an attempt to provide understanding of a problem

to others” (Brown& Armstrong 1984.qtd in Tsui,1995, p.31). Hence, the teacher tries to provide an understanding or simplification of an issue to his/her learners. There are two main aspects of Explanation:

- ***Procedural explanation***; it refers to the organizational aspect of the lesson. For example, when the teacher gives instructions about the homework.
- ***Content explanation***: as its name implies, content explanation refers to the subject content of the lesson (Tsui,1995, p.30).

As for effective explanation, it is necessary to “to consider how the problem is explained in relation to the audience” (ibid: 31). This means that teachers have to take into account the level of their students to which they are explaining besides the content they are presenting. Teachers’ explanation may have a constructive or destructive role for learners.

### 1.7.2.3. Teachers’ feedback

Feedback is defined as “*the reactive information that learners receive regarding the linguistic and communicative success or failure of their utterances*” (Mackey,2007, p.14).

Feedback can be manifested in a variety of kinds or modes; it can be oral, written and non-verbal. Each of these kinds is used depending on the pedagogical goal and the suitable kind of assessment.

Oral Feedback is a vital aspect in classroom interaction. In fact, according to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), it is one of the main constituents of Teacher talk. The latter is made up of three components referred to as the IRF structure (Initiation, *Response*, and *Feedback*).

A plethora of studies have investigated the importance of feedback and its impact on students' performance and achievement. In this light, Hattie (2002) argued that providing feedback is one of the main strategies that teachers should use to improve their students' performance. In addition, Wells (1999) posits that teacher verbal feedback can be “opportunity to extend the student's answer, to draw out its significance , or to make connections with other parts of the students' total experience” (200) . Similarly, Hedge (2000, p.13) stated that “Getting feedback from teacher and from other students in the class enables learners to test hypothesis and refine their developing knowledge of the language system”.

Thus, Feedback can be seen as a valuable tool that supports students' performance and attainment in the EFL classroom. It can be *positive* or *negative*.

- **Positive feedback**

Positive feedback is used to indicated teachers' satisfaction or approval of the learners' desired performance. It is used to assess learners' performance and reinforce it to step forward into their lessons' goal. Positive feedback is beneficial not only to students' performance but also to increase students' motivation and to create favorable learning environment.

Despite the positive effects of teachers' positive feedback on learners' motivation, performance and environment. Many researchers stressed on using it moderately. That is to say, using positive feedback excessively may have a detrimental impact on learners' performance if it is used without a specific purpose, too frequently, or when it is not necessarily deserved (Cannella 1986.qtd in Meyers2017)<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>3</sup> Qtd from an online article in <https://wp.nyu.edu/>

- **Corrective feedback**

Also referred to as negative feedback, corrective feedback is generally defined as "... The teacher's response to a student error" (Dekeyser: 1993 qtd in Véliz ,2008). Put simply, corrective feedback informs the learner of a mishap in his/her output.

A multitude of researchers, Long (1996), Lyster and Ranta (1997), Ellis (2001) Dekeyser (2007) postulate that corrective feedback can be in the form of recasts , confirmation checks, clarification requests ,repetitions, and even paralinguistic signs such as facial expressions.

There are conflicting views apropos the efficacy of corrective feedback in language learning. Some researchers (Doughty *et al*, 1998; Ellis, 1994; Long, 1996; Schmidt, 1995) believed that providing feedback can lead to better SL/FL learning. In fact, Ellis (2001) contends that corrective feedback is an attention seeking tool that prevents fossilization of errors; when used learners "notice" their erroneous forms, they are more inclined to correct their output and assimilate it. Hence, corrective feedback "*helps the learner come to the correct mental representation of the linguistic generalization*" (Krashen (1981, p.06). On the other hand, excessive or random use of corrective feedback can obstruct learners' learning process. It may impact their affective filter causing them to feel hesitant or intimidated to participate or take part in the learning process. Accordingly, Tsui (1995,p.43) posits that :”a teacher who constantly provides negative feedback is bound to create a sense of failure and frustration among students”.

Conversely, implicit feedback is encouraged in the EFL classroom. In their study on Japanese immersions students, Lyster and Mori (2006) contend that **“instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to a classroom’s predominant communicative orientation are likely to prove more effective than**

[those] that are congruent with its predominant communicative orientation” (p. 269).

This clearly shows the usefulness of corrective feedback on the learners.

### 1.7.3. Student Talk

Student talk is a constitutive aspect of classroom interaction. It is the verbal discourse that students use in the classroom to engage in the classroom communication. Student talk can be manifested in participating in the interaction by answering to teachers’ questions or commands, making comments or discussing ideas. This is a positive indicator for learners’ involvement in the classroom. In fact, “when students respond to the teacher’s or their fellow students’ questions, raise queries and give comments, they are actively involved in the negotiation of comprehensible input, which is essential to language acquisition” (Tsui,1995, p.81).

Studies have always stressed the importance of maximizing learners’ interactional space so they could have more opportunities to be engaged in the communication and improve their linguistic and communicative skills in the target language. Wilhelm (2014) contends that discussions facilitate moving students away from strictly absorbing the material and into becoming meaning makers (as cited in Imberston ,2017, p.05).

Nevertheless, classroom discourse analytical studies (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, Nunan 1987, Allwright and Bailey 1991) have revealed a disproportionate distribution of classroom talk. They indicated a considerable decrease of student talk in comparison to teacher talk especially in teacher fronted classrooms (only 30% student talk). Tsui (1995) espouses low student talk or “student reticence” to low achievement, language learning anxiety and even cultural factors.

### 1.8. Classroom Interaction and discourse

It goes without saying that discourse is the vehicle that brings interaction to life. Through discourse lessons are delivered, meaning is constructed and relationships are established. In the EFL classroom, discourse holds great importance in the teaching/learning process. This is because” *interaction which takes place in the EFL classroom has language both as the topic and the medium of class communication*” Tsui (1995, p.12). Therefore, it is self-evident that discourse -being a component in the interaction process- will be tackled in the remainder of the thesis.

Classroom discourse broadly refers to all forms of talk that can be found within a classroom or any educational setting (jokuns 2013 cited in Sert 2015,p.14) . It is “an intricate sociocultural process that involves techniques of meaning construction in the development of students’ social identities” (Clark and Clark qtd in Al-Smadi 2017). Broadly speaking, classroom discourse can be defined as a set of verbal and non-verbal exchanges that take place in the classroom for instructional purposes. It is the vehicle through which processes of meaning negotiation and making are accomplished. Put simply, it is through classroom discourse that the teaching/learning process is taking place.

In this light, Sert (2015, p.09) clearly elucidates the relationship between classroom interaction and discourse. He defines classroom discourse as “the collection and representation of socio-interactional practices that portray the emergence of teaching and learning of a new language through teachers’ and students’ co construction of understanding and knowledge in and through the use of language-in interaction” (Sert, 2015,p.09).

According to Walsh (2006), there are four common features of classroom discourse that represent a large part of the interaction that occurs within the classroom.

These features are:

- a. Teachers' control of the interaction
- b. Speech modification
- c. Elicitation
- d. Repair

### **1.8.1. Teachers' control of the interaction**

Due to the disproportionate distribution of power relations in the classroom that exist between the learners and the teachers, the teacher being the authority and knowledge figure and learners as receptors and conformable actors of the teacher's instruction. Teachers monopolize the communicative patterns in the classrooms (Walsh ,2013, p.29).

Put differently; teachers are responsible for managing and directing the course of interaction in their classrooms. In other words, teachers 'orchestrate the interaction' (Breen,1998, p.119). Mostly through the way they restrict or allow learners' interaction (Ellis 1998 qtd in Walsh,2006, p.5) .This can be done by managing the topic of conversation, allocating turn taking bids and directing students' responses.

This characteristic was extensively studied and discussed by many researchers. In fact, one the widely acknowledged studies on teachers' monopoly of discourse was presented by Sinclair and Coulthard in 1975 .In this study, Sinclair and Coulthard coined the acronym IRE which stands for Initiation, Response and Evaluation .These were identified as three main "moves" that governed the discursive exchanges in the classroom.

In the same line of thought, Chaudron 1988 posits that two-thirds of classroom talk is taken over by the teacher. Musumeci (1996) suggests that teacher talk monopoly over classroom talk prevails for multiple reasons. They involve teachers' and learners' assumptions about questioning and answering routines, the issue of "floor monopoly" due to asymmetrical power relations between the teacher and the learner (qtd in Walsh 2006:06). This means that "*teachers control both the content and the procedure of the learning process*" (Walsh 2006:06). Put differently, teachers manage turn allocation bids, and learners' participation through providing cues to their learners (Cazden 1986:54).

In addition to teachers' *control* of classroom discourse. Walsh (2006:07) contends that teachers also help in creating a specific type of *linguistic code*. This means that teachers' language use helps to create pedagogical and content registers.

### 1.8.2. Speech modification

It is a prominent attribute in the classroom discourse. Teachers used different verbal and non-verbal cues to facilitate the learning process for better meaning making process. In fact, they use a "restricted code" (walsh, 2013, p. 31) such as using a slower, louder, repetitive tone along with other non-verbal cues such as gestures and facials expressions that convey meaning in an accessible way. This would eventually facilitate learning, model language and create conducive learning opportunities. Speech modification has an integral role in fostering participation in the classroom because it "**ensures that learners feel safe and minimizes breakdowns and misunderstandings and creates a sense of purposeful dialogue in which a group of learners is engaged in a collective way**" (Walsh, 2013, p.33).



In this vein, Chaudron (1988) identified four speech modifications' facets that teachers deploy when delivering their lessons; these modifications occur at the level of:

- **Vocabulary** : using simplified vocabulary and avoid employing idiomatic phrases
- **Grammar:** using short, simple utterances besides using the present tense in their language.
- **Pronunciation:** the kind of speech that is used by teachers is slower, clearer and more articulate in addition to the use of widespread use of standard forms.
- **Non verbal cues:** they include para-linguistic features such as gestures and facial expressions.

These modifications are considered to be clear representatives of teacher's language use in the classroom. However, Chaudron (1988, p. 157) concludes from his analysis that:

**Although more research is clearly called for, with more explicit tests of syntactic complexity in L2 listening comprehension, the current results do not look promising. The other factors involved in simplification of input, namely, elaborations by the way of redundancy - restatements, repetition, synonyms, and so on - need to be more extensively examined.**

In this light, Cullen (2002) identifies four features in teachers' language; Reformulations, Elaborations, Repetitions, Comments. According to him these are vital strategies which aim conveying their lessons and create a meaningful interaction between teachers and students. (as cited in De Bartolo,2004, p. 07). In the same vein, Tardif (1994) identifies five language strategies; they include linguistic modeling, expanding utterances, the use of extensive elicitation and questioning, and providing related contextual information. (as cited in Walsh, 2006).

Tsui (1995) postulates that there are some modifications that teachers use to get their input more “comprehensible”. They include modification of questions (comprehension-oriented and response-oriented). In addition, she contends that teachers use modification devices in interaction such as confirmation checks, clarification requests, repetition requests, decomposition<sup>4</sup>, comprehension checks and self-repetition.

In this light, Walsh (2013) asserts that the modifications strategies that teachers deploy are not accidental; they are used deliberately for a number of reasons: Firstly, Teachers modify their speech to get their messages across. This is because “*it is unlikely that learners will progress if they do not understand their teacher.*” (ibid: 31). Secondly, teachers model language for their learners in order to provide appropriate exposure opportunities in the target language. Thirdly, learners tend to get “lost in the “rapid flow” of the discourse. Thus, speech modifications aim at helping students “navigate” the discourse by using several strategies such as repeating, seeking clarifications and the like.

Thus, we can conclude that speech modification strategies clearly indicate the relationship between language use and pedagogic purpose. Several studies (Nunan, 1991; Richards Lockhart, 1994; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991) have investigated the strategies used by teachers to modify their speech, the role of these features in providing “comprehensible input” and their impact on facilitating comprehension and shaping the classroom discourse.

### 1.8.3. Elicitation techniques

Elicitation is defined as “a procedure by which teachers stimulate students to produce sample of the structure, function, and vocabulary item being taught” (Nunan,

---

<sup>4</sup> Decomposition means breaking up the initial question into several questions, making it easier for the other speaker to respond to it (Tsui 1995 :67)

1999, p. 306). Walsh (2013) defines Elicitation techniques as 'strategies used by teachers to get learners to respond. Elicitation techniques entail questioning (whether display or referential). They serve different functions such as checking understanding, guiding learners towards a particular response, promoting involvement and concept checking (ibid: 34). In addition, strategic pausing, student-directed activities, using visuals are also elicitation strategies that teachers employ in the classroom.

Studies on the relationship between elicitation techniques and language learning show that elicitation helps in: generating information, increasing students' participation and greater students' cognitive development (Nathan and Kim, 2007).

### 1.8.4. Repair

The concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics defines repair as “any form of behavior in which speakers correct themselves, or correct what other speakers have said, or query it, or clarify what they or someone else has said, and so on “. It is a prominent feature in classroom discourse. In fact, Van Lier (1988) notes that, ‘apart from questioning, the activity which most characterizes language classrooms is correction of errors (qtd in (Walsh, 2013, p.36).

In this vein, Schegloff et al. (1977, p .361) defined repair as dealing with “recurrent problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding.”. That is to say repair is the way teachers deal with communication breakdowns in order to “*gain better understanding*” (Schegloff ,1997).

Research on repair surged in the field of conversation analysis. Jefferson (1974), Schegloff (1977) and Sacks (1977) conducted research on naturally occurring conversation. They have proposed four types of repair (,i.e. error correction) .They include

self-initiation self-repair other-initiation self-repair, other initiation other repair, repetition, paraphrase, confirmation checks, clarification requests and comprehension checks .

The impact of Repair on the learners has been the subject of debate for many scholars. Many educators and scholars believe that repair has a negative impact on learners' affective filter and communication flow.

On the other hand, proponents of repair refute the idea that repair is a “face threatening act”. Seedhouse, for example, posits that “making linguistic errors and having them corrected directly and overtly is not an embarrassing matter “ (1997, p. 571) .In addition Repair is considered as a necessary means to avoid learners' errors' fossilization. Furthermore, Repair is an integral part of the learning process.

Conversely, Walsh averts the focus on repair from a polar point of view. He argues *that:” rather than deciding whether we should or should not correct errors, teachers would do well to consider the appropriacy of a particular strategy in relation to their intended goals”* (2013:36). This means that teachers should adopt strategies that are more conducive for learning opportunities.

### **1.9. The importance of interaction in the EFL classroom**

It is generally accepted that learning a language is a social activity (Brown, 2001). In the EFL classroom, learning a language is conducted through a set of discursive and interactive exchanges taking place between the teacher and the learners. Constructivist theories of education have accentuated the role of interaction as a catalyst for the acquisition and development of language. In this regard, Allwright (1984) posits that “successful management of the interaction [is] the *sine que non* of classroom pedagogy” (159). This reveals the reflexive relationship between interaction and pedagogy.

Accordingly, it is acknowledged that quality interaction “affords learners time to reflect on their output, identify gaps their linguistic knowledge and ‘notice’ features of new language in relation to what has been acquired already “ ( Schmidt ,1993; Thornbury 1999 as cited in Walsh 2006:30). Basically, classroom interaction provides learning opportunities for learners to acquire linguistic and discursive strategies in the target language. In this regard, Hedge (2000:13) stressed the utility of interaction in pushing learners to produce more accurate and appropriate language. In addition, it also affords discursive space for the learners to “test” their output. This is done through allowing comprehensible input, interactional feedback, and opportunities for negotiation for meaning (Gass and Mackey 2007; Long 1996).

Therefore, interaction acts as a mediator between teachers’ input and learners’ intake. It is safe to say that classroom interaction can be perceived as a facilitator to language acquisition or as “enabling factor” that provides learning opportunities for the learners (Malamah-Thomas ,1987, p. 7).

### **1.10. Approaches to Classroom Interaction research**

Educational research has always sought to discern the underlying mechanisms that guide the teaching/learning process. As a matter of fact, a focus on classroom interaction as a field in inquiry was conducted from different research paradigm. Each research paradigm offered a new “vantage point” for researchers to understand the complexities of social interaction in the classroom. Whether it is based on an interpretivist or a positivist approach, classroom-based research continues to offer new insights into how institutional talk can create and foster learning opportunities.

Broadly speaking, there are three main approaches to classroom interaction research. These approaches fall in the classroom-based research spectrum. They highlight the interplay between discourse, pedagogy and learning. These approaches include: Discourse Analysis, Interaction Analysis and Conversation Analysis.

### 1.10.1. Discourse Analysis

Studies of discourse can be traced back to the works of the American Linguist Zellig Harris. His scholarly paper "Discourse Analysis" which was published in 1952 was a groundbreaking research in the field of discourse studies and paved the way for discourse analytical research. In fact, the term "Discourse" was first used by Zellig Harris. Nevertheless, it should be noted that current discourse-based works have taken a completely different turn from that of Zellig (Mc Carthy, 1991, p.5).

The late 1960 can be considered as a rising era of discourse-based research. A great deal of attention was directed towards investigating the discursive exchanges that had been taking place within different social contexts such as courtrooms and professional settings. Discourse-based research has found its place in the educational context after a rising surge of the post-method era. During that time, readymade teaching methods were found to be somehow ineffective. Thus, a focus has shifted towards the natural occurring discourse that took place in the classrooms and shaped the teaching/ learning process.

In this light, scholars viewed the classroom as a social context with its defining rules and standards. A micro-community with two main participants involved: the teacher and the learner; both of them being partners in the process of exchanging discourse.

Consequently, the classroom became an interesting subject for investigating and analyzing discourse. This has generated a generation of scholars whose main concern is to study "the interactional architecture of the classroom" (Seedhouse, 2004,p.15).

Despite the disparity of their discourse-based research interests, Scholars as Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Sacks (1974) , Allwright and Bailey (1991) Tsui (1995) can be considered the founding fathers of discourse-based research.

### 1.10.2. Interaction Analysis

Interaction analysis is an observational scheme used to capture verbal communication that is taking place in the classroom. It offers a systematic description, analysis and measurement of teacher's and learners' verbal behavior. Contrary to other analytical approaches, Interaction analysis uses a set of categories to classify, encode and analyze verbal exchanges between the teacher and the learners inside the classroom.

Interaction analysis was first introduced by Flanders in 1970 as an attempt to “look at classroom language to see what it can reveal about teaching and learning processes” (Malamah-Thomas, 1987, p. 20). Thus, it is based on the assumption that the language used by the teacher and the students is an indicative of the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

Interaction Analysis utilizes a set of categories to describe and “quantify” classroom behavior. It includes a descriptive system that encompasses the teacher's and students' interactional exchanges. In fact, there are ten descriptive categories in Flanders' Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) . They are mostly related to the socio-emotional climate of the classroom.

Flanders' interaction analysis system has established a tradition in classroom-based research. It was followed by many attempts to expand to improve the classroom interaction analysis arena. In this regard, Bowers (1980) suggested a “less cumbersome” instrument in the interaction analysis tradition. It was based categorizing classroom language into

“moves”. These are basically acts for social or organizational purposes such as responding, sociating, directing, presenting and evaluating.

TALOS or the Target Language Observation Scheme is another analytical system with the interaction analysis spectrum. It is based on linguistic and substantive categorization of language data. Apropos the linguistic side, TALOS encompasses the formal properties of the language such as Sound, word, Phrase and Discourse. Furthermore, the substantive category deals with the content of the instruction such as Grammar and Culture.

All in all, Interaction analysis is a research orientation used to capture and describe different dimensions of teacher and learners’ verbal and non-verbal exchanges in the classroom.

### **1.10.3. Conversation analysis**

Conversation Analysis (CA henceforth) is an approach to the study of social interaction. It is the systematic analysis of talk-in-interaction, i.e, normal everyday talk.

The history of conversation Analysis can be traced back to the 1960’s .In fact, the field of CA was first incepted by the seminal works of Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson .These American social scientists had an interest in examining salient features in conversation such as Turn Taking and Repair .Their groundbreaking paper “A Simplest Systematics for the Organization of Turn-Taking for Conversation.”(1974) laid the ground for a profound an empirical study on features of talk-in-interaction; it also caught the attention of specialists in the study of language (Sidnell 2016). CA approach became an influential empirical sphere in a number of fields such as Sociology, Linguistics and Communication.



Broadly speaking, CA is defined as a “field of sociology concerned with the norms, practices and competences underlying the organization of social interaction” (as cited in Heritage 2001). In the same line of thought .CA aims to “discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of actions are generated” (Hutchby & Wooffitt ,1988 qtd in Heritage ,2001). Put simply, CA speakers’ verbal and non-verbal conduct in light of a co-construction enterprise (Atkinson and Heritage ,1986).

In the field of language education, CA was used a qualitative research methodology geared towards investigating classroom discourse. Since the works of Firth and Wagner’s (1997) , CA has placed itself as a leading approach to the study of social interaction in the classroom.

Conversation analysts seek to unveil the relationship between pedagogy and interaction through adopting an emic analytical framework. The latter puts emphasis on the interactional management of the conversation employed by the participants. That is the interactional aspects of institutional talk such: topic management, Turn taking, Adjacency pairs and Repair.

The Relevance of Conversation Analysis in SL/FL language educational research emerged from the premise that in language classrooms language was both the vehicle and object of the instruction. Thereby, a thorough analysis of the unfolding interactional instances that take place in the classroom serve as the basis of understanding “the interactional architecture” of the classroom (Seedhouse,2004).

### 1.11. Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher has presented the conceptual and theoretical framework of the research. It is divided into two main sections: section one was directed towards interaction and its concomitant theories such as Social Constructivism, the Input hypothesis and other second/foreign language acquisition theories. Furthermore, the researcher has reviewed foreign language teaching methods from an interactional point of view. In addition, the researcher has delved into the details of interaction in the EFL classroom considering its aspects, patterns and approaches to its inquiry. In addition, a thorough analysis of how interaction was perceived and conducted is presented in order to better approach the construct of classroom interaction in the EFL context. In the second section, the researcher has presented a theoretical overview of Classroom interaction in the EFL classroom.

**Chapter Two:**  
**Teachers' attitudes, beliefs and Practices**

## **Chapter two: Teacher attitudes, beliefs and practices**

### **2.1. Introduction**

### **2.2. Section one: Attitudes**

#### **2.2.1 Defining attitudes**

#### **2.2.3. Attitude structure**

#### **2.2.4. Components of attitudes**

#### **2.2.5. Functions of attitudes**

##### **2.2.5.1. The utilitarian function**

##### **2.2.5.2. The ego-defensive function**

##### **2.2.5.3 The value-expressive function**

#### **2.2.6 The knowledge function**

### **2.3. Section two: Beliefs**

#### **2.3.1. Towards an understanding of beliefs**

##### **2.3.1.1. Defining beliefs**

##### **2.3.1.2. Teacher beliefs**

##### **2.3.1.3. Features of beliefs**

#### **2.3.2. Categories of teacher beliefs**

#### **2.3.3. The nature of teacher beliefs**

#### **2.3.4. Dimensions of teacher beliefs**

#### **2.3.5. Research on teacher beliefs**

##### **2.3.5.1. Behaviorist impact on teachers' beliefs research**

##### **2.3.5.2. Cognitivist impact on teachers' beliefs research**

##### **2.3.5.3. Sociocultural impact on teachers' beliefs research**

**2.3.6. The relationship between teachers' beliefs, attitudes and classroom practices**

**2.3.7. Factors affecting teachers' beliefs and practices**

**2.3.8. Conclusion**

## Chapter two

### Teacher beliefs, attitudes and practices

#### 2.1. Introduction

Beliefs are a fundamental concept in every discipline that deals with behavior and learning. Besides learner beliefs, language teachers have beliefs about language learning that may affect their teaching practices and are likely to influence the beliefs of some of their students about language. In addition to learners' beliefs, attitudes are also a concomitant concept related to teachers' epistemological and psychological stance on language teaching and learning. Evidently, they are considered as "the strongest factors through which we can predict the teaching behavior" (Richards, 1998).

The present chapter presents a theoretical compendium about the construct of beliefs, attitudes and their linkage to classroom practices. First, the researcher offers an overview about teachers' attitudes, structures and formation. Moreover, she provides a conceptual framework about teachers' beliefs, their nature, sources and main categories. Finally, the researcher addresses the impact of teachers' beliefs and attitudes on classroom practices and instructional choices.

#### 2.2. Section one: Attitudes

##### 2.2.1. Defining attitude

The concept of attitude can be found in a myriad of disciplines mainly social psychology. This abundance of viewpoints has created a plethora of dissimilar definitions and discussions. Etymologically speaking, the word "attitude" is rooted in the Latin word "*Aptus*" which basically means suitable, appropriate, fitting. According to the Oxford Dictionary (2000, p. 85). Attitude is defined as: **An enduring pattern of evaluative**

**responses towards a person, object, or issue. it is a more or less consistent pattern of affective, cognitive, and conative or behavioural responses (or of feeling, thinking, and behaving) towards a psychological object.** Along the same lines, Hogg & Vaughan (2005, p. 150) define attitude as “a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols”. These definitions suggest that attitude is a complex construct that is established through the interlinkage between a set of affective, conative or behavioral conducts towards objects or people “in a favorable or unfavorable way” (Fishbein ,1967, p.257).

Conversely, Strauss (1945, p. 329) suggested an elaborated description of the term “attitude”, he contends that:

**attitudes in the narrow and more specific sense are essentially motor sets of the organism toward some specific or general stimulus. They rest upon innate stimulus-response patterns as these have become modified, elaborated, and integrated through learning in the social world**

All in all, attitudes are mental, psychological and even social representations that are formed and elaborated through the accumulation of personal and social experiences. These attitudes may have -to some extent- a causal effect on individuals’ responses to facts, events or people.

From an educational perspective, pedagogical attitudes of teachers are considered as an integral variable that can “seriously influence the effective manifestation of knowledge and skills appropriate to teaching profession” ( Andronachea et al ,2014,p. 629).

### 2.2.2. Attitude Structure

An important step towards a better understanding of the term “attitude” is through viewing its structure. There have been different representations of attitude structure which are based on personal conceptualization of attitude. Some theorists believe that attitudes can be perceived by as a simple two-node semantic network (Fabrigar *et al* ,2005, p.81). That is viewing attitude through establishing an object-evaluation association, the first node represents the object, the second one the evaluation of the object (ibid). Whereas, other researcher have identified two main types of attitude structures ( Chaiken ,1993; McGuire,1989) : *Intra-* and *Inter-* attitudinal structures.

*a) Intra-attitudinal structure:*

It refers to the interaction of the different mental elements which together form a single system of attitudes. In other words, when a person encounters an attitude object, he/she may have different responses to it (these responses may be affective, cognitive/or behavioral). Thus, attitude structure may be established based on “solely on the basis of cognitions, whereas others may be the result of solely affective processes (Eagly & Chaiken,1998 as cited in Dinauer ,2003, p.07).

*b) Inter-attitudinal structure:*

It refers to conceptualizing global conceptual systems spanning various fields attitudes and enables the collection, distribution and management of the information contained in attitudes (Dinauer2003:27). A person may have multiple attitudes with respect to a single object (e.g: I am not against Grammar Translation Method but I am against using it in my classroom).



Hence, these attitude structures provide valuable details as to how and why attitudes are established and developed.

### 2.2.3. Components of attitude

There have been various views about the components of attitudes. Each viewpoint is affected by either behaviorist or mentalist schools of thought. Mentalist theories viewed attitudes as a “a state of readiness; an intervening variable between a stimulus affecting a person and that person's response» (Garcia and Cruz ,1997, p. 188). Hence, that “intervening variable” was identified by scholars as the cognitive or the affective component. On the other hand, behaviorist theories viewed attitudes “can be inferred from the responses that an individual makes to social situations “ (McKenzie, 2010,p.21). In this regard, the behavioral component was perceived as the sole determinant of attitudes.

On the other hand, some researchers have adopted a triadic viewpoint of attitudes which are cognitive, affective and behavioral components. It is also referred to as the ABC model by Ostrom model (1969) (Affective, behavioral and cognitive ) , CAC model by Schiffman and Kanauk (2004 ( Cognitive, affective and Conative) or Tripartite Model (Baron &Byrme 1984).

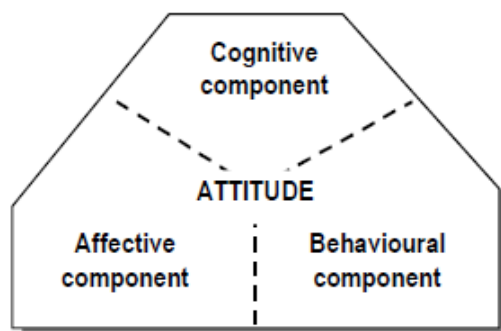


Figure 02.01 : The Tripartite Attitude Model (Oppenheim 1992 in Alias 2002)

In essence, these models view attitude as “relatively lasting clusters of feelings, beliefs, and behavioral tendencies directed towards specific persons, ideas, objects or groups” (Baron & Byrne,1984, p.126). This triadic representation of attitudes encompasses:

The *affective component* which represents persons’ emotional reactions towards an object, event or a person. The *cognitive component* which is basically the evaluative judgment that a person may hold towards an object or an event. Finally, the *behavioral component* which is the observable responses that a person may conduct towards an object upon his affective and cognitive judgment.

#### **2.2.4 Functions of attitude**

Attitude represents a cognitive construct that justifies and guides our opinions and actions. It represents a summary evaluation of a psychological object captured in such attribute dimensions as good-bad, harmful-beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant, and likeable-dislikeable. (Ajzen,2001, p.28). These attitudes:

**aid us in classifying for action the objects of the environment, and they make appropriate response tendencies available for coping with these objects. This feature is a basis for holding attitudes in general as well as any particular array of attitudes. In it lies the function served by holding attitudes per se.**

(Smith et al,1956 as cited in Maio et al, 2005, p.12).

In his groundbreaking article “The Functional Approach to the Study of Attitudes” in 1960, Katz identifies four main functions that attitudes may perform. They are categorized in accordance to their motivational basis as follows: The Utilitarian, ego-defensive, value-expressive and the knowledge functions.

#### **2.2.4.1. The utilitarian function**

Also called the instrumental or adjustive function. It is rooted in behavioristic tenets in which individuals' attitudes are guided through a stimulus/response system. As Katz (1960, p.171) contends: **“attitudes acquired in the service of the adjustment function are either the means for reaching the desired goal or avoiding the undesirable one “.** Thus, individuals' decisions may be affected by their attitudes which they are built through either maximizing rewards or avoiding punishment.

In the field of EFL teaching, an example of a utilitarian function may be in a teacher's positive/negative attitude towards the application of a teaching method based on the learners' reactions.

#### **2.2.4.2. The ego-defensive function**

This function may serve one of the individuals' higher psychological needs which is self-image.

It allows individuals to protect their *ego* from situations or impulses that may cause anxiety (Ajzen,2001, p.41). Thus, this function helps the individual to protect his self-image and guides him to deal with conflicts. For instance, learner's reticence may be attributed to his/her lower level in the target language. Thus, he/she may perceive speaking in public as a face threatening act. Hence, his/her reluctance to participate may be viewed as an ego-defense mechanism.

#### **2.2.4.3. The value-expressive function**

Also known as the Social Identity function, the value-expressive function is somehow similar to the ego-defensive one in terms of protecting one's self-image.

Nevertheless, value-expressive function may affirm an individual's core beliefs or central values. They are "hg" in affirming an individual's identity, self-concept as well as social status in his/her community. Furthermore, the value-expressive function "aid the maintenance of social relationships, maintain self-esteem, reduce inner fear and conflict or cope with threats to the self"(McKenzie,2010, p. 25).

#### **2.2.4.4. The knowledge function**

According to Mckenzie (2010, p. 24), knowledge function refers to the essential and perhaps automatic process of categorizing stimuli in the environment. In other words, knowledge function can be fulfilled in terms of allowing an individual to grasp his/her environment. To rationalize his/her thoughts and actions in order to "*categorise and cope with an otherwise complex and ambiguous environment*" (Erwin, 2001, p. 11). Thus, knowledge function enables individuals to better understand and predict their environment.

### **2.3. Section two: Beliefs**

#### **2.3.1. Towards an understanding of teacher beliefs**

##### **2.3.1.1. Defining beliefs**

When searching for the meaning of beliefs, one may find a profusion of definitions. This profusion may be due to the multifaceted nature of the term.

Rokeach (1969, p. 113) offers a simple conceptualization of the term, he defines beliefs as:" any simple proposition. inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase 'I believe that...". In the same line of thought, Richardson (1996, p.103) defined beliefs as "psychologically held understandings, premises or propositions about the world that are felt to be true". They are "evidential and non-

evidential, static, emotionally-bound, organized into systems, and developed episodically (Gess-Newsome1999, as cited in Jones, 2007, p. 1069). The beforementioned definitions postulate the cognitive and psychological dimensions of belief system; beliefs are generally “imbued with emotive commitment and serves as a guide to thought and behavior” (Borg, 2001, p. 186). This means that beliefs are the driving force that guides our emotions, goals and decisions.

Although the term “beliefs” is commonly used in the educational literature, there appears to be a lack of consensus about a unified definition to the construct of beliefs. This is due to the conflicting views of intellectuals and researchers. In light of the multidimensional nature of the term, beliefs are perceived as a “*messy construct*” Pajares (1992, p.308).

He further contends:

**[beliefs] travel in disguise and often under an alias of attitudes, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action theories, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy (Pajares1992 :309).**

#### **2.3.1.2. Teacher beliefs**

Teacher beliefs research has found its place in teacher education literature. Many researchers have attempted to find an elaborate definition for the term albeit the plenitude and lack of consensus concerning the nature and origins of teachers’ beliefs

A basic definition is offered by Kagan (1992, p. 65) who sees teacher beliefs as ‘Unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught’. They can be represented as a set of conceptual representations which store general knowledge of objects, people and events, and their characteristic relationships” (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fang, 1996 )

Thus, teachers’ beliefs may be seen as implicit assumptions or contentions about learning, teaching, and the subject matter to be taught.

Similarly, Ghaith (2004) defines teachers’ beliefs as” holistic conception of several dimensions related to the beliefs on education and teaching, curricula and the teaching profession in general, and that such beliefs form the “education culture” which affects pedagogical objectives and values”. This postulates that teachers’ beliefs are a multidimensional construct that encompasses a variety viewpoints or attitudes related to teaching and learning.

Along the same lines, Barcelos (2003) identified three ways of explaining teacher beliefs in the relevant literature:

- a. In normative studies, beliefs as opinions or generally inaccurate myths regarding L2 learning and teaching;
- b. In metacognitive studies, beliefs as metacognitive idiosyncratic knowledge or representations characterized by some personal commitment;
- c. In contextual studies, beliefs as ideas which are interrelated with contexts and experiences of participants (cited in Negueruela-Azarola, 2011).

From the above definitions, we may define teacher beliefs as statements teachers make about their ideas, thought and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what should be done and is preferable ( Basturkmen *et al*, 2004,p.89).

### **2.3.1.3. Features of beliefs**

According to Abelson (1979, cited in Nespor ,1987), There are four defining features that provide a comprehensive explanation of the construct of “beliefs”. They can be perceived as the epistemological pillars of this multi-dimensional construct. Likewise, they may also serve to distinguish beliefs from knowledge.

#### **a. Existential Presumption**

Simply put, existential presumption is the existing assumption about the existence or nonexistence of entities (Nespor 1987). Rokeach (1968) expounded that they are the taken for granted beliefs about physical and social reality and self. They can be formed by chance, an intense experience or a succession of events (Pajares, 1992, p.309). They could be perceived as immutable entities that exist beyond individual control or knowledge (ibid)

#### **b. Alternativity**

According to Abelson, beliefs generally contain representations of “alternative worlds” or “alternative realities”. It is the ideal image that is being held about a certain topic, situation or event. For instance, Nespor (1987) provided the example of Ms Skylark; an English teacher who had a “utopian” vision of what constitutes an ideal classroom environment. Due to her traumatic experiences as a student in her childhood, Ms Skylark prioritized the provision of a friendly and fun learning environment. Nevertheless, despite her “noble” efforts, she often found difficulties concretizing her vision. Her teaching

strategies did not serve the educational goals of the lessons. As a result, her lessons were generally not fully covered.

### **c. Affective and evaluative loading**

It strongly believed that beliefs have stronger affective and evaluative impact than knowledge. Most of the time, “teachers teach the content course according to the values held of the content itself “(Pajares, 1992, p. 310). For example, if a teacher believes that a certain lesson will not be important for the learners because it will not be covered in the exam. he will not delve into further explanations of the lesson. Hence, affective and evaluative aspects can eventually determine the energy teachers will expend on a particular activity.

### **d. Episodic structure**

Abelson contended that knowledge system is semantically stored while belief systems include episodically stored material derived from personal experience or from cultural or institutional sources of knowledge transmission (Nespor,1987, p.320). In other words, past events and experiences accumulate a basis for beliefs’ formation. In the same line of thought, Goodman (1988) suggested that teachers were influenced by guiding images from past events that created screens through which new information was filtered (Pajares,1992, p.310).

In essence, teachers often hold images from their previous as students. These images will later be reflected in their behaviors and practices in the classroom as teachers. In fact, Lortie (1975) referred to this as “apprenticeship of observation “. It means that previous experiences of teachers serve as a template for teachers.



Thus, Episodic memory has an integral role in shaping teachers' beliefs about their classroom environment, interactive strategies and even teaching methods.

### **2.3.2. Categories of Teacher beliefs**

According to teacher beliefs' research, teacher beliefs may fall in different categories. These beliefs are closely related. In fact, it would be difficult to study one category without referring to the other. A number of researchers ( Rokeach ,1968; Pajares ,1992; Richards, 1994; Fives, 2005) have categorized teachers' beliefs in a continuum ranging from personal, epistemological to professional ones.

