

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel



Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English

**Investigating the Relationship between Interactive Features and the
Delivery and Appreciation of Oral Presentations in EFL classrooms**

The Case Study of Third-Year Licence and First-Year-Master Students at Mohammed
Seddik Ben Yehia University- Jijel-

**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment for the Requirements for a
Master Degree in Didactics of English**

Submitted by:

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Academic Year: 2018-2019

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Dedication

This work is whole-heartedly dedicated:

To my beloved parents; the light of my life and the ones who believe in me and unstintingly ready to sacrifice for my own path, thank you for continual care and attention

To my brother 'Mohammed' for his continuous encouragement and his endless support all the time.

To all my brothers for whom I wish the best: Omar, Hocine, Ahcene, Amine, and Zakaria; thank you so much for being by my side along my career.

To all my sisters; Fatima, Souad, Nacira, and my lovely twin Halima; those who highly support me to pursue my interests

To my friend and partner in this work "Hakima" for her tenacity in working

To all my teachers and classmates with whom I spent fantastic memories

SOUMLIA

Dedication

*To the most precious people to my heart, to the ones who gave birth and meaning to my life,
to the persons who gave me strength and hope*

I dedicated this work:

*To dear mother, a person full of love and caring from whom I learned patience, her prayers
light up my life*

*To dear father who taught me to value knowledge, thank you for the encouragement I got
throughout my whole career*

To my lovely sisters for their help and valuable advices

To my beloved brother “Mohammed” for his endless support

To my friend and partner in this work “Soumia” for her encouragement and patience

To my friends and classmates with whom I spent unforgettable memories

To my teachers who taught me along my studies

To all who love me

HAKIMA

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In the name of Allah, Most Merciful, Most Compassionate

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Abstract

The study has investigated the potential relationship between the use of interactive features, delivery and appreciation of oral presentations in EFL classrooms. It also investigated the attitudes of the students who deliver oral presentations and the teachers' opinions about the role of interactivity in the process of delivering oral presentations. A classroom observation of ten presentations was done with third-year licence and first-year- master students of English at University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. It followed by two questionnaires; the first one was submitted to 20 students who delivered the presentation, and the second one was submitted to 10 teachers who assign oral presentations tasks for students' evaluation. The current research work revolves around one basic hypothesis which is if a presenter uses interactive features which check audience comprehension, elicit responses, and modifies talk, this will impact positively on the delivery, comprehension and evaluation by the audience; teacher and students. To this end, the analysis of the results generated by classroom observation demonstrated that the most frequent interactive feature used by the presenter was elicitation. Moreover, the results obtained revealed that students' participation, good delivery and appreciation by the audience are related to the use of interactive features by the presenter. Likewise, the analysis of the results generated by the presenter questionnaire as well as the teacher questionnaire revealed that the vast majority of students and teachers hold positive attitudes towards interaction in the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations. They consider the interactive type as more effective in the delivery rather than monologic type of oral presentations, and the aspect of interaction is a main criterion for evaluating the presenters' performance.

Key words: oral presentations, interactive features, delivery and appreciation.

List of Abbreviations and Symbols

%: percentage

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FLE: Facilitate-Listen-Engage

G.T.M: Grammar Translation Method

IRE: Initiation-Response-Evaluation

IRF: Initiation-Response-Feedback/Follow-up

L1: First language

L2: Second Language

n.d: no date

N: Number

P. Page

P.P. Pages

Q: Question

S: Student

Vs: Versus

List of Figures

Figure3.1. Illustration of a seating chart for Observing Participating Students in the Presentations.....	73
Figure3.2. A Likert Scale of Audience Overall Opinion about the Presentations.....	74
Figure3.3. A Likert Scale of Clarity and Comprehensibility of the presentations.....	74

List of Tables

Table3.1. Categories for Observing the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning.....	71
Table3.2. Categories for Observing the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments.....	72
Table3.3. The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation One.....	75
Table3.4. Audience Evaluation of Presentation One.....	75
Table3.5. Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation one.....	76
Table3.6. The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Two.....	76
Table3.7. The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Two.....	77
Table3.8. The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Two.....	77
Table3.9. Audience Evaluation of Presentation Two.....	78
Table3.10. Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Two.....	78
Table3.11. The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Three.....	79
Table3.12. Audience Evaluation of Presentation Three.....	79
Table3.13. Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Three.....	80
Table3.14. The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Four.....	80

Table3.15. Audience Evaluation of Presentation Four.....	81
Table3.16. Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Four.....	81
Table3.17. The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Five...82	
Table3.18. The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in presentation five	82
Table3.19. The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Five.....	83
Table3.20. Audience Evaluation of Presentation Five.....	83
Table3.21. Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Five.....	84
Table3.22. The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Six....	84
Table3.23. The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Six.....	85
Table3.24. The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Six.....	85
Table3.25. Audience Evaluation of Presentation Six.....	86
Table3.26. Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Six.....	86
Table3.27. The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Seven..	87
Table3.28. The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Seven.....	87
Table3.29. The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Seven.....	88
Table3.30. Audience Evaluation of Presentation Seven.....	88
Table3.31. Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Seven.....	89

Table3.32.The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Eight.....	89
Table3.33.Audience Evaluation of Presentation Eight.....	90
Table3.34.Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Eight.....	90
Table3.35.The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Nine.....	91
Table3.36.Audience Evaluation of Presentation Nine.....	92
Table3.37.Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Nine.....	92
Table3.38.The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Ten....	93
Table3.39.The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Ten.....	94
Table3.40.The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Ten.....	94
Table3.41.Audience Evaluation of Presentation Ten.....	94
Table3.42.Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Ten.....	94
Table3.43. Summary of Classroom Observation Results	95
Table3.44.Presenters' Attitudes towards the Role of Delivering Oral Presentations in Learning English.....	101
Table3.45.Presenters' Views about the Challenging Nature of Delivering Oral Presentations.....	102
Table3.46.Presenters' Manner of Delivering Oral Presentations.....	102

Table3.47.The Presenters' Opinions about Relative Effectiveness of Monologic and Interactive Presentations.....	103
Table3.48.Presenters' attitudes towards the Facilitating Role of Interaction during the Presentation.....	103
Table3.49.The presenters' opinions about the Necessity of Using Comprehension Checks.....	104
Table3.50.The Frequency of Using Comprehension Checks by the Presenter	104
Table3.51.The Strategies Used by the Presenter for Confirming the Audience's Comprehension.....	105
Table3.52.The Frequency of Getting Asked for Clarification by the Audience.....	105
Table3.53.The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Clarification Requests by the audience.....	106
Table3.54. Presenter'sAttitudes towards Allowing Audience Contributions in the Explanation Process.....	106
Table3.55. Presenter's Attitudes towards the Role of Audience Comments and Contributions.....	107
Table3.56. Audience Attitudes about the Role of Listening to Oral Presentations in Learning English.....	107
Table3.57.Audience's Frequency of Interaction with the Presenter in Oral Presentations...	108
Table3.58.The Audience's Perceptions of the Relative Effectiveness of Monologic and Interactive Presentations.....	108