In this vein, Bellalem (2004, p.32) has summarized the main categories of teacher beliefs as follows:

#### **1. Personal beliefs**

They are related to teachers' self-image and roles as teachers (Ashton, 1986; Bandura, 1997; Beauchamp ,2009). They determine who they are and what should they be as teachers. Personal beliefs have an impact on teachers' identity construction, sense of efficacy as well as their practices in the classroom.

#### **2. Beliefs about teaching, learning and curriculum**

These beliefs are linked with macro sources such as the implementation of the curriculum, teacher education programs and teaching. Furthermore, beliefs about the content of teaching, the teaching approach and teaching practices (Koenigs ,1977; Fang, 1996; Basturkmen, 2012; Fakhri ,2012; Devine, 2013) are considered as micro sources affecting the construct of teacher beliefs.

### **3. Epistemological beliefs**

Epistemological beliefs are defined as “one’s conceptions about the nature of knowledge and learning “(Schommer 1990 as cited in Chrysostomou , 2010, p.1510). They are generally with teacher’s philosophy of teaching. Beliefs they hold about learning and teaching. The nature of knowledge and how knowledge is acquired (Bellalem, 2014, p. 33). Research in this field (Pajares, 1996; Buehl, 2005; Hoffer, 1999) have shown the impact of epistemological beliefs on teachers’ efficacy beliefs and classroom practices.

#### **2.3.3. The nature of teachers’ beliefs**

Understanding the foundational nature of beliefs is an integral pillar in making sense of their origins and even underlying practices. If we take a look at the related literature, may find a plethora studies stating different categorization of beliefs. This helps to gain insights into the epistemological nature of beliefs and thus contribute into understanding the relationship an even vehemence between beliefs and practices. In teacher’s cognition literature, there are three main dichotomies that explain the nature of beliefs ( Gandeel ,2016,p. 90), these beliefs include:

##### ***a. core or peripheral beliefs***

Core beliefs are those which are considered essential to the belief system. They are consistent, ever-lasting and more powerful (Rokeach,1968; Pajares, 1992; Borg,2006). In language teachers’ beliefs system, core beliefs may be about the educational policy, foreign language teaching in the country and teachers’ views about SL/FL acquisition and learning. Another example is suggested by Borg (2006 ) who states:

“On the other hand, peripheral beliefs are important to the belief system yet they are somehow flexible and more prone to change. In fact, questioning and changing

peripheral beliefs would not undermine an individual's core belief. An example of teachers' peripheral beliefs may be about teaching methods and strategies.

***b. conscious or unconscious beliefs***

In Rokeach's definition of beliefs (1968), he anchored his definition on a duality of entities: conscious, unconscious. As its name implies, conscious beliefs are any opinions or ideas that an individual holds and he is "aware" of them. On the other hand, unconscious beliefs are not explicitly exposed but can be inferred from the individual's behavior. As Ackilan (2009, p.04) puts it: "Unconscious beliefs are long-standing beliefs that can influence behavior over a long period of time, but resist recognition by the agent". Thus, we may say that unconscious beliefs are integral agents in determining practices. In this regard, an effective way into reaching teachers' unconscious beliefs is through developing their reflective practice. Therein, teachers may provide explanations of their practices, discuss their decision-making actions and even evaluate their own classroom practices.

***c. Ideal or reality-oriented beliefs***

Idealism and reality are a dichotomy that is instilled in every facet of life. In this field of teaching, teachers often have an "ideal" vision about teaching, what teaching is and how it is supposed to be. An example of this is Nespor's idea of "Alternativity" or "alternative realities" in which a more "ideal" or a "utopian" vision of teaching is held by teachers. On the other hand, reality-oriented beliefs are based on a more realistic of teaching in a variety of factors such as educational system; class size and provision of materials are taking into consideration.

#### 2.3.4. Dimensions of teacher beliefs

In the educational literature, teacher beliefs are generally placed in a broad spectrum of outlook towards the nature of teaching. Some teachers may believe that teaching is a mere act of traditional “knowledge transmission” whereas others may perceive teaching from a communicative perspective. For instance, Richards and Lockhart’s study (1994) suggested that teachers’ beliefs can be identified through “*subjective and objective*” dimensions (Li, 2017, p. 27). These dimensions include: language, learning, teaching and the curriculum. In the same line of thought, Calderhead (1995) has added dimensions such as subject matter, professional development and the teacher. These dimensions are also referred to as: relational, institutional and practical dimensions of teachers’ beliefs (Belbase, 2019, p. 05). Furthermore, Nespor (1987) focused on teachers’ own definition of their work as a determinant factor of their beliefs. Hence, teachers’ ideology of teaching may have an impact on their teaching methodology. It is also referred to as *teacher maxims* (Richards 1996) which are principles that guide teachers’ instructional and discursive choices in the classroom. These rules or “*maxims*” encompass constructs such as *Involvement, Planning, Order* and *Encouragement*. They can be seen as instructional skills that are outcomes of teachers’ evolving theories of teaching (ibid). Teacher maxims are teacher and context specific and constitute what Richards and Lockhart (1994) has termed “*The culture of teaching*”. Evidently, Teachers’ culture of teaching is established as a source for teachers’ lesson planning and decision-making process.

In a similar view, Johnson (1992) suggested that teachers’ beliefs are stable sources for teachers. They are “built up gradually over time, and relate to such dimensions of teaching as the teachers’ theory of language, the nature of language teaching, the role of

the teacher, effective teaching practices, and teacher-student relations” ( as cited in Richards, 1996,p. 284 ). Johnson’s categorization of the dimensions that are related to teachers’ beliefs shows that teachers beliefs are a multidimensional construct in which a number of assets are intertwined. For instance, teachers’ *theory of language* which simply refers to how teachers’ view the process of language learning. Some teachers hold traditional views about teaching, they conduct their teaching using “behaviorist” and “transmissionist” approach to teaching. Herein, the teacher being “ the expert” and the learners” passively receiving information. On the other hand, other teachers have a “functional” outlook with regard to language learning. Thus, teaching is conducted using more communicative and interactive approaches. Herein, teachers apply a constructive language teaching approach in which learners are encouraged to take part in the teaching/learning process. Besides, *teachers’ role* can also be considered as a dimension to teachers’ beliefs. This is related to teachers’ perceptions of their roles in the classroom. Teachers’ roles depend to a great extent on their theory of language and they are established through their classroom practices. This leads us to another dimension which is *Teacher-student relations*: they define the extent to which the teacher shapes his/her relation with his/her students is crucial to establishing classroom “maxims” and dynamics.

### **2.3.5. Research on teachers’ beliefs: an overview**

Considering the centrality of teachers’ beliefs as “catalyst” of classroom practices, a growing body of research has focused on teachers’ beliefs and attitudes. In the educational literature, teachers’ attitudes and beliefs were studied from different educational paradigms: Behaviorist, Cognitive and Constructivist overviews of teachers’ attitudes and beliefs. The studies were often aimed towards a better understanding of teachers’ “mental lives” (Pajares ,1992) and their implications on teachers’ instructional choices, teachers’

professional development as well as teacher education programs as they may provide valuable insights into how teachers perceive and construct their teaching.

#### ***2.3.5.1. Behaviorist impact on teachers' beliefs research***

During the 1960's and 1970's, the overriding paradigm was behaviorism. The teaching/Learning process was perceived as a "knowledge transmission" and a "habit formation" in which the teacher dominated the classroom and the learners "parroted" their teachers' instructions. Teaching strategies such as "the Direct Method" and "the Audiolingual method" encompassed automatized teaching approach which required "**little thought on the teachers' part**" (Bruzzano, 2018, p.68). Thus, educational research was characterized as a process-product approach; teaching being the "the process" and the learning outcomes as "the product". In fact, it emphasized on prescriptive research findings focusing on shaping teachers' suitable teaching strategies such as drills and repetition. Hence, The dominating idea of teachers being "the sage on the stage" turn their roles into "performers (Freeman ,2002) ; they were expected to apply teaching strategies in a mechanic ,automatic fashion with no regards to their beliefs or attitudes towards these strategies. This concept was heavily criticized on the grounds that teachers are more than executors of the curriculum and learners are more than "empty vessels" to be filled.

#### ***2.3.5.2. Cognitivist impact on teachers' beliefs research***

Due to the constant criticism of the behaviorist paradigm, researchers started to investigate factors that are influential in the teaching/learning process on the premise that teachers and learners are active agents in the educational process. This shift from a behaviorist to a cognitivist view was in line with the Cognitivist paradigm that appeared in

the late 1970's and 1980's. This view accentuated the eminent role of individuals' thinking on their decision-making process.

During this period, considerable advances in educational psychology had an impact on reconceptualizing teachers' classroom practices and their thinking processes. Evidently, language teaching methods were also grounded on providing teachers and learners the appropriate environment to facilitate the attainment process considering the fact that teaching and learning were considered as a "information processing" construct. Nevertheless, this view was criticized based on the grounds that the cognitive paradigm overlooked the importance and impact of "external" factors that contribute to the teaching/learning process. Vygotsky's theories have pinpointed the significance of the social context in the educational process.

#### ***2.3.5.2. sociocultural impact on teachers' beliefs research***

Advances in cognitive research were a stepping stone to the emergence of the sociocultural views on teacher cognition. Under this framework, teachers were considered as social individuals whose mental lives were "within teachers' larger lives and within larger environments, most pertinently their classrooms, which exist in schools in larger systems (such as local and national educational systems), but also their larger lives and the social, cultural, and historical environments in which they occur" (Kubanyiova & Feryok 2015 as cited in Bruzzano, 2018, p. 70). This research strand views the teaching/learning process from a multidimensional perspective in which teachers' beliefs and practices are constantly changing and interacting with each other and their social environment.

### 2.3.6. The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices

The nexus between beliefs and practices was and still is a debated subject. Questions like: is there a relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices? And to what extent are these beliefs instrumental in impacting teachers' practices? remained a core topic of discussion to many researchers. In fact, hermeneutic studies within the field of teacher beliefs suggest a relationship between teacher beliefs and their classroom practices for many researchers (Bandura,1986; Kagan,1992; Poulson, 2001), teachers' beliefs were considered as strong factors in shaping teachers' instructional behaviour . This is based on the concept that teachers are “active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs” Borg (2003, p.81). Thus, teachers' attitudes cannot be simply viewed as an affective factor but a but a critical element in determining the quality of pedagogy (Choi, 2003; Tobin,Tippins, & Gallard, 1994).

In his seminal article “The Theory of Planned Behavior” , Azjen (1985) argued that attitudes and beliefs are strong predictors of behavior. Similarly, Pajares (1992, p.326) contended that there exists a **“strong relationship between teachers' educational beliefs and their planning, instructional decisions, and classroom practices”**. He suggested that teachers' educational beliefs are pivotal in affecting their “acquisition and interpretation of knowledge and subsequent teaching behavior” (ibid:328) .Beliefs about language learning are also proved to have an impact on teachers' practices , William and Burden ( 1997,p. 57) posit: **“Teachers' deep-rooted beliefs about how languages are learned will pervade their classroom actions more than a particular methodology they are told to adopt or course book they follow”** (as cited in Li , 2017,p. 28). This strand of research suggest that teachers' classroom practices and instructional decisions are a reflection of their beliefs and attitudes towards learning and teaching. Thus, teachers



enter the classroom with a “cognitive luggage” that orient their classroom behaviours. Woods (1991,p. 04) contended that teachers’ decisions about planning and teaching are “*internally consistent*” with deeper underlying assumptions about beliefs about language, learning and teaching (Li ,2017,p. 28).

In her book “ *Social Interaction and Teacher cognition*” (2017) , Li has talked about the importance of investigating teachers’ beliefs from an interactional point of view. Thus, studying teachers’ interactive decisions shows “ **how contexts emerge and provides some evidence as to the ways in which contexts both shape and are shaped by teachers’ knowledge behaviour and understanding**” (Li and walsh, 2011) . This sheds light on the role of socio-cultural context in shaping and constructing teachers’ beliefs through developing a” practical knowledge”. It is established through teachers’ past experiences as learners, trainees or as teachers. In a similar vein, Olson (1988, p. 69) suggests” what teachers tell us about their practice is, most fundamentally, a reflection of their culture and cannot be properly understood without reference to that culture”.

Notwithstanding, research in the field of teachers’ beliefs and practices has also generated some results that contradicted and sometimes denied any relationship between teacher beliefs and practices. For instance, Basturkmen’s (2004) study on teachers’ stated beliefs and practices in ESL classrooms have revealed inconsistencies between the two variables and suggested a weak relationship between teachers’ beliefs and practices.

Similarly, Chan’s (2015) study of thirty-five teachers using classroom observations and focus group interviews showed a discrepancy between teachers’ teaching beliefs and their practices. In fact, she espoused this discrepancy to “teachers’ professional education and their attitudes towards personal teaching introspection”. In addition, Erkman (2014) suggested that teachers’ beliefs and practices’ misalignment due to teachers’ willingness to meet students’ expectations. Nonetheless, he contended when teachers become aware of their incongruence between their beliefs and practices, they try to re-align their practices according to their beliefs.

Be them aligned or not, teachers' beliefs and practices seem to be falling in a broad cause/effect spectrum. Researchers' have always tried to make sense of the driving forces that impact teachers' practices. One of these "forces" is teachers' beliefs and attitudes. The findings are providing further explanation and enriching existing debates for issues like teacher education programs, classroom environment and student achievement. Yet, what is evident is that teachers' beliefs and practices have a dynamic nexus that is affected by a number of factors. These factors are to be discussed in the following section.

### **2.3.7. Factors that influence teachers' beliefs and practices**

In the educational literature, research on teachers' beliefs and practices has become an eminent duality that is always persistent in the study of teacher cognition. Studies in Teacher mental lives (Pajares 1992) , Teacher cognition (borg 2003, 2006) , Teacher Thought Process (Clark and Peterson 1986) had proposed framework that depicted the founding elements and inter-related factors that influence teachers' beliefs and practices. In his book "Teacher cognition and Language education" (2006), Borg presented a framework elucidating the elements and processes that are involved in language teacher cognition. These elements are considered as factors that have an impact on teachers' beliefs (re)-construction and classroom practices, they encompass:

#### **a) Schooling**

Teachers' personal experiences as learners can be considered as the first pillar in instilling teachers' perceptions about teaching; they may even impact teachers' identity construction and ideology about teaching (teachers' roles, classroom atmosphere, teaching methods). In a study conducted by Devine *et al* 2013, they found out that teachers' construct their beliefs of "what constitutes good teaching" based on their prior experiences

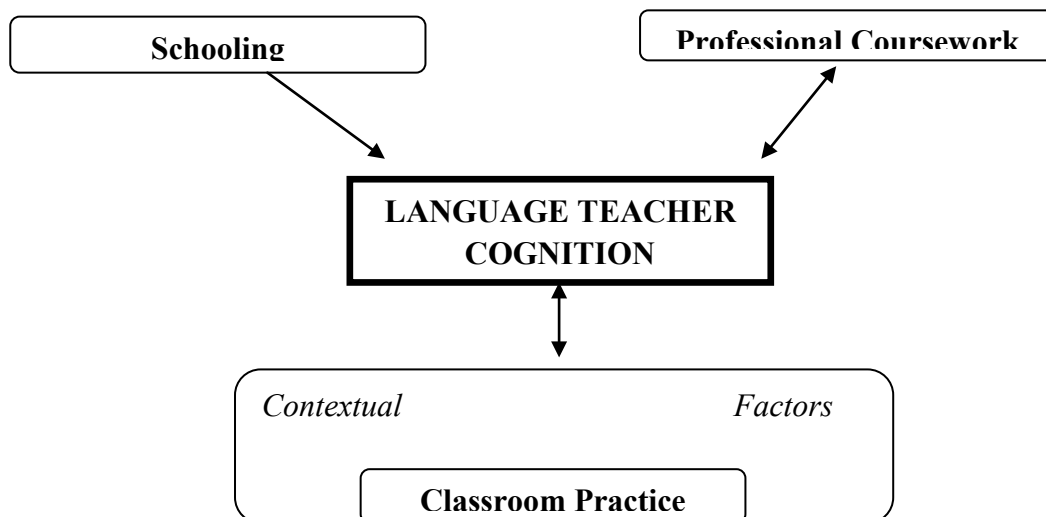
as learners. Thus, teachers (especially novice teachers) tend to replicate those classroom practices and infuse them in their beliefs' system.

#### **b) Professional Coursework**

Teachers' own experiences in the field are also influential in determining their beliefs and practices. It is also referred to as teachers' "Practical Knowledge". Teachers' beliefs about the subject matter, textbook, activities and the educational syllabus are found to be influential in deconstructing teachers' beliefs and their instructional choices.

#### **c) Contextual Factors**

Contextual factors may also have a considerable impact on teachers' beliefs and practices. Factors such as learners needs, teaching materials, teaching methodologies as well as cultural predispositions about teaching are also influential in shaping teachers' preconceptions of 'effective teaching' . As Borg (2003, p. 284) puts it: "Teacher cognitions and practices are mutually informing, with contextual factors playing an important role in mediating the extent to which teacher are able to implement congruent with their cognitions" (as cited in Li, 2017,p. 18).



**Figure 02.02: Factors affecting Teachers’ beliefs and practices (source Borg 2006:283 as cited in Li 2017: 19)**

### **2.3.8. Conclusion**

In this chapter, the researcher has attempted to provide the conceptual framework of teachers’ beliefs, attitudes and practices. In the first section, the researcher has presented the theoretical framework of attitudes by providing its definition, components, structure and its formation. In the second section, a definition of beliefs was presented as well as its categories, features, dimensions. Besides, this section also included a historical synopsis of research in the field of teacher beliefs. Finally, the relationship between teacher beliefs and practices was thoroughly discussed.

**Chapter Three:**  
**Situation Analysis and**  
**Research Methodology**

## Chapter Three: Situation Analysis and Research Methodology

### 3.1. Introduction

### 3.2. Part one: The place of Interaction in the Algerian Educational Policy

3.2.1. The place of ELT in the Algerian educational policy: a historical overview

3.2.2. ELT in Algerian Secondary Schools

3.2.3. The place of Interactional competence in Secondary Education Curriculum

3.2.4. Teachers' roles in the Competency Based Language Teaching approach

### 3.3. Part two: Research Methodology

#### 3.3.1 Research objectives and motivations

#### 3.3.2. Ontological and Epistemological stance

#### 3.3.3 Research Design

#### 3.3.4 Research approach

3.3.4.1. Mixed Methods

3.3.4.2. Types of Mixed methods design

3.3.4.2.1. Convergent parallel methods

3.3.4.2.2. Explanatory sequential mixed methods

3.3.4.2.3 Exploratory sequential mixed methods

#### 3.3.5. Sampling

3.3.5.1. Sampling design

3.3.5.2. Sample population

#### 3.3.6. Data Collection Procedures

3.3.6.1. Quantitative method

3.3.6.2. Qualitative method

3.3.6.3. Teachers' reflective questionnaire

3.3.6.3.1 Aims of the teachers' questionnaire

3.3.6.3.2. Description of the teachers' questionnaire

3.3.6.4 Classroom Observation

3.3.6.4.1 Aims of the Classroom Observation

3.3.6.4.2 Description of the Classroom observation

#### 3.3.7. Teachers' interview

3.3.7.1. Aims of the Teachers' Interview

3.3.7.2. Description of the Teachers' Interview

#### 3.3.8. Data Analysis Procedures

3.3.8.1 Quantitative Data analysis

3.3.8.2 Data analysis with SPSS

3.3.8.3. Qualitative Data analysis

**3.3.8.3.1. Classroom Observation Grid**

**3.3.8.3.2. Walsh's Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk framework**

**3.3.9. Coding software**

**3.3.10. Triangulation**

**3.3.11. Pilot study**

**3.3.12. Ethical and methodological considerations**

**3.3.12.1 Informed consent**

**3.3.12.2. Validity and reliability**

**3.3.13. Limitations of the study**

**3.14. Conclusion**

## **Chapter Three**

### **Situation Analysis and Research Methodology**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

Classroom Interaction is considered as a fundamental part of classroom pedagogy. In fact, it is the cornerstone of the classroom environment through which lessons are presented, discussions are established and identities are made. Actually, many educators and scholars have stressed the importance of understanding the construct of interaction in their classrooms. This will help them understand their attitudes, provide them insights into their practices and allow them to adjust their discourse and talk accordingly.

The present chapter represents the empirical part of the research. It is divided into two parts; the first part is concerned with the Algerian educational policy and the place of interaction in the secondary level programs. This part will introduce a succinct overview of the foreign language teaching history in Algeria and the status of English in the midst of the recurrent educational reforms.

The second part will introduce the rationale and motivations that underlines the research inquiry. Furthermore, the researcher will account for the epistemological and theoretical framework that underpins the choice of the research methodology. In addition, a thorough explanation of the methods and techniques used for the selection of the sample, data collection and, data analysis will be well explained and defined.



**Part One: Situation analysis**

**The place of Interaction in the Algerian Educational Policy**

### 3.2. Part One: The place of Interaction in the Algerian Educational Policy

#### 3.2.1. The place of ELT in the Algerian Educational policy: a historical overview

The French Colonization was considered a pivotal era in the “remolding” of Algerian linguistic identity. During this period, the French Government opted for a strategy of gallicized acculturation and cultural assimilation by imposing the French language for the purpose of “*inculcating a French character in the country*” (Le roux, 2017, p.113). Furthermore, the other indigenous languages such as Arabic and Tamazight were completely banned from educational institutions.

At that time, teaching the English language was not a priority to the French Colonizer. As discussed before, France tried to instill a Gallicized based identity in which Algerian pupils are completely in rupture with their aboriginal identity and its linguistic marker, i.e. the Arabic Language. Admittedly, there are scarce records that demonstrate the ELT policy at that era.

The post-independence era marked the emergence of a nationalist approach towards language policy. At that time; Algerian authorities enacted the “Arabization policy” in which the Arabic Language was considered the official language of the country and the linguistic “marker” of the Algerian identity. In fact, this Arabized orientation was grounded in the nationalist ideology of the “Algerian Muslim Ulema” association whose founding motto was “*Islam is our religion, Algeria is our mother country, Arabic is our language*’.

Accordingly, the status of foreign language teaching was considerably undervalued. In fact, foreign language teaching policy had a secondary status in the educational agenda.

Nevertheless, the Arabization process had its fair share of criticism. Educational reports showed that **“nationalist transition phase is considered to be a major source of the current failure in education” (Leroux, 2017, p. 114)**. This is probably due to the alacrity of Algerian authorities in imposing “immature” and poorly studied laws without paying attention to the sociolinguistic fabric of the Algerian society. In this light, Benrabah (2007) contends that: **“[arabization] showed scant regard for the linguistic pluralism and diversity which at that time characterised Algerian society” (page 228)**.

It goes without saying; English teaching was neglected at that era. Algeria was still in the midst of asserting its own linguistic identity by imposing Classical Arabic in formal institutions. On the other hand, it also attempted to eradicate a linguistic historical heritage, i, e French –.

That being said, the concept of English teaching was not considered an important issue since the language was tied with countries which are economically different from Algeria’s economic orientation. At that time, teaching English was not a focal point in the Algerian educational policy.

In the midst of the socio-economic fluctuations that Algeria had faced at that era, we may say that the status of English remained in “the shadow” uninfluenced by “the identity crisis” that dominated the socio-political scene. In the 1970’s, ELT policy makers introduced the oral-structural activity approach. The latter proved its inefficacy and was soon changed by the notional-functional communicative approach in the 1980’s. In fact, the communicative approach was the leading teaching method.

Nonetheless, a new process was enacted in the 1993’s to boost the foreign language teaching at early levels. This was done through providing the opportunity to choose

between the teaching of French or English for primary school pupils (Rezig, 2011, p. 1329). The program failed due to the tendency of the majority of parents towards French over English.

With the dawn of the new millennia, Algeria embraced a new financial and political ideology: The Free Market Economy. The latter urges the country to immerse itself in the international trade and policy; it also meant that cultural, economic and most importantly linguistic openness were key factors to adhere to the international arena. Ergo, the Arabization Policy was no longer an efficient choice for the Algerian authorities. This paved the way for the teaching of foreign languages. This means improving the status of foreign language teaching at the level of primary, intermediate and secondary schools.

The positive attitude towards English was openly welcomed by Algerian authorities. In fact, the then president of the country Abdelaziz Bouteflika had a progressive outlook towards multilingualism, specifically towards the learning of English. In an interview for “Le Matin” newspaper in 1999, he stated:’ *It is unthinkable ... to spend ten years study in Arabic pure sciences when it would only take one year in English*’( Benrabah 2014:379)

Consequently, radical educational reforms brought the Competency Based approach which affected the ELT teaching methodology and gave space for oral, cultural and social competency development.

The status of English has been gradually gaining momentum since the new millennia. Political and economic changes made English the linguistic passport to access the international globalized market. Throughout all these educational reforms, the attitudes towards the English Language were mostly tied with the political orientation of its

countries. It was perceived as “ a **language of an ex-colonial and imperialist country**” Hayenne (1989 : 43). Notwithstanding, the economic shift to a more open and tolerate policy had laid the ground for English to obtain a positive outlook towards it. In Hayenne’s words:

**In spite of all these challenges encountered by the English language, the Algerian political and educational authorities have managed to undertake the rehabilitation of the status of this language. Because of the technical and economic exchanges all over the world, English is now occupying a better position in the Algerian educational system. Hence, most of the Algerian students and even their parents are becoming more conscious of its importance as an international language ‘par excellence’ (qtd in Slimani2016:34)**

Nowadays, there are persistent calls from Algerians to enhance the status of English. A considerable segment of Algerians is demanding their authorities to replace French with English in the educational curricula. As Zemali puts it: “ *the Algerian government is using everything like a TV channel called Algerian TV, 5 radio stations, and 12 newspapers to promote French but the Algerian people especially teenagers want to learn English not French*”<sup>5</sup>

This linguistic “movement” is still at its beginnings, we have yet to see what Algerian authorities will conduct to uphold their people’s aspirations.

---

<sup>5</sup> Retrieved on 12/11/2019 from <https://salemzemali.weebly.com/english-in-algeria.html>

### 3.2.2 ELT in Algerian Secondary Schools

Generally speaking, Algerian pupils are introduced to the English language at the first year of their intermediate level (middle school). Their age ranges from 11 to 13. They continue learning English for their intermediate level in which they learn about the basic linguistic and cultural aspect of the language. By the end of middle school studies, pupils are expected to reach a fairly acceptable level in English; they should be able to manage the basics of the four skills in English. In other words, pupils are expected to understand, speak and write simple passages in English. This is supposed to prepare them for a deeper linguistic and intercultural development in the English Language.

The next step in pupils' educational cursus is the Secondary school. At this level, pupils are oriented based on their educational preferences and scholastic merit. They can opt either for scientific or literary streams.

It is worthy of mentioning that the degree of consideration of English in both streams is quite different. It is clearly evident in the coefficient of English in both streams; the coefficient devoted to English in the scientific stream is less than that of the literary stream. The table below clearly elucidates the time

Level	Stream	Time volume per week	Time volume per year
<b>1<sup>st</sup> year</b>	Sciences	<b>03 hours/week</b>	<b>81 hours</b>
	Literature	<b>04 hours/week</b>	<b>108 hours</b>
<b>2<sup>nd</sup> Years</b>	Experimental Sciences Math Technical Math	<b>03hours/week</b>	<b>81 hours</b>
	Literature and Philosophy	<b>04 hours/week</b>	<b>108 hours</b>
	Literature and Foreign Languages	<b>05hours/week</b>	<b>135 hours</b>
<b>3<sup>rd</sup> years</b>	Experimental Sciences Math Technical Math	<b>03hours/week</b>	<b>81 hours</b>
	Literature and Philosophy	<b>04 hours/week</b>	<b>108 hours</b>
	Literature and Foreign Languages	<b>05 hours/week</b>	<b>135 hours</b>

**Table 03.01: Teaching Load of English at the Secondary Level**

## Chapter Three: Situation Analysis and Research Methodology

In addition, differences can be spotted in the annual progression and bulk of units assigned for each stream .

LEVEL	STREAM	UNIT	TOPIC
1 <sup>st</sup> Year	Sciences	1.Getting Through 2.Our Findings Show... 3.Back To Nature 4. Eureka! + Once Upon a time	1.Intercultural Exchanges 2.Communication: The Press 3.Environment/Pollution/The World of Animals 4.Innovation and Technology + Famous People
	Literature	1.Getting Through 2.Our Findings Show... 3.Back To Nature 4.Eureka! 5.Once upon a time	1.Intercultural Exchanges 2.Communication: The Press 3.Environment/Pollution/The World of Animals 4.Innovation and Technology 5. Famous People
2 <sup>nd</sup> Year	Experimental Sciences Math Technical Math	1.Make Peace 2.Waste Not Want Not 3.Budding Scientist 4.No Man is an Island	1.Peace and Conflict Resolution 2.Poverty and World Resources 3.Technology and Innovation 4.Disasters and Safety
	Literature and Philosophy	1.Signs of the Time 2. Make Peace 3. Waste Not Want Not 4.Science or Fiction? 5.No Man is an Island	1.Diversity 2.Peace and Conflict Resolution 3.Poverty and World Resources 4.Fiction or Reality 5.Disasters and Safety
	Literature and Foreign Languages	1.Signs of the Time 2.Make Peace 3.Waste Not Want Not 4.Budding Scientist 5.Science or Fiction? 6.No Man is an Island	1.Diversity 2.Peace and Conflict Resolution 3.Poverty and World Resources 4.Technology and Innovation 5.Fiction or Reality 6.Disasters and Safety
	Management and Economy	1.Make Peace 2.Waste Not Want Not 3. No Man is an Island 4.Business is Business	1.Peace and Conflict Resolution 2.Poverty and World Resources 3. Disasters and Safety 4.Management and Efficiency
3 <sup>rd</sup> Year	Experimental Sciences Math Technical Math Management and Economy	1.ill-Gotten Gains Never Prosper 2.Safety First 3.Are We Alone? 4.We are a Family	1.Ethics in Business 2.Advertising,Consumers,and Safety 3.Astronomy and the Solar System 4.Fellings and Emotions
	Literature and Philosophy Literature and Foreign Languages	1.Exploring the Past 2. ill-Gotten Gains Never Prosper 3.Schools:Different and Alike 4.We are a Family	1.Ancient Civilizations 2.Ethics in Business 3.Education in the World 4Feelings and Emotions

**Table 03.02: The official units' distribution of the three levels  
(source www.salezmali.weebly.com)**

Concerning the second and third year of secondary education, there are no substantial differences in the bulk of syllabus, time allotment or grading system except for Foreign Languages stream. In the latter, English is considered an integral subject matter, its coefficient is of 04 and the teaching hours may reach up to 5 or 6 hours per week.

Level	Stream	coefficient
1 <sup>st</sup> year	Sciences	02
	Literature	03
2 <sup>nd</sup> Years	Experimental Sciences Math Technical Math	02
	Literature and Philosophy	03
	Literature and Foreign Languages	04
3 <sup>rd</sup> years	Experimental Sciences Math Technical Math	02
	Literature and Philosophy	03
	Literature and Foreign Languages	05

**Table03. 03: Coefficient of English in secondary education**

### 3.2.3. The place of Interactional competence in Secondary Education Curriculum:

It is axiomatic that the core of the CBA approach is communicative. In fact, one of the main reasons of adopting this approach in the National educational Curriculum is based on the development of three main competencies: **Interaction, Interpretation, and Production.**

This will eventually lead to forming communicatively and competent learners in terms of foreign language learning.

In essence, The CBA is grounded on a socio-constructivist approach to language learning. Thus, the learner is “ **supposed to be taught how to acquire ‘targeted’ competencies and to stimulate his cognitive development so that he can react in an adequate way to real situations with verbal and non-verbal communication and interaction” (Bouhadiba 2015:07)**

Interactional competence is an integral component of the EFL syllabi. As a matter of fact, developing the interactional competence is a recurrent “theme” in the official EFL teacher books of the three levels.

According to the official teacher’s book, the teaching methodology follows a Vygotskyan approach of social constructive learning. This means that teaching “**is based on the assumption that learning by developing one’s individual competences implies an interaction involving certain roles taken by the teacher and others taken by the learner” (Teacher’s book of 2<sup>nd</sup> year secondary school :03).** This clearly depicts the intent of educational decision makers in developing the interactional competence of its learners. The Teaching pedagogy is grounded on the aim of “**making both the teacher and the learner come to a fruitful interaction” (ibid).**



Thus, the basic rationale for developing learners' interactional competences stems from the tenets of the communicative language teaching approach which aims at forming learners who are able to invest and mobilize their knowledge in real life situations. This is gradually done through a systematic development of tasks and activities.

For instance, the sequence of "Developing Skills" which is generally preceded by the sequences of (Listening and Speaking/ Reading and Writing); the learner is urged to reinforce and use the newly acquired syntactic rules and lexicon. He may be asked to carry a telephone conversation or take part in an interview. Ergo, these activities are likely to establish the building blocks for the social and interactive skills of the learner. The next phase represents the intermediate stage of the learner's development; this is achieved through the stimulation of interaction between the teacher and the learner by providing realia. The latter will prompt learners' cross-cultural awareness and urge the learners to voice their opinions about a variety of topics using their linguistic and cultural repertoire.

Finally, the third phase represents the finalization of learners' communicative and interactive acquisitions. Presumably, learners have developed their higher order thinking skills; they should be able to notice, analyze and interact with their teachers and peers. Furthermore, they are expected to have a considerable mastery of the target language, an intercultural awareness and thus knowledge about the adequate interactive strategies employed in the classroom. This is achieved through **"providing ample opportunities for learners to interact in the classroom and negotiate meaning"**<sup>6</sup>

Most of these tasks involve the use of 'discovery learning' (inductive learning), and are intended to enhance individual learning as well as learning with peers.

---

<sup>6</sup> Students' textbook: New Prospects, page 06

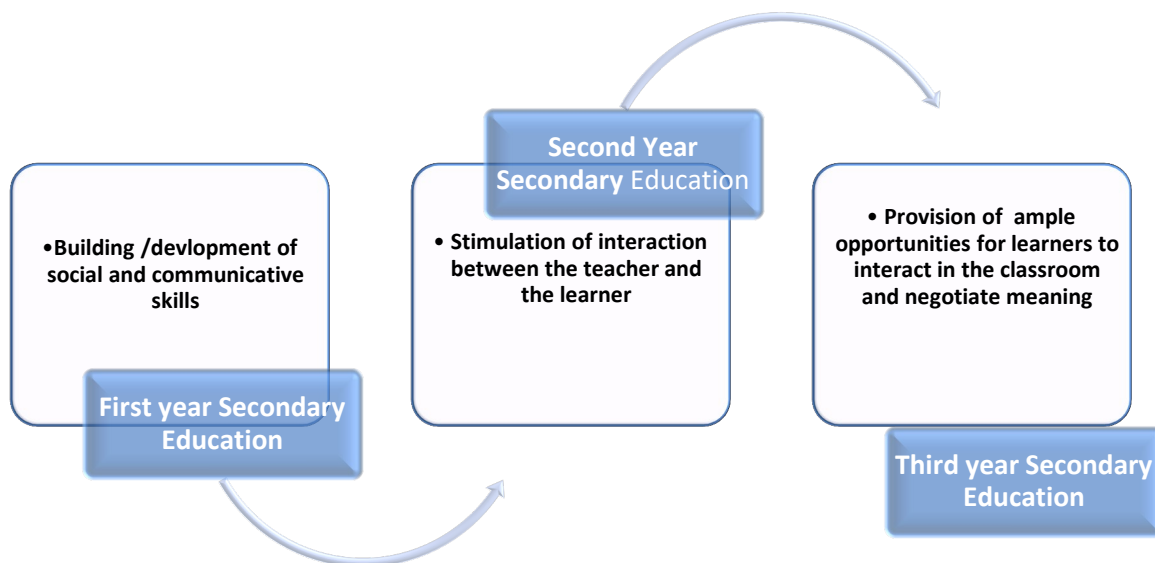


Figure03.01: Interactive aims in Secondary Education (all levels)

### 3.2.4. Teachers' roles in the Competency Based Language Teaching approach

Competency based Language Teaching (CBLT henceforth) was an educational paradigm that was espoused by Algerian authorities due to the promising tenets it stands for. Since its adoption in the early 2005, CBLT had made drastic changes vis-a-vis the educational curricula, syllabus design and teaching methodology; It placed the learner at the heart of the educational process making him responsible for constructing his knowledge and invest it in real life situations. Nevertheless, this doesn't mean that the role of the teacher was subsidized. In fact, the socio-cognitivist strand that the CBLT embraces has made the teacher's role even more complex and interactive than ever before. The idea that the teacher was the sole source of knowledge whose responsibility was to fill his learners' heads with rigid grammar rules and was an outdated concept.

CBLT called for a dynamic and interactive classroom environment where the teacher was regarded as a facilitator and a guide of his learners. Its **action-oriented** nature requires the teacher to be a pro-active member in the classroom. As a matter of fact, the

teacher “stands as a resource person whose help is sought whenever learners meet with special difficulties as they develop/construct by themselves their competencies through a process of classroom interaction” (teacher’s guide 2005:06) . This highlights the role that teachers play in terms of building competencies through a communicative and a constructivist environment. For instance, teachers are supposed to utilize *Elicitation techniques* in order to “To keep the learners actively engaged in the process of Learning”. Ergo, the classroom becomes ‘a stage for learners’ rehearsal of the targeted competencies wherein the teacher plays the role of director setting stage directions, assessing, and giving feedback to the players in order to bring the final touch to their performance’ (**ibid**).