Table3.59. Audience Attitudes towards the Necessity of Using Comprehension Checks...	109
Table3.60.The Frequency of Making Clarification Requests by the Audience.....	109
Table3.61.The Frequency of Interruptions Made by the Audience.....	110
Table3.62 .Teachers’ Opinions about Relative Effectiveness of Monologic and Interactive Presentations.....	112
Table3.63.Frequency of Teachers’ Encouragement of Monologic Presentations.....	113
Table 3.64.Frequency of Teachers’ Encouragement of Interactive Presentations.....	113
Table 3.65.Teachers’ Opinions about the Necessity of Using Comprehension Checks by Presenters.....	114
Table3.66.Teachers’ Attitudes about the Use of Clarification Requests in Oral Presentations.....	114
Table3.67. Teachers’ Attitudes towards Allowing Audience Contributions in the Explanation Process	114
Table 3.68.Teachers’ Attitudes toward the Role of Audience Comments and Contributions in Presentations	115
Table3.69.The Main Aspects of Teachers’ Evaluation of Oral Presentations.....	116
Table3.70.Teachers’ Perception towards the Centrality of Interaction in Evaluating Oral Presentations.....	116
Table 3.71.Teachers’ Attitudes about the Interactive Features Contributing to Good Evaluation of Presentations.....	117

Table of Contents

Dedication	i
Acknowledgement.....	iv
Abstract	v
List of Abbreviations and Symbols	v
List of Figures	vii
List of Tables.....	viii
Table of Contents	xiii
General Introduction	
Introduction	Erreur ! Signet non défini.
1.Review of Previous Researches	1
2.Statement of the Problem	2
3.Research Questions	3
4.Aims of the study	4
5.Research Hypothesis	4
6.Methodology and Means of Research.....	4
7.Structure of the Research	5
Chapter One:Oral Presentations in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning.....	7
Introduction	7
1.1.Definition of Oral Presentations.....	7
1.2.Value of Oral Presentations.....	9
1.3.Group and Individual Oral Presentations	10

1.3.1.Individual Oral Presentations	10
1.3.2.Group Oral Presentations	11
1.4.Styles of Delivery	12
1.4.1.Memorized Oral Presentations	12
1.4.2.Impromptu Oral Presentations.....	13
1.4.3.Manuscript Oral Presentations	15
1.4.4.Extemporaneous Oral Presentations.....	15
1.5.Purposes of Oral Presentations.....	17
1.5.1.Informative Oral Presentations.....	17
1.5.2.Persuasive Oral Presentations.....	19
1.5.3 Entertaining Oral Presentations.....	21
1.6.Key Elements of an Effective Oral Presentation.....	21
1.6.1.Planning and Preparation.....	21
1.6.1.1. Steps in Planning and Preparation.....	22
1.6.1.2. Content Planning	23
1.6.2. Practice.....	24
1.6.3. Delivery of Oral Presentations	25
1.6.3.1. Presentation Structure.....	25
1.6.3.2. Presentation Skills	27
1.7.Challenges of Giving Oral Presentations	31
1.7.1. Speech Anxiety.....	31
1.7.2. Listeners' Boredom	32
1.8.Assessment of Oral Presentations	33

Conclusion	35
Chapter Two:Interaction and Interactive Features in the Foreign Language Classes ...	36
Introduction	36
2.1. The Nature of Classroom Interaction	36
2.1.1. Definition of Classroom Interaction.....	37
2.1.2. Classroom Interaction vs. Classroom Discourse vs. Classroom Talk	38
2.1.3. The Continuum from Monologic to Interactive Classrooms.....	39
2.2. Patterns of Classroom Interaction	41
2.2.1. Teacher- Learner/Group of Learners Interaction.....	42
2.2.2. Learner-Learner Interaction.....	42
2.2.3. Initiation-Response-Feedback/Evaluation Pattern	43
2.2.4. Facilitate-Listen-Engage Pattern	44
2.3. Features of Interaction in Foreign Language Classroom	44
2.3.1. Questioning	45
2.3.1.1. Clarification Requests	46
2.3.1.2. Comprehension Checks.....	47
2.3.1.3. Elicitations.....	47
2.3.2. Modified Repetition	49
2.3.3. Negotiation of Meaning.....	50
2.3.4. Turn Taking.....	51
2.3.5. Interruption and Overlap	51
2.3.6. Feedback on Students' Performance	52
2.3.7. Non-verbal communication.....	53

2.4. Interaction in Language Learning Theories	54
2.4.1. The Input Hypothesis (1981).....	54
2.4.2. The Output Hypothesis (Swain,1985- 1995).....	54
2.4.3. The Interaction Hypothesis (1981-1996).....	55
2.5. Interaction in English Language Teaching Theories.....	56
2.5.1. Grammar Translation Method	56
2.5.2. Direct Method.....	57
2.5.3. The Audio-lingual Method.....	58
2.5.4. Interaction in Communicative Language Teaching.....	58
2.6. The Significance of Classroom Interaction.....	59
2.7. Components of Classroom Interaction.....	61
2.7.1. Collaborative dialogue	62
2.7.2. Group Discussion	62
2.7.3. Co-construction	63
2.8. Factors Affecting Classroom Interaction	63
Conclusion.....	66
Chapter Three: Field Work	68
Introduction	68
3.1. Data collection Procedures.....	68
3.2. Population and Sampling	69
3.3. Classroom Observation	70
3.3.1. Description of Classroom Observation	70

3.3.2. Analysis of Classroom Observation	74
3.3.2.1. Interactive Features in Presentation One	74
3.3.2.2. Interactive Features in Presentation Two	76
3.3.2.3. Interactive Features in Presentation Three	78
3.3.2.4. Interactive Features in Presentation Four	80
3.3.2.5. Interactive Features in Presentation Five.....	82
3.3.2.6. Interactive Features in Presentation Six	84
3.3.2.7. Interactive Features in Presentation Seven.....	87
3.3.2.8. Interactive Features in Presentation Eight.....	89
3.3.2.9. Interactive Features in Presentation Nine.....	91
3.3.2.10. Interactive Features in Presentation Ten	93
3.3.2.11. Summary of Interactive Features in the Tenth Presentations	95
3.3.3. Interpretation of classroom observation Results	99
3.4. The Presenter Questionnaire	99
3.4.1. Description of Presenter Questionnaire.....	99
3.4.2. Analysis of Presenter questionnaire	101
3.4.3. Interpretation of Presenter Questionnaire.....	110
3.5. Teacher Questionnaire.....	111
3.5.1. Description of Teacher Questionnaire.....	111
3.5.2. Analysis of Teacher Questionnaire	112
3.5.3. Interpretation of Teacher Questionnaire.....	118
3.6. Overall Analysis of Results.....	119
Conclusion.....	122

General Conclusion	124
1.Putting it Altogether	124
2.Limitations of the Study	125
3.Pedagogical Recommendations.....	126
4.Suggestions for Further Research.....	127
Reference List	
APPENDICES	
Resumé	

ملخص

General Introduction

1- Review of Previous Research

2- Statement of the Problem

3- Research Questions

4- Aims of the Study

5- Research Hypothesis

6- Means of the Study

7- The Structure of the Study

Oral presentations are suggested as a learner-centred activity to minimize the control of talk in oral classes by the teacher. In fact, they have become an important part of language teaching and learning (Živković, 2017). Different pedagogical ideas have been suggested and investigated by researchers to help in carrying out oral presentations in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes effectively (Brooks & Wilson, 2014; Chivers & Shoolberd, 2007; Hall, 2008; Hughes & Weller, 1991; Gogunskaya, 2015; Ivey, 2010; Storz et al, 2013; Tracy, 2008). Moreover, teaching EFL students how to present is an important step in developing their oral communication skills. The ability to speak to an audience and refine presentation skills is thought to be eventually helpful for students in both their academic and professional life (Emden & Becker, 2004, p.1).