**Part two: Research Methodology**

### 3.3. Part two: Research Methodology

#### 3.3.1 Research rationale and motivations:

This study falls within the classroom-centered research spectrum with a focus on teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and practices. This choice of inquiry is in line with the researchers' intent to shed light on the EFL secondary school teachers pertaining to what they believe, how they position themselves in a nationally enacted "learner-centered" driven approach and how they manage "interaction" in their classrooms. Thus, the research rationale can be summarized in the following items:

1. Expounding the attitudes and viewpoints of secondary school teachers regarding the construct of interaction in their classrooms.
2. Exploring the interactional environment of the classroom and delving into classroom realms by investigating "what happens in the classroom" (Allwright & Baily, 1991,p.3)
3. Emphasizing on the role of teacher cognition as an effective component for the success of the educational process. In addition, directing the researcher's attention to the processes of classroom interaction by collecting data from the classroom itself (Ellis, 1985:143).

#### 3.3.2. Ontological and Epistemological stance:

The first step in any type of research is to determine the ontological and epistemological stances that will serve as guiding frameworks for the realization of the research. Whether they are done consciously or unconsciously, any researcher holds a set of questions concerning the reality that he/she wants to investigate and how to approach the investigation of that reality.

According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, *Ontology* is "a particular theory about the nature of being or the kinds of things that have existence" (Merriam-Webster

Dictionary 2016). It addresses questions such as a “What is reality?,” “what is the nature of existence?”.

Generally speaking, there are two main ontological worldviews: realism and relativism. Apropos the realist ontology, it is believed that there is one static, unchanged truth. It is investigated through the use of objective and statistical measurements and thus its results may be generalized. On the other hand, the relativist stance views reality as multiple, evolving and constantly changing which is shaped by context. Hence, it cannot be generalizable.

The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy(2005) defines *Epistemology* as:” the study of knowledge and justified belief “. It attempts to find an answer to the following questions: How we know what we know” (Crotty, 1998,p.08 ) .It is the study of how the researcher chooses a set of criteria that determines what constitutes knowledge and what does not. It simply emphasizes what is accepted as real and valid. In another words, *Epistemology* examines the link between the researcher and knowledge during discovery (Killam 2013:08). This postulates that *Epistemology* determines the extent to which the researcher is involved in the study; whether objectively or subjectively. *Epistemology* is firmly related to *Ontology*. In fact, when the two concepts are combined, they impact the entire research process by providing a holistic view of the research paradigm and methodology.

In this inquiry, the researcher has adopted a *constructivist paradigm* since this paradigm helps in exploring how teachers construct and perceive their realities and experiences.

The constructivist approach:

**“reconsiders the problem of meaning-making and theorizing from an intersubjective, social, and discursive point of view, focusing on conversational, rhetorical, and representational activities. Language, discourse, and interpretive repertoires are primary devices for the construction of social reality, with words taking meaning in the context of ongoing social relationships”**

(Maréchal2110:223)

Thus, the constructivist approach offers the researcher the opportunity to gradually collect the required data, interact with the participants and corroborate the data to reach valid answers for the inquiry.

### **3.3.3. Research Design:**

In order to launch a sound, well organized and a scientifically based inquiry; it is highly important to lay down the framework that determines the phase of the research and its actual execution. Thus, outlining a research design will serves as a **“a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings”** (Burns & Grove, 2009)

The present research aims at providing an overview about EFL teaching in secondary classrooms. This is done shedding light on a fundamental pillar in the teaching/learning process i.e. the teacher. In fact, the researcher will try to dissect the realities of teaching. In other words, the research would provide us insights into having **“what actually happens in the EFL classroom”**.

Insofar the present research is concerned; this thesis follows a case-study design, with in-depth analysis of teachers' attitudes, beliefs and practices in EFL Secondary school classrooms and their impact on learners' involvement. The main motive was that this approach helps the researcher to study 'particularity and complexity of a single case'

(Stake 1995 .qtd in Dornyei 2007:151).

A case study is defined as a:

**“a study method of social incident from the medium of deep analysis of a person case. The case can be a person, a group, an incident, a process, a community, a society or a unit of a social life. It genus a chance of deep analysis of many specific statement that are ignored in other methods.”**

(Theodorson and Theodorson,1969 qtd in Dornyei 2007:152)

In other words, a case study is an in-depth investigation of a social phenomenon, it is generally used when the focus of the study is on a **“contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context”** (Yin 2003: 03). In fact, it allows investigators to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events.” (Yin 2003: 04). Its main is depth -detail, richness, completeness, and within-case variance ( Flyvbjerg 2011:314)

Considering the multifold nature of the research, the case study is deemed the most suitable for valid and broad results. In fact, it is a “hybrid” approach encompasses a variety of methods that includes both quantitative and qualitative research procedures rather than being restricted to a single procedure (Nunan, 1997:74). It also strives to portray ‘what it is like’ to be in a particular situation, to catch the close-up reality and ‘thick description’ (Geertz 1973 as cited in Cohen *et al* 2013). In the same line of thought, Nachmiass and Nachmias (1992) postulates that the case study is *a logical model of proof* that allows the



researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relations among the variables under investigation .

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 322) identify several hallmarks that distinguish the case study research:

- It is concerned with a rich and vivid description of events relevant to the case
- It provides a chronological narrative of events relevant to the case
- It blends a description of events with the analysis of them
- It focuses on individual actors or groups of actors, and seeks to understand their perceptions of events.
- It highlights specific events that are relevant to the case
- The researcher is integrally involved in the case.
- An attempt is made to portray the richness of the case in writing up the report.

(as cited in Cohen *et al* 2007: 253)

There are several types of case studies. According to Yin (1984), there three types of case studies: Explanatory, Exploratory and Descriptive.

- a. **Explanatory case study:** it examines the data closely both at a surface and deep level in order to explain the phenomena in the data (Zainal 2007)
- b. **Exploratory case study:** it investigates distinct phenomena characterized by a lack of detailed preliminary research, especially formulated hypotheses that can be tested, and/or by a specific research environment that limits the choice of methodology (Mills 2010)

- c. **Descriptive case study:** it is set out to describe a phenomenon within its natural setting, McDonough and McDonough (1997) argue that descriptive case studies may be in a narrative form.

In addition to this categorization, he also distinguishes between single, holistic case studies and multiple-case studies (Yin 2003).

On the other hand, Stake (1994) offers a different categorization for case study research; he identifies case studies as intrinsic, instrumental, and collective.

Evidence from educational research has showed the benefit of using the Case study in providing a holistic, in-depth description of classroom events. Be it Teaching or Learning, the Case study was perceived as “very suitable format for studies of language” (McDonough and S. McDonough 2006: 203). It is a comprehensive research strategy that aims to illuminate the intricate details of the language classroom.

Regarding the present research, the inquiry entails the employment of a mixed method approach since it encompasses the use of qualitative and qualitative modes of inquiry.

### **3.3.4. Research approach:**

The researcher has opted for a mixed-method approach, in which qualitative and quantitative methods are used to gain a fuller understanding of the realities of classroom interaction in the EFL context. Precisely speaking, the thesis will be conducted using an explanatory sequential research design. Hence, the researcher starts the inquiry with a quantitative method; a teachers’ reflective questionnaire followed by two qualitative instruments which are: classroom observation and interviews with selected teachers.

### 3.3.4.1. Mixed Methods approach

Put simply, mixed methods approach is a type of research in which the quantitative and qualitative methods are used and combined for the sake of obtaining a rich and holistic understanding of the research. The mixed-methods approach was described as “a third methodological movement” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009: 5); It involves the collection of quantitative data such as questionnaires and qualitative data such as interviews, observation, diaries.

The mixed-methods approach is a methodologically rich research type. The merging of quantitative and qualitative methods helps the researcher to “map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behavior by studying it from more than one standpoint (Cohen et al., 2007: 141). Likewise, Strauss and Corbin's (1998) postulate **“The qualitative should direct the quantitative and the quantitative feedback into the qualitative in a circular, but at the same time evolving, process with each method contributing to the theory in ways that only each can”**

(As cited in Dornyei 2007 :43).

Given the nature of the research aims, objectives and questions, the decision to employ a mixed method approach was an ineluctable choice. This is espoused to the ability of the approach to combine and triangulate the research instruments to corroborate the findings from each result found. The next step is to decide which type of mixed methods design is most suitable for the inquiry.

### 3.3.4.2. Types of Mixed methods design:

Creswell (2014:268) identifies three basic types of mixed method research design

- 1) Convergent parallel
- 2) Explanatory sequential
- 3) Exploratory sequential

### **3.3.4.2.1. Convergent parallel methods**

In this design, the researcher collects quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously and separately from each other. The data collection methods are conducted separately and in parallel. They are, then merged in the interpretation stage.

The convergent parallel method provides the researcher to acquire two separate databases of information, compare them, and corroborate the results from different methods.

### **3.3.4.2.2. Explanatory sequential mixed methods**

As its name suggests, the Explanatory sequential method is a gradual data collection/analysis method. It starts with the quantitative data collection method. Ideally, the researcher applies a quantitative data collection and analysis method. Later, the researcher uses the quantitative results to purposefully select the best participants for a qualitative study. Thus, the quantitative method is considered as a stepping stone to conducting the qualitative data collection and analysis method. Furthermore, qualitative data is used to help explain quantitative results that need further exploration. Eventually, the research answers are shaped by combining the results acquired from the two data collection methods.

3.3.4.2.3. Exploratory sequential mixed methods

In contrary to the previous method, the exploratory sequential method is conducted initially by using qualitative data collection and analysis methods. In this phase, the researcher has already explored emergent themes in the results and has shaped or reshaped the research problems. New research questions may arise at this level. In the final stage, the researcher analyzes the data and utilizes the findings as a guide for the quantitative phase. The two strands of data are then linked in the interpretation phase.

The figure below illustrates the three types of mixed methods design as suggested by Creswell (2014)

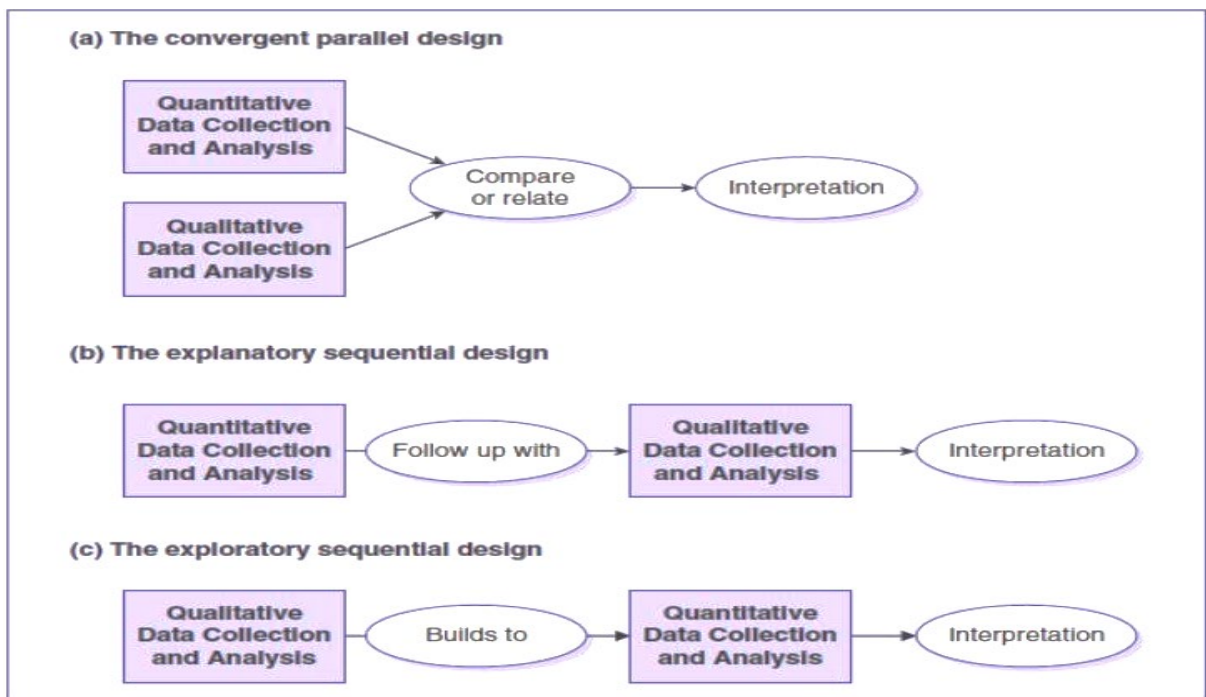


Figure03.02: Three Basic Mixed Methods Designs (Creswell , 2014,p.270)

Based on the aforementioned explanations, the researcher has chosen the explanatory sequential mixed method. The researcher will start the research by quantitative research method: a questionnaire administered for a larger population of

teachers (approximately 112 teachers). The results acquired from the first stage will help the researcher to acquire an initial understanding of teachers' overall opinions about teaching and interaction in secondary classrooms.

The next stage is the qualitative method. It is evident that complex structures like beliefs, attitudes, and practices cannot be fully covered and explored using a quantitative approach. Therefore, the researcher will select five secondary school teachers using a purposive sampling approach. The researcher will undertake several classroom observations with the selected teachers. Finally, an interview will be conducted with the selected teachers

#### **3.3.5. Sampling:**

Sampling is a technique, a procedure for selecting a subset of units of analysis from a population (Balnaves and Caputi,2001). If conducted properly, sampling ensures representativeness of the population and may lead to generalizable results.

In the present research, Teachers constitute the focal point of the enquiry. Despite the fact that the new trend calls for a more “learner-centered” approach which grants more freedom and autonomy to learners. It remains axiomatic that teachers are the cornerstone that serves either as an intensive or impediment for learners' performance in the classroom. In other words, their attitudes, beliefs and practices has a direct impact on setting “the tone” and the appropriate “ atmosphere” for the classroom environment .for instance, creating better learning environment and providing communicative opportunities. Consequently, learners will behave and perform accordingly.

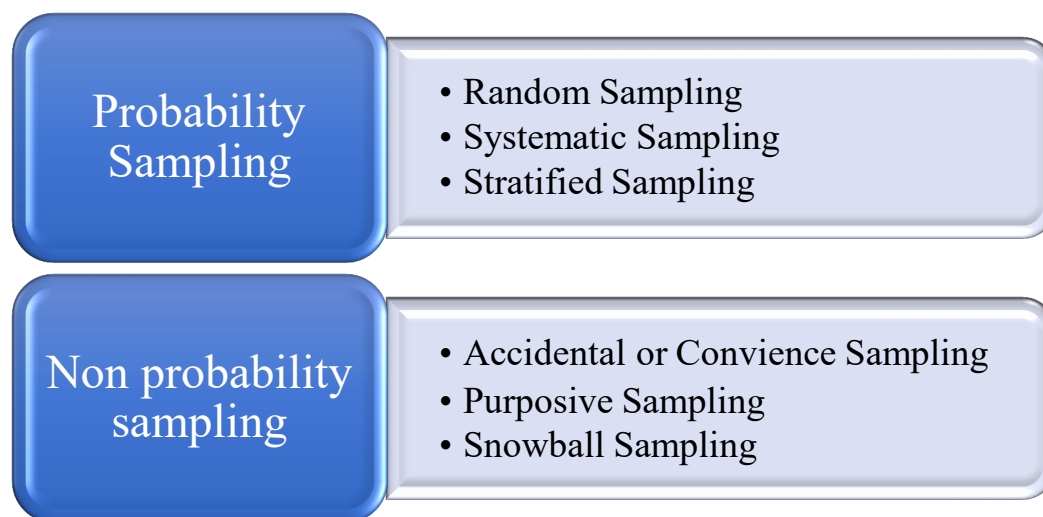
Throughout the course of this research, the researcher will shed light on teachers' beliefs systems, attitudes and their resulting practices as an attempt to unfold the realms of

EFL teaching in secondary school classrooms with regards to classroom interaction and Discourse. Furthermore, she will try to identify potential problems that may be found pertaining to the interactional environment in the classroom.

It is worthy to mention that teachers constitute the focal point of this enquiry, as a result students' attitudes will not be considered. Nevertheless, students' interactional instances and practices may be discussed as they constitute an integral part of the interactional architecture of the classroom.

### 3.3.5.1. Sampling design

In Research Methodology, studies report two main sampling strategies: Probability and non-probability sampling. Each of these designs is related with a specific purpose and a degree of representativeness. The following figure illustrates the sampling strategies and their respective types:



**Figure03.03: Types of sampling design**

Regarding Probability sampling design, Cohen *et al*(2002) proposes three main types:

- a. **Simple random sampling:** All units of analysis are known and each have an equal chance of selection
- b. **Stratified random sampling:** Population is divided into strata and units then selected. It can be used whenever it is feasible to divide the population into smaller sub-populations, each of which is homogeneous based on their shared traits.
- c. **Cluster sampling:** Based on groups or geographical clusters with all members in each cluster randomly selected

The following table briefly summarizes the three main Probability sampling procedures:

<b>Design</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Benefit</b>
<b>Simple random</b>	All units of analysis are known and each have an equal chance of selection	Generalizability of findings
<b>Stratified random</b>	Population is divided into strata and units then selected  In proportion to the original strata  Based on criteria where different proportions may be required	Most efficient of the designs  Sampling frame for each stratum required  Good for representing strata that have small numbers
<b>Cluster sampling</b>	Based on groups or geographical clusters with all members in each cluster randomly selected	Costs of data collection reduced, but increased chance of error

**Table03.04: Summary of Probability Sampling procedures (Balnaves and Caputi**

**2001:109)**

The second strand of sampling strategies is: Non probability sampling. The latter refers to procedures in which researchers select their sample elements not based on a predetermined



Probability (Salkind, 2010, p.921). It is “based on a specific research purpose, the availability of subjects, or a variety of other nonstatistical criteria “(Hussey,2010, p. 922).

Broadly speaking, there are five techniques of non-probability sampling:

- a. **Quota sampling** : it refers to selection with controls, ensuring that specified numbers (quotas) are obtained from each specified population subgroup (e.g. households or persons classified by relevant characteristics), but with essentially no randomization of unit selection within the subgroups (Elder 2009:05)
- b. **Convenience sampling** : It is a type of non-probability sampling in which people are sampled simply because they are "convenient" sources of data for researchers. In probability sampling, each element in the population has a known nonzero chance of being selected through the use of a random selection procedure (Battaglia ,2008, p.149).
- c. **Purposive sampling** : it is a type of non-probability sample. The main objective of a purposive sample is to produce a sample that can be logically assumed to be representative of the population. (ibid :645)
- d. **Self-selection sampling** : It is appropriate when we want to allow units or cases, whether individuals or organizations to choose to take part in research on their own accord. The key component is that research subjects volunteer to take part in the research rather than being approached by the researcher directly (Sharma,2017, p.752)
- e. **Snowball sampling** : It also known as *chain referral sampling*, the sample is yielded through referrals made among people who share or know of others who possess some characteristics that are of research interest (Biernacki,1981,p.141).

Based on the selected research method, the sampling procedure went through two phases. The first phase which was characterized by the use of a quantitative method: a questionnaire. The researcher opted for a simple random sampling technique.

The aim behind this choice was to include a large number of participants in order to have an initial clear overview about teachers' background knowledge, attitudes and self-reported practices.

The second stage of the research was devoted to the qualitative method: Classroom Observation and a teachers' interview. For the purpose of the research, a purposive sampling approach was opted for. The rationale behind using this sampling procedure was due to the researchers' intent to select a heterogeneous group of participants in terms of educational backgrounds, teaching experiences and Class size. Thus, the research will yield data that represents a considerable number of the research population.

#### **3.3.5.2. Sample population**

A sample is a subset of the population. It usually has a small size and it is manageable in the research. Dornyei (2007:96) defines it as: "the group of participants whom the researcher actually examines is an empirical investigation". As discussed in the previous section, the researcher has conducted two sampling techniques, each of which has a purpose behind using it.

As for the quantitative phase of the research, i.e the Questionnaire, the researcher tried to cover the whole population of the research; secondary school teachers of Saida. There are 112 teachers. To ensure its dissemination, the researcher administered the questionnaire in two forms: paper form and online form.

In the qualitative phase, the number of participants was narrowed down to five secondary school teachers. They were chosen based on “purposive sampling” approach.

The main objective of a purposive sample is “to produce a sample that can be logically assumed to be representative of the population” (Lavrakas 2008).

In fact, it was believed that choosing teachers with different educational backgrounds, teaching experience and class size will be representative of a larger proportion of secondary school teachers. Thus, the researchers have chosen a heterogeneous group of participants. The sample included three female teachers and two male teachers. Their teaching experience ranges from three to twenty years of experience. Regarding their educational backgrounds, three of the teachers hold a Bachelor’s degree whereas the other two teachers hold Master’s degrees<sup>7</sup>. They have disparate class size ranging from 07 to 25 students. They all worked in different secondary schools. The following table clarifies the teachers’ demographic profiles:

Teachers	Teacher (A)	Teacher (B)	Teacher (C)	Teacher (D)	Teacher (E)
Gender	Female	Female	Male	Female	Male
Teaching Experience	16 years	03 years	10 years	29 years	08 years
Educational degree	Bachelor’s degree	Bachelor’s degree	Master’s degree	Bachelor’s degree	Master’s degree
Class size	20 students	07 students	25 students	20 students	17 students

**Table03.05: Teachers’ demographic profiles**

---

<sup>7</sup> T3 holds a Master’s degree in Literature and Civilization and T5 holds a Master’s degree in Didactics

### 3.3.6. Data Collection Procedures:

Given the explanatory/exploratory nature of the study, the researcher has utilized a variety of research methods. These methods allow the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of teacher cognition through a classroom interactional lens. In the following section, a comprehensive account of the data collection procedures is presented and explained.

#### 3.3.6.1. Quantitative method:

Quantitative research is defined as a systematic investigation of phenomena by gathering quantifiable data and performing statistical, mathematical, or computational techniques. It **involves the collection of data so that information can be quantified and subjected to statistical treatment in order to support or refute alternative knowledge claims**" (Leedy & Ormrod 2001; Williams, 2011). The researcher "employs strategies of inquiry such as experimental and surveys, and collect data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data" (Creswell, 2003, p. 18)

Quantitative researchers seek explanations and predictions that will generate to other persons and places. The intent is to establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalizations that contribute to theory (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001, p. 102)

In this regard, Dornyei (2007,p. 34) asserts that :

**The strengths of quantitative research are manifold and most have been discussed in the previous sections. QUAN proponents usually emphasize that at its best the quantitative inquiry is systematic, rigorous, focused,**

**and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts**

Regarding the present inquiry, the researcher has employed a quantitative method as an introductory phase of the research. A teachers' questionnaire was viewed as the most suitable quantitative tool.

### **3.3.6.2. Qualitative method**

Qualitative method is “ an inquiry process of understanding based on a distinct methodological tradition of inquiry that explores a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting” (Creswell,2007,p.249).

It is a naturalistic research method that is concerned with capturing the “uncountable ” data that emerges from the research. It is more concerned with the subjective experiences of individuals or groups. This is what makes the qualitative method a prevalent method of inquiry in anthropology, ethnography, and education. The qualitative method sheds light on personal opinions, attitudes, experiences and even feelings. It reflects the participants “insider meaning “ .i.e their subjective view of reality.

In this vein, Denzin & Lincoln (2011,p. 03) posit:

**Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. Qualitative research consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level,**

**qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.**

Therefore, the qualitative method is used when the researcher wants to share the participants' stories, hear their voices and minimize the power relationships that often exist between a researcher and the participants in a study” (Creswell,2013,p. 48). We also use qualitative research because quantitative measures tend to discard the uniqueness of the participants’ experiences and individual differences in the study. Qualitative inquiry is generally conducted within the ethnographic, naturalistic or longitudinal research framework. Various methods are used such as observation, interviews, diaries, focus groups.

In the present inquiry ,the researcher has selected two qualitative methods: Classroom observation in which data is transcribed using Conversation analysis method. Furthermore, a teachers’ interview is employed to have an indepth overview of teachers’ beliefs and attitudes vis-à-vis the construct of interaction in the EFL classroom.

### **3.3.6.3. Teachers’ reflective questionnaire**

The questionnaire is the main tool in quantitative research to collect data. It is essentially a series of structured questions, often referred to as items that follow a specified scheme to collect individual data on one or more similar topics. It is one of the prevalent research tools in educational sciences. This is due to the fact that “they are relatively easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily accessible” Dörnyei (2007, p. 101)

The questionnaire is administered for EFL secondary school teachers in Saida. It is aimed at a larger audience in order to have a better understanding of teachers' attitudes, awareness and to detect any common beliefs and attitudes shared by teachers.

### **3.3.6.3.1. Aims of the teachers' questionnaire**

The questionnaire was used to launch the initial phase of the inquiry. It was a crucial step to explore the research setting and participants. In addition, it laid the foundation for the subsequent research phase. hitherto, the questionnaire was set out based on the following aims:

- To gather information about teachers' views and attitudes regarding classroom interaction in a large scale.
- To shed light on teachers' background knowledge and schemata about classroom interaction
- To provide a self-report data on their practices, i.e., how they evaluate their interactive practices in the classrooms

### **3.3.6.3.2. Description of the teachers' questionnaire:**

The questionnaire comprised three main sections:

- **Section One: Teachers' profile:**

It is regarded as a self-introduction for the teachers; it is mostly concerned with basic personal information such as age, gender, degree and teaching experience. Based on this section, the researcher will elaborate an overview about teachers' personal and professional backgrounds.

- **Section Two: Teachers' Schemata and beliefs regarding classroom interaction**

In this section, the researcher attempted to approach teachers' beliefs and concepts about classroom interaction. In other words, what do these teachers know about classroom interaction and what are their attitudes towards it?

There are six questions in this section:

- ✓ **Question one:** it is an open-ended question; it aims to explore teachers' own definitions of the notion of classroom interaction.
- ✓ **Question two:** It is a multiple answers question, it seeks to find out further background information regarding classroom interaction, i.e. what does Classroom interaction include? There is a set of variegated options such as managerial issues, instructional delivery and affective relationships between the teacher and the learners. This question is pivotal in understanding how teachers perceive classroom interaction.
- ✓ **Question three:** It is a closed ended question; it basically intends to explore teachers' view vis-à-vis the instruction of classroom interaction to novice or experienced teachers. This question helps the researcher to elaborate an idea about teachers' attitudes with regards to obtaining formal instruction about classroom interaction.
- ✓ **Question Four:** It is an open-ended question; the respondents were asked to provide a justification for their answers in the previous questions. This helps the respondents in having a platform to express their attitudes and share their underlining views.
- ✓ **Question five:** It is a closed ended question. This question is concerned with the instructional format that teachers prefer regarding the instruction of classroom



interaction. They had to choose whether they prefer classroom interaction to be included in the classroom management course or to be a separate course.

- ✓ **Question six:** It is concerned with teachers' beliefs regarding the impact of developing their classroom interactional competence on their teaching quality. The respondents were free to agree, disagree or have a neutral answer.

- **Section three: Teachers' self- report on their interactive practices**

The present section represented a reflective grid for teachers. In this section, teachers were asked to report on their interactive practices. It is a self-retrospection table that helps the researcher to view teachers' own evaluation of their practices. In other words, how do teachers perceive their interactional behaviors in the classroom? This section is designed in a form of a grid, the Likert scale is employed to measure teachers' frequent interactive practices from their point of view. There are no direct questions, but only statements to which their answers range from *Always* to *Never*. Moreover, the Grid is divided into three main interactional strands:

- ✓ **Input and Interaction:** It includes six statements; they revolve around teachers' input such as explaining, giving examples, synthesizing ideas. It also encompassed statements related to teacher-learner interaction such as well as learner-learner interaction.
- ✓ **Turn Taking Techniques:** Its main aim is to see how teachers manage the turn taking behaviors in their classes. It includes five statements, they are concerned with elicitation techniques, questioning patters and providing space for learners' contributions.
- ✓ **Repair strategies:** in this strand, the researcher aims to find out how teachers employ repair strategies. It includes six statements. They mostly

revolve around asking for longer explanations, using non-verbal cues and the kind of feedback teachers give to learners.

### 3.3.6.4. Classroom Observation

The qualitative stage of the researcher started by the classroom observation; the researcher selected five teachers to have an overview about teachers' interactive practices in the classroom. This tool was chosen because **“it is the only way to get direct information on the classroom behavior of teachers and learners” (Weir and Roberts 1993:136)**. In the same line of thought, Mackey and Gass (2005: 175-176) contend that:

**Observations are useful in that they provide the researcher with the opportunity to collect large amounts of rich data on the participants' behavior and actions within a particular context. Over time and repeated observations, the researcher can gain a deeper and more multilayered understanding of the participants and their context.**

In order to conduct a well-organized purposeful observation, the researcher has to decide which type or method of classroom observation she should employ. Evidently, each type is tied with the research aims and methodology.

According to Cohen *et al.* (2007) there are different types of observation: Participant and Non-participant observation:

**A. In terms of the researchers' involvement:** in this regard, we have two type of observation:

- ✓ **Participant Observation:** It basically means that the researcher is part of the observed situation, the researcher engages in the activities and interactions with the research subjects.

- ✓ **Non-participant observation:** As its name suggests, the non-participant observation means that the researcher is not involved in the setting-under - observation. He/she does not interact nor engages in the activities taken place at the setting under investigation.

### **B. In terms of the organization and format of the observation:**

- ✓ **Structured observation:** also called, systematic observation, the researcher observes the setting while being guided by a grid in which a set of features and characteristics are aimed for observation. It is generally conducted using a checklist or a rating scale.
- ✓ **Unstructured observation:** it is the opposite of the before mentioned type. In the unstructured observation, the researcher conducts the observation without the use of any grids, schedules or rating scales. It is referred as “the unmotivated observation “in Ethnographic research.

### **C. In terms of the level of control of observation:**

- ✓ **Controlled observation:** This type is mostly used in experimental research; the researcher conducts an experiment in the research setting and then he/she observes the impact it has on the participants.
- ✓ **Uncontrolled observation:** It is a naturalistic observation. The researcher simply observes the setting as it is and reports his/her findings.

Thus, the classroom observation of the research will be conducted using a non-participant, structured, uncontrolled observation. This is espoused to the naturalistic nature of the classroom. The researcher aims to focus on the quality of discourse that is taking place inside the classroom. A thorough *insitu* analysis of what happens in the classroom may reveal invaluable data for the researcher to evaluate and reflect on these findings.

### 3.3.6.4.1. Aims of the Classroom Observation:

According to Cohen (2007:396), Observation is a valuable research tool. It “offers an investigator the opportunity to gather ‘live’ data from naturally occurring social situations. In this way, the researcher can look directly at what is taking place *in situ* rather than relying on second-hand accounts”.

In this regard, the aims of the classroom observation of this research are summarized as follows:

- To have an overview about how interaction is created and sustained in the classroom. This is conducted through gathering “live” data from the classroom.
- To discern teachers’ interactive practices in the classroom by reporting their interactional choices through their “online-decision making” actions (Walsh 2012:04)
- To gather “authentic” data that is later used for further interpretation and analysis.
- To enable the researcher to verify the information gathered from teachers’ questionnaire and teachers’ interview.

### 3.3.6.4.2. Description of the Classroom observation

The type of the observation employed in this research postulates the use of an observation grid. The *Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk* (SETT) . It is an analytical tool developed by Steve Walsh (2006). It is used to describe and analyze classroom discourse. As its appellation suggests, it was primarily developed for teachers to evaluate their own discourse and interactive choices they make in the classroom. However, its inclusive and accessible format has attracted researchers (Walsh 2010, Aziz 2011, Pande2019, Ghajarieh *et al* 2019) to use it in their research as a valuable observation grid.

The observation sessions took place during the academic year (2018-2019). The researcher informed the participants about the aims of the research. Notwithstanding, she didn't inform them about the details of the observation in fear of the methodological issues that may arise during the session of the classroom observation. These methodological issues might compromise the reliability and validity of the research. It should be noted that the observation grid had to be modified in terms of classroom logistics and the use of another language (L1 or another foreign language, in this case French). In fact, Walsh himself emphasizes that the framework is "representative rather than comprehensive" and thus teachers should modify it to suit a particular context and adapt it to suit their own particular needs (Walsh 2006:86).

Accordingly, the classroom observation grid (**appendix B**) was divided into two sections:

- a. **Classroom Logistics:** it includes class size, seating arrangement and the materials used during the lesson delivery.
- b. **B/Classroom Discourse:** it includes features of teacher talk such as scaffolding, repair, the use of questions, and recasts. Another feature was added "the use of multilingual resources ", that is the use of the mother tongue or other foreign language.

#### **3.3.7. Teachers' interview:**

Broadly speaking, the interview is referred to as: "a one-to-one professional conversation that has a structure and a purpose to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomenon" (Kvale 1996 qtd. In Dörnyei, 2007: 134). It is "**feasible for smaller groups and allows more consistency across responses to be obtained**"(Richards, 2005:61).

As previously discussed; the primary aim of the research to shed light on teachers' beliefs and attitudes regarding classroom interaction. Hence, Teachers' interview is an appropriate research tool that allows the researcher to obtain in-depth information on the selected teachers' opinions, beliefs attitudes and even experiences. As Tuckman puts it:

**“[the interview] provides access to what is ‘inside a person’s head’, [it] makes it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge or information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and preferences), and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs).”**

(As cited in Cohen *et al* 2007:350).

In a nutshell, the interview is a qualitative research method that grants the researcher a privileged access to people's lives (Nunan 1991:149). This is done by providing them a free platform to “voice” their opinions and discuss their opinions and attitudes regarding the topic under investigation.

There are three types of interviews; they can be categorized based on their degree of formality (Nunan 1998:149). These types include:

- ✓ **Structured interview:** as its name suggests, the structured interview is a set of predetermined questions that the researcher develops over the research topic. The researcher asks the participants to answer from a list of options. It is generally quantitatively analyzed.
- ✓ **Semi-structured interview:** in the semi-structured interview, the researcher has main guidelines or broad themes he/she wants to discuss. The conversation is conducted using open ended questions and new questions that may arise during the conversation. Semi-structured interviews offer a considerable amount of flexibility

to both the researcher and the participants. In fact, the researcher is free to add or dismiss any question while the participants are free to answer in any format they prefer to.

- ✓ **Unstructured interview:** In this type, the researcher does not have a set of predetermined questions or guidelines that he/she has to follow. The interview is conducted in an open, informal setting in which the conversation is carried out spontaneously. The researcher only asks broad questions to kick start the conversation while making sure to moderate the interview so that it does deviate from the overall scope of the research.

### 3.3.7.1. Aims of the Teachers' Interview:

**Interviews enable participants- be they interviewers or interviewees- to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live, and to express how they regard situations from their own point of view. In these senses, the interview is not simply concerned with collecting data about life: it is part of life itself**

**(Cohen *et al.*, 2000, p. 267).**

This quotation clearly depicts the essence of an interview. It is an intensive, one-on-one discussion with the selected participants to access further information obtained from the teachers' questionnaire data. Admittedly, the teachers' interview provides the researcher with useful input from the selected participants. Indeed, authentic data from the interview provides the researcher the opportunity to:

- ✓ Collect detailed information about teachers' thoughts, views and attitudes.
- ✓ Pinpoint teachers' views on classroom communication realms; i.e .the strategies they employ and hurdles they face in the classrooms

- ✓ Shed light on teachers' practices that create learning opportunities.

The researcher constructed a semi structured interview to ask them about their perceptions regarding interaction as well as the interactive decisions make in their classrooms. It is aimed at having teachers' personal outlook on their practices and behaviors in the classrooms.

#### **3.3.7.2. Description of the Teachers' Interview:**

As mentioned before, the researcher has chosen to undertake the investigation using a semi-structured interview. Thus, there were no pre-determined questions. In fact, the researcher has outlined the major themes of the interview. They revolved around three major guidelines:

- I. Teachers 'stances regarding the CBA approach and its underlying pedagogical demands;** questions revolve around their teaching methodology, teaching load, suitability of the syllabus to the classroom realms
- II. Teachers' views regarding interaction in the classroom:** in this section, the researcher asked questions about the strategies they employ, the extent to which pedagogical goals are in line with the strategies they perform. In addition researcher also tried to explore to what extent are teacher aware of their talk ( turn taking, student talk)
- III. Teachers' evaluation of their students' interactional competence:** Here, teachers were also asked to state the reasons that contribute to its development or decline
- IV. Further comments and suggestions:** this section allowed a platform for teachers to freely express their opinions about classroom interaction, they were asked to



provide comments, suggestions or recommendations to improve the status of interaction in Algerian classrooms.

Type of Study	Main Research Questions	Research Sub-questions	Selected Method
<b>Case study: Explanatory sequential research design</b>	1. What beliefs and attitudes do EFL secondary school teachers hold regarding Interaction in the classroom?  2. To what extent are teachers' interactional practices aligned with their beliefs and attitudes in the classroom?	1. How do EFL secondary school teachers perceive the construct of classroom interaction in their teaching? 2. Are teachers aware and informed about the role interaction in the EFL classroom?  3. How do EFL teachers create or hinder opportunities for learning in the classroom?	1. <b>Teachers' reflective Questionnaire</b>  2. <b>Teachers' Interview</b>  3. <b>Classroom Observation</b>

**Table03.06: selected research methods**

### 3.3.8. Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is an important stage in the research process. It is the meaning-making phase in which the researcher seeks to decipher raw inexpressive data to be displayed to the reader (Marshall 2011:207). In fact, Brown (2001) describes the data analysis process as “the other half of the battle” in which the research quest for answers begins to be shaped and illuminated. Schwandt (2007:06) postulates that Data analysis is the activity of making sense of, interpreting and theorizing data that signifies a search for general statements among categories of data. This means that both quantitative and qualitative data will be interpreted delineated, and extrapolated in line with the research

questions and aims. In this regard, the researcher has employed two data analysis methods for the sake of reaching well-grounded deductions.

#### **3.3.8.1. Quantitative analysis:**

It is the description and the evaluation of data through statistical analysis. It ensures numerically based results and it is thus more generalizable. It is mostly used when dealing with large scale population.