1. Review of Previous Researches

Classroom interaction in EFL learning contexts is crucial for students' comprehension. Hence, in oral presentation classes, students should get involved in interaction to negotiate meaning among each other in order to reach better understanding.

Numerous studies set out to investigate the role of interactivity in classroom discourse (Bell, 2003; Hardman, 2016; Kasim, 2004; Skidmore & Murakami, 2016; Tavakoli, 2016).

The importance of dialogue in teaching and learning as highlighted by Skidmore & Murakami (2016) says that: "when the teacher enters into a dialogue with students, it is possible for the two parties to build up a shared understanding" (p.8). In this regard, the speaker would allow the audience to interact with the content to take part in the classroom discourse. In particular, a dialogic pedagogy is created by a student-teacher use of questioning as well as inspiring students to produce their own words through discussions.

Classroom interaction, according to Hardman (2016), promotes active collaboration and improves students' learning outcomes. In order to achieve and maintain real classroom

interaction, Hardman argued that teachers should use open and authentic questions in which students give further responses and may sometimes bring about new questions; teachers should also avoid using close and pedagogical questions which require only a short and limited answer, usually by “yes” or “no”, or an answer which is known by the questioner.

Moreover, fluency in monologic and dialogic task performance was investigated by Tavakoli (2016) who provided a novel insight into the measurement of the interactive aspects of dialogic performance. The researcher used thirty-three (35) monologic and dialogic task performances from students of English as a Second Language (ESL) to measure different aspects of fluency. It was found that speech was more fluent in dialogue in terms of speed and length of pause. A similar study was done by Bell (2003) which aimed to analyze speech rate in monologic and dialogic activities of six Brazilians students of English as a Foreign Language. The results of the study concluded that speech rate was higher in interactive talk comparing with monologic talk.

Another contribution was by Kasim (2004) who conducted a qualitative research about classroom interaction in the English department speaking class at State University of Malang. It was intended to investigate patterns of classroom interaction, types of interactional features used by the teacher and students. It was found that in classroom interaction patterns, the teacher and students use a variety of interactional features to negotiate meaning with one another such as confirmation checks, clarification requests, repetition, etc. In addition, this study showed that input is available for the students not only from the teacher but also from the students themselves.

2. Statement of the Problem

In the field of English as Foreign Language(EFL) teaching and learning, students are encouraged to bridge the gap between language theory and language use. One way to do this

is through oral presentations where students have the opportunity to deliver knowledge and practice speaking of a foreign language.

Oral presentations are considered a demanding and challenging task for most speakers either in academic or professional settings. In the special context of EFL, the process of delivering oral presentations is expected to be even more difficult for students as they are non-native speakers who have not yet mastered the language system. In fact, lack of language proficiency creates difficulty in delivering oral presentations by the speaker and comprehending them by the audience. Also, where EFL students' oral presentations are made without interaction with the audience, it is difficult to say for sure whether the content presented is comprehensible or not.

Interactive features in oral presentations such as asking questions, elicitations, interruptions, comprehension checks, and opening discussion facilitate communication between the presenter and the audience as they both participate in discussions to increase understanding. If these features are not adopted by the presenters, it is either because they do not know how to use them, do not prefer to use them or that evaluation of oral presentations give them little importance and focus more on content or other aspects of presenting such as pronunciation.

3. Research Questions

In the light of the above statement of the problem, the present study seeks to answer six major questions:

- What interactive features, if any, are used by the presenters during an oral presentation?
- Which interactive features are related to more participation and students involvement in the oral presentation?

- Is there a relationship between the use of interactive features and the ease of delivering oral presentations?
- Is there a relationship between the use of interactive features and the audience appreciation of oral presentations?
- Does the presenter's actual performance in oral presentations reflect their attitudes about the place of interactive features?
- Is interaction a main criterion in the teachers' evaluation of oral presentations?

4. Aims of the study

The present research aims to investigate the role of using interactive features on the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations in EFL classrooms. It also aims at exploring the audience's and teachers' attitudes about the relationship and importance of interaction in delivering oral presentations so as to get more a valid and reliable understanding about the place of interactivity in oral presentations.

5. Research Hypothesis

The current investigation attempts to examine the following hypothesis:

If a presenter uses interactive features which check audience's comprehension, elicit responses, and modifies talk, this will impact positively on the delivery, comprehension and evaluation by the audience; teacher and students. Specifically, the more interactive features are used by the presenter, the easier it is for him/her to deliver the presentation; and the more interactive features are used, the better comprehension and appreciation are obtained by the audience.

6. Methodology and Means of Research

The research at hand follows a descriptive paradigm; it relies on a classroom observation and questionnaires for data gathering.

As far as the first part of the practical part is concerned, a classroom observation is conducted of ten presentations with Third-Year Licence and First-Year Master students of English at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University in order to observe the frequency of interactive features during the oral presentations' delivery as well as audience comprehension and appreciation of those presentations.

As far as the second part of the practical part is concerned, a questionnaire is administered to twenty (20) students who perform the oral presentation task for the purpose of getting a better picture about their attitudes towards interaction in oral presentations. Additionally, a teacher questionnaire which is designed to ten (10) teachers who are concerned and familiar with assigning oral presentation projects for students as an evaluation in the hope of getting insights about their views towards the role of interaction in evaluating oral presentations.

7. Structure of the Research

This dissertation is divided into three chapters: two theoretical and one practical. It also comprises a general introduction and a general conclusion.

The first chapter deals with related literature to oral presentations in foreign language classrooms including their definition and place in English language learning process. It, then, explores the major types and styles of delivery an oral presentation with its purpose, and discusses the main elements for delivering an effective oral presentation along with its challenges, and finally discusses oral presentations assessment.

The second chapter tackles the issue of using interactive features in oral presentations. It reviews the nature of classroom interaction by giving its definition, the two terms that are used interchangeably with classroom interaction: classroom discourse and classroom talk, and the distinction between monologic and interactive classrooms is explained. Then, it reviews the main patterns of classroom interaction and main features of interaction in foreign language

classroom. Next, it states the place of interaction in language learning and teaching theories. Finally, the chapter ends by exploring the significance and major components of classroom interaction as well as the main factors that affect it.

The third chapter is devoted to the practical part. It presents the population and the sample that is selected for this study. Next, it gives a description of each research tool used as well as the analysis and interpretation of the results obtained from classroom observation, presenters, and teachers questionnaires. The chapter ends by supplying recommendations for further research and stating the limitations of the study.