In the present research, the researcher will conduct a teachers' questionnaire for secondary school teachers in Saida. The target population is aimed towards 112 EFL teachers in all the districts of the city. Therefore, a quantitative analysis was chosen due to its ability to count, analyze and interpret the large data at hand. Furthermore, SPSS software was used to analyze the data. The latter will be briefly introduced in the following section. In addition, a quantitative approach is also used to evaluate teachers' talk.

Accordingly, the researcher keeps a tally of recurrent features of teacher talk as proposed in the observation sheet. In this regard, the researcher will be able to identify the dominant classroom modes.

#### **3.3.8.2. Data analysis with SPSS:**

Formally known as IBM -SPSS, Statistical Package for Social Sciences; SPSS is a statistical software program that is used for the description, examination, and analysis of numerical data. The software was developed in the late 1960's by Norman H. Nie, C. Hadlai (Tex) Hull, and Dale at Stanford University to analyze social science data (Wiley 2007: 29). It went through a series of updating and refinement until the 1980s; when it reached its current model, and it was then commercialized.

SPSS is mostly used in social and educational sciences and allows for managing the analytical process, in terms of planning, data collecting, data access, data management.

### **3.3.8.3. Qualitative Data analysis:**

Qualitative data analysis is the systematic collection and organization of non-numerical data. The latter “may take the form of verbatim descriptions, interviews, written responses, or unstructured observations” (Weir and Roberts, 1994, p. 159).

**Qualitative data analysis involves “organizing, accounting for and explaining the data; in short, making sense of data in terms of the participants’ definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities » (Cohen 2007 :461).**

Admittedly, in the qualitative analysis, the researcher can describe features, discover patterns and generate recurrent themes.

#### **3.3.8.3.1. Classroom Observation Grid:**

The observation grid is divided into two sections; the first section is related to the logistical part of the classroom. It includes the class size, seating arrangement and the materials used during the lesson delivery.

The second section is mostly concerned with classroom discourse. The observation grid was from Walsh SETT framework. It includes features of Teacher Talk, tally and examples from the recording. The SETT framework will be briefly discussed in the following section.

### 3.3.8.3.2. Walsh's Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk framework:

The Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT henceforth) is an analytical tool that was first introduced by Steve Walsh (2006). It was designed in collaboration with EFL teachers based on his analysis of classroom interaction. Its main aim is to analyze and evaluate Teacher Talk. The SETT has been used to promote awareness and understanding of the role of interaction in class-based learning and help teachers improve their practices. In fact, it is an *ad hoc* observation instrument (walsh2013:69) that is considered as central in reflective teaching and teacher development through classroom interaction. Since its introduction, the SETT framework has been used in a variety of educational settings such as initial education programmes (PGCE) (Loving, 2008) , INSET course for experienced teachers (Howard 2010) and several institutional settings ( Hougham2015, Ghafarpour 2016, Perkins 2018)

Insofar the present research is concerned, the researcher has chosen to analyze the classroom observation data using the SETT framework due to its ability to provide an up close, *ecological* (Van Lier ,2000) understanding of the interactional instances that are taking place in the classroom.

The SETT comprises four classroom micro contexts (called modes) or what Heritage et al (1991) refer to as **Fingerprints**. Each classroom mode is associated with a pedagogical role and a set of interactional features (**see appendix c**) . In addition, thirteen interactional features (called interactures) make up the analytical backdrop of the framework. These modes are:

**a. Managerial mode:**

Broadly speaking, the main purpose of the managerial mode is to organize the physical conditions for learning to take place, transmit information and initiate or conclude an activity. It can be characterized by long extended teacher turn and an absence of learner involvement. It also can be manifested in a number of interactional features such as the use of comprehension checks, the use of transitional markers and lack of learners' contribution.

**b. Materials mode:**

The primary pedagogical goal in this mode is to "provide language instruction around a piece of material" (Walsh 2013:74). It is defined by the predominance of a rigid IRF structure.

It ensures that learners are provided with written or audiovisual resources as a guide for receiving, testing and assessing learners' contributions. This is achieved through the extensive use of display questions, Form-focused feedback, corrective repair and the Use of scaffolding.

**c. Skills and systems mode:**

The pedagogical aims of this mode are based on promoting the learners' active involvement in terms of grammatical accuracy and manipulating the target language; it provides learners with practice in sub-skills and enables them to display correct answers. The interactional features of this mode are thus reflected in the use of direct repair, display questions, clarification requests for questions as well as focused feedback forms.

**d. Classroom context mode:**

### Chapter Three: Situation Analysis and Research Methodology

One of its key pedagogical aims is to create a framework for encouraging oral fluency. Besides, it enables learners to express themselves clearly in a context that is promoted through dialogue and discussion. Thus, the Classroom context mode marks the shift from teacher-initiated interaction to a learner-centered one. Its prominent interactional features are: Extended learner turns, Short teacher turns, minimal repair, Content feedback referential questions, scaffolding, and the use of clarification requests. A neat summary is presented below:

<b><i>Mode</i></b>	<b><i>Pedagogic goals</i></b>	<b><i>Interactional features</i></b>
<b>Managerial</b>	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	Single, extended teacher turn which uses explanations and/or instructions Use of transitional markers Use of confirmation checks Absence of learner contributions
<b>Materials</b>	To provide input or 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 Use of scaffolding
<b>Skills and Systems</b>	To enable learners to produce correct forms To enable learners to manipulate the target language To provide corrective feedback To display correct answers To provide learners with practice in sub-skills	Use of direct repair Use of scaffolding Extended teacher turns Display questions Teacher echo Clarification requests Form-focused feedback
<b>Classroom context</b>	To enable learners to express themselves clearly To establish a context To promote dialogue and discussion	Extended learner turns Short teacher turns Minimal repair Content feedback Referential questions Scaffolding Clarification requests

**Table 03.07: L2 Classroom Modes (Walsh 2006:94)**

The framework highlights interface between pedagogy and interaction, It is concerned to establish an understanding of the relationship between interaction and learning; specifically the interface between teaching objectives and teacher talk

(Walsh 2013: 72).

### 3.3.9. Coding Software (Transana 2.10)

Modern technology has permitted research in social and educational sciences to include advanced ways into their data collection and analysis process. There is a substantial number of coding programs in the field of human sciences such as NVivo, AQUAD7, ATLAS, and TRANSANA. The latter is the selected software to conduct the data coding process.

The coding phase was conducted using *TRANSANA* 2.10 software. In 2001, David k Woods developed the software to help researchers in managing qualitative data. It is a qualitative analysis software for video files, audio files, and images. It “allows for the selection, categorization, and coding of portions of visual and auditory data as part of the analytic process. It also allows the synchronization and simultaneous display of multiple media files to facilitate understanding in data-rich environments, such as classrooms,” (Woods ,2014, p.121). The software facilitated the coding phase for the researcher.



Figure 03.04: Screenshot of the TRANSANA 2.10 software

### 3.3.10 Triangulation

Being one of the key strengths of the mixed methods approach, triangulation is” the practice of using multiple sources of data or multiple approaches to analyzing data to enhance the credibility of a research study (Hastings2010:1537). It is conducted through a multi-faceted data collection and analysis procedures. The ability to collect data using different research methods helps the researcher to approach the research problem from variegated angles, obtain a broad vision of the inquiry and thus extrapolate the data findings in an in-depth, up-close manner. From a post-positivist view, triangulation enables the researcher to minimize the biases inherent in using single research. It also offers the opportunity to yield multiple types of data by comparing and cross-checking findings (ibid:1539).

Apropos the present inquiry, the researcher will use data from the teachers’ questionnaire; the latter will yield information regarding teachers’ beliefs, and opinions regarding the construct of interaction in the EFL classroom at a larger scale. Afterwards, the research will be narrowed down to a qualitative approach using classroom observation and teachers’ interviews for the selected teachers. Eventually the yielded data from the quantitative and qualitative data will lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem.

### 3.3.11. Pilot study:

It refers to either a trial run of the major research study or a pretest of a particular research instrument or procedure (Persaud, 2010, p.1033). It helps to identify design related problems and advantages.



Before launching the research project at a larger scale, the pilot study was conducted at the level of the teachers' questionnaire. The main aim was to introduce the questionnaire to a small sample of the teachers as a preliminary test to identify any unclear, ambiguous or even misleading questions that might threaten the validity of the results. In addition, Classroom Observation was also piloted in order to avoid the impact the observation on the interactional environment of the classroom. As discussed in the section above, some adjustments were made to facilitate the classroom observation sessions

### **3.3.12 Ethical and methodological considerations:**

Identifying and addressing ethical and methodological issues that face scientific inquiry is a stepping stone in a well-established research. These two components permeate the entire research procedures and may greatly affect their steps and findings. In this regard, Cassell and Jacobs (1987) contended: "we must consider not only exceptional cases but everyday decisions, and reflect not only upon the conduct of others but also upon our own actions" (as cited in burgees1989:01). This allows the researcher to reconsider her research methods and "make rearrangements in the research design where possible or necessary" (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995, p. 41).

#### **3.3.12.1 Informed consent**

In any science that requires interaction with individual. The consent of the participants is not only a legal but an ethical imperative. The researcher is bound to take ethical measures in order to ensure an upright of the research.

Insofar the research is concerned; the researcher has provided the participants with the necessary introduction about the nature and quality of her research. She also explained the research process and the methods that will be conducted. Nevertheless, the researcher abstained from revealing some information that might compromise the validity of the

research. She did not inform them that her main focus was to explore their practices regarding classroom interaction. The participants have signed informed consent forms (Appendix C) indicating that they accept to take part in the research. They have also agreed to be audio recorded during the classroom observation sessions. Moreover, the researcher ensured that the participants will not be identified by name in the final product, and all records will be kept confidential in the secure possession of the researcher.

#### **3.3.12.2 Validity and reliability:**

Validity and reliability represent the essence of research methodology. They evaluate the quality of the research. In fact, they reflect whether the presented results are trustworthy and meaningful.

Samuel Messick defines Validity as “an integrated, evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores or other modes of assessment” (Moss ,2010, p.1638).

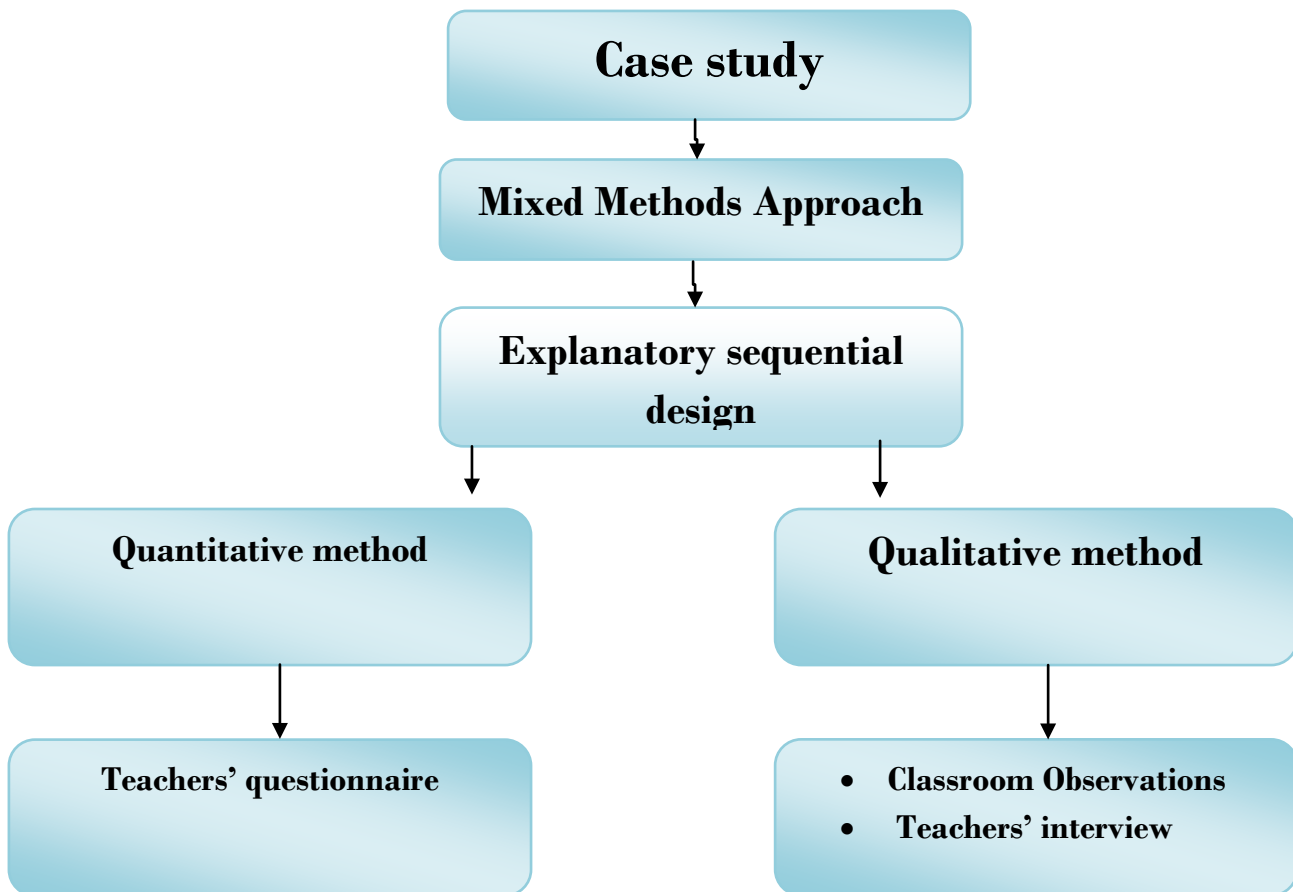
Reliability is defined as “the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions” (Silverman,2005, p.224 as cited in Dornyei, 2007, p.57). In other words, reliability is the degree to which the research method has revealed consistent and dependable results.

The research entails the conduct of a series of classroom observation sessions. Hence, the researcher has to be present during the sessions. This has posed a common methodological problem that might compromise the results of the research; the Hawthorne effect. In fact, The Hawthorne Effect was the main concern for the researcher when

approaching the research. The latter refers to “the tendency for study participants to change their behavior simply as a result of being observed. (James, 2010,p.563).

In an attempt to mitigate the Hawthorne effect, the researcher has decided to conduct preliminary observational sessions with the teachers in order to familiarize them with “being observed”. Similarly, Hitchcock and Hughes (1989) postulate “Doing participant observation or interviewing one’s peers raises ethical problems that are directly related to the nature of the research technique employed. The degree of openness or closure of the nature of the research and its aims is one that directly faces the teacher researcher (as cited in Cohen ,2007, p.69).

Therefore, the researcher has conducted pilot observational sessions with the selected teachers. These sessions were discarded and the subsequent sessions were taken into consideration.



**Figure03.05: Research Design**

### **3.3.13 Limitations of the study:**

The present research is an exploratory/descriptive study that is aimed at investigating teachers' attitudes, beliefs and practices. The particularity of this research postulates conducting the research with a close, in-depth approach. To this end, the number of participants included in the study was a limited one (five teachers). Evidently, the results of the research cannot be generalized as they depict personal opinions, attitudes and beliefs of a small proportion of a larger population.

Originally, the researcher planned to conduct the research using video recordings of the classrooms. In fact, this could have allowed better depiction and analysis of teachers' practices by shedding light on teachers' and learners' nonverbal cues for they are also

instrumental communicative means. Nonetheless, this could not be achieved due to cultural and even legal constraints.

### **3.3.14 Conclusion:**

The present chapter represented a descriptive account of the methodological framework of the research. First the researcher has provided a situation analysis introducing the background of the research. This section has included a succinct description of the Algerian educational policy, the ELT status in Algeria as well as the place of interaction in the educational curriculum.

The second section is purely methodological; the researcher presented the research objectives and motivations. In addition, she has elucidated the ontological and epistemological stances of the research approach. The researcher has thoroughly explained the research methods used in the data collection and data analysis phase while providing justifications for their use.

In the subsequent chapter, the researcher will report on, analyze and interpret the findings accumulated in the data collection process.

**Chapter Four:**  
**Data Analysis and Discussion**

## **Chapter Four: Data Analysis and Discussion**

### **4.1. Introduction**

### **4.2 Teachers' questionnaire**

4.2.1. Section one: Teachers' profile

4.2.2. Section two: Teachers' schemata and beliefs regarding classroom interaction

4.2.3. Section three: Teachers' self-report on their interactive practices

4.2.3.1 Input and interactional activities

4.2.3.2 Turn taking techniques

4.2.3.3 Section three: Repair strategies

4.2.4. Discussion of the main findings

### **4.3 Classroom Observation**

4.3.1. Interactional features and dominant classroom modes

4.3.1.1. Teacher (A)

4.3.1.2. Teacher (B)

4.3.1.3. Teacher (C)

4.3.1.4. Teacher (D)

4.3.1.5. Teacher (E)

4.3.2. Teachers' Practices and Emergent Themes

4.3.2.1. Questioning techniques

4.3.2.2. Error correction and feedback

4.3.2.3. Use of multilingual resources

### **4.4 Teachers' interview**

4.4.1. Personal and pedagogical influences on teachers' beliefs

4.4.1.1. Teachers' learning experiences

4.4.1.2. The impact of teachers' learning experiences on their interactive methodology

4.4.1.3. Teachers' pedagogical influences

4.4.2. Teachers' views regarding interaction in the classroom

4.4.2.1. The status of interaction under the current educational system

4.4.2.2. The impact of classroom interaction on students' learning outcomes

4.4.2.3. Teachers' practices to promote interaction

4.4.3. Teachers' evaluation of their students' interactional competence

4.4.4. Teachers' suggestions and recommendations

#### 4.4.5. Summary and interpretation of the main findings

### 4.5 Discussion

4.5.1. Teachers' professed attitudes and actual practices towards Classroom interaction

4.5.2. The impact of the pedagogical discourse of creating or hindering learning opportunities

4.5.3. Further considerations

4.5.3.1 Teachers' and Learners' motivation

4.5.3.2. Teachers' teaching styles

### 4.6 Conclusion



## Chapter Four

### Data Analysis and Discussion

#### 4.1. Introduction:

In this chapter, the researcher attempts to shed light on the interactive environment in EFL secondary classrooms by providing a comprehensive account of teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards classroom interaction. Furthermore, teachers' actual practices in the classroom are also tackled and discussed. Ergo, this chapter provides a thorough analysis of the EFL teaching realms through dissecting teachers' professed beliefs and actual practices.

#### 4.2. Teachers' questionnaire:

As mentioned before, the questionnaire was set up using a simple closed format. It contained three sections: Teachers' profile, Teachers' schemata and beliefs regarding classroom interaction and teachers' self-report on their interactive practices. The results are thoroughly revealed and discussed in the remainder of the chapter.

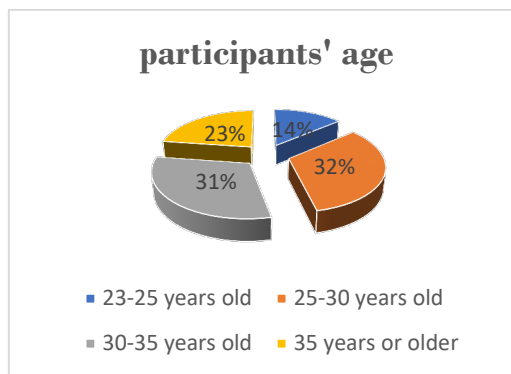
The questionnaire was administered to 112 teachers from different secondary school teachers in Saida. To ensure a wider coverage, the questionnaire was administered to the teachers either as handouts or through online questionnaire. The researcher has received a total of one hundred and one (101) responses.

##### 4.2.1. Section One: Teachers' profile

This introductory section aimed at exploring teachers' demographic profiles. It encompassed three components: age, gender, educational backgrounds and professional experience.

- **Age:**

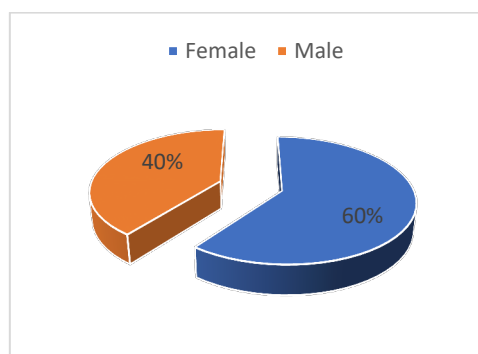
The graph below illustrates the participants' age rate. In a total of 101 teachers: 13,9% of them were twenty-three to twenty-five years old. Furthermore, thirty three teachers (N=30) with a percentage of 32,7% aged between twenty five (25) to thirty years old (30) .In addition, thirty-one teachers(N=31) with a percentage of 30,7 % aged between thirty and thirty-five years old. A relatively low number of teachers (N=23) with a percentage estimated of 22,8% had an age range higher than thirty five years old.



**Figure 04.01: Participants' age**

- **Gender :**

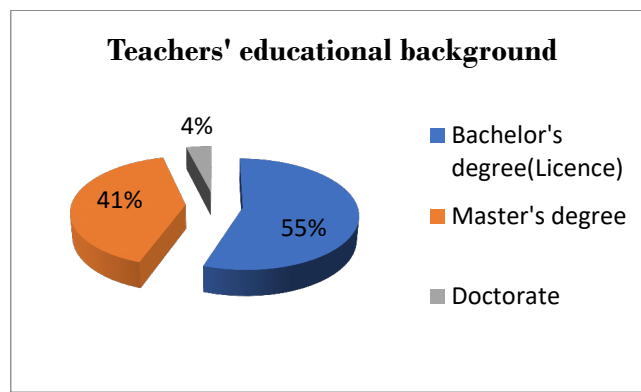
In this table, results display the gender distribution of the participants. There are sixty one (N=61) teachers with a percentage of 60,4% and thus representing a wide majority of the research population. On the other hand, data shows a number of forty (N=40) male teachers with a percentage of 39,6% the research sample.



**Figure 04.02: Participants' gender**

**3. Degree :**

The main purpose of this question was to have an idea about teachers' educational backgrounds. Results showed that the majority of the participants (N=56) had a bachelor's degree (licence). Their percentage was estimated by 55.4%. In addition, a number of forty-one teachers (N=41) with a percentage of 40.6% were holders of a Master's degree. A scarce proportion of the research population (only four teachers) estimated with 4% were holders of a doctorate degree.



**Figure 04.03: Participants' educational background**

✓ **Teaching experience:**

In this inquiry, the researcher's main objective was to discern teachers' professional experience. As the bar graph below shows, there are nineteen novice teachers (N=19) with a teaching experience ranging from one to five years of experience. In addition, there are eleven teachers (10.9% of the research population) whose teaching experience ranges from six to ten years of teaching. Approximately thirty-two (N=32) of the participants have been teaching from eleven to fifteen years, they make up a relatively high rate of the respondents' percentage 31.7%. Moreover, there are twenty-four (N=24) teachers with a percentage of (23.8%); their teaching experience ranges from sixteen to twenty years of experience. Also, results indicate that there are twelve teachers (11.9%) who have been teaching for twenty-one to twenty-five years. As for the late career

teachers, the results have indicated that there only three (N=03) teachers whose teaching experience is more than twenty-six years.

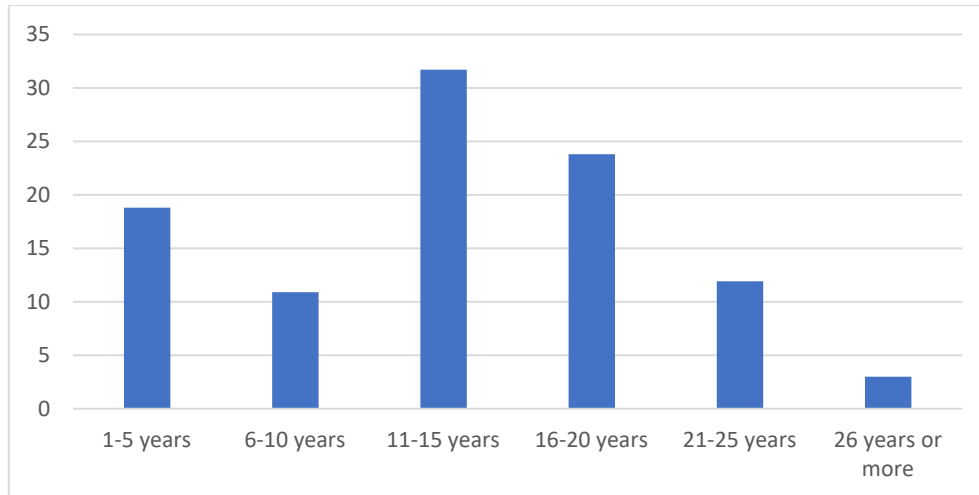


Figure04.04: Participants' teaching experience

#### 4.2.2. Section Two: Teachers' Schemata and beliefs regarding Classroom Interaction

In this section, the researcher's aim is to uncover teachers' beliefs and their background knowledge with regards to the construct of interaction in the classroom. This section is made up of six questions:

##### Question one: How would you define Classroom Interaction?

In this question, the participants were asked to provide their own definition of the term classroom interaction. Results have shown disparate views regarding this construct. Most of the respondents viewed classroom interaction from a bilateral point of view. In other words, they viewed classroom interaction from the constructs of Teacher Talking Time and Student Talking Time. Their definitions focused on the distribution of the teacher's and the learners' talking time. Other definitions were purely prescriptive in which some teachers talked about the importance of interaction and maximizing learners' talking time. In this vein, a teacher postulates that classroom interaction refers to :” *“A good*

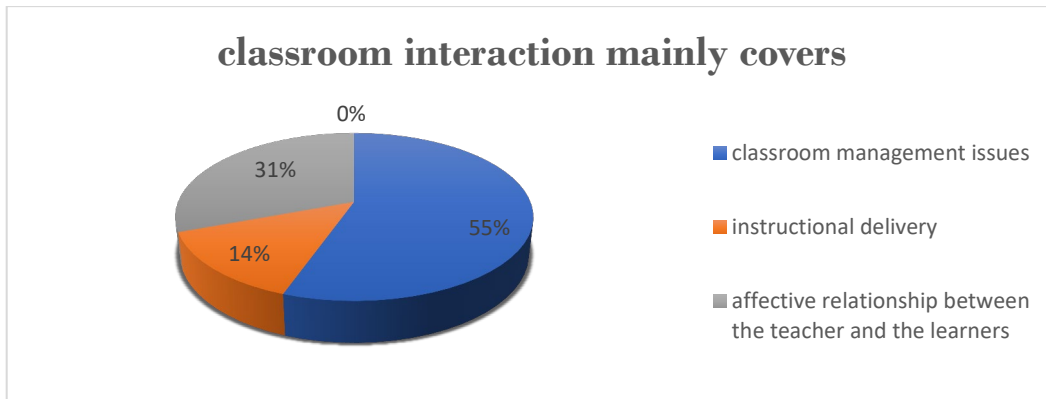
*atmosphere where the learners are able to express themselves. They must be the center of the teaching-learning process, thus more STT than TTT “*

Furthermore, other teachers perceived interaction from a communicative point of view, one teacher said that “Classroom *interaction is how to communicate in a meaningful way with learners to reach the objective of the lesson*”. In a similar point of view, another teacher wrote:” *it is the harmony created among students themselves and the students with their teacher in what is related to the learning process. This interaction usually results in a better classroom atmosphere*”.

In another point of view, some teachers’ responses were mainly related to developing the speaking skill of learners. In this regard, a teacher stated that: “*The opportunities” to speak, share and exchange ideas among parts of learning i.e teachers and learners to boost their speaking skill “*. While another teacher said: “*Classroom interaction is a practice that enhances the development of two important language skills which are speaking and listening among the learners*”

In a nutshell, the participants’ definitions of classroom interaction showed a clear disparity in their perception of this term. Some teachers had a quantitative view of the concept in terms of TTT vs STT. Others viewed classroom interaction from a qualitative point of view; they believed that interaction is related to the communicative environment that is shaped in the classroom and the learning opportunities that are created for the learners. On the other hand, some teachers believed that classroom interaction is mainly related with developing the speaking skill.

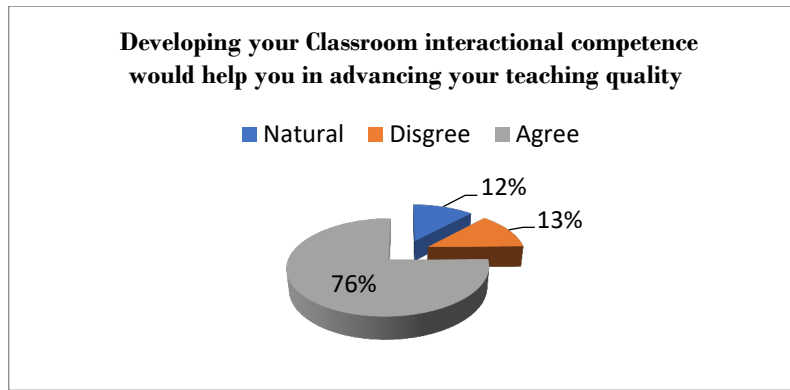
***Question two: Classroom interaction mainly covers :( select one or more)***



**Figure 04.05: Participants' associated terms with classroom interaction**

As a follow up to the last question, the respondents were asked to select statements that are related to the term classroom interaction based on their point of view. Thus, the respondents had to choose whether Classroom interaction is related to classroom management issues, technical aspects of instructional delivery such as repair and questioning techniques; or psychological factors of the interaction such as affective relationship between the teacher and the learners. Results have revealed that most of the teachers (N=56) with a percentage of 55.44% believed that classroom interaction is related to the managerial issues. While other teachers (N=31) with a percentage of (30.7%) believe that classroom interaction covers affective relationships between the teacher and the learners. On the other hand, only fourteen teachers (N=14) representing a percentage of (13.86%) believe that classroom interaction is related to the technicalities of instructional delivery (elicitation techniques, repair, recast ...etc.

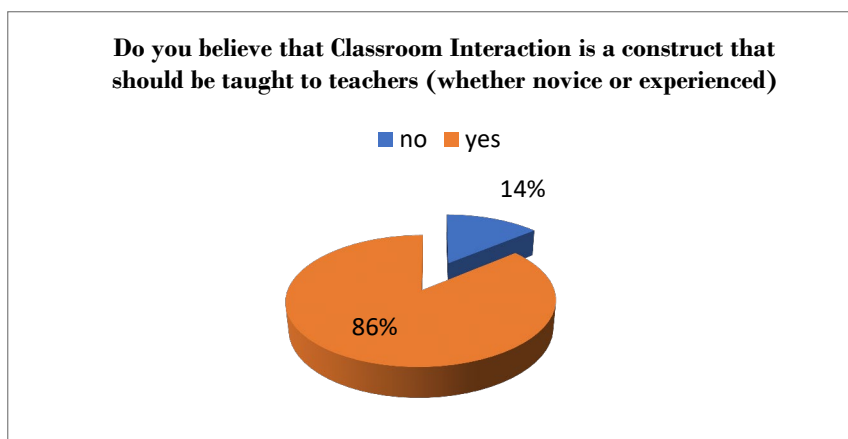
***Question three: Developing your Classroom interactional competence would help you in advancing your teaching quality***



**Figure 04.06: Participants’ viewpoints about Classroom interactional competence**

The aim behind this question was to explore teachers’ perception towards the effect of developing their classroom interactional competence on their teaching quality. Most teachers (N=76) representing a percentage of (75.2%) acknowledge the positive impact of developing their classroom international competence on their teaching quality. However, thirteen teachers (12.9%) negate the relationship between classroom interactional competence and their teaching quality. Similarly, twelve teachers (11.9%) have a neutral stance regarding the correlation between classroom interactional competence and their teaching quality.

***Question four: Do you believe that Classroom Interaction is a construct that should be taught to teachers (whether novice or experienced)?***



**Figure 04.07: Participants’ opinions regarding the teachability of classroom interaction**

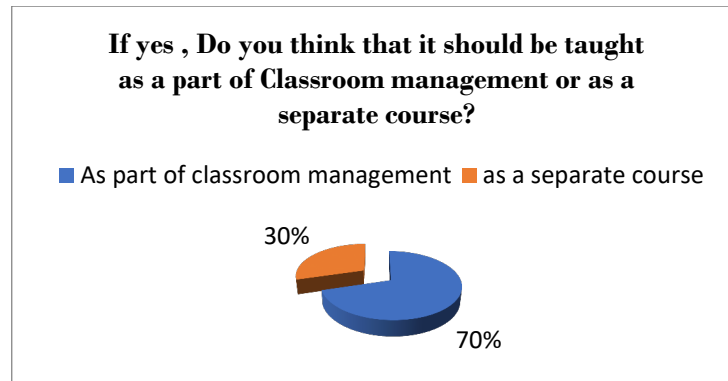
The aim of this question was to explore the extent to which the participants recognize classroom interaction as a teachable material for early or late career teachers. The results have shown that a vast majority of the teachers (86.1%) have a positive attitude towards the teachability of classroom interaction. Whereas fourteen teachers (N=14) representing a percentage of 13.9% have answered negatively regarding instructing teachers about classroom interaction.

***Question five: If no, state the reason:***

This follow up question was directed towards the respondents who had a negative attitude towards teaching classroom interaction to teachers. Some teachers have argued that interaction is a spontaneous endeavor that happens in the spur of the moment and thus it cannot be taught. In this regard, one teacher mentioned that ***“interaction is a natural act that reflects how much students have responded to teachers’ input”***. Another teacher has focused on teacher’s personal traits as a determinant of classroom interaction, he added that ***“...because classroom interaction is built in accordance the teacher personality and his or her knowledge background”***. On the other hand, most teachers have agreed that classroom interaction is learned through experience and thus it cannot be taught through formal instruction.

***Question six: If yes, do you think that it should be taught as a part of Classroom management or as a separate course?***





**Figure 04.08: Teaching Classroom interaction as an integrated or a separate course**

This question was asked for the respondents who had positive attitude towards the teachability of classroom interaction to teachers. The answer to this question was almost unanimous as sixty-nine teachers (68.3%) believed that classroom interaction should be taught as a part of classroom management course while twenty-nine teachers (28.7%) have answered that classroom interaction should be taught as a separate course.

#### **4.2.3. Section three: Teachers' self-report on their interactive practices**

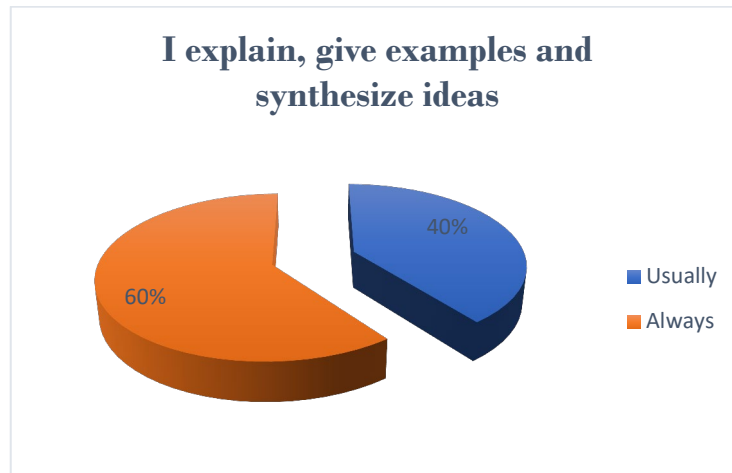
This section represents a self-report grid for teachers. It is developed using the Likert scale measurement. Thus, it includes seventeen statements to which the respondents had to choose the frequency of their discursive patterns from a four-point scale continuum ranging from always to never. These statements are categorized into three main strands: Input and interaction, Turn taking techniques and repair strategies. They are considered as main interactional features in any classroom interactional event. The main aim behind this section was to uncover teachers' personal views of their practices which implicitly inform the researcher about their attitudes.

##### **4.2.3.1. Input and interactional activities:**

Input is considered as one of the main aspects in classroom interaction. This section encompasses a set of interactional conducts that the teacher performs in the

classroom to provide input for the learners. It consists of six interactional patterns to which the informants rated the frequency of employing them in their classes.

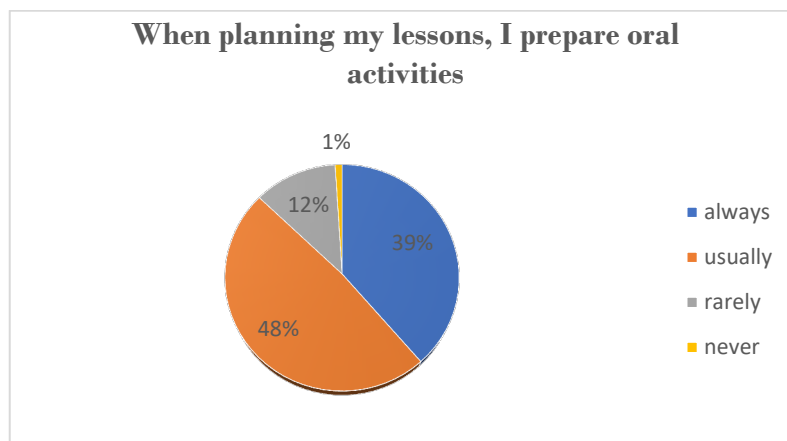
**1. I explain, give examples and synthesize ideas throughout all the stages of the lesson:**



**Figure 04.09: I explain, give examples and synthesize ideas throughout all the stages of the lesson**

The aim behind this statement was to reveal the extent to which the informants controlled the interactional space of the lesson. The responses have been unanimous. All the teachers agreed that they explain, give examples and synthesize ideas throughout all the stages of the lesson.