Chapter One: Oral Presentations in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Introduction

1.1. Definition of Oral Presentations

1.2. Value of Oral Presentations

1.3. Group and Individual Oral presentations

1.4. Styles of Delivery

1.4.1 Memorized Oral Presentations

1.4.2. Impromptu Oral presentations

1.4.3. Manuscript Oral Presentations

1.4.4. Extemporaneous Oral Presentations

1.5. Purposes of Oral Presentations

1.5.1. Informative Oral Presentations

1.5.2. Persuasive Oral Presentations

1.5.3. Entertaining Oral Presentations

1.6. Key Elements of Effective Oral Presentations

1.6.1. Planning and Preparation

1.6.1.1. Steps in Planning and Preparation

1.6.1.2. Content Planning

1.6.2. Practice

1.6.3. Delivery of Oral Presentation

1.6.3.1. Presentation Structure

1.6.3.2. Presentation Skills

1.7. Challenges of Giving Oral Presentations

1.7.1. Speech Anxiety

1.7.2. Listeners' Boredom

1.8. Assessment of Oral Presentations

Conclusion

Chapter One:

Oral Presentations in Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

Introduction

The ability to effectively deliver an oral presentation in front of an audience in formal or informal settings has become an essential skill for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' academic performance. In the university context, making oral presentations is a student-centred activity where learners take responsibility of their learning (Brooks & Wilson, 2014, p.199).

This chapter discusses the basic elements that are unique to oral presentations in EFL classrooms. First, it starts by defining the concept of oral presentation and shows its place in English language learning. Then, types of oral presentations and styles of delivering them are presented. Next, the main purposes behind giving oral presentations are highlighted. After that, light is cast on the key elements of effective oral presentations and the common challenges faced by students during the delivery of oral presentations. Last, ways to assess oral presentations are discussed.

1.1. Definition of Oral Presentations

Mandel (2000) stated that oral presentations are “speeches that are usually given in a business, technical, professional or scientific environment. The audience is likely to be more specialized than those attending a typical speech event.” (p.8). According to Mandel, the two terms: ‘speech’ and ‘presentation’ are slightly different. A presentation is a type of speech that is usually conducted in a specific environment i.e. in settings which are less public in nature like business, academic or scientific settings while a speech would be given in crowded settings like political and ceremonial speeches.

In university environments, oral presentations are a distinctive feature of the EFL classrooms, and students almost certainly have to give one (Al-Issa & Al-Qubtan, 2010, p. 227). This activity of oral presentation focuses on three major components of speech: speaker, audience, and message (Webster, 2012, p.2). It is likely to be as a discussion occurring between the speaker and the audience in order to deliver knowledge of a focused topic (cited in Thi Phuong, 2018, p. 39). According to Miura, Okazawa, Fukasawa and Hillman (2006) “to give a presentation is to explain orally to an audience what you have investigated, researched, or claimed to be true.” (p.10). That is to say, a presentation is a spoken form of communication in which the presenter tries to impart the knowledge that he/she prepared and explain what is said on a certain subject. In addition, Morita (2000) describes an oral presentation as a regular activity in a university setting. It is assigned as a formal oral assessment for students in order to evaluate certain skills (Cited in Kaur & Mohamad Ali, 2018, p.153). This definition offers a very useful insight to understand the meaning of oral presentations; it states that an oral presentation is an activity that is frequently used by teachers in the classroom for evaluation and to reflect on the development of certain oral presentation skills.

In oral presentations, the act of speaking occurs in a structured and planned manner on a given subject, at a specific time (Melion and Thompson, as cited in Atmane, 2016, p.8). In this regard, Harmer (2007) pointed out that oral presentations are not “(...) designed for informal spontaneous conversations; because they are prepared, they are more writing like” (Cited in Chik & Dich, 2016, p.7). In other words, what distinguishes oral presentations from other natural conversations is that they are formal and deliberate, as they require more planning and preparation. Besides, oral presentations are structured and organized as similar as writing an essay; they are composed of three general parts: the introduction, which states the purpose of the talk and outlines the major points, the body of the presentation, which

presents and develops clearly the main ideas stated in the introduction, and the conclusion, which ends the talk by summarizing and reiterating the main ideas, and asking for any comments or questions (Živković, 2014, p.470).

1.2.Value of Oral Presentations

According to Emden and Becker (2004) “developing the abilities to speak to an audience is one of the greatest benefits you will ever get from your time in further or higher education.” (p.1). Assigning oral presentations as a classroom task is considered extremely beneficial for both the presenter and the audience for their future career.

Oral presentations are beneficial for the speaker in which he/she can learn how to search, collect information and plan out the presentation. Hence, he/she will develop his/her second language reading and writing skills and become skilful in preparing, organizing, and structuring ideas. Furthermore, by giving oral presentations as a communicative, interactive, and authentic assignment, the speaker will be able to link between theory and practice, through integrating and combining between the four language skills (O’Hair, Rubenstein & Stewart, 2010, pp.2-4).

In addition, making oral presentations is beneficial for the audience. Girard, Pinar, and Trapp (2011) pointed out that giving oral presentations allows the audience to communicate, interact, and negotiate meaning with the speaker in a natural and integrated manner, so they can refine their oral communication skills. Besides, oral presentations help the audience to develop their listening skills because they are capable to confirm and check their comprehension through asking questions to the presenter. Consequently, they will be able to reason and think critically as they will have the ability to form and defend their opinions rather than blindly accept or reject what they have heard or read (Cited in Brooks & Wilson, 2014, pp.202-204).

Furthermore, Students will have the privilege from giving oral presentations in their future jobs. Academically, oral presentations are very helpful for students where they need to use different language aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation. Beyond the academic context, Pittenger (2004) stated that oral presentations are beneficial for students for the reason that many employers in today's time are looking for candidates capable of making oral presentations and communicatively competent (Cited in Brooks & Wilson, 2014, p.204). To put it differently, candidates who have the ability to speak confidently in front of the public are much needed especially today in the field of economy, where they are required to hold meetings, make publicity and advertisements, etc.

In short, delivering oral presentations is of vital importance for students to develop their communication skills. The latter are considered valuable for students to be successful in their future jobs and workplace.

1.3. Group and Individual Oral Presentations

Oral presentations can be delivered individually, or in group. Each format has its specific characteristics which, if used appropriately by the presenter, will be beneficial for the speaker as well as the listener and will yield a successful performance (Gogunskaya, 2015, p.16).

1.3.1. Individual Oral Presentations

An individual oral presentation is given by only one presenter who usually has the opportunity to select a topic of interest. The good side of this model is that the presenter has the chance to speak on his/her own in front of the audience. This makes the speaker take responsibility for asking and responding to questions which helps in developing communication skills. Presenting individually also allows the student to cover all the stages of the presentation, from brainstorming ideas to their implementation and then the actual performance; as a result, it becomes easier for the student to organize and deliver the

presentation as long as there is no need to take into account other members' parts. However, individual presentations have some disadvantages since having the charge of the whole presentation is difficult for students to complete in an appropriate manner. Moreover, individual presentations rely only on one person's knowledge without any contributions from other parts. Consequently, the speaker does not have the chance to benefit from team work (Gogunskaya, 2015, pp.16-17).

1.3.2. Group Oral Presentations

A group presentation is another type of oral presentations which consists of two or more presenters. It minimizes efforts for students, since the work will be subdivided among the members. Moreover, working in group includes a variety of competencies, energy, and several personalities, which help speakers to complete heavy and demanding tasks. Besides, presenting in group is a good tool for certain students to overcome stage fright and nervousness since they feel more confident standing on stage with other members. Another benefit of assigning presentations in groups is that they can encourage teamwork and give the opportunity to other students to share their ideas and information, correcting each other and getting feedback before they present the work in an open class. Also, in group presentations, every member has the chance to present what is expected from him/her through allocating work and time (Gogunskaya, 2015, p.18).