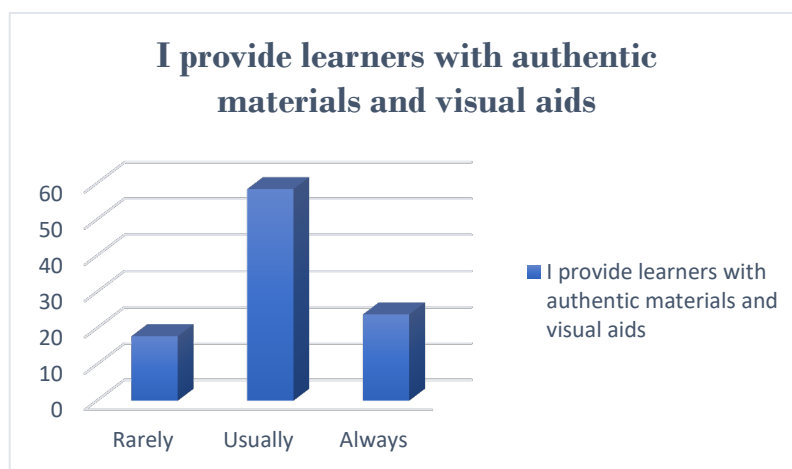
**2. When planning my lesson, I prepare oral activities**



**Figure 04.10: When planning my lessons, I prepare oral activities**

When asked about their consideration for oral production in planning their lessons. Forty-nine teachers (48.51%) have revealed that they usually take oral activities in their lesson plans. Similarly, thirty nine teachers representing a percentage of (38.61%) have reported that oral production is always a part of their lesson plans. In addition, twelve informants (11.88%) stated that they rarely plan oral activities in their lesson. On the other hand, only one teacher responded that he does not take them into consideration.

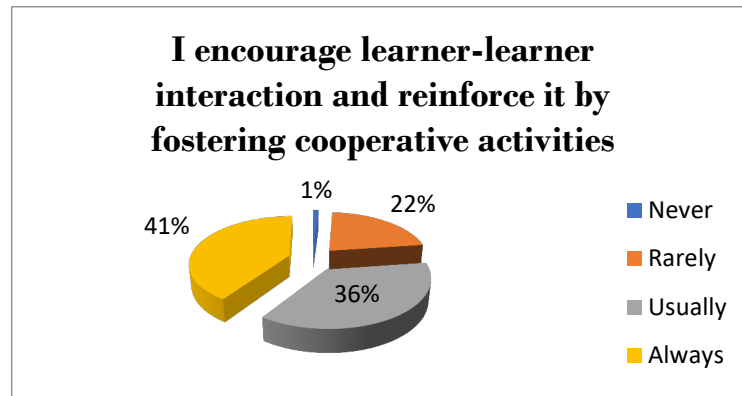
**3. I provide learners with authentic materials and visual aids to promote class discussion:**



**Figure 04.11: I provide Learners with authentic materials and visual aids to promote discussion**

The diagram displays to what extent teachers use authentic materials and visual aids in promoting interaction in the classroom. The vast majority of the informants (58.4%) have agreed that they usually use authentic materials and visual aids to promote class discussion. In the same vein, twenty-four informants representing a rate of (23.8%) have reported that they promote class discussion through authentic materials on a regular basis. Only eighteen teachers (17.8%) have answered negatively towards the use of realia in class debates and discussions.

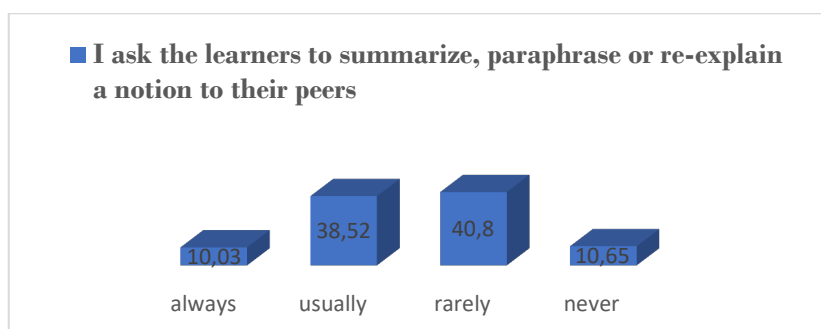
**4. I encourage learner-learner interaction and reinforce it by fostering cooperative activities:**



**Figure 04.12: I encourage learner-learner interaction by fostering cooperative activities**

The present chart elicits teachers’ employment of cooperative activities to encourage learner-learner interaction. 41% of the informants have revealed that they always use cooperative activities to encourage interaction. In a similar view, 36% of the informants report that they usually encourage learner-learner interaction by employing cooperative activities. On the other hand, 22% of the participants said that they rarely employ cooperative strategies to promote interaction while only 01% have reported a lack of use of cooperative strategies to promote interaction.

**5. I ask the learners to summarize, paraphrase or re-explain a notion to their peers**

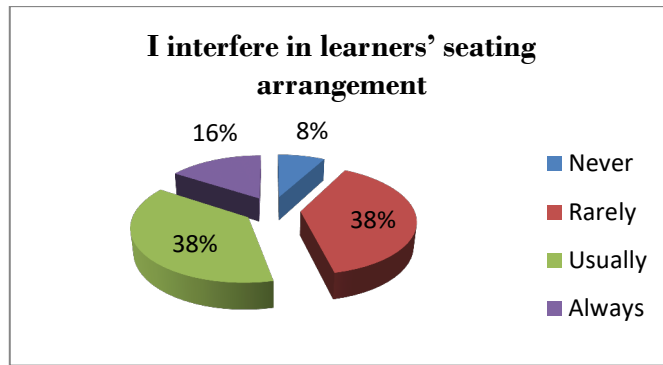


**Figure 04.13: I ask the learners to summarize, paraphrase or re-explain a notion to their peers**

The aim of the statement was to uncover the extent to which teachers instigate interaction by “pushing” the learners to summarize, paraphrase or re-explain a notion to their peers. As the diagram displays, 10.03% of the respondents have revealed that they always instigate learner/learner interaction by pushing the learners to take part in the communication. Similarly, nearly half of the participants representing a rate of (48.52%) have revealed that they usually employ these strategies. On the other hand, 40.60% of the participants revealed that they rarely use these strategies. Likewise, a percentage of 11.88% representing a number of twelve teachers have reported that they never use these strategies. One teacher has written a comment next to this statement espousing this lack of strategies to the low level of the learners.

**6. I interfere in my learners’ seating arrangement**

Seating arrangement is related to the logistical side of classroom interaction. This diagram shows the level to which teachers interfere in learners’ seating arrangement. Results have revealed convergent results (38% rate for both always and usually). On the other hand, 16% of the informants have reported that they do not interfere in their learners’ seating arrangement. Whereas, 08% of the participants have reported that they never interfere in this area.

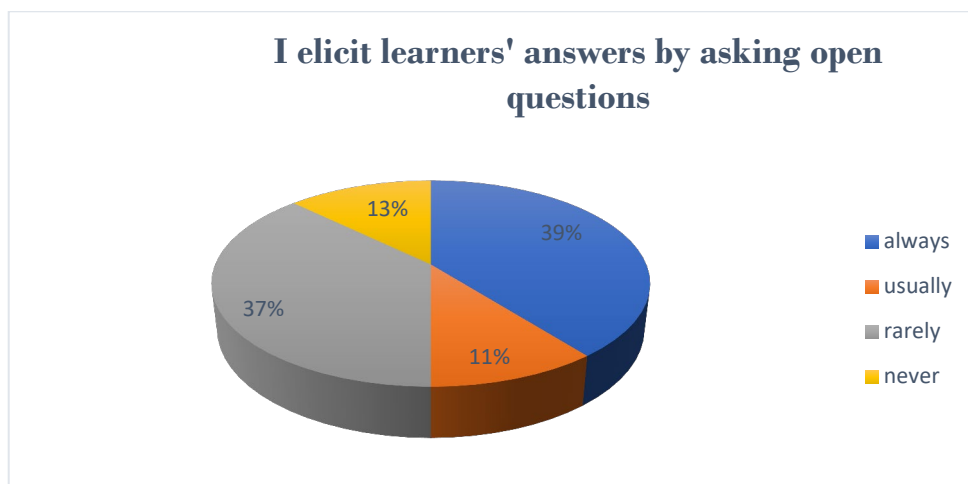


**Figure 04.14: I interfere in my learners' seating arrangement**

**4.2.3.2. Turn taking techniques:**

When mentioning interaction, one can ill afford to ignore the centrality of turn taking behavior in communication. In the language classroom, turn taking is an interactional constituent that generally exerted between the teacher and the learners. Thus, in this section, the researcher provides the participants with five statements to which they have rated their frequency of usage. These statements describe turn taking techniques. The findings have revealed the following:

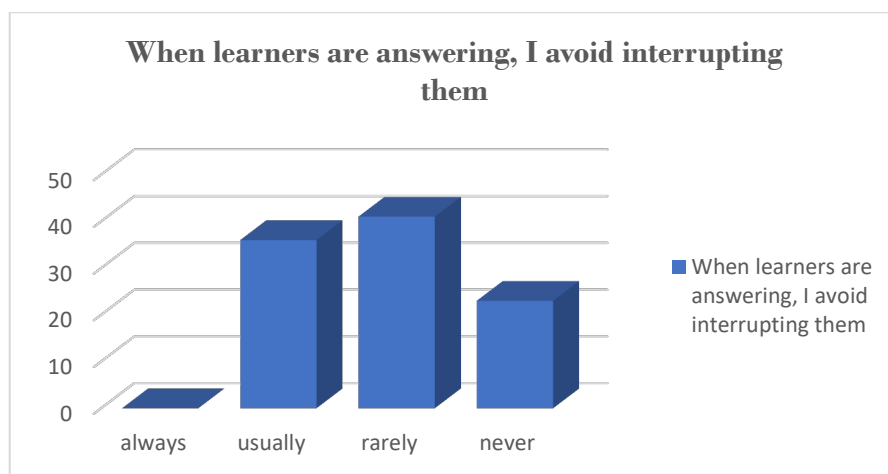
**1. I elicit learners' answers by asking open questions:**



**Figure 04.15: I elicit learners' answers by asking open questions**

As the diagram illustrates, results show disparate views regarding eliciting learners' responses through the use of open question. 39% of the informants have reported that they always use this questioning technique to elicit learners' answers. On the other hand, 37% of them have revealed that they rarely use this technique. In addition, a small proportion of the participants (13%) have reported a complete lack of usage of open question to elicit responses from the learners.

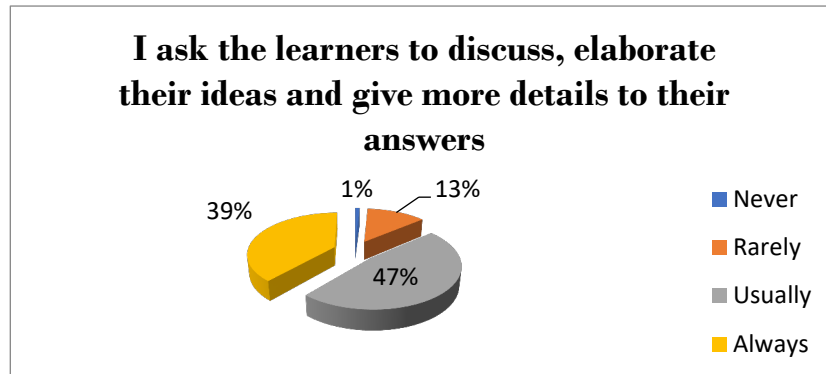
### 2. When learners are answering, I avoid interrupting them



**Figure04.16: when learners are answering, I avoid interrupting them**

As the bar graph displays, 41% of the participants have reported that they rarely avoid interrupting their learners when they are answering. This is probably due to teachers' tendency to constantly assist the learners in their oral production through echoing, repairing and clarifying learners' answers. On the other hand, 36% of the teachers have revealed that they usually avoid interrupting their learners while answering. Meanwhile, 23% of the teachers have said that they never interrupt their learners in the midst of their oral production.

**2. I ask the learners to discuss, elaborate their ideas and give more details to their answers**

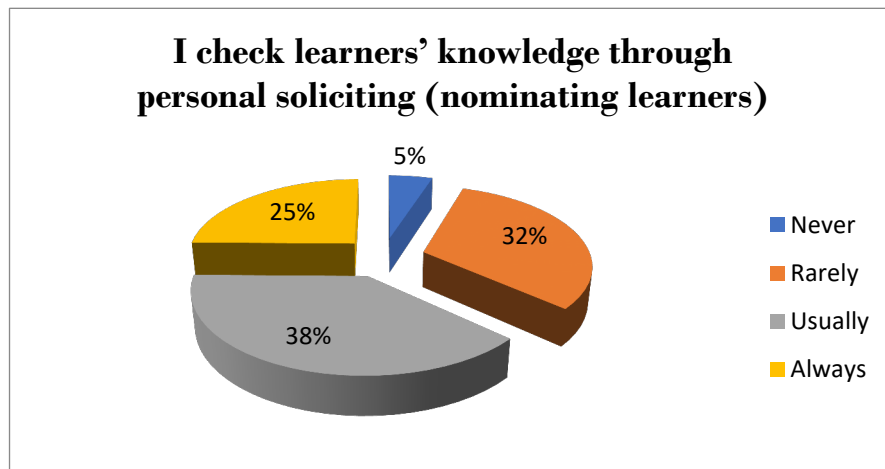


**Figure 04.17: I ask the learners to discuss, elaborate their ideas and give more details to their answers**

The aim behind this statement is to display teachers' turn allocation behavior. More specifically, instigating them to initiate interaction and maintain it by asking them to discuss and elaborate their ideas. 47% of the respondents have reported that they usually employ this strategy while 39 % have revealed that they regularly allocate enough interactional turns to their learners through encouraging them to elaborate their ideas and give examples. These answers reveal a positive and a “healthy” attitude towards turn taking behaviour. On the contrary,13% of the teacher have reported that they rarely employ these interactional strategies.



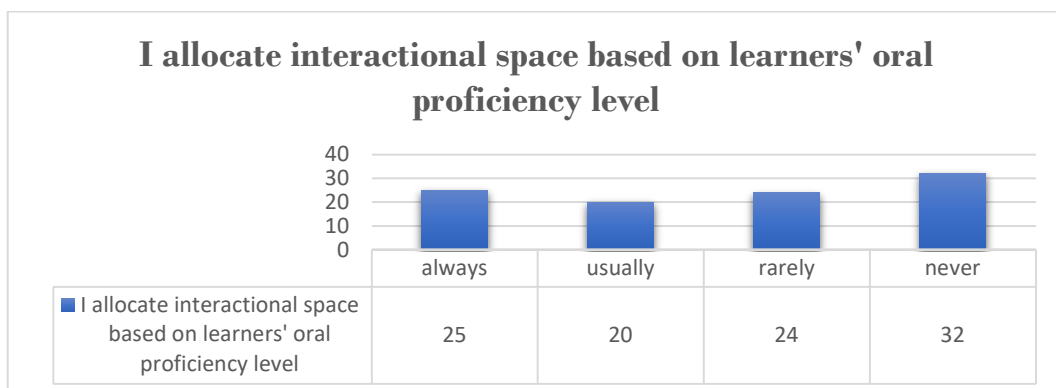
**3. I check learners’ knowledge through personal soliciting (nominating learners)**



**Figure 04.18: I check learners’ knowledge through personal soliciting (nominating learners)**

Personal soliciting is one of the ways turn allocation system can be performed in the classroom. This graph aims eliciting to what extent is this behaviour exercised in the classroom. In this regard, a large proportion of the participants (38% = usually and 25% = always) have reported a regular employment of this strategy. On the contrary, 32% of the informants have revealed that they rarely use this strategy.

**4. I allocate interactional space based on learners’ oral proficiency level:**



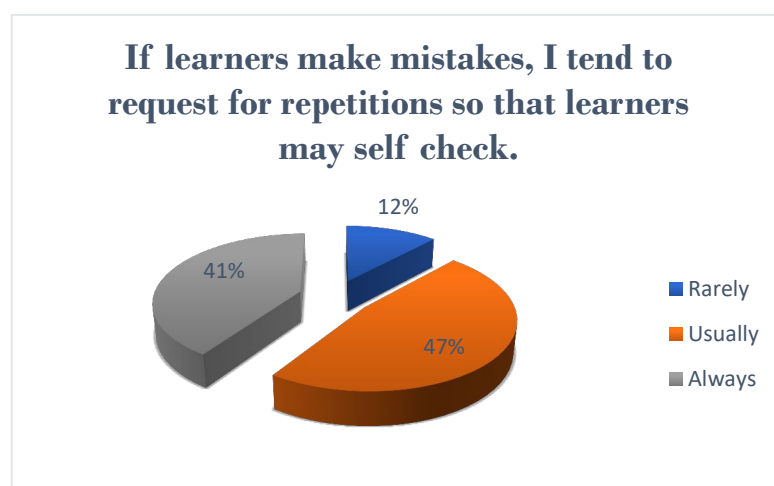
**Figure 04.19: I allocate interactional space based on learners’ oral proficiency level**

The present graph illustrates teachers' turn allocation for learners based on their oral proficiency level. In other words, do teachers choose who talks more in the class based on his/her oral proficiency? Teachers' responses to this question were almost convergent, 32% of the teachers have reported that they never decide learners' turn allocation based on their oral proficiency level. On the other hand, 25% of the teachers have reported that they always employ this strategy. Similarly, 24% of the informants have answered that they rarely bid turns for learners based on their oral production proficiency.

### 4.2.3.3. Section three: Repair strategies

It is axiomatic that in any teaching/learning event, errors are likely to occur. Thus, repair is an optimal aspect of interaction employed to mend those errors and foster the learning process. Therefore, this section is dedicated to the repair strategies that teachers may use in their classrooms. It comprises five statements to which the participants were asked to choose based on their frequency of employment.

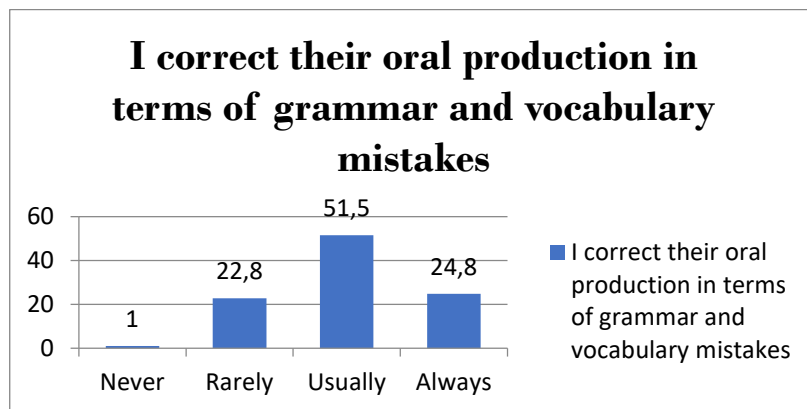
**1. If learners make mistakes, I tend to request for repetitions so that learners may self-check.**



**Figure04.20: If learners make mistakes, I tend to request for repetitions so that learners may self-check**

The pie chart above illustrates teachers' tendency to urge the learners to self-repair through asking them to repeat their answers. Results have shown that 41% of the participants use this strategy on a regular basis. Similarly, 47% have reported that they usually employ this interactional feature. On the other hand, only 12% of the participants have stated that they rarely use this strategy.

**2. I correct their oral production in terms of grammar and vocabulary mistakes**



**Figure 04.21: I correct their oral production in terms of grammar and vocabulary mistakes**

The above graph shows teachers' focus in error correction. In other words, to what extent do teachers correct their learners' syntactic and lexical errors in their oral contributions. 51.5% of the informants have agreed that they usually focus on grammatical and vocabulary errors. Similarly, 24.8% have said that they always use this strategy. On the other hand, 22.8% have revealed that they rarely emphasize on grammar and vocabulary when communicating with their learners.

**2. I give verbal judgments to students' mistakes with words like bad, no, you are**

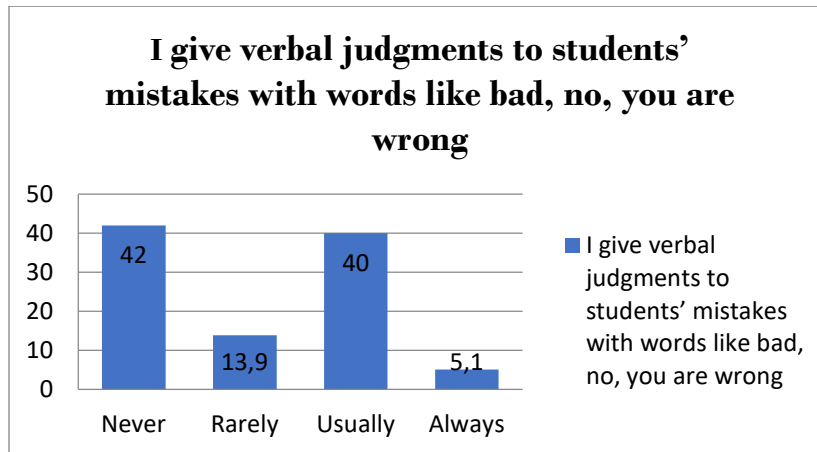


Figure 04.22: I give verbal judgments to students' mistakes with words like bad, no, you are wrong

As the bar graph displays, 42% of the participants have reported that they giving negative feedback to their learners. On the other hand, 40% of the teachers have revealed that they usually employ these strategies to react to learners' responses. Meanwhile, 5.1% of the teachers have said that they always give verbal judgments to their learners' mistakes.

### 3. I prompt learners' correct answers

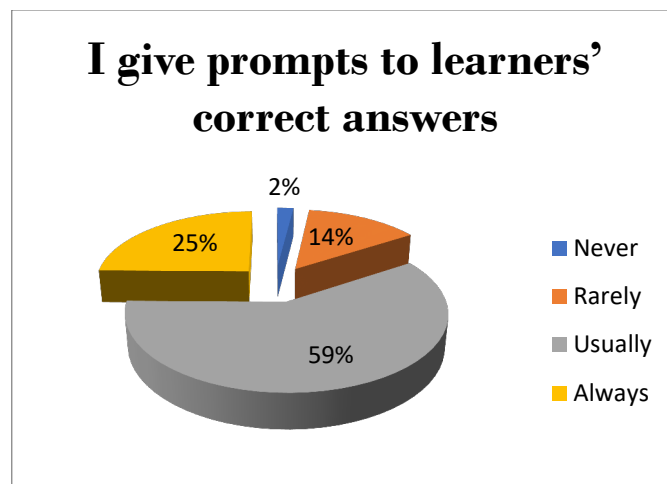


Figure 04.23: I prompt learners' correct answers

The aim of the statement was to uncover the extent to which teachers use positive feedback to response to learners' correct answers. As the diagram displays, most of the participants representing a rate of (59%) have revealed that they usually employ this

strategy. Surprisingly, 14% of the participants revealed that they rarely use positive feedback to respond to their learners' answers.

#### 4.2.4. Discussion of the main findings:

Results of the questionnaire have yielded interesting remarks about teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding interaction in their classes. As mentioned before, the questionnaire was divided into three main sections; each section was aimed at obtaining specific objectives from the informants.

Apropos the participants' demographic profiles, it was noticeable that a vast majority of the teachers were mid-career teachers. This means that these informants are well aware of their teaching styles and interactional patterns in the class. Another interesting remark is teachers' educational background, some teachers were bachelor degree holders and vast majorities were masters' graduate. This means that they have a prior education in regard to didactics and TEFL and even educational psychology.

The second section was aimed at understanding teachers' schemata and beliefs concerning classroom interaction. The findings have revealed that teachers perceive classroom interaction from two major points of views. First of all, there was a great deal of teachers who defined classroom interaction from an evaluative point of view; they believe that interaction means solely STT vs. TTT. These teachers have stressed on the fact that Teacher Talking Time should be subsidized with regards to Student Talking Time. Another proportion of teachers regard classroom interaction as a tool to develop learners' speaking skill. In fact, one of them even limited the definition of classroom interaction to oral expression activities.

In addition, the informants' responses have revealed teachers' tendency to associate classroom interaction with management issues. They believe that dealing with

disruptive behavior and noisy learners or “troublemakers” is a constituent of classroom interaction. In fact, one teacher has pointed that: *“a well-managed and a disciplined classroom is evidently an interactively conducive classroom”*.

On the other hand, there are teachers who have linked classroom interaction with the affective relationship between the teacher and the learner. This may be espoused to teachers’ perception that building a good rapport with the learners will eventually lead to creating conducive learning opportunities. A small proportion of teachers have linked the term classroom interaction with the technicalities of educational discourse such as questioning techniques, repair, and recast. The reasons of this “indifferent” attitude will be discussed in the interview section.

What stands out in this section is teachers’ positive attitude towards the instruction of classroom interaction. The majority of them have agreed that classroom interaction is a construct that should be taught to novice or experienced teachers. This raises a question about the status of classroom interaction in teacher education programs. While the majority of teachers believe that it is a construct that is part and parcel of classroom management, they are still open to the idea of being formally instructed with the technicalities of educational interaction.

The third section was basically a self-report grid for teachers, it was set out to get teachers’ own perceptions of their interactive patterns in the classroom. It was developed using the Likert scale so that teachers would rate the frequency of their interactional strategies. As mentioned in the results’ section, findings have revealed teachers’ positive feedback on their practices. In fact, most of the informants attributed frequent usage of interactional strategies in their classes. Their input, turn taking and repair strategies were positively rated by the teachers.

### 4.3. Classroom Observation:

The classroom observation was used for the purpose of obtaining raw data from the classroom. In addition, it allowed the researcher to view teachers' interactive strategies, discursive patterns as well as their online decision-making conducts (Walsh 2013:59). This was done using the SETT (*Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk*) grid that was modified to include other facets such as classroom logistics. The Sessions of Classroom observation were conducted in one academic year 2018-2019. Results obtained from the classroom observation sessions are displayed and discussed in the remainder of the chapter.

#### 4.3.1. Interactional features and dominant classroom modes:

The following section reveal the most salient interactional features and dominant classroom modes. In addition, a thorough analysis of teachers' profile, observational sessions and teachers' language use is presented.

##### 4.3.1.1. Teacher (A)

- **Teacher's profile:**

The teacher is a female, she is forty-five (45) years old and she has a Licence degree in English. She has been teaching at secondary school for sixteen (16) years. She teaches at "Tandjaoui Mohamed" secondary school.

- **The Observation sessions:**

The observation sessions took place from April 05 to April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2019. The class under observation was a second-year scientific class.

The Unit was "No Man is an island" and its theme was "disasters and safety measures". This unit addresses the issues of natural and man-made disasters. The general aim of the unit is mentioned in the teacher's unit plan as follows:

**“students should be able to write a survey about how much are people ready to face disasters. Practically, the project realization depends on questionnaires, short interviews and notes collection”**

The teacher introduced the rubric which was “Listening and speaking”. According to the teacher’s unit plan, the final objectives of the rubric was enabling learners to :

- Ask for and giving information.
- Report findings.
- Quote someone.
- Make claims.
- Express interest and surprise.
- Disagree politely

The stated aims in the unit plan clearly show the interactive orientation of the rubric. In fact, all of these objectives would eventually help the learner to conduct questionnaires and interviews in order to write reports. Thus, the “Listening and speaking” rubric is quintessential in developing learners’ interactional skills.

Regarding the logistics of the class; there were twenty (20) learners in the classroom (11 females and 09 males). Their age ranges from sixteen to nineteen years old. Despite the considerably small number of students, learners were seated in the default format: rows.

As for the materials used, the teacher sufficed with the activities of textbook. It should be noted that the teacher had used picture and videos to introduce lessons in two observational sessions. However, they were only used at the warm up stage. The researcher has attended six sessions with teacher (A). This has created a large data that was hard to manage. Thus, the researcher has chosen excerpts that showed prominent interactive features. The following table briefly summarized the recurrent classroom modes that were spotted in the analysis process:



Sessions Modes	Session 01	Session 02	Session 03	Session 04	Session 05	Session 06
Managerial	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Materials	✓	✓			✓	✓
Skills and Systems	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Classroom Context			✓			✓

**Table 04.01: recurrent classroom modes for teacher (A)**

The table above shows the recurrent classroom modes in each session. What is noticeable in the table is the dominance of the managerial mode. In fact, in all of the sessions of observation, Teacher (A) has abundantly used the managerial mode to “lead” the interactional environment of the classroom. In addition, The Materials mode and Skills and Systems mode were also eminent in most of the sessions. Herein, the teacher attempted to elicit responses from the learners by following a rigid IRF structure, e.g. drilling the students on how to ask for and give advice, asking them to repeat a sentence (line33.38.39 ) and asking them about rules of a grammar lesson .In the Skills and Systems mode, the teacher relied heavily on form-focused feedback. She emphasized her form focused orientation through the use of display questions and clarification requests (line 36.38).

This is this is apparent in the extract below:

**Extract01.05:**

32. T: Goo: d↑.SO (0.8) when we ask for an an adv↑ice we use these statements↓WHAT↑ can I do> WHAT shall I do ↑<BUT↑(0.7) do not forget to write(0.4) erm if

33. Ls: (choral response) for cond↑ition  
[if conditional]

34. T : Ye:↑s=it used to express condition. NOW↑(0.9)what should I↑ do if I↑ have a cold? }

35. Ls: {you go to a doctor }

36. T: we say [you go to a doctor ?(0.8) ]RAISE ↑ >you:r hands please< ↓  
[NO↑ this is like an order ↓]
37. L1: (0.5) erm= you would ↓
38. T: You, SHOULD↑see a doctor! (T writes it on the whiteboard)  
= can you repeat plea:se↑
39. L2: (0.3) =If you are if you are sick you should see a doctor
40. T: if you are sick you should↑ see a doctor↑anyone else

Regarding the Classroom context mode, the table clearly shows that it was rarely employed, the reasons for its scant usage is to be discussed in the teacher interview.

Overall, the observation sessions of Teacher (A) revealed interesting remarks regarding her interactive practices. The observation sessions took place in the sequence of “Listening and Speaking”. Hence, the targeted competencies to be developed are “Interacting and producing” and the main emphasized skills are “Listening and speaking”. Nevertheless, it appeared that learners’ mostly “listened. They were not granted the opportunity to interact nor to initiate the interaction. Their contributions were mostly guided through a rigid IRF structure. In line (32) the teacher introduces the expression used to ask for and give advice and the learners display knowledge in chorus (line33). In line (34) the teachers acknowledge learners answer and delivers form focused /display question.

Note in line (36), there was an attempt from a learner to contribute in the interaction in the form of a knowledge display (No↑, this is like an order). This contribution went unnoticed by the teacher and no acknowledgment of learner’s contribution nor topic expansion was made. The same remark can be made in lines (37.38), the learner answered briefly and the teacher quickly manipulated the talk. Thus, the learner was not granted sufficient wait time nor was he encouraged to elaborate his answer. In line (38) the teacher repaired learners answer indirectly by stressing the correct answer (should). She didn’t not take time to address the mistake openly. In fact, the teacher simply wrote the answer on the

board, read it and told the learner to repeat it again. This engaged the learners in an automatic conversation where the teacher asked the same question and the learner repeated the same answer. Even at the last stage of the sequence where students were asked to “act out” a dialogue. The interactional space was still limited and “mechanical” and learners’ contributions were generally shorter and monitored by the teacher.

Broadly speaking, the observation sessions revealed a mismatch between the lessons’ aims and teachers’ actual practices. In the classroom, the teacher scarcely used elicitation techniques, didn’t try to elicit responses from learners individually and her excessive use of drills turned the interaction between learners (e.g. acting out a dialogue) into rigid mechanical repetitions.

### 4.3.1.2. Teacher (B)

- **Teacher’s profile:**

The teacher under observation is a female teacher, she is 27 years old. She is a graduate student from the ENS<sup>8</sup> school. She has been teaching English for (03) years at “Bouadi Merzoug” secondary school.

- **The Observation sessions:**

The sessions of observations were conducted from the period of February 3<sup>rd</sup> to February 10<sup>th</sup> 2019. The class under observation was Second year Foreign Languages. During the observational sessions, the lessons were delivered under the” Budding Scientists” Unit whose theme is “Technology and Innovation”. This unit is set out to immerse the learners in a scientifically based discourse. Accordingly, the general aim of the unit is to “write **reports about scientific experiments** “.In terms of interactive functions, it is stated that “**learners should be able to give warnings, threats and make promises and predictions**”.

---

<sup>8</sup> Teacher Training School for secondary school teachers

The teacher introduced lessons under the sequence of “Discovering Language “. In this sequence, the learners are introduced to a number of tasks (reading, phonology, grammar and vocabulary) .

As for the logistical condition of the classroom, the class comprised only seven (07) learners (one male and six females). The learners were sometimes seated in a linear manner and other times in a group. Regarding the use of materials, the teacher did not employ any additional materials.

Using the classroom observational grid, the researcher kept a tally of the recurrent interactional features in the classroom. Thus, she was able to identify the frequent classroom modes used by the teacher. In this table, a summary of the recurrent classroom modes during the six observational sessions is presented below:

Sessions Modes	Session 01	Session 02	Session 03	Session 04	Session 05	Session 06
<b>Managerial</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Materials</b>	✓			✓		✓
<b>Skills and Systems</b>		✓	✓		✓	
<b>Classroom Context</b>					✓	✓

**Table04.02: recurrent classroom modes for teacher (B)**

The table shows a tendency towards employing the Managerial mode. In fact, teacher’s contributions were characterized by single extended turns and the use of confirmation checks. This is clearly illustrated in extract (02.2):

**Extract (2.2)**

4. T : do you know the word affix?
5. L: (unintelligible sound)
6. T :do you know the word AFFIX↓
7. L1: Yeah
8. T: Yeah ↑
9. L1: like prefix and suffix

10. T: goo:d ↑ are they letters↓
11. L1: [°No°
12. L2: [combination of letters] }
13. T: (calls a student by name to answer the question) are they letters↓
14. L3: N: :o↓ they are a combination of letters
15. L4: [three letters or more↑] }
16. T: so you mean letter like O P M
17. L1: No like tion (0.5) like formation

The extract above is a transcription of an audio recording of a vocabulary lesson (affixes) under the rubric “Say it loud and Clear”. The teacher opens the lesson by asking a display question (line 4.6). The question was met by an utter silent classroom until a student answers positively (line 07) he displays knowledge by using a response token (yeah) . The interaction directly shifts to that learner; the teacher acknowledges the answer and asks another display question (line 10) to the same learner, the learner also uses a response token to answer .Herein, the teacher misses an opportunity to extend the learner’s contribution .In line (12) , we notice an overlap by another learner to answer the question. Interestingly, the learner’s contribution marks a mode switch to Materials mode; her contribution encourages other learners to answer (line 12.14.15.17) this is what Walsh (2006:86) refers to as **Mode side sequences**. There is an apparent joint construction of meaning between the learners to which the teacher uses scaffolding strategies such confirmation checks, echo and display questions in order to extend learners’ interactional space (line 13.16). an interesting remark in line (17) is that learner’s contribution (L1) was extended after his collaborative contribution to “build” an answer.

The teacher’s extensive use of display questions marked the employment of the Materials mode. Therein, the teacher pedagogic goal was to elicit responses from the learners (line22.24.30) .The learners were engaged in a IRF structure in which the teacher

monitored Even if one of the learners (L3) attempts to initiate the interaction , the teacher framed the contribution into a display question . Note in line (28) the teacher acknowledges learner's contribution (L3) ( Goo::d ↑ THIS is what I want) which later turned into a lengthy explanation by the teacher .

### Extract 02.03:

19. L1: Ye:s we put them. at the end of the words  
20. T: yes.what else  
21. L3: ° they are erm (0.2)  
22. T : ye:s ↑cheima what is a suffix  
23. L3: we put it at the end of the word  
24. T: Yes° but what is it  
25. L3: (unintelligible sound)  
26. T: Yes \$yes \$  
27. L3 : syllable  
28. T: Ye::s↑ goo::d↑ THIS is what I want , they are divided into three parts .a prefix is a syllable ( you know what is a syllable =that comes  
29. L: = [in the beginning]

It should be noted that the Skills and Systems mode was employed intermittently. The only practice that learners had was when the teacher was seeking for examples from the learners. However, the learners were not given sufficient wait time ( e.g: line 40.41.42)

### Extract 02.4:

- 40 T: can you give me an example ↑(0.3) possible↑ ((writes on the board))  
41 Ls: >impossible<  
42 T: Impossible

The above-mentioned extract depicts a typical overly used interactional feature by the teacher: Echoing. During the observation sessions, teacher echo was a prominent

feature that was sometimes used as a clarification request or simply to emphasize a learner's answer.

With regards to the classroom context mode, the transcripts revealed scarce occurrences of the mode. Even when the learners were provided with extended interactional turns, they were unable to manage interaction by themselves and carry on a conversation. In fact, their contributions were abrupt and often were co-produced group answers in a disorderly manner. Thus, the teacher had to fill in “the void “and support learners' contributions. Nevertheless, interactional features such as minimal repair, referential questions were in fact employed by the teacher but learners' contributions did not support the establishment of the classroom context mode which is interactive in essence.

### 4.3.1.3. Teacher (C):

- **Teacher's profile:**

The research subject is a 35-year-old male teacher. He is a Masters graduate in Literature and Civilization. He has been teaching English for ten years. He teaches at “Kadi Mohamed” Secondary school.

- **The Observation sessions:**

The observational sessions took place from February 10<sup>th</sup> to February 20<sup>th</sup> 2019. The class under observation was Third year Literature and Philosophy stream. Throughout the sessions of observation, the lessons were presented under the unit of “Ethics in Business ”. In this unit, the learners were supposed to learn about the concept of ethical guidelines that govern daily life such as in commerce, governmental institutions and even in schools.

In this regard, the teacher's task was to provide the learners with the concomitant lexis and functional notions that comply with the thematic concept of the unit.

The lessons were delivered under the rubric of “Listen and Consider”. According to the teacher’s book, this section mainly deals with listening comprehension. At the end of the rubric, learners were supposed to write a public statement on fighting corruption. To meet this end, learners were introduced to different functions such as making suggestions, expressing wishes and regrets and expressing condition.

Apropos the Classroom logistics, the class consisted of twenty five learners (13 males and 12 females) . During the observational sessions, there were two seating arrangements: either in rows or groups. In addition, the teacher used different instructional materials such as handouts, videos and even PowerPoint presentations.

Using the SETT grid, the researcher was able to conduct a modes analysis for the common modes and interactional features in the classroom under study. The table below provides an overview about the recurrent Classroom modes for teacher (C):

Sessions Modes	Session 01	Session 02	Session 03	Session 04	Session 05	Session 06
<b>Managerial</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Materials</b>		✓	✓	✓		
<b>Skills and Systems</b>			✓			✓
<b>Classroom Context</b>	✓				✓	✓

**Table04.03: recurrent classroom modes for teacher (C)**

As anticipated, the managerial mode was the overly used mode in all of the sessions. It was characterized by extended teacher turns, the use of confirmation checks and the use of transitional markers. These interactional features were employed for the purpose of explaining the lessons, introducing new topics or concluding activities. In addition, the classroom context mode was also a dominant mode during most of the



observational sessions especially in the unit introduction session. This mode was employed to create interactional opportunities to the learners. Thus, they were granted more interactional turns and were asked referential questions.

The extract below depicts a typical employment of the managerial mode. In this session, the teacher introduced the unit; he posed related themes for discussions and related vocabulary. After greetings and waiting for the learners to settle down, the teacher displayed pictures on the whiteboard, he asked them to take five minutes to look at the pictures and try to express them. The learners were given five minutes to prepare their answers.

### Extract 03.01

1. **T:** OK↑time is up Tell your friends (0.9) What do you see:: in the FIRST picture
2. **L1:** woman
3. **T:** Ye ::s↑Akram carry on
4. **L:** (0.2)erm I see a woman washing money  
[dollars↑]
5. **T:** Goo:d ↑ why is she doing this↓ (0.2) washing money
6. **L:** (0.3)
7. **T:** Do we usually do that ↓wash money
8. **L:** No sir ↓
9. **T:** ((walks towards another learner)) Najla do YOU↑ wash your money at home ↓
10. **Ls :** ((laughter))
11. **L2:** we have erm a word like this in °Arabic° ↓
12. **T:** (( Teacher nods in approval ))
13. **L3 :** [it's غسيل الأموال] erm (0.5) money washing
14. **T :** Excellent ↑ money Lau::ndry ↑ can you write it on the board and the others help your friend writing the word(0.2) I mean help him with the spelling

In this extract, the teacher tried to introduce the theme of the unit by showing pictures to them. He provided them with “planning time to prepare their answers. In line (02) , the interaction is initiated by a learner , he utters a word (woman) with no further

explanation. In the next line, the teacher attempted to extend the learner's turn by acknowledging his answer and asking him to elaborate. This also encouraged other learners to join the interaction to co-construct an answer. What is notable in lines (05-09) is teacher's attempt to elicit longer responses from the learners by asking display questions. He even added humor to engage the learners in conversation (line09) . This had a positive effect on learners' participation; they were willing to participate and even initiate interaction with their teacher.

An interesting remark in lines (11,13) was the use of translation in Arabic for some key words. Before uttering any word in Arabic; learners asked permission from their teacher. This granted the learners more interactional freedom and they were engaged in the lesson e,g; L3 there were overlapping answers in line(09) because they were permitted to use Arabic . Herein, the meaning making process was sustained through the use of translation of key words in the L1.

### Extract 03.03

28. L : الرشوة

29. T : Very good hhh it is called BRIBEry (( writes it on the board))so we have money laundry and bribery (1.0) let me ask you a question ARE ↓ these Good behaviors in our country hhh our society

30. L: >of course not< they are prohibited

31. T: They are prohibited why do you think so ↑

32. L: this is unfair for people who { don't have the money

33. L: [it gives rich people امتيازات ] }

34. T: privileges, it is unfair because it gives rich people privileges

35. L: They are prohibited because they are not erm (0.4) mor↑ale like we say in French

36. T: \$Excellent\$ ↑ it is the same word in English ((writes on the board)) we say moral or ethical what is the noun of ethical

37. L: (0.5)

38 T: search for it in your dictionaries (0.8) you can↑ use your phones too=

39. L: =Ethics↑

40. T: goo:d↑ so our unit is about this word Ethics (0.2) Ethics↑in Business↑

In the preceding extract, there appears to be a movement between the classroom context mode to the materials mode. The classroom context mode is amply employed from line 28 to line 37. For instance, in line (31), the teacher echoed the learner's answer for emphasis and asked a referential question granting the learner an extended interactional space. In addition, in line 33, a learner made a self-selected turn as an attempt to extend and elaborate her classmate's answer.

In line 38, the teacher refers to the dictionary signaling the "mode-switching" to the materials mode. Another mode switching occurred in line (40) where the teacher introduced the unit. Thus, orienting the mode to the managerial one

### 4.3.1.4. Teacher (D)

- **Teacher's profile:**

The teacher is a female, she is fifty-three years old and she has a Licence degree in English. She has a teaching experience of twenty-nine years. In addition, she is a teacher trainer and educator for nine years.

- **The Observation sessions:**

The observation sessions took place from April 10 to April 16<sup>th</sup>, 2019. The class under observation was a third-year scientific stream class.

The Unit was "Keep cool" and its theme was "feelings and Emotions. In this unit, affective, social and emotional issues are key concepts that learners are supposed to deal with. In fact, it is clearly stated in the Unit plan that "**learners should be able to discriminate, contrast and compare the different ways in expressing emotions and**

**feelings in different cultures under a design in a booklet of tips for coping with strong emotions by the end of unit four” .**

The sessions of observation were conducted under the sequence of “Listen and Consider”. As mentioned before, this sequence had interactional orientations in terms of developing learners’ listening comprehension as well as their oral production.

Considering classroom’s logistics; there were twenty learners in the classroom (eleven males and ten females) aged from seventeen to twenty-one years old. During most of the observational sessions, the learners were seated in groups.

Regarding the use of materials, the teacher used some additional materials intermittently. For instance, in the first and second session the teacher used handouts. In addition, she used authentic materials such as videos to introduce a topic in the fourth session.

The table below is a summary of the recurrent classroom modes that were identified in the observational sessions of teacher (D):

Sessions Modes	Session 01	Session 02	Session 03	Session 04	Session 05	Session 06
<b>Managerial</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Materials</b>		✓		✓		
<b>Skills and Systems</b>			✓		✓	✓
<b>Classroom Context</b>	✓			✓		

**Table04.05: recurrent classroom modes for teacher (D)**

The following extract is an audio recording of the fourth session. Herein, a written expression activity was conducted in the “think, pair, share” strategy. The latter is a constructive learning strategy that allows the learners to collaborate in a problem-solving

situation. From an interactional point of view, this strategy promotes collaborative peer interaction and co-construction of meaning through discussion and idea sharing.

In this session, the lesson was about writing an advice letter in an “agony aunt” column. The latter is an advice letter in which learners are supposed to offer suggestions on how to overcome problems.

In the beginning of the session, the teacher showed a three minutes video, replayed it twice for the learners to grasp its content. Then, she asked them to take notes.

### Extract 05.01

5. T : Well↑ what was this video about.
6. Ls: ((silence))
7. T: Ok↑ (0.5) we have [a journalist]
8. L1: [interview]
9. T: ye:↑s .an interview >very good<
10. L1: erm (1.0) someone a woman (0.5) was (1.0) talking to the journalist
11. L2: [on the phone]
12. T: what else did they talk about?(1.1) ye:↑s meba:rki yes you can answer
13. L3: they .they are talking [about a (0.9
14. L4: [they have a problem]
15. T: a problem. You mean. Both of them ↑
16. L4: No:↑ miss
17. T: Ye:↑s Lilia who has a problem in the interview
18. L5: erm (0.6) the woman who who ((puts her hands on ear))
19. L2: [ on the phone ]
20. T: [ca↑lled]
21. L5: called. The woman who called (0.4) she has a problem
22. T: do you agree with your friend↑(0.9) Khaldi do you↑ agree with Lilia
23. L6: yes> I agree<

In this extract, the teacher tried to create a context for the learners in order to introduce the topic. First of all, she used an authentic materials(video) followed by a lengthy discussion. This eventually guided them to the main theme of the lesson .



an answer is built by the learners , their answers are overlapped another learner uses to help her classmate. The interaction directly shifted to this learner as the teacher invited her to participate (line 28) giving her extended interactional space (line 29, 31,33) .Herein , the teacher ignores the previous learner who initiated talk and he was left with no feedback nor was he given sufficient wait time to elaborate his contribution. In fact, the teacher directly shifted her attention and directed her interaction with another more competent learner and she even helped him with the answer. Thus, the extensive use of these interactional features marks the employment of the materials mode.

### Extract 05.10

43. T: Now, this student [has a problem. Right ↑
44. L5: [ she is afraid from the bac]
45. L10: [she has a stress about the exam
46. T: Yes , she is stressed about the baccalaureate exam ↓ you have your bac exam this year (0.6) hhh what do you advise her↑
47. L11: revise her lessons
48. T: revise her lessons >what else< one by one plea:↑se
49. L12: [pray ]
50. L13: [read the Quran]=
51. L11: don't use facebook ((laughter))=
52. L10: =facebook why↑
53. L11: it's bad (0.7) many bad news in facebook ((laughter))=
54. T: = Ve↑ry goo:↑d we have a lot of solutions to overcome exam stress Now on your rough copybooks(0.9) write a letter in which you give (0.4) or offer pieces of advice to this student

In this extract, the classroom context mode is a prominent. In fact, the turn taking system is managed by the learners to a large extent. Quantitatively speaking, there are eight learners 'turns as opposed to only four teacher's turn. In line 43 and 46, the teacher instigated learners' attention by talking about a relatable topic "exam stress". Herein, she contextualizes the communication and then asked them a referential question. This generated multiple contributions and there was even competition for floor gaining among the learners.

To sum up, what is noticeable in this class is the ample participation of the learners. The researcher has noticed a relaxed and an enjoyable educational atmosphere. In addition, the learners used the Arabic language when they couldn't express themselves in English. Moreover, repair strategies were minimized, the teacher didn't focus on learners' errors and the shift was directed towards simply managing the interaction rather than evaluating their contributions on a linguistic level.

### 4.3.1.5. Teacher (E)

- **Teacher's profile:**

The teacher is a male teacher in his early thirties. He has been teaching English for eight years. He is a Master's graduate in Didactics and he is currently teaching at "Ibn Sahnoun Rachedi" .

- **The Observation sessions:**

The observational sessions took place between February 24<sup>th</sup> to March 06<sup>th</sup> 2019. The class under observation was Third year Foreign Languages stream. Throughout the sessions of observation, the lessons were presented under the unit of " Education in the world" . In this unit, learners were introduced to educational systems from different countries in which they were asked to make a comparison with their national educational system in addition to their carrier choices. Thus, the general objectives of the unit revolved around comparing and contrasting, expressing wish and describing a process. Furthermore, the lessons were delivered under the sequence of "Listen and Consider". According to the teacher's book, this section mainly deals with listening comprehension. Herein, the main purpose is to :

- Lead the students to listen intently to an aural message/text, paying particular attention to features of language use.



- Make the students respond to the message orally or in writing. This type of focused listening (followed by a response) is meant to help the student develop an ability to listen for a purpose (understanding the gist of the text or the details).
- Help the students to respond to an aural message orally or in writing with accuracy and appropriateness (for example, answering comprehension questions, re-ordering sentences) (Teacher’s book, new prospects :11)

The classroom comprised seventeen learners (17). Throughout the observational sessions, learners were seated in asymmetrical rows. Regarding the use of materials, the teacher only relied on the textbook and did not use any additional materials.

The table below is a summary of the recurrent classroom modes that were identified in the observational sessions of teacher (E):

Sessions Modes	Session 01	Session 02	Session 03	Session 04	Session 05	Session 06
<b>Managerial</b>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
<b>Materials</b>		✓	✓	✓		
<b>Skills and Systems</b>			✓			✓
<b>Classroom Context</b>	✓				✓	✓

**Table04.04: recurrent classroom modes for teacher (E)**

The following transcribed extract is taken from an audio recording of the third session. In this session, the teacher delivered a grammar lesson “the conditional”. During the session, learners reviewed the rules and had extensive practice around that grammar notion.

**Extract 04.03**

3. **T:** what was our our lesson during the last session.
4. **L1:** Provided. PROVI<sup>↑</sup>DING that.
5. **L2:** [we have a homework],

6. T: ok ::ay↓ open your books page fifty FI↑VE and let's correct the homework (1.0) >so in this task< you had to link each of the pairs of the
7. L2: [link EACH of the pairs of >sentences<]
8. T: =sentences below using PROVIDING THAT↑ OR AS LONG AS↑ with the right tenses of the verbs↓ .<BE CAREFUL one of them is IN↑ the passive voice>(0.2)can hhh anyone solve the first sentence↑ (0.7) any volunteer:r plea::se↑
9. L3: °the first one°
10. T: ye:s↑ go ahead YOU HAVE↑(0.8) Algeria attract more foreign investments AND sentence number TWO:↓ it pass stricter anti-corruption laws (1.2) you know what investments mean(0.8) for example a rich person (0.9) from. Let's sa::↑y Italy. comes to Algeria to INVEST ↑in textile companies he buys a textile company and he makes clothes here and sells them , we call this investment
11. L4: a:::↑ you mean استثمار(0.9) , استثمار
12. T: E↑xactly:. now continue.
13. L3: Alg↑eria hhh. [algeria ~attract~ ]=
14. L4: =[WILL attract Sir↑ Sir↑]
15. T: No:↑ let your friend Finish.
16. L3: Algeria will attract foreign investments PROVIDED THAT it pass (0.2) passes >stricter laws<
17. L4: [passes]
18. T: \$Very good \$ (( writes the sentence on the board))

The above-mentioned extract is a transcription of an audio recording from the third session of classroom observation of teacher (E). In this segment, the teacher started the lesson with a correction of the homework. Since that lesson was a continuation of the previous lesson, the correction of the homework was considered both as a warm up and a revision of the previous lesson.

In lines (03.06) , the teacher initiated the interaction by asking the learners about the previous lesson. There was an overlap of answers from learners ( line04.05) in a form

of **intersubjective communication**. This was met by the use of a response token (ok) with suprasegmental modification (line 06) , this is also called a **Turn Construction Unit (TCU)**. In fact, the use of the latter was used to acknowledge both of the overlapping answers in line(04.05). Herein, the employment of the managerial mode is clear in teachers' dominant interactional features which are manifested in the use of transitional markers and an absence of learners' contribution.

In the same line (06), the teacher asked the learners to open their books to correct the homework he started reading the task. An interesting remark in line( 07) is a learner's overlapping speech. She attempted to integrate herself in reading the task by taking the floor from the teacher . Nevertheless, this attempt failed due to teacher's monopoly of the talk (line08) ,he continued reading the question and asked the learners to "volunteer" to solve the task . The same action continues in the next line (10) , the teacher invites the learner to answer as a reaction to the learner's somehow hesitant participation in line (09) . Nevertheless, there appears to be an extended teacher's turn. In this line , the teacher read the statement and carries on to ask them another question about the meaning of the word" investment". He did not provide them with sufficient wait time (only 0.8) and he carries on to explain the word deviating from the original goal of the task. In this turn, the researcher has noticed a confusion regarding learners' answers, they were unable to follow the teacher's fast pace and did not know which question to answer. In the next line (11), one of the learners responds to the teacher's second question (what is the meaning of investment). Her answer was in a form of a translation of the word in Arabic giving its noun and verb derivative. Hence, the interaction shifted momentarily to another learner based on another topic.

In lines (13,14,16,17) , the turn taking system was managed by the learners ( learner 03and learner 04) , there was an obvious competition for the floor from learner 04 . She

repairs her classmates' answer and offers to answer on behalf of the learner. This action ascription was not explicitly expressed yet the teacher responded to the learner's request in employing a TCU with a high pitch (No:↑) re-orienting the turn to learner(03) .

The use of the materials mode was more apparent in the Third and fourth session due to the fact that these sessions were grammar lessons. Thus, the pedagogic goals of the lessons were mainly focused on providing language practice around a piece of material, eliciting responses in relation to the material and evaluating those responses. In addition, the explanation was mainly conducted in form of literal translation either by the teacher or the learners. The teacher used clarification requests, they were mostly based on asking for the translation of statements this regard, Teacher's interactional features were characterized by extensive use of display questions, corrective repair and the use of scaffolding techniques.

### **4.3.2. Teachers' Practices and Emergent Themes**

Analysis of classroom observation sessions had yielded recurrent patterns that represented teachers' frequently observed practices, these emergent themes include: Questioning techniques, error correction and feedback and the use of multilingual resources.

#### **4.3.2.1. Questioning techniques:**

Questioning is a pedagogical technique that teachers use in the classroom. It is generally used to check understanding and elicit responses. As formally known, there are two types of questions: referential and display questions. In this dataset, teachers have exhibited an extensive employment of display questions: They were mostly used to confirm learners' answers or to re-engage uninterested learners in the discussion. This over use of display questions has created a mechanic learning environment. It lacked authentic

communicative instances. Consequently, learners' contributions were constrained and they were not granted a sufficient interactional space. As Tsui (1995:30) puts it: "teachers who often ask **"closed" questions are likely to restrict students' language output**". This suggests that teachers' use of display or "closed" questions prevent the learners to be "pushed" into producing language and engaging in meaningful interactional opportunities.

### 4.3.2.2. Error correction and feedback:

Error correction and feedback are eminent themes that have emerged during data analysis of classroom observation. Teachers used these strategies to evaluate learners' responses and provide further information regarding their answers. Results have revealed that most of the participants used direct, corrective feedback. They were mostly form-focused feedback; teachers evaluated learners' oral production in terms of grammar and word choice. Sometimes, learners' turns were constantly corrected and an instant feedback was directed towards learners' answers. This may have a negative impact on learners' readiness and eagerness to answer. It is suggested that this type of feedback may "create a sense of failure and frustration among students" (Tsui 1995:43). Thus, raising learners' "affective filter" and obstructing learners' involvement in the learning process. Besides, what is noticeable that some teachers did not expand learners' contributions after correcting their erroneous responses. Teachers' discourse relied heavily on back-channeling (using expressions such as ok, right and yeah) and repetition of their learners' answers. Furthermore, teachers just provided their learners' negative feedback and instantly gave them the correct answer.

Error correction is an integral asset in the teaching/learning process, it develops learner's linguistic repertoire and prevents them from fossilizing their erroneous responses. It is also a feature of teachers' decision-making process during teaching. Thus, teachers should know when and how they use it.

### 4.3.2.3. Use of multilingual resources:

It goes without saying that code switching is a *defacto* feature in foreign language classrooms. In this dataset, the researcher has remarked the use of bilingual or even multilingual resources in interaction as a facilitative strategy. This includes, the use of L1 (whether the classical or Dialectal Arabic) and the use of French. In fact, when teachers used code switching within a context, learners were more prone to be engaged and receptive. As such, the meaning making process was sustained and learners were granted more interactional space.

That said, it should be noted that code switching was not always conducive to creating learning environment. In some cases, teachers relied on drilling learners about literal translation of words. Admittedly, teachers created a rigid learning environment in which their discursive exchanges with their learners were based on a rigid IRF structure.

### 4.4. Teachers' interview:

At this stage, teachers' interview was conducted to delve into the realities of classroom interaction through the teachers' professed beliefs and attitudes. In addition, a thorough conversation with the teacher revealed valuable information and remarks that were not captured in the questionnaire or the classroom observation stages. Thus, teacher's interview allowed the researcher to have an emic perspective or an "insider" point of view of teachers' stance regarding interaction in the classroom.

In this regard, a semi structured interview was employed for the sake of providing the participants enough space to express their opinions and share their experiences. Hence, the results obtained reveal valuable information regarding teachers' personal and pedagogical influences on their beliefs, their views regarding interaction and their practices to provide conducive interactional opportunities

#### 4.4.1. Personal and pedagogical influences on teachers' beliefs

In this section, the participants were asked questions about their experiences as learners, their impact on their teaching practices. Furthermore, others pedagogical factors were tackled such as teaching methodology and teaching load.

##### 4.4.1.1. Teachers' learning experiences

When asked about their experience as language learners, most of the informants agreed on the fact that they were taught in classes where the teachers took total control of the classroom. Teacher (C) even called it “ *autocratic teaching*” . In the same line of thought, Teacher( B) stated: “*The teacher was the monitor, the controller, and we were passive. We didn't use to participate. We were not giving the chance to get involved. She did not take control of the class and did not motivate us*” . Similarly, teacher (D) shed light on the rigid pattern of interaction that they were exposed to, she claimed:” *when I was taught English, all I did was answer questions about grammar or text related questions. That was the meaning of a good learner. The one who is silent the whole session and only answers questions when asked to*”. Teacher (E) evaluated his learning experience from a professional point of view:

*“ as a teacher now, I can say that didn't not learn anything as stated in the book, we did not cover all the skills and competencies. You can say that we were taught in a primitive way “*

Teachers' responses shed light on the poor interactional environment in which they were taught. Despite the disparity in teachers' learning experiences, teachers agreed that they were not taught English as they were supposed to. Teachers pinpointed the lack of communication and “rigid” learning environment in which they were taught.

#### 4.4.1.2. The impact of teachers' learning experiences on their interactive methodology

When asked about the impact of their learning experiences on their teaching practices. Three teachers confirmed that their learning experience had a great impact on their performances in the classroom. When it comes to interaction, these teachers believe that interaction is a complementary constituent that is not as important as establishing control and management in the classroom. On the other hand, two teachers emphasize the counteractive impact of their learning experiences on their interactive strategies. They agreed on the fact that their poorly interactive learning environment made them want to create conducive discursive opportunities. Especially during their first years of teaching, Teacher ( C ) said : *“when I was first recruited as a teacher, I tried to implement communicative language teaching just like we were taught in TEFL module , but I found out that there are many problems that hurdle the effective execution of this method in our classes”*.

#### 4.4.1.3. Teachers' pedagogical influences:

In this part, teachers were asked other pedagogical influences that impacted the quality of interaction in their classrooms. Teacher (A) acknowledged the importance of interaction. However, she concurred that *“the problem is in the program, it is overloaded with lessons and we are not giving the chance to have real interaction with our students”* . The same idea is shared by teacher ( C ) who said: *“ Classroom interaction is essential for language classrooms , it helps improve their communicative skills .However , in reality we have fewer interactional opportunities in the classroom “* . Teacher ( E ) espoused the lack of interaction in classrooms to the focus on the writing skill in our



programs , he even mentioned that the sequence of “Listening and Speaking” was omitted from the program for Third Year scientific streams.

### 4.4.2. Teachers’ views regarding interaction in the classroom:

In this part, teachers were asked about their views regarding classroom interaction different perspectives such as the status of interaction under the umbrella of the current language teaching approach, the impact of classroom discourse on learners’ linguistic and communicative outcomes as well as teachers’ practices to promote interaction.

#### 4.4.2.1. The status of interaction under the current educational system

As generally known, the currently accredited educational methodology is the Competency Based Approach; an approach that promotes constructive and communicatively driven language instruction. In this regard, the interviewees were asked about the actual status of interaction under the umbrella of the CBA. All the teachers exhibited a positive attitude towards the promising goals of the approach yet some of them stated that interaction is not “*feasible*” in their teaching agenda due to many reasons. In fact, Teacher (A) emphasized on the fact that “*there is a rupture between what teachers are asked to do and what they can do*” . Teacher (D) indicated that interaction is not considered in the CBA by policy makers. She stated that there is a “*poor CBA implementation from the beginning* “ . This is in line with Teacher (E) view who believes that “*both supervisors and teachers were not really trained. They should have been trained them on how to achieve the interactional competencies and create learning opportunities before integrating the CBA approach in our classrooms*”

### 4.4.2.2. The impact of classroom interaction on students' learning outcomes

The informants had disparate responses regarding this question, teacher (A) espoused the quality of classroom interaction to the level of learners' motivation. She said :” *Classroom interaction is important but it has to be preceded by learners' high level of motivation*”. An interesting remark was that almost all the teachers affirmed that there is a strong relationship between classroom interaction and learning environment. They emphasized that there should be a fair distribution of TTT and STT. Moreover, they have also stressed the importance of minimizing TTT. In this regard Teacher (B) stated: “*we have been taught that Teacher Talking time should be less than Student Talking Time*”. On the other hand, teacher (E) acknowledged the causal relationship between classroom interaction and learning outcomes. Nevertheless, most of the teachers referred to a myriad of reasons that lead the teachers to disregard classroom interaction and rely on rote instruction and drilling. These reasons include: unmanageable class size that leads teachers to focus on securing a “quiet” classroom. Furthermore, the low level of motivation of students that makes them unwilling to take part in the interaction. Most importantly, the testing technique that is purely based on the written format. In this regard, Teacher (D) stated “ *we teach to for the test , we do not have the tools nor the suitable conditions to develop our students' interactional competence*”

### 4.4.2.3. Teachers' practices to promote interaction:

When asked about their practices to promote interaction in their classrooms. Teachers had a variety of strategies. For instance, two teachers (Teacher A and C) have talked about using role plays and guessing games to create an enjoyable learning environment and urge the students to interact. Similarly, Teacher (E) have mentioned several attempts to give the more advanced learners the floor to explain the lesson for their

peers. Teacher (D) have emphasized on the session of project presentation, she said that: ***“the session of project presentation is their time to express themselves freely, I usually give them two hours to be at ease and comfortable “***. In addition, Teacher (B) talked about contextualizing topics for discussion and giving the learners the freedom to express their opinions especially at the unit presentation stage.

When asked about their opinion regarding interaction as a planned process or a spontaneous one and the extent to which teachers take into consideration the interactive instances that may take place in their classes. Teachers had disparate opinions; teacher (A) said that classroom interaction is a purely spontaneous process that cannot be planned. She contended that she only plans the formal side of the lesson like the examples, rules and the tasks. In another view, teacher (B) and (E) had similar views, they agreed that interaction can be planned beforehand especially in the warm up stage .In this regard , Teacher ( E) said : ***“Preparing questions beforehand allows me to predict their answers and readjust my questions that creates more discussion “***. Similarly, Teacher (D) said:” ***I should also try to develop the skill of anticipation to deal well with any unexpected instances that may occur”***

Nevertheless, teacher ( C) espoused the planning of interaction in her lessons based on the topic and its final objectives and also learning styles. She said :” ***I plan the content but I improvise the delivery , I always try to relate my teaching to what is happening in the classroom so that my students interact with me more”***

The last question in this part was whether the teachers were asked to evaluate their interactional environment in the classroom and reflect upon their discursive exchanges that took place during the instruction. Three teachers agreed that the evaluation of their instruction occurs while they are teaching; it is received through learners’ level of

engagement in the lesson. Only one teacher (Teacher E) said that she attempts to evaluate her lessons after each session to develop and adjust her teaching accordingly.

It is worthy to mention that the researcher had observed a lack of “metalinguistic awareness” regarding the interactive features of teacher talk. When she asked them about the features of interactional patterns that they usually employ in the classroom, most teachers focused on questioning types and feedback. In fact, when conversing with the participants, the researcher had to clarify terms that are related to classroom discourse such as repair, recast and even display and referential questions. One of the teachers talked about code switching, he said that he generally uses to help the learners understand more and urges them to be engaged in the interaction.

### **4.4.3. Teachers’ evaluation of their students’ interactional competence**

Teachers were asked about their learners’ interactional competence. The response to this question was almost unanimous as most teachers agreed that learners are not well equipped to develop interactional competence. Teacher (B) concurred that students are reluctant to communicate in the classroom, she expounded learners’ hesitation to use the target language to their strong belief of their low level. Teacher (D) shared the same idea, he said:” *When communicating with my students, I always find myself translating for them and explaining basic grammar and vocabulary notions*”. He added:” *I can’t really evaluate my students’ interactional competence because they lack basic linguistic skills. they are not confident enough to engage in a communication*”.

This led the researcher to ask the participants about the communicative problems that learners usually face during classroom interaction. Teacher (C) and (D) had similar answers, they both talked about the use of the mother tongue in the classroom. In fact, Teacher (D) said: “*Sometimes my students even use dialect to answer a question*”. Teacher (E) spoke about psychological impediments such as lack of self-esteem, shyness

and even dominant students who “take over” communication from their less advanced peers. Teacher (B) shed light on an important facet of interactional problems that students face, she said:” *my students are accustomed to being treated as passive learners, they don’t communicate because they are used to keeping “quiet” and just receiving information from the teacher”*.

The last question in this section was directed towards teachers’ practices to overcome communication problems. Teacher (E) focused on the importance of positive feedback on prompting learners’ answers and reinforcing their involvement. In this regard, he reported:” *when we create a safe environment for our students, when we don’t chide them, they will try to communicate* “. In the same line of thought, Teacher (C) said: *“I try to motivate them to practice the language and use it even outside* “. In a different point of view, teacher (D) said that students’ interactional problems can be created through encouraging discussion and debate. However, he emphasized the necessity of creating a balance between classroom management and students’ communication. On the other hand, both of teacher (B) and (A) agreed that using authentic materials such as videos and pictures can create a conducive learning environment for the learners.

#### **4.4.4. Teachers’ suggestions and recommendations**

In this part, teachers were offered the opportunity to voice their opinions and offer suggestions and recommendations regarding improving the interactional environment of their classes. Teachers’ responses were related to many instructional and pedagogical aspects. They were mainly focused on enhancing the status of foreign language teaching through ameliorating the quality of training programs and providing materials that teachers need to create conducive learning opportunities. In this regard, Teachers’ suggestions can be summarized as follows:

- The conception of a serious and well-improved teacher training programs.

- The provision of a program that fosters communication and gives them space to think and be creative
- Teaching load should be maximized to allow the teachers to take their time in delivering the lessons and meet all of the students' needs and levels instead of being constrained by time.
- More practical guidance from their inspectors. Herein, teachers -especially the early career teachers- suggested that their inspectors should focus more on guiding them and providing them with practical tips and advice on how to create a fruitful learning environment.
- Teachers complained about the overloaded of administrative responsibilities that prevent them from taking their time and energy to perform well in the classroom
- Class size should be reduced in order to meet all learners' needs
- In order to improve the status of interaction, teachers asked to have materials that allow creating a conducive learning environment like language laboratories.

### **4.4.5. Summary and interpretation of the main findings:**

Teachers' responses have provided important insights on teachers' learning experiences, teachers' attitudes towards interaction and their practices to promote learning opportunities in their classrooms. Furthermore, teachers have reported issues and hurdles they meet during classroom interaction.

Results have pinpointed teachers' poor learning experience in terms of interaction, they have agreed that they were taught in a rigid passive way. In fact, they have reported that their classrooms lacked communication and conducive interactional environment. As a result, teachers have reported that these learning experiences had an on their practices in the classroom. Herein, we may say that teachers' past learning experiences as EFL learners

had an impact on their identity construction as teachers. In fact, some teachers have reported that they viewed and consequently shaped their interactional strategies based on prior learning experiences. On the other hand, other teachers' learning experiences had a counter effect on their teaching practices and the interactional strategies they employ in the classroom.

What is interesting in teachers' responses is that they exhibited positive attitudes towards interaction in the EFL classroom. They acknowledged its importance and impact on developing learners' communicative and social skills. In addition, they have claimed that they would like to learn it and employ conducive learning opportunities in their classrooms. Nevertheless, most of them have reported a number of hindrances that handicapped the smooth implementation and employment of effective interactional strategies. In fact, they have talked about lack of guidance, shortage of materials and even the testing format that obliges teachers to rely on a "teach-to-test" method. Consequently, communicational opportunities would be scarce and no real interaction would take place. In addition, the "teach-to-test" method causes a negative washback which has a detrimental effect on learners' linguistic and interactional skill development.

Furthermore, the lack of teachers' "metalinguistic awareness" regarding interaction in the classroom was another remark that the researcher has observed during the interview sessions. In fact, when asked about interactive features that they mostly use in their classrooms. Most of the teachers talked about code switching, questioning and feedback types. Evidently, they had little knowledge about the technical terms that describe the interactional features used in the classroom.

### 4.5. Discussion:

The present section offers a discussion of the main findings in view of the yielded data:

#### 4.5.1. Teachers' professed attitudes and actual practices towards Classroom interaction:

This study examined teachers' attitudes towards the role of interaction in their classrooms. Through questionnaire and interview results, the data showed that the teachers exhibited positive attitudes towards the role of interaction. Overall, teachers have emphasized the utility of interaction in language classrooms. They are aware that the classroom is the primary place where learners are provided with linguistic and communicative input in the target language. In addition, they have acknowledged the relationship between classroom interaction, learners' involvement and learning outcomes. However, what was noticeable in the data that teachers' perception of classroom interaction was narrowed in the idea of teacher talking time in terms of its quantity. Teachers were constantly emphasizing that teachers should not speak more than their students. Yet, they overlooked the other component of teacher talk which is: Quality. In fact, teachers didn't explain the mechanisms of minimizing their talk, they didn't talk about interactional features or strategies that are conducive for learning.

On the other hand, teachers' practices showed an inconsistency with regards to their professed attitudes. Classroom observation results showed that teachers controlled the interactional environment of the classroom. They scarcely used interactional strategies such as comprehension checks, referential questions, scaffolding and clarification requests. These strategies are proven to create a space for learners to interact and be more engaged in the lesson. This has resulted in extending teachers' interactional turns and minimizing



learners' opportunities to interact. In fact, their responses were merely monosyllabic or produced chorally.

### **4.5.2. The impact of the pedagogical discourse of creating or hindering learning opportunities:**

It is axiomatic that teacher talk is a major constituent of classroom discourse .it determines the extent to which learning opportunities are created or obstructed. In this regard, data shows that teaches' discursive strategies had a positive effect on the overall interactional environment. In fact, when teachers allowed the meaning negotiation phase to be co-constructed with the learners; learners were more open to contribute and elaborate their responses. There was even competition for floor gaining amongst the learners. In addition, teachers' use of interactional features such as elicitation techniques, positive feedback and use of referential questions created a positive learning environment where learners initiated the interaction and thus participated more. Another interactional variable that proved its impact on learners' involvement is teachers' non-verbal behavior. In some cases, teaches' movement in the classroom, their eye-contact with the learners, their use of gestures and mimics showed teachers' aim to minimize their talking time and allow more space for their learners' contributions. In this regard, research in classroom psychosemiotics showed that there exists a strong relationship between teachers' employment of para-linguistic tools or "contextualization cues" (Rymes 2008: 193) and student engagement.

Moreover, the use of code switching -be it teacher initiated to learner initiated- as an interactional resource, has allowed learners to better understand the content of the lessons. Consequently, this has created a smooth interactional pace between the teacher and the learners. However, teachers reported that sometimes their learners use excessively

the L1 even when the content of the subject is clear. This may be due to learners' "resistance" to use the target language for social and psychological reasons such as perceiving using the target language in front of their peers as a face-threatening act.

Nevertheless, data analysis also indicated that some teachers' discourse patterns were sometimes impediments to learners' participation rate. In fact, teachers' rigid control of turn taking system and the lack of actual meaning negotiation strategies has impacted the interactional environment of the classrooms. Accordingly, teachers justified the scarce existence of interactional opportunities to a myriad of reasons, some commented on students' low-level. On the other hand, other teachers complained about materials and the inadequacy of the current program vis-à-vis instigating and maintaining interactional space for the learners. Others even espoused the scarce provision of interactional strategies to on the need to establish management of their classrooms. This raises the issue of power relations between the teacher and the learners and the extent to which teachers perceive classroom interaction as an asset for establishing and sustaining power relations with their learners. In Critical Discourse Analysis literature (Fairclough 1989, Lerner 1995, Manke 1997, Thornborrow 2002, Garton 2012), studies show how teachers' use of interactional strategies such as turn taking system and organization of interactional space, as artifacts to exercise power in the classroom. In this regard, Manke (1991:75) contends that Teachers may view their role which is «an institutionally inscribed as powerful» (as cited in Hellman 2019:07). Thus, they tend to dominate the discourse and interaction.

### **4.5.3. Further considerations:**

Classroom interaction is a variable that is rooted in a variety of fields. One cannot simply study it without mentioning other factors, whether external or internal, that may have a remarkable impact on the creation and maintenance of such a variable. It is also a

co-constructed endeavor that is mainly achieved between two parties: the teacher and the learners. In this inquiry, the researcher's main focus was teachers' professed beliefs, attitudes and actual practices. Thus, other variables were not considered. Nevertheless, during the data analysis phase, these variables were eminent and the researcher could not ignore them. In fact, teachers' responses shed light on these variables. These variables include:

### **4.5.3.1. Teachers' and Learners' motivation:**

Motivation is an instrumental factor in the teaching /learning process. It is the "fuel" that drives teachers or learners to perform optimally and behave positively. Thus, it is fair to say that teachers' motivation was also a determinant factor in creating or hindering learning opportunities. This is apparent in teachers' attitudes towards their learners' level, rate of involvement and it is translated in their use of interactional patterns such as interrupting students, use of repair and feedback or even allowing interactional space for their learners. On the other hand, learners' motivation is also another variable that determines the success or failure of a teaching/learning situation. Although this research did not use any tools to measure learners' level of motivation, it still can be extrapolated through their eagerness to participate, their competition for floor gaining and their use of comprehension checks and clarification requests.

### **4.5.3.2. Teachers' teaching styles**

Teaching styles are "supposed to define the behaviors that teachers exhibit as they interact with learners" (Fischer & Fischer, 1979). They epitomize teachers' views about teaching and learning, their knowledge background and their in-field experience. Thus, teaching styles can be a decisive factor in how teachers view and value classroom interaction, and even what constitute a conducive learning environment for their learners.

In this regard, teaching styles may differ from one teacher to another. Whether it is an authoritative, authoritarian, permissive “ or any other teaching style . Teachers’ instructional styles may have a direct impact on the interactional environment of their classroom.