However, as beneficial as group presentations are, they also represent some problems. When students present in groups, it will be hard for their classmates to follow the content. Rather, they will view the presentation as a speaking group, in which the listeners focus on how the presenters speak rather than what they actually convey. Another problem occurs in the management and the coordination of group's knowledge, time and efforts, i.e. how to divide tasks among members and harmonize between parts so that each one respects the time allocated for him/her (Gogunskaya, 2015, p.19).

1.4. Styles of Delivery

In oral presentations, style is the distinctive sign that make any presentation effective and memorable for students. It refers to how language is used for expressing and transmitting knowledge to the audience while delivery refers to the actual presentation of content, which involves sharing and exchanging ideas with the audience (Welcome to Public Speaking, 2012, p.15). There are four common styles used by the presenters for delivering an oral presentation: memorized, impromptu, manuscript, and extemporaneous (Kline, 1989, pp.55-56).

1.4.1. Memorized Oral Presentations

Memorized speaking is a form of speech delivery in which the speaker memorizes part or all of speech and then delivers it depending on memory without reliance on notes or an outline (O'Hair, Rubenstein & Stewart, 2010, pp.141-142). Johnstone, McCullough and High (2011, pp.69-70) stated that the memorized oral presentation is a speech that focuses on memorizing the message and practicing in order to present it word-for-word as reading a written message. Also, memorization is done in a similar way to what actors do when they practice to perform the speech well. In addition, this style of delivery can be well used in some brief and short occasions where speaking from manuscript is inappropriate such as speeches of political electing campaigns, speeches in ceremonial occasions, award-acceptance speeches, etc (O'Hair et al., 2010, pp.141-142).

Memorization has different benefits for the students. It can be helpful since there are some words, expressions, phrases, idioms, and terms in any language that need to be memorized. Good memorization raises students' confidence and motivation in speaking English, using the four language skills, and improving fluency and accuracy in expressing the ideas (Duong Thi and Nguyen Thu, 2006, pp.7-10). Besides, memorizing the presentation allows any speaker to move freely and comfortably in front the audience so that he/she can avoid the awkward behaviour of reading from the notes (Sheahan, 2017, p.1).

There are, however, some defects of speaking from memory. This style of delivery is very fearful for any speaker since he/she may feel afraid of forgetting and losing what has been memorized and what to say when getting in front of the audience (Johnstone et al, 2013, pp.69-70). Speakers often encounter bad experiences during an oral presentation such as frequent periods of stopping and lapses because they forget what they intend to say (O'Hair et al, 2010, p.141). Similarly, Kline (1989) argued that memorizing talk is the poorest way of delivering a presentation, and it is better to be used sparingly or else avoided completely since it does not allow the speaker to be spontaneous in his/her talk (p.56). According to Duong Thi and Ngunen Thu (2006) memorization may also minimize the interaction between the speaker and the audience as well as losing naturalness in communication (p.4).

In EFL contexts, memorization is a common strategy which facilitates the process of English language learning. It is a conscious act of establishing and committing information into memory, and it is a method by means of which the students recall what they have memorized and apply it in different tasks (Duong Thi and Nguyen Thu, 2006, p.1). Students use the memorization strategy mainly for learning vocabulary, definition, and literary extracts. Problems arise when students depend much on what has been memorized but do not really understand well what they memorized. This leads them to forget everything quickly after a short period of time (Khamees, 2016, pp.248-9).

1.4.2. Impromptu Oral Presentations

Speaking impromptu is a style of speech delivery that is done without being prepared, organized or rehearsed with limited duration of time. It is a spontaneous and improvised talk in which there is no notes to follow. In this style, a student uses his/her previous knowledge to make a speech about whatever topic is given (Henderson, 1982, p.76). According to Johnstone et al (2013) impromptu speaking “occurs when a person comes up with something to say on the spur of the moment, as during a meeting or debate, but still has a few moments

to organize his/her thoughts and think about how best to express his/her ideas.” (p.70). In other words, in impromptu speaking students do not have time to practice their talk out loud, they just get up and speak immediately on the spot since they can prepare their own words mentally before the actual utterance. When they are listening to a discussion or debate, they can start writing some notes, taking key points, and forming thoughts with desire to express them to the audience.

“Everyone must do impromptu speaking at one time or another” (Young & Travis, 2012, p.180). For example, conversations with friends, parents and teachers, answering questions, giving opinion, or to give a summary of the main points of an activity, sharing knowledge about different things are really short impromptu talks (Cited in Fundamentals of Oral Communication, n.d, p.2). Impromptu speaking can help students in different skills and situations. It can help them to develop their ability to think and organize ideas quickly; it improves their ability to communicate effectively as well as raises confidence in speaking. Also, such unprepared speaking provides opportunities for students to expand and develop their vocabulary and teaches them the appropriate use of the body language as well (Henderson, 1982, p.76). Conversely, this style of delivery requires experienced speakers who are skilful and have significant amounts of knowledge. Experienced speakers who have ability to organize their thoughts are the most qualified for speaking impromptu since they spend more time in practicing to give an unprepared and unplanned talk (Kline, 1989, p.59). Besides, improvised speaking is one of the most nervous situations for speakers because they are afraid of not knowing what to say in front of the audience (as cited in Fundamentals of Oral Communication, n.d, p.2).

The impromptu speaking technique can be effectively implemented by teachers inside small classrooms to foster and improve students' speaking ability. The teacher can follow some procedures such as dividing students into small groups, then giving each group a topic

or a set of questions, and last asking each student in the group to begin talking about the topic or to giving answers to questions. At the same time, a teacher should raise interest in this technique by using topics that are suitable to students' level to encourage and motivate them. Finally, students will actively interact in the classroom (Munawarah, 2012, pp.37-97).

1.4.3. Manuscript Oral Presentations

Manuscript oral presentation is “speaking from a complete written text and is often used when exact wording and time constraints are imperative” (Johnstone et al., 2013, p.70). In other words, manuscript speaking is a style of speech delivery in which the speaker reads the message from a script in order to transmit every single word that has been planned correctly. It is often required when delivering the exact words is essential and the time is limited. There are few situations where manuscript style is appropriate. As an example of this type of delivery is speech of the presidents to people (Young & Travis, 2012, p.180).

Speaking from manuscript allows students to use the exact words, phrases, and expressions that have been planned. Speakers feel comfortable since they will not forget anything when every word is in front of them (Kline, 1989, p.56). The opposite view states that utilizing a full manuscript restricts speakers to use gestures, body language, and to make eye contact with the audience. It risks making the audience annoyed and bored since the speaker is most of the time looking at the written script and reading it to them (O’Hair et al., 2010, p.141). Thus, any speaker must do some prior practice in order to become familiar with the speech and fluent in articulating and pronouncing words. By doing so, they will be able to keep eye contact with the audience (Johnstone et al., 2013, p.70).

1.4.4. Extemporaneous Oral Presentations

Speaking extemporaneously is a style of speech delivery where the speakers will utilize notes or an outline as a guide during the performance. They note key words and phrases on

cards to help them recall the concepts they want to cover and transmit to the audience (Johnstone et al, 2013, p.71). Extemporaneous speech is a speech that is based upon full preparation and adequate practice in advance. Unlike memorized or manuscript speech, the presenter speaks from well-outlined notes, and focuses on communicating and presenting ideas instead of words (O’Hair et al, 2010, p.143).