### **4.6. Conclusion:**

This chapter represented the empirical part of the study; a thorough analysis of data was conducted using a sequential exploratory approach. Thus, the researcher has used quantitative and qualitative research instruments to analyze the findings of the inquiry. In this regard, the yielded data has shed light on teachers’ beliefs and attitudes regarding interaction in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, analyzing results from different angles have provided the inquiry with interesting remarks regarding teachers’ interactional practices in their classrooms.

In the remainder of the chapter, the researcher will put forward recommendations and suggestions in hopes of ameliorating teachers’ interactional practices.

**Chapter five:**  
**Pedagogical Implications**  
**and Recommendations**

## **Chapter five: Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations**

### **5.1 Introduction**

### **5.2 The need to synergize educational policy and teacher beliefs**

### **5.3 The need to revamp teacher education programs**

#### **5.3.1. Pre-service teacher training**

#### **5.3.2. In-service teacher training**

#### **5.3.3. A suggested course in classroom interaction for EFL teachers**

### **5.4. Promoting teachers' reflective practice**

### **5.5. Developing teachers' Classroom Interactional Competence**

### **5.6. Promoting teachers' and learners' L2 socio-pragmatic competence**

### **5.7. Fostering learner/learner interaction**

### **5.8. Time or Quality? Revisiting the Teacher Talk conundrum**

### **5.9. Enhancing questioning techniques**

### **5.10. Promoting interactional Feedback**

### **5.11. Future directions**

### **5.12. Conclusion**

## Chapter Five:

### Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

#### 5.1. Introduction

The current chapter represents the final stage of the thesis. It is an attempt to re-invest the data analysis process and interpret the findings of the research into pedagogical implications that are centered upon addressing some of the issues reported when conversing with the teachers. In fact, implications and recommendations have been presented at macro and micro levels. This involves revisiting teachers' education programs, developing teachers' reflective practices as well as promoting teachers' agency. In addition, the researcher puts forward practical suggestions to ameliorate classroom interactional environment, and create conducive learning opportunities.

#### 5.2. The need to synergize educational policy and teachers' beliefs

It is axiomatic that educational policy has a pivotal role in shaping the conceptualization and methodology of language teaching. Nevertheless, it appears as if certain political decisions had been made without enough consideration for the realities of teacher practice and school environment. Teachers, being the prime "factor" influenced by the constant changes and demands of the educational policy, are often "flooded" with decisions and ministerial decrees that require them to modify, re-adapt and reconsider their language teaching methodology in order to be in compliance with the changing educational approaches. Nevertheless, these educational reforms seldom take teacher beliefs into consideration. As a matter of fact, many classroom-based studies have emphasized the important role teacher beliefs play in classroom practices. In this regard, it is highly recommended that if any future educational reforms are to be adopted, teacher beliefs should be invested and utilized as a basis for effective educational programs.

This is based on the assumption that the teacher is “the critical change agent in paving the way to educational reform and that teacher beliefs are precursors to change” (Czerniak 2001:07). In a similar view, Bryan (2012:484) contends: “The implementation of reform initiatives is compromised when teachers’ beliefs are not in line with the philosophical underpinnings of the reform “ ( Bryan 2012:484). Thus, teachers’ beliefs and educational reforms should always go hand in hand in order to achieve optimal implementation of the educational policies.

### 5.3. The need to revamp teacher education programs

Teacher education is among highly debated issues in educational research. Admittedly, there has been a surge in reconsidering teacher education programs. This is a *defacto* effect since teachers need to be updated with educational reforms and in compliance with its concomitant teaching approaches. In fact, this tendency is based on the premise that “students will eventually teach in the way they were taught “ (Johnson 1995 as cited in Trombly 2001:28) . Likewise, the ample focus on discourse and interaction in the language classroom heralds a change in teacher education agenda.

In this regard, teacher education programs for language teacher are inevitably one of the first pillars in influencing teacher beliefs and orienting their practices. Thus, it is crucial to pay more attention to this “stage” at teachers’ professional carrier in order to meet the academic and pedagogical demands of foreign language instruction.

In addition to learner-centeredness and autonomy, teacher education programs should consider integrating a third component: interactive training. In fact, imparting the tenets of dialogic pedagogy will eventually enhance trainees’ developments in the process of becoming better teachers by raising their awareness about the importance of interaction and discourse in their classrooms as well as integrating discourse-based assessment



approaches into their professional conduct. This process should be conducted at the pre-service and in-service levels.

### **5.3.1. Pre-service teacher training**

As teachers enter a new chapter in their professional lives; they find themselves in a transitional phase in which they are expected to interpret their academic knowledge into pedagogical practice. In this respect, teachers are taught fundamental aspects of teaching in general. For instance, how to prepare a lesson plan, how to write in the teachers' logbook, how to organize textbook activities as well as disciplinary issues about classroom management like dealing with disruptive behavior. This initial teacher training usually takes place two or three weeks before the beginning of the school year. It is also sustained throughout the teacher's training year. In addition, novice teachers are assigned to coaches who are supposed to guide them throughout their training career until teacher trainees receive their tenure. However, what seems to be missing from this training course is the development of teachers' interactional awareness in the classroom. Teachers seldom receive information or guidance on how to create interactive opportunities with their learners. The axiom "Don't smile until Christmas" is considerably endorsed by many teachers, and it is passed on to novice teachers. Hence, novice teachers are found to put greater emphasis on controlling the classroom and dealing with disruptive behavior leaving scant opportunities for them to have authentic interaction with their learners.

While it is noteworthy to acknowledge the importance of classroom management in creating a safe learning environment for the learners, it is still necessary for novice teachers to be informed about the centrality of classroom interaction and its impact on learners' achievement. In this regard, pre-service teacher training sessions should be geared towards promoting classroom interaction. This can be done primarily by providing them with the appropriate features that they should focus on when enhancing their

interactive practices. These features include interaction patterns, elicitation techniques, feedback as well as the quality of teacher talk.

### 5.3.2. In-service teacher training

Following the training stage of teachers, teachers have to pass the CAPES<sup>9</sup> exam in which they get their tenure. This crowns a busy period of two to three years of working as trainees and receiving weekly training and mentoring sessions. On that account, teachers develop their own “modus operandi”. i.e. a specific way of teaching that becomes a “second-nature” in their practices . Eventually, in the midst of the busy schedules and overloaded timetables; teachers become disengaged from professional development and they carry out their educational duties in obsolete, dated teaching methods.

It is evident that the language teaching profession needs constant research, updating and readjusting; especially when it comes to the interactional environment of the classroom which is a dynamic, ever changing construct that requires socially and interactively competent teachers. This competence would be refined in CPD sessions that aim at improving teachers’ interactional competence by proposing strategies to create conducive learning opportunities. Considering the fact that teachers become more advanced and knowledgeable about their teaching practices. CPD sessions should be adapted to their advanced level. Thus, teachers should be more involved in their professional development .In this regard, the notion of “teachers-as-researchers” can be easily promoted and applied. Since teachers now have an idea about their praxis, they can conduct personal research in their classrooms that are aimed at developing their agency. The findings of their research can be discussed with their colleagues in order to exchange ideas, pose problems and seek

---

<sup>9</sup> Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire

solutions for their issues. This would eventually create professional learning communities that are aimed at enhancing teachers' classroom practices.

**5.3.3. A suggested course in classroom interaction for EFL teachers:**

As discussed before, results have shown a discrepancy regarding teachers' classroom interactional awareness; some teachers perceived it as a byproduct of classroom management making a linking between maintaining discipline and insuring interactional opportunities. On the other hand, other teachers spoke about their lack of awareness regarding the use of interactive strategies in the classroom. Nevertheless, the majority of teachers exhibited positive attitudes towards an overt instruction of the functions and strategies of classroom interaction.

Based on these findings, the researcher has attempted to design a course specifically for the field of classroom interaction. This course is aimed towards:

- Raising teachers' classroom interactional awareness by pinpointing the effect of interaction in the classroom.
- Equipping teachers with the appropriate tools to instigate and enhance interaction in their classrooms.
- Developing teachers' reflective practice and self-evaluation with regards to their discursive and interactional strategies in the classroom.

**i. Course Description:**

This training course adopts a gradual training approach that start by setting the theoretical backbone of interaction. Herein, the teacher trainer introduces the functions of language and discourse. As language teachers, it is highly important to be well informed about the functionality of language and context in the English language such as requesting, questioning, asking for clarification, agreeing and disagreeing politely. Indeed, these functions are only provided as an introductory phase to shed light on the

importance of discourse in the foreign language classroom. In addition, the teacher trainer presents the importance of studying classroom interaction and its importance in the teaching/learning environment.

In the next unit, the main aim is to develop and enhance teachers' receptive and productive skills mainly listening and speaking. This is done through providing teacher trainees with active listening activities. The activities are presented in a hierarchical order from the easiest to the hardest and they cover different contexts. For instance, Teacher trainees may listen to excerpts of a lecture, TV show or a podcast. Later, they are provided with questions regarding listening activities and they are asked to discuss them with their teacher trainer. The basic premise is that developing teachers' Listening and speaking skills would not only encourage an active learning environment but also make them susceptible to receive further instructions about classroom interaction. It should be noted, the aim of the previous two units is neither to re-educate teachers nor to re-instruct them about basic theoretical frameworks and language skills. It is only seen as an introductory phase to raise teachers' awareness about interaction in the classroom by putting them in their "learners' shoes" as learners in addition to paving the way for introducing deeper concepts regarding classroom interaction.

Following the introductory phase, teacher trainees should be able to recognize the dynamic nature of the classroom and the role of the teacher in instigating and nurturing this dynamism. In the third unit, teacher trainees are introduced to the role and utility of teacher language in classroom interaction. Interactional strategies such as questioning techniques, feedback and error correction as well as paralinguistic features are all tackled and discussed. Ideally speaking, the teacher trainer would present the trainees with activities about these strategies and leave them the floor to evaluate the extent to which these

techniques are conducive in a learning environment. In addition, teacher trainees may be provided with samples of classroom situations in which these interactional strategies are utilized and they have to determine which type of these strategies is most likely to be effective or not in EFL educational settings.

In the fourth unit, teacher trainees are provided with the appropriate tools that are proved to be helpful in captivating learners' interest, spurring their motivation and engaging them in the educational process. These tools are authentic materials and ICT tools. In this unit, teacher trainees are encouraged to integrate these authentic tools when designing and planning for their lessons. Besides, teacher trainees are asked to share lesson planning ideas as well as delivering lessons in front of their peers in order to exchange feedback and comments.

The fifth unit named "Group Dynamics" is aimed towards shedding light on dyadic and group interaction as a prominent feature of classroom interaction. In this unit, teacher trainees are taught to design pair and group work activities. In addition, they are given instructions on how to implement and monitor group/pair work interactions.

In the final unit, teachers' trainees are expected to be informed about the importance of classroom interaction and its centrality in the EFL learning environment. The next step is to have the adequate tools to "see" and evaluate interactive strategies from a critical perspective. Thus, teacher trainees are introduced to the notion of "Classroom Discourse Analysis" as a step towards developing their classroom interactional awareness. One of the main aims of this unit is to highlight the importance of reflective practice and promote critical evaluation of teachers' interactive environment. Teachers may be provided with self-evaluation grids with clearly stated features to emphasize and assess. In addition, they may record their lessons and analyze them alone or with their peers if they are

comfortable with that. The role of the teacher trainer here is only to guide teacher trainees and provide them with appropriate environment to discuss their attitudes, beliefs and self-evaluate their practices.

This training course is based on constructive tenets in which the role of teacher trainers is only to facilitate, pose problems and instigate conversations. A considerable amount of work is left to teacher trainees to construct their own “understanding” of classroom interaction through practical activities, hands-on-experiences, problem-solving activities and group discussions.

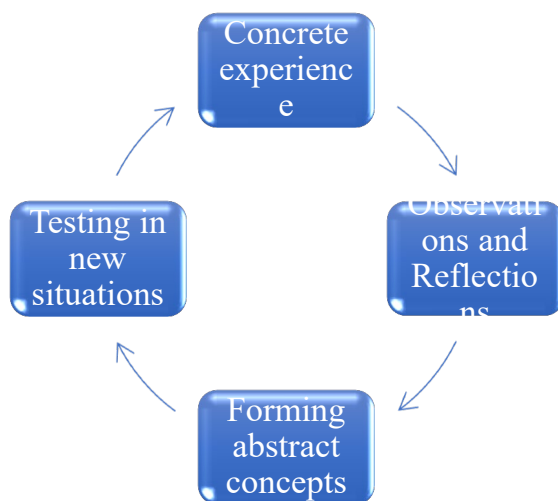
**i. Course Content:**

<b>UNITS</b>	<b>TOPICS</b>	<b>GENERAL AIMS</b>
<b>Theoretical background</b>	Functions of Language What is Classroom interaction Why we study Classroom interaction Classroom Management /Classroom interaction	To highlight the functionality of language and discourse. To have an overview about the centrality of classroom interaction in EFL classrooms.
<b>Developing teachers’ receptive and productive skills</b>	Active Listening activities Classroom discussions	To enhance teachers’ receptive and productive skills through active learning strategies
<b>Interaction and Teacher Language</b>	Questioning techniques Feedback and Error Correction The role of Paralinguistic features of interaction	To outline techniques that are conducive in the language classroom
<b>Using authentic materials and ICT tools</b>	Lesson planning integrating authentic materials and ICT tools Creating interactive activities and materials	To show teachers how to integrate authentic materials and ICT tools into their lessons plans and create learning opportunities with them.
<b>Group Dynamics</b>	Designing Group work/Pair work activities Implementing and monitoring group/pair work interactions	To shed light on dyadic and group interaction as a prominent feature of classroom interaction
<b>Self and peer evaluation of teachers’ interactive practices</b>	Classroom Discourse Analysis Self-evaluation grids for teachers Group evaluative sessions of teachers’ interactive practices Case-based learning	To highlight the importance of reflective practice To promote critical evaluation of teachers’ interactive environment

**Table 05.01: A suggested course in classroom interaction for EFL teachers**

### 5.4. Promoting teachers' reflective practice:

Educational theories have constantly put emphasis on reflective practice as a catalyst for professional development. Prominent figures such as Dewey ( 1933) , Freire (1968) and Schön (1983,1996) have paved the way for a an eminent field of inquiry that is aimed towards empowering professionals through critical reflection. In the field of EFL teaching, teacher development is a requisite for an effective teaching quality. Despite the emergence of more progressive educational paradigms such as the learner-centered approach; the integral role of the teacher remained steadfast. Thus, it is crucial for teachers to develop an “understanding” of their practices; the interactional environment they create; the techniques they use and the strategies they opt for. For instance, Kolb’s model experiential learning (1984) depicts a learning approach in a circular manner. Herein, learners start from having concrete experience to observing and reflecting upon their experience. Then, they form abstract concepts as an attempt to revisit their practices and test them in new situations (**figure 05.01**).



**Figure 05.01: Kolb's Experiential Learning cycle**

Hence, teachers' reflections upon their interactive practices and environments would help them to have a better sense of their classroom ethos and can readjust their

teaching strategies accordingly. In addition, it will eventually lead teachers to successfully manage their classrooms and optimize their teaching performance and thus creating communicatively rich environment. In this regard, the process of informing and developing teachers' who are able to create **such a communication-rich learning environment requires sophisticated pedagogical and methodological competences on the part of the teacher**" (Walsh 2013:17).

Accordingly, developing teachers' reflective practice is a stepping stone to reach the desired outcomes. In fact, many researchers (Christie, 2002; Walsh, 2006; Rymes, 2009) have introduced evaluative tool for teachers to monitor and assess their performance. The rationale behind these tools is **"to provide a descriptive system that teachers can use to extend their understanding of the interactional process operating in their own classes"** (Walsh 2006:65). In the Algerian context, there are scarce opportunities for teachers to evaluate their practices and develop their critical reflection despite the fact that the dominant educational paradigm; Competency Based language teaching encourages an employment of reflective activities in order to adjust their teaching strategies accordingly. This is clearly stated in the teacher's book (2006:79)

**The Competency-Based Approach in its emphasis on cognition also demands a style of teaching based on reflection. Reflection on what, why and how you should teach / or you are teaching in the classroom (reflection in action) implies, among other things, planning ahead your lessons, fixing objectives for each lesson, adjusting your teaching strategies so as to cope with the unexpected**

Thus, reflective practice allows teachers to better understand their teaching practices, discursive patterns and interactive decisions that are constructive or obstructive



to the learning environment. Accordingly, an overt instruction of teachers' interactional meta-language has a pivotal role in raising teachers' awareness regarding their management of classroom interaction.

Therefore, teachers' critical reflection findings will be the "Rosetta Stone" that helps teacher decipher their interactive practices, discursive choices and pedagogical strategies that they employ in their classrooms. This developed awareness will help them in their future conduct and decision-making process before during and even after the lesson takes place.

### **5.5. Developing teachers' Classroom Interactional Competence:**

As discussed previously, interaction lies at the heart of the competency-based approach. In fact; its constructivist orientation postulates the establishment and development of interactional and communicative competencies in order to form socially and communicatively competent learners. Thus, before developing learners' interactional competence, emphasis should be put on the teachers' first as they are active agents in the Teaching/learning process. In other words, if teachers are not interactively competent in the classroom, how would they be able to enact effective interactional strategies and promote an interactional/communicative awareness among their learners?

To answer this question, Steve Walsh (2006) introduced the term "Classroom Interactional Competence" as an integral component in classroom environment. It is based on the presupposition that learning is considered a social activity that is based on interaction, engagement and involvement (Walsh 2015:46). Thus, developing teachers' classroom interactional competence would allow teachers to understand their classrooms' environment and support a more engaged, dialogic learning environment. In fact, Classroom interactional competence highlights the dynamic interplay between pedagogic

goals, language use and teaching strategies. To better understand this concept, Sert( 2015) identified five constructs that represent the extent to which classroom interactional competence can be manifested . These constructs are commonly found in teaching contexts, they include:

**a. Maximizing interactional space:**

It basically means providing interactional opportunities for the learners by opting for a more dialogic approach to teaching. This is done by monitoring their talking time, reducing teacher echo. In addition, teachers can maximize their learners’ interactional space through effective use of eliciting and effective use of non-verbal cues.

**b. Shaping learner contributions:**

In socio-cultural theories, the teaching/learning process is perceived as an active co-construction of meaning. Herein, the learner is perceived as an active agent in the meaning making process. In this regard, an interactively competent teacher seeks to shape his learners’ contribution in an active learning environment. She/he uses interactional strategies such as seeking clarification, scaffolding, modeling and repairing learners’ input. This would create a meaningful interactional environment for the learners to negotiate and optimize their input.

**c. Effective use of eliciting:**

Elicitation is a technique that teachers use to “retrieve” information, ideas, feelings or associations from the learners. It can also be used a diagnostic tool to evaluate learners’ learning development. In the EFL classroom, Eliciting is considered a powerful means to create communicative instance for the learners; this is done through inciting the learners to give information and discuss it rather than be handed over to them. If used effectively, eliciting can create a conducive learning environment in which they can share and co-construct ideas with their peers and teachers. Elicitation techniques range from providing visual and audio stimuli to the learners, to employing discursive strategies such as clarification requests and comprehension checks.

### **d. Instructional idiolect:**

It refers to teachers' individual speech habits such their regional dialect, voice, tone. Thus, an understanding of teachers' specific way of speaking allows them to monitor their discourse e.g., knowing when they are being supportive or obstructive to the learning environment and adapt it to fit their learners' understanding.

### **e. Interactional awareness:**

It is an important construct in the development of classroom interactional competence. It is defined as "teachers' sensitivity to their role in a particular stage of a lesson" (Walsh, 2011, 142). When teacher develop an awareness of their context and their interactional strategies, they are more prone to modify their international strategies according to the pedagogical goals of the lesson.



**Figure 05.02: Development in Classroom Interactional Competence and teacher's beliefs**

Recent educational policies are geared towards developing autonomy and agency for both teachers and learners. Thus, teachers' agency is efficacious in helping teachers become aware of their learners' needs and classroom environment. Herein lies the need to develop teachers' interactional awareness especially in the EFL context. In this regard, having the ability to understand teachers' specific contexts and developing skills

appropriate to these contexts play a key role in teachers' journey towards becoming better teachers.

**5.6. Promoting teachers' and learners' L2 socio-pragmatic competence:**

Recently, considerable literature has grown up around the theme of socio-pragmatic competence in the EFL classroom (Cohen, 2008; Bella, 2010; Abrams ,2013). There has been a consensus on the role of socio-pragmatic instruction in developing EFL teachers' as well as learners' language development and interactional competence. Socio-pragmatic competence can thus be considered as a contributing factor in the growth of interactional knowledge and competency among learners. Socio-pragmatic instruction would help learners become aware of the socio-cultural norms as well as the dynamics of the conversational interaction that are defined by the target language.

Because the EFL classroom is a social context in which the target language is both the medium and the object of instruction, interactional opportunities are a *defacto* construct that should be well invested for the sake of creating a conducive learning environment. Therefore, promoting teachers' as well as learners' socio-pragmatic competence would be considered as a contributing factor in creating an authentic and fruitful interactional environment for the teacher and the learners.

That said, learners' level should be taken into consideration when employing socio-pragmatic instruction in the classroom. In the secondary school context, learners are still struggling with some basic grammar and vocabulary issues. Herein, the EFL teacher's role is to sensitize learners about the sociolinguistic dynamics of the target language.

**5.7. Fostering Learner/learner interaction:**

Fostering Learner/leaner interaction is instrumental in setting the tone and level of interaction in the classroom. In traditional teaching formats such as lockstep, learners spend most of their time listening to their teachers' instructions and receiving a plenitude

of activities that place learners in a competitive learning environment. This teaching approach can be considered as positive incentive to spur learners' motivation and engagement in the lessons. Nevertheless, it appears that traditional teaching approaches put learners in an idle state leaving them scarce opportunities to communicate amongst them. This has an opposing effect to the constructivist tenets of the CBA which embrace learners' cooperative problem-solving skills in an interactively rich environment.

Today's learners are searching for a learning environment that isn't as outdated as conventional classrooms but explicitly built to encourage thought. Herein, the learning process becomes an active process of exploration, critical thinking, participation and interaction. In addition, they want to be part of an impactful learning environment that gives them a sense of accomplishment.

The process of co-operative meaning negotiation can provide a lot of input and output for learners to improve their communicative skills. In fact, working in cooperative groups provides learners the opportunity to employ different interactive strategies in order to construct information in a more relaxed environment. Therein, the teacher monitors the learners and tries to encourage them to monitor themselves without the help of the teacher. Using of the strategies of classroom interaction helps learners to work in a relaxed environment of learning without anxiety.

In addition, group activities provide an increased talking time for the learners because they are somehow required to contribute to the assigned activity. This is also beneficial for shy students who are reluctant to speak publicly. For instance, Think-Pair-Share is a cooperative activity that is used to develop learners' problem-solving skills, improve their communicative and negotiation abilities and gradually construct learners' knowledge about a topic. It is an established teaching strategy that is used in CBA

classrooms. Nevertheless, what is noticeable in the Algerian educational context that the TPS activity is only used for writing activities. In most cases, it is only presented as a final rubric in a reading or a writing sequence. Hence, teachers should consider expand the use of the TPS activity to include oral communication activities such as oral presentations and debates. This would familiarize the learners with cooperative problem-solving techniques; enhance their interactive and discursive skills in the target language.

If well-managed, cooperative learning activities can be a great opportunity for learners provide meaningful input and maximize their interactional opportunities.

### **5.8. Time or Quality? Revisiting the Teacher Talk conundrum**

Teacher Talk is often viewed as a catalyst for the success or failure of the teaching /learning process. There is a prevailing idea in the ELT sphere that teachers should reduce their talking time allowing more talking time for their learners to interact and speak. Thus, a reduced teacher talking time was viewed as a prerequisite for achieving an effective and fruitful classroom interaction. Nevertheless, this suggests a polar opposing view to two important facets of classroom interaction that are supposed to be perceived and act as a harmonious entity. In fact, teachers' responses revealed this polar view. Teachers have focused on monitoring the amount of their talking time as a facilitative strategy to create interactional opportunities. This view has a counterproductive effect on teachers' interactional and discursive behaviors in the classroom. In other words, focusing on the amount of teacher talking time without providing alternative strategies that prompt classroom interaction defeats the actual purpose of maximizing learners' interactional space and providing them with actual learning opportunities in addition to enhancing their productive and meaning negotiation skills. In this regard, teacher education and training phrase should develop courses that are aimed at improving teachers' language use,

discursive and interactional strategies. These strategies include varying questioning strategies, improving elicitation techniques as well as enhancing feedback quality.

### **5.9. Enhancing questioning techniques**

Questioning is a vital strategy in the teaching process. Teachers frequently use it for a myriad of reasons such as stimulating and maintaining students' interest, enabling a teacher to elicit particular structures or vocabulary items, enabling teachers to check students' understanding and encouraging student participation in a lesson Lockhart (1996: 185). Thus, questioning strategies can be considered as one of the most important assets that contribute in maximizing learners' interactional space and develop their social and communicative skills especially in the EFL context where the language is both the medium and the object of instruction. Thus, teachers are required to employ questioning techniques that improve learners' critical thinking skills, linguistic and communicative skills.

As discussed before, data found in the classroom observation sessions have revealed that teachers tend to ask display question, i, e closed questions. These are mainly used to check learners' comprehension and learners' answers are somehow constrained to a sentence or a phrase. In other cases, learners' answers can be monosyllabic using only response tokens such as yes or no.

In this light, EFL teachers should perceive questioning as an interactional opportunity rather than an evaluative or a disciplinary conduct. Hence, there are some questioning strategies to employ that would contribute to maximizing learners' contributions and creating optimal interactional opportunities. These strategies include:

- **Providing sufficient wait time for learners**

As obvious as it may appears, teachers tend to overlook the importance of wait-time for learners' construction of answers. Owing the fact that learners have different cognitive

processing speeds. In this light, employing a differentiated instruction framework such as extending wait time for learners' contributions would cope with learners' diverse learning styles. In addition, a reasonable wait time allows learners to think about their answers and rehearse them.

- **Varying Questioning types:**

It is evident that different types of questioning serve different pedagogical goals. They are inter-complementary for generating meaningful communicative means. In this regard, it is important for EFL teachers to be aware and well informed about the different types of questions and their utility for their learners. In addition, they should try to plan ahead the type of questions to ask in relation to their lesson plans. This way, teachers would be making informed choices about the type of aims of questions vis-a-vis a certain stage of lesson. Herein, the gradation of questions is also important especially when introducing a new grammar point or vocabulary. In early stages of a lesson, Open questions would serve as opportunities for teachers to check their learners' comprehension and retention. As the lesson progresses to more advanced levels, teachers should integrate more divergent, referential questions that would provide learners an opportunity to practice their language, debate ideas and improve their reasoning and critical thinking skills. In addition, it would create ample opportunities for learners to develop their discursive and interactive skills.

- **Encouraging learner's-initiated questions:**

Learners' initiated interaction is a plausible aspect in classroom interaction. It marks the shift from a teacher-controlled interaction to a "conversational pattern where the students guide the discussion" (Marshall et al 2010as cited in Al Zahrani 2017: 148). Recent studies have always focused on the integrality of learner-initiated interaction as



means to empower learners and promote their learning autonomy and agency. According to Garton (2012:29) “Learner initiative in teacher-fronted interaction may constitute a significant opportunity for learning and [that] teachers should find ways of encouraging such interaction patterns” (Sert2015:149).

Based on this, teachers should encourage learners’-initiated questions and provide opportunities for learners to ask their teacher or even ask each other. This would actively involve the learners in the learning process as well as improve their communicative skills. In other words, when learners are encouraged to ask questions, they would engage in a meaning negotiation process with their teacher or peers.

### **5.10. Promoting interactional Feedback:**

In the EFL classroom, feedback is an indispensable aspect in the interactive fabric of the classroom. Ideally speaking, teachers often use feedback to evaluate their learners’ performance and learning progress while learners view feedback as a learning opportunity that allows them to pay attention to their pitfalls and encourages them to readjust and improve their learning strategies. Furthermore, feedback can be viewed as a catalyst for creating an interactive learning environment.

In this regard, teachers should opt for feedback that urges learners to take part in the interactional process. This can be done by creating a safe, non-judgmental learning environment for them in which they are free and even urged to make syntactic or lexical errors with the aims of earnestly discussing them and correcting them. Nevertheless, the everlasting dichotomy of form-focused vs. content focused feedback poses issues of accuracy and fluency. Herein lies the importance of interactional feedback as a balanced approach to provide learners with useful information about their language information while maintaining an interactive environment. This “negotiated interaction can be achieved through the use scaffolding techniques, prompts, recasts as well as nonverbal

cues. The idea here is to “push” learners towards language production while negotiating with their teachers and peers.

### **5.11. Future directions:**

The present study set out to investigate teachers’ beliefs and attitudes from a social interactional lens. The findings have casted a light onto different pedagogical perspectives relating to teacher cognition, teacher education and the extent to which our classrooms are actually interactive. In addition, this research is anchored on social constructivist tenets that place interaction at the heart of the teaching/learning process. Furthermore, it is aimed towards raising teachers’ awareness about the utility of classroom discourse and teacher talk in creating or hindering conducive learning opportunities.

That said, it is fair to say that this research has only scratched the surface when it comes to teacher cognition and social interaction in the EFL classroom. In the midst of stages of elaborating, analyzing and discussing the research, findings were frequently intersected by issues that had either causal or correlational effects on the main topic of the inquiry. These issues may include classroom discourse, socialization and power relations.

In this regard, it is hoped that this research may serve as stepping stone to future inquiries related to the field of teacher cognition and classroom interaction. This field can be enriched by using discourse analytical methods such as Fairclough’s Critical discourse analysis framework or Kumaravadivelu's (1999) Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis. These methods would provide us insights into socio-political and economic contexts that shaped educational and pedagogical discourse. This leads us to place of dialogic and critical pedagogy in our EFL classrooms especially secondary school learners who are supposed to graduate with appropriate communicative and discursive skills that prepare them for tertiary studies. In addition, future research may focus on teachers’ cognition and

identity construction or reconstruction through conducting ethnographic or longitudinal studies. This would provide invaluable data to teacher identity and teacher education field of research.

Finally, future research may focus on the construct of classroom interactional competence as a means and a goal for effective EFL instruction. This competence should be developed for both teachers and learners. Moreover, this research has shed light on the importance of developing teachers' professional development through reflective practice. In fact, teachers had positive attitudes towards overt instruction of interactional strategies that would help them "read" their classroom interactional environment and re-adjust their pedagogical strategies accordingly. Hence, future research may focus on the impact of interaction-based instruction for EFL teachers on their professional development. In addition, future studies may focus on the relation between CIC overt instruction and teachers' changes in attitudes and beliefs.

### **5.12. Conclusion:**

In the present chapter, the research has discussed some pedagogical implications that were found in light of the research findings. Discussions were centered upon the centrality of teachers' beliefs and attitudes in educational policies and the need to put emphasis on teachers' beliefs and attitudes when embarking on educational reforms. Furthermore, the research has also focused on need to revamp teacher education programs to more communicative and interactive directions. In this light, a n interactively based course has been suggested as an attempt to raise teachers' awareness about classroom interaction. Accordingly, developing teachers' interactional competence can also be achieved through enhancing teachers' reflective practice. As a matter of fact, the researcher has argued that developing teachers' reflective practice would sensitize them about their

classroom discourse and language use. In addition, developing teachers' interactional awareness would enhance their agency as researchers and critics of their own classrooms.

## **GENERAL CONCLUSION**

### General Conclusion

Interaction is an inherent activity in any classroom. In language classrooms, interaction is not only a vehicle for instruction but a catalyst that facilitates or hinders learning opportunities. In fact, there has been a long-held consensus among educators that interaction is one of the pillars that should be emphasized in educational practice if we want to achieve satisfactory results. This has re-introduced communicatively based approaches that accentuated the centrality of interaction in foreign language classrooms.

Since the adoption of the Competency Based approach in Algeria, there has been a myriad of studies and recommendations about the importance of interaction in foreign language classrooms. Ostensibly, this approach would contribute in creating communicatively rich classrooms and would eventually facilitate learners' language development.

Nevertheless, it appears that there is a gap between the Ministry's recommendations and classroom realities. In fact, studies are still reporting the lack of real "interaction" in language classrooms where rigid and outdated teaching methods are still being employed. Thus, there is always seems to be a missing piece of the "puzzle" that need to be scrutinized to understand the core of this problem. Accordingly, teachers are considered the primary agents in the teaching/learning process and the main executors of the Ministry's educational aims. Their role in this "equation" should be scrutinized, studied and above all taken into consideration.

This study herein falls in the classroom-based research. It is based on a socio-constructivist view of language learning. Thus, it places interaction at the heart of the teaching/learning. One of the main motives for conducting the present study was to delve

into the dynamics of classroom interaction in the Algerian context through investigating secondary school teachers' attitudes and beliefs. In addition, it was set out to explore teachers' practices to create a communicative learning environment.

This work is composed of five chapters. The first and second chapters represent the theoretical framework of the study. The first chapter encompassed a literature review about the construct of interaction and its concomitant theories. In addition, the researcher presented an account of classroom interaction delving into its aspects, patterns and multiple approaches to its study. In the second chapter, the researcher offered a conceptual framework of teachers' beliefs, attitudes and their relation to classroom practices and instructional choices.

In the third chapter, the researcher has elaborated a detailed description of the methodological strand of the research. It was presented in two main parts; the first part presented the foreign language teaching policy in the Algerian context as well as the place of interaction in the secondary level programs. Furthermore, the status of English in the midst of the recurrent educational reforms was also discussed. As for the second part, the researcher introduced the rationale and motivations that underlined the research inquiry. Furthermore, the researcher accounted for the epistemological and theoretical and methodological framework that underpinned the choice of the research methodology. It is conducted through adopting an emic point of view; it focuses on teachers' attitudes, beliefs and practices towards interaction in their classrooms. It is based on the premise that teacher beliefs and attitudes should be shed light on, discussed and their "voice" should be heard and taken into consideration by official authorities. This is done through utilizing a quantitative method: Teachers' questionnaire, and two qualitative methods: teachers' interview and a classroom observation that was transcribed and analyzed using a

conversation analytical approach. It was hoped that employing an exploratory sequential research design will gradually lead the researcher to come to grip with the interactional architecture (Seedhouse 2004) of foreign language classrooms in the Algerian context.

In the fourth chapter, the researcher provided a thorough analysis of the EFL teaching realms through dissecting teachers' professed beliefs and actual practices. This was done through attempts to shed light on the interactive environment in EFL secondary classrooms by providing a comprehensive account of teachers' attitudes, beliefs towards classroom interaction. Finally, the fifth chapter re-invested the data analysis results and interpreted the findings of the research into pedagogical implications that aimed at providing a better understanding of classroom interaction for both teachers and policy makers. In addition, the researcher put forward suggestions to ameliorate classroom interactional environment, and create conducive learning opportunities.

As discussed before in the thesis, the analysis of data has undoubtedly provided valuable insights into classroom interaction in Algerian classrooms. Most of teachers' responses have revealed a positive attitude towards interaction in the EFL classroom. They acknowledged its importance and impact on developing learners' communicative and social skills.

However, most of them identified a variety of impediments that hampered the employment of interactional strategies. Nonetheless, results have also revealed that teachers' understanding of classroom interaction was limited in to its quantitative aspect (TTT vs STT dichotomy). Most of the teachers overlooked the qualitative aspect of classroom interaction. As a matter of fact, many of them have reported their lack of theoretical understanding about the dynamics of interaction and its underlying strategies. Consequently, this had a negative impact on the "interactional" atmosphere of their



classrooms. This was apparent in results of classroom observation in which communicational opportunities were scarce and no real interaction took place. Furthermore, these teachers have complained about logistical and administrative problems factors such as the lack of guidance, lack of teaching materials and even the format of testing that compels teachers to rely on a method of "teach-to-test". Ergo, this raises a concern about the status of classroom interaction in teacher education programs. In addition, it emphasizes the need to update teacher education and development programs to meet the needs of teachers.

The study also revealed that the more pedagogical goals and language strategies are convergent, the most likely for learning opportunities to be provided and sustained. In addition, it has highlighted the need to develop teachers' professional development through raising their awareness of their pedagogical discourse and instructional choices. In addition, it has emphasized the importance of developing their classroom interactional competence by promoting reflective practice and self-evaluation which are lifelong skills that promote the notion of "autonomous " and "proactive" teachers that are inclined to conduct research in their own classrooms , adapt and constantly advance their teaching methodologies. . In fact, teachers should be well equipped of how to create and maintain interaction in their classrooms. The researcher also suggested an overt instruction of the mechanics of classroom interaction. Ideally speaking, it should be understood and thus instructed separately from the strategies of classroom management.

To conclude, it is fair to say that the present work does not aim to provide ready-made solutions or simply describe a given situation. It is an attempt to address an educational phenomenon, i.e. Classroom Interaction from a different perspective i.e. Teachers' attitudes and beliefs. Thus, it is hoped to spur further studies on classroom

interaction and pedagogical discourse at FL classrooms. Giving the kaleidoscopic nature of classroom interaction, the researcher has been crossed with a variety of fields such as educational psychology and sociolinguistics and even psycholinguistics. Thus, further studies may study the role of code switching as an impediment or facilitator of classroom interaction. In addition, they may investigate the issue of power as well as learners' identity construction in the EFL classroom through using positioning theories or Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis. Finally, studies may address the issue of interactively based reflective practice by implementing a self-evaluation grid for EFL teachers that aims at developing their pedagogical discourse and enhance their interactional competence in order to provide conducive learning opportunities

# **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

## Bibliography

- Abelson, R. (1979). Differences between belief systems and knowledge systems. *Cognitive Science*, 3, 355-366.
- Abid-Houcine ,S. « Enseignement et éducation en langues étrangères en Algérie : la compétition entre le français et l'anglais », *Droit et cultures* Paris, N°54 (2), 143-156.
- Aftab, J. (2016). Teachers' Beliefs about Differentiated Instructions in Mixed Ability Classrooms: A Case of Time Limitation. *Journal of Education and Educational Development*, 2(2), 94. <https://doi.org/10.22555/joeed.v2i2.441>
- Ajzen, I. (1988). *Attitude, personality and behavior*, Chicago, IL: Dorsey Press.
- Allwright, R. (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning: a brief historical overview. *Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 156–171.
- Allwright, R. and K. Bailey (1991), *Focus on the Language Classrooms: An Introduction to Classroom Research for Language Teachers*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press.
- Altan, M. Z. (2012). Pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language learning. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(4), 481–493
- Al-Zahrani, M. Y., & Al-Bargi, A. (2017). The Impact of Teacher Questioning on Creating Interaction in EFL: A Discourse Analysis. *English Language Teaching*, 10(6), 135.
- Ameziane, H (2009), *English Language Teaching in Algeria: An Analysis of the Contents and Implementation of the New Syllabi in the Middle and Secondary Education*, Doctorate thesis, University of Mouloud Mameri , Algeria
- Ameziane, H. (2015). *La Politique de Formation des Formateurs dans l'enseignement de la langue anglaise en Algérie*. *Educ-recherche*, 5, 24–29.
- Anderson, J. (2015). Affordance, learning opportunities, and the lesson plan pro forma. *ELT Journal*, 69(3), 228–238. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccv008>
- Andrews, S. (1999). Why do teachers need 'to know about language?' Teacher metalinguistic awareness and input for learning. *Language and Education*, 13(03), 161-177.
- Andrews, S. (2007). *Teacher Language Awareness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Argyle, M (1987). Functions of non-verbal communication. *Semiotica*. 67, 135-140
- Argyris, C. and Schön, D.A (1974). *Theory in practice :increasing professional effectiveness*. San Fransisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Astuti, I. W., & Selti, G. W. (2018). Trainees' views on the use of self-evaluation of teacher talk (SETT) in microteaching sessions. *ACM International Conference Proceeding Series*, 127–130.

- Asuman, A & İpek ,G (2016) Pre-service EFL teachers' reported perceptions of their development through SETT experience, *Classroom Discourse*, 7:2, 164-183, DOI: 10.1080/19463014.2016.1150865
- Auster, C. J., & MacRone, M. (1994). The Classroom as a Negotiated Social Setting: An Empirical Study of the Effects of Faculty Members' Behavior on Students' Participation. *Teaching Sociology*, 22(4), 289
- Avalos, B. (2011). Teacher professional development in Teaching and Teacher Education over ten years. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(1), 10–20. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.08.007>
- Bacon-Shone, J. (2015). Introduction to Quantitative Research Methods. *Loughborough Univeristy* ,7(03), 147-160
- Bader, F.,vygo & Hamada, H. (2015). Competency Based Approach Between Theory And Practice. *Journal of Humanities*, 7(4). <https://doi.org/10.34174/0079-000-044-030>
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: a social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: prentice-Hall.
- Barcelos, A. M.F (2000). Understanding teachers' and students' language learning beliefs in experience: a Deweyan approach (John Dewey). Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The university of Alabama, Tuscaloosa.
- Barecelos, A.M.F (2003) . Researching beliefs about SLA: a critical review. In P.Kajala and A.M.F Barcelos (Eds) *Beliefs about SLA: new research approaches* (99.7-33). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Barrot, J. S. (2016). Examining the teaching beliefs and practices of experienced ESL teachers: A sociocognitive-transformative perspective. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, 22(1), 153–163. <https://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2016-2201-12>
- Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 25(2), 243–272. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.2.243>
- Bawa, N., & Zubairu, S. (2015). Constructivism and Classroom Interaction. *International Journal of Modern Social Sciences*, 4(2), 71–81.
- Baxter, P., Susan Jack, & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. *The Qualitative Report Volume*, 13(4), 544–559.
- Beauchamp, C., & Thomas, L. (2009). Understanding teacher identity: An overview of issues in the literature and implications for teacher education. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 39(2), 175–189. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057640902902252>
- Bellalem, F. (2008). An Exploration of Foreign Language Teachers' Beliefs about Curriculum Innovation in Algeria: A Socio-Political Perspective. Published PhD thesis King's College London, UK

- Borg, M. (2001) *Key concepts in ELT. Teachers' beliefs*, *ELT Journal*, Volume 55, Issue 2, , Pages 186–188, <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/55.2.186>
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), 81–109. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903>
- Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice*. London: Continuum.
- Bosanquet, P. (2009). The study of classroom interaction: an argument for the use of Conversation Analysis. *Education-Line*, Mehan 1979, 1–11.
- Braidi, S. M. (1995). Reconsidering the Role of Interaction and Input in Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning*, 45(1), 141–175. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1995.tb00965.x>
- Brannan, D. and Bleistein, T. (2012). Novice ESOL teachers' perceptions of social support networks. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46 (3), 519-541
- Bruning, R., Schraw, G., & Ronning, R. (1999). *Cognitive psychology and instruction*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall
- Bullock, D. (2010). *Learner self-assessment: an investigation into teachers' beliefs*. *ELT Journal*, 65(2), 114–125. doi:10.1093/elt/ccq041
- Burgess, R. G. (2005). The Ethics Of Educational Research: an introduction . In *The Ethics Of Educational Research*, 1-9, <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203991077>
- Burns, C., & Myhill, D. (2004). Interactive or inactive? A consideration of the nature of interaction in whole class teaching. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 34(1), 35–49. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764042000183115>
- Cerulo, K. A. (1997). Identity Construction: New Issues, New Directions. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 23(1), 385–409. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.23.1.385>
- Chaudron, C. (1988). Learner behavior in second language classrooms. In *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning* (Cambridge Applied Linguistics, pp. 90-117). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second Language Classrooms: Research on Teaching and Learning* (Cambridge Applied Linguistics). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chen, I.-J. (2017). Face-Threatening Acts: Conflict between a Teacher and Students in EFL Classroom. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, 07(02), 151–166.
- Chrysostomou, M., & Philippou, G. N. (2010). *Teachers' epistemological beliefs and efficacy beliefs about mathematics*. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 9, 1509–1515. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.12.357
- Cirocki, A., & Farrelly, R. (2016). Research and reflective practice in the EFL classroom: Voices from Armenia. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(1), 31–56. <https://doi.org/10.32601/ejal.460995>

- Clark, A. (1999). Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions, by John W. Cresswell. In *Western Journal of Research* (Vol. 21, Issue 1, pp. 103–105).
- Clark, C. M. and Peterson, P.L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.) *Handbook of research on teaching* (3<sup>rd</sup> edition) (pp255-296). New York: Macmillan.
- Clarke, M. (2008). *Language Teachers' identities: co-constructing discourse and community*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters. *critical discourse analysis in education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum
- Csomay, E. (2012). A corpus-based look at short turns in university classroom interaction. *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory*, 8(1), 103–128. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cllt-2012-0005>
- Daniels, H. (2016). *Vygotsky and Pedagogy*. London : Routledge.
- Darasawang, P. (2006). Professional Development for Language Teachers. *ELT Journal*, 60(3), 308–309.
- Darling, A. L., & Civikly, J. M. (1987). The effect of teacher humor on student perceptions of classroom communicative climate. *Journal of Classroom Interaction* \_ 22, 24-30.
- Davidson, C. (2018). Reflection/Commentary on a Past Article: “Transcription: Imperatives for Qualitative Research.” *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 17(1), 160940691878822. doi: 10.1177/1609406918788222
- Despaigne, C. (2013). *An Investigation Into Identity, Power and Autonomous EFL Learning Among Indigenous and Minority Students In Post-secondary Education: A Mexican Case Study*. July, 241. <http://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/1354/>
- Dörnyei, Z., & Griffee, D. T. (2010). Research Methods in Applied Linguistics. *TESOL Journal*, 1(1), 181–183. <https://doi.org/10.5054/tj.2010.215611>
- Dunn, R., Hattie, J., & Bowles, T. (2018). Studies in Educational Evaluation Using the Theory of Planned Behavior to explore teachers' intentions to engage in ongoing teacher professional learning. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 59(December 2017), 288–294.
- Early, M., Kendrick, M., & Potts, D. (2015). Multimodality: Out From the Margins of English Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 49(3), 447–460. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.246>
- Edwards-Groves, C. J., & Hoare, R. L. (2012). “Talking to Learn”: Focussing teacher education on Dialogue as a core practice for teaching and learning. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(8), 82–100.
- Eisenhart, M. A., Shrum, J. L., Harding, J. R., & Cuthbert, A. M. (1988). Teacher Beliefs: Definitions, Findings, and Directions. *Educational Policy*, 2(1), 51–70. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0895904888002001004>
- Etikan, I. (2016). Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1), 1. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11>

- Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. *Educational Research*, 38(1), 47–65. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0013188960380104>
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2018). *Reflective Practice for Language Teachers. The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*, 1–6. doi:10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0873
- Fassinger, P. A. (1995). *Understanding Classroom Interaction. The Journal of Higher Education*, 66(1), 82–96. doi:10.1080/00221546.1995.11774758
- Fischer, B., & Fischer, L. (1979). Styles in teaching & learning. *Educational Leadership*, 36, 245-254.
- Fives, H., & Buehl, M. M. (2011). Spring cleaning for the “messy” construct of teachers’ beliefs: What are they? Which have been examined? What can they tell us? *Educational Psychology Handbook, Vol 2: Individual Differences and Cultural and Contextual Factors.*, 2, 471–499. <https://doi.org/10.1037/13274-019>
- Fleischman, S. (1991). Discourse as space/discourse as time: Reflections on the metalanguage of spoken and written discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 16(4), 291–306. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166\(91\)90083-A](https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(91)90083-A)
- Fotovatnia, Z., & Dorri, A. (2013). Repair strategies in EFL classroom talk. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(6), 950–956. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.3.6.950-956>
- Freeman, D. (1989). Strategies for ELT educators. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(1), 27–45.
- Gaies, S. J. (1983). The Investigation of Language Classroom Processes. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2), 205. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586650>
- Gardner, R. (2019). Classroom Interaction Research: The State of the Art. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 52(3), 212–226.
- Ghafarpour, H. (2016). *Classroom Conversation Analysis and Critical Reflective Practice: Self-evaluation of Teacher Talk Framework in Focus. RELC Journal*, 48(2), 210–225. doi:10.1177/0033688216631173
- Ghaith, G. (2004). Correlates of the Implementation of the STAD Cooperative Learning Method in the English as a Foreign Language Classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 7(4), 279–294.
- Gilmore, K. (2017). Development in the Digital Age. *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, 70(1), 82–90. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00797308.2016.1277895>
- Gumperz, J. J. (1964). Linguistic and Social Interaction in Two Communities1. *American Anthropologist*, 66(6\_PART2), 137–153.
- Hattie, John A. C. (2002). Classroom Composition and Peer Effects. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37 ,5 .p449-481
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.



- Hilbert, R. A., & Collins, R. (1992). *The classical roots of ethnomethodology Durkheim, Weber and Garfinkel foreword by Randall Collins* (pp. XVI–260).
- Hilles, S. (2004). The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition. *Linguistics and Education*, 15(1–2), 181–184. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2004.03.001>
- Hornberger, N and Mackay,L (2010). *Sociolinguistics and Language Education*.Toronto: Multilingual Matters
- Hougham. G.C (2015). *Action Research: Supportive Teacher Talk And Interactional Strategies In An Elementary School Efl Teaching Context In Japan*. University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, United Kingdom
- Ingleby, E. (2012). Research methods in education. In *Professional Development in Education* (Vol. 38, Issue 3). <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2011.643130>
- Ismaili, M. (2015). Teaching English in a Multilingual Setting. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 199, 189–195. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.505>
- James P. Lantolf (2000), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Jawhar, S. (2012). Conceptualising Clil in a Saudi Context: a Corpus Linguistic and Conversation Analytic Perspective. *Doctoral Thesis, February*.
- Jean, W., & Hansun, Z. W. (2010). *Conversation Analysis and Second Language Pedagogy Interactional Practices: A Guide for ESL/EFL teachers*.
- Jefferson, G. (2004). ‘Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction’. In G. H. Lerner (Ed). *Conversation Analysis: Studies from the First Generation*. (pp: 13-31). Amsterdam: John Benjamins
- Jocuns, A. (2007). Semiotics and classroom interaction: Mediated discourse, distributed cognition, and the multimodal semiotics of Maguru Panggul pedagogy in two Balinese Gamelan classrooms in the United States. *Semiotica*, 164(2007), 123–151. <https://doi.org/10.1515/SEM.2007.022>
- Johnson, K (1992), ‘*The instructional decisions of pre-service ESL teachers; new directions for teacher preparation programmes*’ in J.Flowerdew, M.Brock , *Perspectives on Second Language Teacher Education*, Hong kong:City Polytechnic of Hong Kong
- Johnson, K. E. (1992). *Learning to Teach: Instructional Actions and Decisions of Preservice ESL Teachers*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(3), 507. doi:10.2307/3587176
- Kayi-aydar, H., & Miller, E. R. (2018). Positioning in classroom discourse studies : a state-of-the-art review. *Classroom Discourse*, 3014, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2018.1450275>
- Keskes, S. (2011). Some Effects of Teacher Talk on Learners’ Involvement in Classroom Active Communication. *Forum De l' Enseignant*, 07(01), 42–61.

- Khader, F. R., & Jordan, A. (2012). Teachers' Pedagogical Beliefs and Actual Classroom Practices in Social Studies Instruction. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 2(1), 73–92.
- Kimura, D., Malabarba, T., & Kelly Hall, J. (2018). Data collection considerations for classroom interaction research: a conversation analytic perspective. *Classroom Discourse*, 9(3), 185–204. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2018.1485589>
- Kleinberg, S. M. (1975). *Interaction analysis and teacher training*. *British Journal of Teacher Education*, 1(3), 359–362. doi:10.1080/0260747750010309
- Koenigs, S. S., Fiedler, M. L., & Decharms, R. (1977). Teacher Beliefs, Classroom Interaction and Personal Causation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 7(2), 95–114. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1977.tb01332.x>
- Kramsch, S. (1986), 'From language proficiency to interactional competence', *Modern Language Journal* 70(4), 366-72
- Krarnarae, C., and P. A. Treichler. (1990). "Power Relationships in the Classroom." In *Gender in the Classroom: Power and Pedagogy*, by S. Gabriel and I. Smithson. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Kress, G. (2013). *Recognizing learning: a perspective from a social semiotic theory of multimodality*. In de Saint-Georges, I. and Weber, J. eds *Multilingualism and Multimodality. Current challenges for Educational Studies*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers, pp 119-132.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1999), 'Critical classroom discourse analysis', *TESOL Quarterly* 33, 453-84.
- Kupferberg, I., Shimoni, S., & Vardi-Rath, E. (2009). Making sense of classroom interaction via a multiple-method design: social, experiential and epistemological dimensions. *Linguagem Em (Dis)Curso*, 9(1), 81–106
- Larrivee, B. (2008). Development of a tool to assess teachers' level of reflective practice. *Reflective Practice*, 9(3), 341–360.
- Larsen-freeman, D: *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. London: Longman. 165-187
- Le Roux, S. (2017). Language in education in Algeria: a historical vignette of a 'most severe' sociolinguistic problem. *Language and History*. 60-02.p 112-128.
- Li, L. (2017). *Social Interaction and Teacher Cognition*. *Studies in Social Interaction*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press
- Liu, D. L. (1998). Ethnocentrism in TESOL: Teacher education and the neglected needs of international TESOL students. *ELT Journal*, 52 (1), 3-10.
- Llewellyn, N. (2015). Garfinkel and Ethnomethodology. In *The Oxford Handbook of Sociology, Social Theory, and Organization Studies*. DOI: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199671083.001.0001

- Loewen, S. (2005). INCIDENTAL FOCUS ON FORM AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(3), 361-386.
- Long, M. H. (1981). Input, Interaction, and Second-Language Acquisition. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 379(1), 259–278. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-6632.1981.tb42014.x>
- Long, M.H and Sato, C.J. (1983) ‘Classroom foreigner talk discourse: forms and functions of teachers’ questions’, in H.W. Seliger and M.H. Longs (eds) *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House
- Loughran, J. J. (2002). Effective reflective practice in search of meaning in learning about teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(1), 33–43. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487102053001004>
- Malamah-Thomas, A. (1987) ‘*Classroom Interaction*’, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mami, N. A. (2013). Teaching English under the LMD Reform: The Algerian Experience. *International Journal of Educational and Pedagogical Sciences*, 7(4), 910–913. <http://waset.org/publications/13738/teaching-english-under-the-lmd-reform-the-algerian-experience>
- Mansour, N. (2009). *Science Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices-Issues*,.pdf. 4(1), 25–48. <http://www.ijese.com/>
- Marija, K.-L., & Aleksandra, S. (2011). Linguistic aspects in asymmetrical institutional interaction: Call center case. *Glasnik Etnografskog Instituta SANU*, 59(2), 189–206. <https://doi.org/10.2298/gei1102191k>
- Markee, N. (2015). *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction*. West Sussex (UK): Wiley-Blackwell.
- Mayes, P. (2010). The discursive construction of identity and power in the critical classroom: Implications for applied critical theories. *Discourse and Society*, 21(2), 189–210. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0957926509353846>
- McCarthy, M (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McGroarty, M. (1996). Language attitudes, motivation, and standards. In S. L. McKay &
- McLaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of second-language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Mcvee, M. B., Baldassarre, M., & Bailey, N. (2001). Positioning theory as lens to explore teachers’ beliefs about literacy and culture. *National Reading Conference Yearbook*, 53, 1–15.

- Mehan, H., & Griffin, P. (1980). Socialization: The View from Classroom Interactions. *Sociological Inquiry*, 50(3–4), 357–392. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-682X.1980.tb00027.x>
- Mercer, N. (2010). The analysis of classroom talk: Methods and methodologies. *Brit. J. Educ. Psychol.* 80, 1–14. doi: 10.1348/000709909X479853
- Mercer, N., and Howe, C. (2012) Explaining the dialogic processes of teaching learning: the value potential of sociocultural theory. *Learning Culture and Social Interaction* 1, 12–21.
- Model, O. (2000). Contrasting Approaches To Classroom Research : Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis of Language Use and Learning 1. *Language*, 19(1), 1–56.
- Moeller, A. J. (2018). Bringing Flow into the Language Classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 51(4), 711–713. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12368>
- Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(4), 317–328.
- Neumann Jr., R. (2000). Donald Schön, The Reflective Practitioner, and The Comparative Failures of Legal Education. *Clinical Law Review*, 6, 401.
- Nkwetisama, C. M. (2012). The competency based approach to English language education and the walls between the classroom and the society in Cameroon: Pulling down the walls. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(3), 516–523. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.3.516-523>
- Norris, S. (2005). Discourse in Action ,Introducing mediated discourse analysis. In *Routledge London*.
- Nottingham, T., & User, N. E. (2016). *Silva , Maristela ( 2016 ) Narrativised teacher cognition of classroom interaction : articulating foreign language practice in the Amazonian context . PhD thesis , University of Nottingham . Narrativised Teacher Cognition of Classroom Interaction .*
- Okita S.Y. (2012) Social Interactions and Learning. In: Seel N.M. (eds) Encyclopedia of the Sciences of Learning. Springer, Boston, MA
- Opdenakker, M.-C., & Van Dam, J. (2006). *Teacher characteristics and teaching styles as effectiveness enhancing factors of classroom practice. Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(1), 1–21.
- Oxford, R. (1992/1993). Language learning strategies in a nutshell: Update and ESL suggestions. *TESOL Journal*, 2 (2), 18-22.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers’ Beliefs and Educational Research: Cleaning Up a Messy Construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307–332. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543062003307>
- Park, J. (2017). Multimodality as an Interactional Resource for Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC). *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3(2), 121–138. <https://doi.org/10.32601/ejal.460977>

- Phipps, S. (2009). *Classroom Practice in Language Teaching: A Case Study of MA Students' Beliefs about Grammar Teaching*. 258. <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/43521.pdf>
- Pica, T. (2005) Classroom Learning, Teaching, and Research: A Task-Based Perspective, *The Modern Language Journal*, 89, 3, (pp 339-352).
- Powney, J., & Hall, S. (1998). Closing the Loop: The Impact of Student Feedback on Students' Subsequent Learning. Research Report Series.
- Priddis, L., & Rogers, S. L. (2018). Development of the reflective practice questionnaire: preliminary findings. *Reflective Practice*, 19(1), 89–104.
- Richards, J. (1990), *Second Language Teacher Education*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (1996). *Teachers' Maxims in Language Teaching*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(2), 281. doi:10.2307/3588144
- Richards, J. C. (2013). Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics. *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833835>
- Rivers, M. W. (1987). *Interactive language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ročāne, M. (2015). The Significance of Teacher's Beliefs in the Learning Process. *Society, integration, education. Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference*, 2, 165. <https://doi.org/10.17770/sie2015vol2.452>
- Rumenapp, J. C. (2016). Analyzing discourse analysis: Teachers' views of classroom discourse and student identity. *Linguistics and Education*, 35, 26–36. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2016.04.002>
- Schwarz, C. (2012). Classroom discourse in foreign language classrooms: A review of the literature. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45, 8–27. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2012.01177.x>.
- Seedhouse, P. (2019). L2 classroom contexts: deviance, confusion, grappling and flouting. *Classroom Discourse*, 10(1), 10–28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2018.1555768>
- Sert, O (2015), '*Social Interaction and L2 Classroom Discourse*', Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Shepard, L. a. (2000). The role of classroom assessment in teaching and learning. *Assessment*, 95064(310), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-008-9783-1>
- Shomoossi, N. (1997). The Effect of Teacher's Questioning Behavior on EFL Classroom Interaction: A Classroom-Based Research. 15-26
- Shotter, J. (1993). Vygotsky: The social negotiation of semiotic mediation. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 11(1), 61–75. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0732-118X\(93\)90020-E](https://doi.org/10.1016/0732-118X(93)90020-E)

Sidnell, J and Stivers, T (2013). *The Handbook of Conversation Analysis*. West Sussex: Blackwell Publishing.

Sidnell, J. (2016), "Interactional trouble and the ecology of meaning", *Psychology of Language and Communication*, 20 (02) , pp. 98–111

Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, R. M. (1975). *Towards an Analysis of Discourse: The English Used by Teachers and Pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.

Skott, J. (2015). The promises, problems, and prospects of research on teachers' beliefs. *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs*, (pp.13–30) Routledge.

Slimani, A. (1989). The role of topicalization in classroom language learning. *System*, 17(2), 223–234. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(89\)90035-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(89)90035-3)

Slimani, S. (2016). Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Algeria. *Revue Des Sciences Humaines – Université Mohamed Khider Biskra*, 44–60.

Slimani-Rolls, A., & Kiely, R. (2014). “We are the change that we seek”: developing teachers' understanding of their classroom practice. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 51(4), 425–435. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2014.894328>

Smith, P. K and Pellegrini, A.D(2000) , *Psychology of Education: Schools, teachers and parents*. New York: Routledge Falmer

Solheim, K., Ertesvåg, S. K., & Dalhaug Berg, G. (2018). How teachers can improve their classroom interaction with students: New findings from teachers themselves. *Journal of Educational Change*, 19(4), 511–538. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-018-9333-4>

Sugita, Y., & Tani, J. (2005). Learning semantic combinatoriality from the interaction between linguistic and behavioral processes. *Adaptive Behavior*, 13(1), 33–52. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105971230501300102>

Sundari, H. (2017). Classroom Interaction in Teaching English as Foreign Language at Lower Secondary Schools in Indonesia. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 8(6), 147.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in Output and the Cognitive Processes They Generate: A Step towards Second Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 16, 371-391.

Taherdoost, H. (2018). Validity and Reliability of the Research Instrument; How to Test the Validation of a Questionnaire/Survey in a Research. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, January 2016. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3205040>

Troudi, S., & Nunan, D. (1995). Research Methods in Language Learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(3), 601. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588081>

- Tsui, A. (1995), 'Introducing Classroom Interaction', London: Penguin English
- Turuk, M. (2008). The relevance and implications of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in the second language classroom. *Annual Review of Education, Communication & Language Sciences*, 5, 244-262.
- Van Lier, L. (1988), *The Classroom and the Language Learner*, London: Longman.
- Van Lier, L. (2004). The semiotics and ecology of language learning. *Utbildning & Demokrati*, 13(3), 79–103.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society: Development of Higher Psychological Processes* (Cole M., Jolm-Steiner V., Scribner S., & Souberman E., Eds.). Cambridge, Massachusetts; London, England: Harvard University Press.
- Wallace, B., & Oxford, R. (1992). Disparity in learning styles and teaching styles in the ESL Classroom: Does this mean war? *AMTESOL Journal*, 1, 45-68.
- Walsh, S. (2011), *Exploring Classroom Discourse; Language in Action*, London: Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2003). Developing Interactional Awareness in the Second Language Classroom Through Teacher Self-evaluation. *Language Awareness*, 12(2), 124–142.
- Walsh, S. (2006), *Investigating Classroom Discourse*, London: Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2012), 'Conceptualising Classroom Interactional Competence', *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 6(1), 1-14, (last accessed April, 30<sup>th</sup> 2018)
- Walsh, S. (2013), *Classroom Discourse and Teacher Development*, Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press
- Walsh, S. (2014). Developing classroom interactional competence. *Language Issues*, 25(1), 4–8.
- Wang, L., & Huan, F. (2011). A Self-evaluation of Classroom Language Used When Teaching Grammar. *International Education Studies*, 4(4), 170–174.
- Weinberg, D. (2002). *Qualitative research methods*. Malden, MA: Blackwell
- Weinstein, C. (1991). The Classroom as a Social Context For Learning. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 42(1), 493–525.
- Wells, G. (1993). Re-evaluating the IRF sequence: a proposal for the articulation of theories of activity and discourse for the analysis of teaching and learning in the classroom. *Linguistics and Education*, 5, 1-37.
- Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic Inquiry: Towards a Sociocultural Practice and Theory of Education*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Wells, K. (2002). Interviewing in Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Social Work*, 1(4), 489.

- White, J. and P.M. Lightbown (1984), 'Asking and answering in ESL classes', *The Canadian Modern Language Review* 40, 228-44
- Willemsen, A. (2019). *The floor is yours: a conversation analytic study of teachers' conduct facilitating whole-class discussions around texts*. PhD Thesis. University of Gronigen, Holland.
- Wilson, N and Mclean, S (1994). *Questionnaire design: a practical introduction*. Newtonabbey, Northern Ireland : University of Ulster Press.
- Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology, Psychiatry, & Applied Disciplines*, 17, 89–100.
- Xu, L. (2012). The role of teachers' beliefs in the language teaching-learning process. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(7), 1397–1402.  
<https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.7.1397-1402>
- Young, R. F. (2015). Interactional Competence in Language Learning, Teaching, and Testing. *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*, 426–443.
- Zourez, L., & Keskes, S. (2016). Exploratory Study Of Teachers' Perceptions Beliefs And Practices : Teachers' Recognition Of The Necessary Link Between Pre-tertiary And Tertiary Study Of EFL In Algeria. *Al Athar* .15 (26) , pp97-108



# **Appendices**

**Appendix A:**

**Teachers' Questionnaire**

Dear Teachers,

This questionnaire is part of a doctorate dissertation, carried out to explore teachers' beliefs, attitudes and opinion concerning the construct of interaction in the EFL classroom more specifically, secondary school teachers. Your answers are highly appreciated .Thank you for dedicating time to be part of this research project.

➤ **Section One: Teachers' profile**

- Age :.....
- Gender :.....
- Degree :.....
- Teaching experience:.....

➤ **Section Two: Teachers' Schemata and beliefs regarding Classroom Interaction**

- How would you define Classroom Interaction?

.....

- Classroom interaction mainly covers :( select one or more)

- Managerial issues concerning how to deal with disruptive behavior and time management issues.
- Instructional delivery (questions, repair ,recasts, TTT<sup>10</sup> and STT<sup>11</sup>)
- Affective relationships between the teacher and the learners

3. Developing your Classroom interactional competence would help you in advancing your teaching quality

- Agree
- Disagree
- Neutral

<sup>10</sup> TTT means Teacher Talking Time

<sup>11</sup> STT means Student Talking Time

4. Do you believe that Classroom Interaction is a construct that should be taught to teachers (whether novice or experienced)?

Yes

No

5. If no, state the reason

.....

6. If yes , Do you think that it should be taught as a part of Classroom Management or as a separate course?

- As part of classroom management
- as a separate course



➤ **Section three : Teachers' self report on their interactive practices**

**Please Tick the box that corresponds to your answer of preference**

	Always	Usually	Rarely	Never
<b>a. Input and Interaction</b>				
I explain, give examples and synthesize ideas throughout all the stages of the lesson:				
When planning my lesson, I prepare oral activities				
I provide learners with authentic materials and visual aids to promote class discussion				
I encourage learner-learner interaction and reinforce it by fostering cooperative activities				
I ask the learners to summarize, paraphrase or re-explain a notion to their peers				
I interfere in my learners' seating arrangement				
<b>b. Turn taking techniques:</b>				
I elicit learners' answers by asking open				

questions				
When learners are answering, I avoid interrupting them				
I ask the learners to discuss, elaborate their ideas and give more details to their answers				
I check learners' knowledge through personal soliciting (nominating learners)				
I allocate interactional space based on learners' oral proficiency level:				
<b>c. Repair strategies</b>				
If learners make mistakes, I tend to request for repetitions so that learners may self-check.				
I correct their oral production in terms of grammar and vocabulary mistakes				
I give verbal judgments to students' mistakes with words like bad, no, you are wrong				
I prompt learners' correct answers				

Thank you for your collaboration

**Appendix B:**

**Classroom Observation Grid**

**A / Classroom Logistics:**

**Date:**

**Class size:**

**Level::**

**Seating arrangement:**

**Stream:**

**Materials**

**B /Classroom Discourse :**

<b>Feature Of Teacher Talk</b>	<b>Tally</b>	<b>Examples From the Recording</b>
<b>Scaffolding</b>		
<b>Direct repair</b>		
<b>Content feedback</b>		
<b>Extended wait-time</b>		
<b>Referential questions</b>		
<b>Seeking clarification</b>		
<b>Extended learner turn</b>		
<b>Teacher echo</b>		
<b>Teacher interruptions</b>		
<b>Extended teacher turn</b>		
<b>Turn completion</b>		
<b>Display questions</b>		
<b>Form-focused feedback</b>		
<b>The use of multilingual resources</b>		

**Appendix C:**



**Informed Consent Form**

**Purpose of the Study**

This study intends to provide a better understanding of the construct of interaction and involvement in the EFL classroom with a focus on secondary school classrooms. The benefits of the research will be:

- To better understand the mechanics of interaction
- To identify significant components that could help in developing interaction and foster learner involvement in the EFL classroom

The methods that will be used to meet this purpose include:

- Classroom Observational sessions
- One-on-one interview

**Subject's Understanding**

- I agree to participate in this study that I understand will be submitted at the University of Djillali Liabès, Sidi Bel Abbès
- I understand that my participation is voluntary.
- I understand that I will not be identified by name in the final product.
- I am aware that all records will be kept confidential in the secure possession of the researcher.
- I acknowledge that the contact information of the researcher has been made available to me.
- I understand that the data I will provide are not be used to evaluate my performance as a teacher in any way.
- I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time with no adverse repercussions.

Subject's Full Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Subject's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date Signed: \_\_\_\_\_

**Researcher:**

## Appendix D:

### JEFFERSONIAN TRANSCRIPTION NOTATION

Symbol	Name	Use
[ text ]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of overlapping speech.
=	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance.
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the time, in seconds, of a pause in speech.
(.)	Micropause	A brief pause, usually less than 0.2 seconds.
. or ↓	Period or Down Arrow	Indicates falling pitch.
? or ↑	Question Mark or Up Arrow	Indicates rising pitch.
,	Comma	Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation.
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
>text<	Greater than / Less than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more rapidly than usual for the speaker.
<text>	Less than / Greater than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker.
°	Degree symbol	Indicates whisper or reduced volume speech.
ALL CAPS	Capitalized text	Indicates shouted or increased volume speech.
Underline	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.
:::	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of an utterance.
(hhh)		Audible exhalation
? or (.hhh)	High Dot	Audible inhalation
( text )	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.
(( italic text ))	Double Parentheses	Annotation of non-verbal activity.

Jeffersonian Transcription Notation is described in G. Jefferson, "Transcription Notation," in J. Atkinson and J. Heritage (eds), *Structures of Social Interaction*, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1984.

## **Résumé :**

Cette étude doctorale est une enquête approfondie sur le terrain visant à découvrir les réalités des croyances et des attitudes des enseignants concernant l'interaction dans les classes des écoles secondaires algériennes. C'est aussi une tentative de faire la lumière sur les pratiques interactives en cours des enseignants. Il permet au chercheur de découvrir si les croyances des enseignants sont alignées sur leurs pratiques réelles en classe. Ce faisant, le chercheur tente à donner un aperçu des réalités de l'enseignement de l'EFL dans le secondaire algérien concernant les croyances et les pratiques des enseignants. En fait, il s'agit d'une tentative «d'arranger les pièces du puzzle» concernant les attentes du programme et les réalités de la classe dans la sphère éducative algérienne. En outre, on espère que cette étude offrira une plate-forme aux enseignants pour exprimer leurs opinions concernant les problèmes et les échecs de l'interaction en classe et même leurs besoins et suggestions pour améliorer la situation actuelle de l'enseignement EFL. Pour atteindre ces objectifs, le chercheur a opté pour une approche de méthode mixte avec une conception séquentielle explicative en raison du caractère exploratoire-explicatif de la recherche. Celle-ci commence par un questionnaire administré aux enseignants afin d'avoir une première idée globale des attitudes des enseignants à l'égard de leurs attitudes et pratiques interactives ainsi que des exigences du programme éducatif et de la manière dont ils les exécutent en classe. Dans un deuxième temps, le chercheur sélectionne cinq enseignants du secondaire pour mener une série de séances d'observation en classe. Ensuite, un entretien de suivi avec les enseignants sélectionnés est organisé afin de comparer leurs pratiques avec leurs croyances.

Les résultats de la recherche ont révélé des informations précieuses sur l'interaction en classe dans les classes algériennes. Ils ont accentué l'interface entre le discours, l'interaction et les possibilités d'apprentissage. De plus, les résultats ont également révélé des incohérences entre les croyances professées par les enseignants et les pratiques réelles.

En conclusion, l'étude présente des implications pour le développement professionnel des enseignants en revisitant la formation des enseignants et les programmes de formation des enseignants en formation et en cours d'emploi. En outre, des recommandations pratiques ont été suggérées pour améliorer l'environnement interactionnel dans les salles de classe du secondaire EFL.

**Mots clés:** interaction en classe, possibilités d'apprentissage, croyances des enseignants, discours des enseignants, développement des enseignants



## ملخص:

هذه الدراسة عبارة عن تحقيق ميداني شامل، تم إعداده للكشف عن حقيقة تصورات المعلمين ومواقفهم فيما يتعلق بالتفاعل خلال الفصول الدراسية في المدارس الثانوية الجزائرية. إنها أيضًا محاولة لإلقاء الضوء على الممارسات التفاعلية للمعلمين، بحيث تسمح للباحث باكتشاف ما إذا كانت تصورات المتعلمين تتماشى مع ممارساتهم الفعلية في الفصل. من خلال تطبيق ذلك، يسعى هذا البحث إلى تقديم نظرة عامة حول واقع تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في المدرسة الثانوية الجزائرية فيما يتعلق بتصورات المعلمين وممارساتهم. وفي الواقع، هي محاولة "لترتيب قطع اللغز" فيما يتعلق بتوقعات المناهج وحقائق الفصل الدراسي في مجال التعليم الجزائري. وضمن هذا الإطار، يكمن المأمول من هذا العمل في أن يوفر منبرًا للمعلمين كي يعبروا عن آرائهم فيما يتعلق بالمشاكل والحوادث المرتبطة بالتفاعل الصفّي وحتى احتياجاتهم واقتراحاتهم لتحسين الوضع التعليمي الحالي للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. ولتحقيق هذه الأهداف، اختارت الباحثة المنهج المختلط مع تصميم تسلسلي توضيحي بسبب الطبيعة الاستكشافية التفسيرية للبحث؛ حيث يبدأ البحث باستبيان موجه للمعلمين للحصول على فكرة عامة أولية عن مواقف المعلمين تجاه مواقفهم وممارساتهم التفاعلية، بالإضافة إلى متطلبات المناهج التعليمية وكيفية تنفيذها في الفصل الدراسي. وكخطوة ثانية، اختارت الباحثة خمسة من معلمي المرحلة الثانوية لإجراء سلسلة من جلسات الملاحظة الصفية. بعد ذلك، تم إجراء مقابلة متابعة مع المعلمين المنتقين من أجل مقارنة ممارساتهم بتصوراتهم. وكشفت نتائج البحث عن رؤية قيمة حول التفاعل الصفّي في الفصول الدراسية الجزائرية من خلال إبراز العلاقة بين الخطاب والتفاعل وفرص التعلم. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، كشفت النتائج أيضًا عن تناقضات بين معتقدات المعلمين المعلنة والممارسات الفعلية.

وفي الختام، تقدم الدراسة انعكاسات على التطوير المهني للمعلمين من خلال إعادة النظر في برامج تدريب المعلمين قبل الخدمة وأثناء الخدمة، وكذا تم اقتراح توصيات عملية لتحسين البيئة التفاعلية في الفصول الدراسية لتدريس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** التفاعل في الفصل، فرص التعلم، معتقدات المعلمين، خطاب المعلم، تطوير المعلم