According to Young and Travis (2012) “extemporaneous speaking is conversational speaking.” (p.181). It is similar to achieving a natural conversation with the audience since the speaker is only giving main concepts without being trapped by memorization or reading from a written paper. Extemporaneous presentation according to Hamlin (1988) “is interactive, not one-way” (p.155). In other words, the speaker can interact directly with the audience at the moment of delivery; he/she can keep more eye contact with body movement. By doing this, it can be said that the presenter is flexible; he/she can move smoothly between different parts of the presentation, modifying wording, and rearranging information when the audience do not understand a concept. So, any extemporaneous speaker has ability to control his/her thoughts and actions than in any other styles of delivery (O’Hair et al, 2010, p.143). This style of delivery makes the speaker spontaneous in the performing situation and the listeners talked to in a straightforward manner (Young & Travis, 2011, p.181). In opposition, there are some potential drawbacks of extemporaneous speaking. Some speakers do not really know how they write their notes. They write down much information and details instead of writing each concept in one or two key words or phrases which help them to remember and explain what they want to say (Hamlin, 1988, p.159). Also, extemporaneous speakers may take much time just repeating ideas because different thoughts and points come to their minds. Besides, even if the speakers take a glance to the note cards, they sometimes find themselves looking for what to say after (O’Hair et al, 2010, p.143).

1.5. Purposes of Oral Presentations

An oral presentation is a communicative act between the speaker and listeners. Hence, understanding the style of the presentation will help speakers to explore the main aim of giving a presentation (Chivers and Shoolbred, 2007, p.1) That is, any speaker should figure out what s/he is trying to achieve in the presentation. Generally, there are three main purposes of oral presentations which are to inform, to persuade, and to entertain. They are often determined by the occasion in which the speech is being presented (Johnstone, 2013, p.40).

1.5.1. Informative Oral Presentations

Speaking to inform is one of the three general purposes for which students are asked to give presentations. An informative oral presentation is the most common form of oral speech which provides new information, ideas, and increases awareness about a specific subject. An informative speech could be given in a variety of contexts such as academic, professional, personal, and civic contexts. Also, reports, lectures, training, seminars, and demonstrations are all examples in which an informative speech takes place (Informative and persuasive speaking, 2012, p.616).

According to Chivers and Shoolbred (2007), this type of presentations could be seen as a teaching process in some conditions since they share the same aim which is providing as much information as possible in the time available. The purpose of informative presentation is to describe a political event, organize a set of instructions, and give a report on a particular research subject (p.5).

In an informative presentation, speech can be primarily structured by using different methods of informing. That is, speakers often inform an audience through definitions, descriptions, demonstrations, and explanations (Informative and Persuasive Speaking, 2012, p.622).

- ***Informing through Definition***

Informing through definition entails a careful explaining and defining of a word or a concept properly and concisely since the audience may not understand. The speaker can inform through definitions by synonyms and antonyms through expressing the function of an object, item, or by providing examples, and etymology i.e. giving an overview about the origin of a word.

- ***Informing through Description***

Informing through description is also an important side of informative oral presentations. It entails creating a word picture to the audience since the presenter is going to convey a set of descriptive details that form a mental picture of a person, place, event, or concept. The use of colorful words and figures of speech such as metaphors, comparisons, etc. will help the listeners to visualize ideas.

- ***Informing through Demonstration***

Informing through demonstration refers to giving verbal directions about how something is done in which physical steps are important for explaining speaking.

- ***Informing through Explanation***

Informing through explanation means to explain reasons like how something works, what something is, why it happens, identify relationships, give interpretation and analysis.

In sum, informative oral presentations entail providing factual information as long as the audience learns something new. However, any presenter should determine the suitable information to include in his/her talking. In other words, he/she should take care to find

objective sources such as books, articles, newspapers, credible web sites, etc (Informative and Persuasive Speaking, 2012, p.620).

1.5.2. Persuasive Oral Presentations

In persuasive speeches, the ability to create a desire and willingness in the listeners to act in a specific way is the main goal for any speaker. Thus, students are required to clearly understand the construction of making arguments using persuasive language (Informative and Persuasive Speaking, 2012, p.640).

This type of presentations aims to influence and modify the audience attitudes, thinking, beliefs, or behaviors about particular ideas. Besides, the primary function of the speaker is to defend his/her ideas, and to ask listeners for supporting and accepting his/her stance. The speaker focuses on changing both the audience point of views and actions as well through participating in the discussion (Rice, 2017, pp.440-441).

There are three main characteristics of any persuasive oral presentation which are interactivity, coercion, and increment. First, persuasive speaking is interactive in the sense that speakers create a direct connection with listeners and keep them in mind along the delivery. The opinions, experiences, and attitudes of the audience should be considerable and valuable to speakers by responding to the feedback and queries about the speech subject. So, throughout persuasive speaking listeners are strongly involved in a kind of communication process with the speaker (Persuasive Speaking, n.d, pp.463-464). Second, persuasion in a speech is not necessarily the same as coercion. The latter refers to the speaker's act of forcing the audience to comply with his/her aim, by changing their beliefs and thoughts. Coercion is a proof that does not require any reasons and evidences, or consideration and respect; instead, it involves the threat of force to get what one wants. In persuasion, the main aim is to convince an audience to believe in something by giving reasons and arguments, but at the same time

there is a respect of the decision whether to accept and support his/her requests (Johnstone et al., 2013, pp.79-80). Finally, persuasion speaking is incremental. That is, the audience after any persuasive speech will change their opinions gradually toward the new ideas, attitudes, and actions. The listeners first make a comparison between their knowledge and the speaker's proofs. So, if the speaker provides strong arguments with a clear and logical organization, then the audience may shift smoothly their attitudes and behaviors (Persuasive Speaking, n.d, p.464).

Furthermore, persuasive presentations have three cornerstones that are labeled by Aristotle as ethos, pathos, and logos. They are three forms of proof that let listeners believe speakers.

- ***Ethos*** (credibility of the speaker)

Tracy (2008) stated that ethos “refer to your character, ethics, and your believability when you speak. Increasing your credibility with your audience before and during your speech increases the likelihood that listeners will accept your argument and take action in your recommendations.” (p.9). Ethos refers to the personal, moral character of the speaker. It is the effect of the speaker on the audience through which the latter responds to the speaker's ethical personality, goodwill, and the credibility of the evidence.

- ***Pathos*** (emotional appeal, passion)

Pathos refers to the speaker's feelings, and emotions, passion, personal values, and perceptions. It is an important way to make the audience accept and support the speaker's arguments. Thus, change their opinions about the topic.

- ***Logos*** (logic)

Logos implies reason; rational or logical arguments where the speaker should provide logical proofs for the audience to support the claims that are presented during the persuasive speech.

Lastly, making persuasive presentations helps the speaker to increase confidence and learn how to deal with any reaction from the audience (Tracy, 2008, p.9). In addition, once the speaker offers strong arguments and proofs, the audience may gradually change their thoughts to support and accept the new ideas. So, a good persuasive presentation will remain memorable in the mind of the audience.

1.5.3. Entertaining Oral Presentations

Entertaining speech is a kind of talk that is prepared for special occasions. The general purpose of the speaker is to entertain the audience by using stories and anecdotes within the speech. Special occasion speeches can be either informative or persuasive, or a mix of both. However, the underlying goal of an entertaining talk is to please, inspire, celebrate, and to dedicate persons or events. It is usually given in relation to ceremonial occasions such as weddings, graduations, memorials, and the like (O'Hair et al, 2010, p.217).

1.6. Key Elements of an Effective Oral Presentation

An oral presentation is an opportunity for students to disseminate a set of information on a given topic. However, an effective oral presentation is much more than presenting and delivering ideas. Rather, it requires three main steps: planning and preparation of the content, practice and presenting (Preparing for an oral presentations, 2014, p.2).

1.6.1. Planning and Preparation

Students have to think how to make the presentation interesting to both the teacher and their classmates. Planning and preparation are the key solutions to do so since they help the audience to follow, listen, and understand what is going on during the delivery.

1.6.1.1. Steps in Planning and Preparation

In the planning stage, the speaker should take few steps before writing the presentation.

These are summarized by Storz et al., (2013, p.3):

- Identify the main purpose of the presentation; what is the speaker trying to accomplish?
- Analyze the audience: Who is the audience? What would peak their interests? What does your audience expect to gain from listening to the speech?
- Give a definite topic to the presentation; it would be relevant and of interest to you and to audience.
- Describe the major reasons behind presenting this topic.
- List the main concepts and points as the presenter wish to present, and convey.
- Next, conduct the research; once the topic is determined, the presenter is ready to do the research.
- Write the speech.
- Anticipate questions that may be asked from teacher/classmates and prepare answers to them.

In addition to these steps, time management is another important element that should be planned and agreed upon, especially in group presentations where every participant has the chance for a sufficient time to present (Making oral presentations, n.d, p.2). Also, giving the students enough time before delivering the presentation can be helpful to increase their understanding level of the topic, to present and explain the content to the audience, and help them to answer the teachers and classmates' questions.

1.6.1.2. Content Planning

Preparing an oral presentation requires choosing and shaping the content. According to Chivers and Shoolbred (2008) the content needs to be carefully selected, relevant, concise, and interesting to the audience, and has to be created in the following ways:

- ***Decide what to include and what to leave out***

In any subject, much information is available so that it cannot be delivered in the allotted time. Thus, the speaker will need to set and determine what information to be included and conveyed to the listeners so that to not lose their attention and interest. According to Chivers and Shoolbred (2008) “(...) you will need to set your chosen content within the context of the module studied and make sure that it is relevant, accurate and interesting to the audience.” (p.23)

- ***Choose examples to provide interest and improve understanding***

Using examples in the presentation is something important for the presenter as well as the audience. It helps listeners to improve their understanding and learning. Besides, it can keep their interest and attention. Additionally, they should be used in a critical and analytical way, instead of just listing and describing them.

- ***Provide links to further sources of information***

Providing useful sources of information for further reading and knowledge development about the topic is usually beneficial and helpful for the audience.

In short, better content with well managed ideas is very essential for a perfect presentation. If the presenter wants the best result and makes the presentation memorable, s/he should focus on the content, its construction and management (Ivey, 2010, p.31).

1.6.2. Practice

Ivey (2010) believed that practice makes perfect presentations because it is the actual application of the oral presentations. It helps the presenter to improve the quality of his/her presentation and overcome anxiety and make a successful performance (p.35).

Mastering the art of oral presentations needs a good deal of practice and rehearsal. The latter requires the following techniques (Ivey, 2010, p.35).

- 1- *Sitting down, and reading silently.* Once the presenter reads the written presentation silently, s/he can easily memorize key points and ideas. However, the speaker is not required to memorize the entire presentation, rather s/he should be familiarized with words' structure and meaning.
- 2- *Standing up, and reading out loud.* At this step, the speaker will try out the presentation loudly; this helps him/her to overcome troubles especially in terms of pronunciation. With speaking out loud the presenter will learn how to pronounce difficult words and phrases.
- 3- *Standing up, reading aloud and moving.* Rehearsing can also be through standing up in front of family members, peers, an expert, etc. in order to benefit from their feedback. The mirror, on the other hand, is a good technique if the presenter wants to rehearse his/her body language as gestures and movements. According to Ivey (2010), "with a mirror the speakers can build a sense of their own mobility and speaking presence" (P.36).
- 4- *Recording the presentation.* Whenever possible, recording the presentation can improve the speaker's oral presentation skills since it gives an impression of his/her practice. Through listening to the recording, the presenter discovers what goes wrong and works to improve it.

Practicing and rehearsing are two essential components which direct the presentation into perfection. They offer to the presenter an opportunity to make his/her presentation credible and trustworthy.

1.6.3. Delivery of Oral Presentations

Delivering an oral presentation is the product of all the preparations that have been made before. According to Hamlin (1988) “presenting or explaining, teaching or selling something is like taking people on a journey, with you as the leader and the guide” (p. 104).

1.6.3.1. Presentation Structure

A well-organized and structured presentation reveals that the presenter has made a good preparation. This helps the audience to gain quick understanding of its content. Besides, providing a clear outline or an overview of a presentation makes it easier for the listeners to follow the progress of the topic being discussed, as well the purpose behind delivering it (oral presentations, n.d, p.1).

According to Storz et al., (2002) mainly there are three basic parts to a typical oral presentation: the introduction, body, and conclusion which are similar to writing an essay.

1/ Introduction

Ivey (2010) pointed out that “A good beginning will set the speaker up well for all that follows. It is true that a good opening is no guaranteeing of a masterful presentation. But it is equally true that a weak opening comes close to guaranteeing a weak presentation” (p. 27). The speaker should initiate his/her presentation with an explosive opening so that to catch the audience’s attention and interest and set them up for what is coming later. Also, a good opening raises the students’ enthusiasm to listen to the presenter and support his/her goals.

The beginning part is the most important in delivering an oral presentation. Generally, there are some basic tips included in the introduction (Storz et al., 2013).

- ✓ Get the audience's attention: as a presenter try to get the audience involved in your talk either by asking a question, startling statement, or shocking piece of information, humour, quotation or imagery and anecdotes, etc.
- ✓ Introduce the subject: the speaker should inform the audience about the topic, and set the tone of the presentation.
- ✓ Give the objective of the speech.
- ✓ Give background information about the topic.
- ✓ Announce the outline: the presenter should also include the outline within the introduction because the listeners need to grasp and figure out the organization the presentation.
- ✓ Make a transition between the introduction and the body (pp.5-9).

2/ Body

The middle part of the presentation is a logical sequence of information made in the introduction. Storz et al., (2013) represents some essential points that should be considered in the body of a presentation which are content, quantity, sequencing, and making transitions (p.10).

In terms of content, the speaker gives information that is relevant to the topic and supports the purpose. But, in most cases the content should be limited since time allotted is precious. Creating a motivated atmosphere through maintaining eye contact, using gestures and facial expressions makes the message fully comprehensible. In quantity, speakers should focus on the quality of information and not on how much they should give. Instead, a good presenter

should focus on how to clearly develop, illustrate, and clarify the ideas to the audience. With regard to sequencing, the information should be delivered in an organized way. There are some possibilities for organizing ideas which are: logical, chronological order, from general to specific, cause/effect, problem/solving, etc. Last, as far as making transitions is concerned, the speaker should make a link, and connect between the ideas. That is, in any speech situation smooth transitions will be needed. They are effective in order to give direction to the speech and prepare the audience for listening. Also, they provide consistency of movement from one point to the next.

3/ Conclusion

A well-structured conclusion touches the heart as well as the mind of the audience, since the presentation that gives a lasting impression is more likely to be remembered, and acted on by the audience. In the conclusion, the speaker states a brief summary or review of the main points, reinforces the basic message, and reiterates the importance of the topic and the speech purpose to the audience (O'Hair et al., 2010, p.127). Besides, the speaker can alert that the speech is about winding down by using some signals such as "finally, in conclusion, looking back, let me end by saying, etc.

Furthermore, a good conclusion challenges the listeners to respond to what the speaker has taught them. The presenter convinces them of the validity of ideas and asks the listeners to pose questions and answer them, make comments or open a discussion. Last, the presenter may finish with a call to action or opening related issues.

1.6.3.2. Presentation Skills

Oral presentations are regarded as a necessary skill in foreign language classrooms. The ability to deliver an effective oral presentation requires from the speaker to develop certain

skills. These skills apply to body language, eye contact, voice, pronunciation and articulation (Storz et al, 2013, p.21).

- ***Body language***

Body language is a form of non-verbal communication, which is considered a significant part of an oral speech. The latter, is highly dependent on using non-verbal communication as the audience believe in the body language more than the verbal message.

Body language includes facial expressions, gestures, posture and movement. Storz et al. (2013) provide the following examples of body language:

- Standing straight and relaxed
- Moving back and forth
- Smiling to the audience
- Avoiding using nervous body movements (p.21).

Using body language appropriately helps for warming up the environment as it simplifies the meaning and makes the presentation clear and comprehensible for the opposite number, since they focus on the speaker's body language more than the spoken words. According to Deborah Bull "body language is a very powerful tool. We had body language before we had speech, and apparently, 80% of what you understand in a conversation is read through the body, not the words" (Cited in Schreiber & Hartranft, 2017, p.9).

Besides, body movements and gestures minimize nervousness and make the speaker comfortable during the delivery. They also maximize the audience's interest toward the presentation and establish a positive relationship with them.

- *Eye contact*

Eye contact is one of the most important physical actions in oral presentations. If the speaker can maintain eye contact during the whole presentation, s/he can simply engage the audience and interact with them.

Most EFL students find difficulties to make eye contact with their classmates, because of fear and lack of self-confidence; rather, they prefer to look down, to their notes, or to the back wall. However, the presenter is not obliged to look at and try to engage every individual because it is extremely difficult, especially when they feel bored or uninterested. In this case, it is advisable to ignore them in order to not be affected by their lack of engagement (Prepare and Deliver a Presentation, 2012, p.48).

In some occasions, the speaker should consciously break his/her eye contact in order to make the audience relax, by looking away for a moment; this helps them to think about what the speaker is saying; otherwise, they will not understand the information even if it is well explained (Hughes &Weller, 1991, p.13).

- *Voice*

The human voice is a very powerful tool of oral communication. In order to deliver an effective oral presentation, the speaker should improve the quality of his/her voice because it is a sign of authority and confidence. A good voice can maintain the audience attention so that they do not feel asleep or create chaos within the classroom. The quality of human voice includes: volume, speed and pace of delivery, tone and pitch (Storz et al., 2013, p.23).

The volume of the human voice is important. In any oral presentation, the presenter should speak as louder as possible in order to make the message understood. Some miscommunications happen due to the fact that the voice is not clearly heard.

Moreover, the presenter should take into consideration both the speed and the delivery pace when comes to talk i.e. speaking by slowing down when saying more important things. Yet, the flow of the speech should be natural, not too slow, not too fast; because the slow speech can make the audience asleep, while too fast speech makes them unable to pick up notes, process the information, interpret the meaning.

Another important aspect in the presenter's voice is the tone and pitch. The speaker should vary tone and pitch when explaining, by making an artificial strain of voice; i.e. rising and falling the voice. This helps to keep the audience's attention throughout the presentation.

To sum up, volume, speed and pace of delivery, tone and pitch are the three main aspects of voice to be considered when delivering a speech. If one aspect is missing, it will negatively affect the success of the presentation.

- ***Pronunciation and articulation***

Correct pronunciation is very important to understand the meaning of words and utterances while in correct pronunciation might be considered the first reason of communication breakdown. Kelly, (2000) stated that making pronunciation errors in speaking leads to misunderstanding in both meaning and function of an utterance (The speaking skills, n.d, p.62). Making pronunciation errors during a presentation, especially words which are ordinary or frequent for the audience, can affect their comprehension more than grammar as it affects the presenter's credibility, so that listeners will not take their presentation seriously.

In order to avoid mispronunciation in oral speeches, the speaker should check the word in the dictionary to make sure he/she is pronouncing it correctly. According to Ur (1996), improving pronunciation in speaking does not mean to achieve a perfect imitation of native speakers. Rather, it helps in making the idea easily and comfortably comprehensible (The speaking skills, n.d, p.58).

1.7. Challenges of Giving Oral Presentations

An Oral presentation is one of student-centred projects that has been widely included in teachers' lesson plans. Despite of its importance, making oral presentations is considered one of the most challenging tasks in EFL classrooms in the sense that students do not enjoy this kind of activities. They face different problems and constraints while performing an oral presentation (Meloni and Thompson, 1980). King (2002) stated that EFL students are faced different problems during the delivery of oral presentations particularly speech anxiety and listeners' boredom (p.404).

1.7.1. Speech Anxiety

Anxiety, apprehension, and nervousness are the common feelings expressed by students particularly when they have to make an oral presentation. Most EFL students feel stressed and anxious before delivering an oral presentation; they feel anxious about themselves, about the audience and about the presentation style (Ivey, 2010, p.47).

King (2002) considered speech anxiety as a great barrier that leads to the failure of oral presentations. He claimed that anxiety causes performance constraints and affects the speaker's self-esteem (p.404). He added that speech anxiety can be noticed through the voice of the speaker, increased heart rate, shaky hands, dry mouth, accelerated breathing, etc.

In addition, Weisseberg (1993) contended that lack of linguistic knowledge is considered a challenge faced by EFL students so that they resort to their mother tongue in their talking (Cited in Kaur & Mohamad Ali, 2018, p.153). Also, stage fright can be a reason of students' fear from feeling embarrassed in front of the crowd because of language imperfection.

Nikitina (2011) indicated that stage fright is caused not because students fear to speak in public; rather they feel afraid from their classmates' reaction to their performance. This common misconception among EFL students ends up with giving unsuccessful presentations.

He added that speech anxiety is a psychological feeling that is natural and normal where even the most prepared person will feel so. Yet, students think that being anxious during the delivery is a sign of inadequacy and lack of presentation skills. Consequently, it holds them back and prevents them from performing the task appropriately (pp.15-16).

Moreover, stage fright is caused by other factors. According to Young (1990) anxiety might be in its highest degree when students come to speak up in a foreign language before an audience, especially when they remain silent (as cited in Chandran, Munohsamy&Rahman, 2015, p.4). Chandran et al., (2015) concluded that both insufficient preparation and lack of self-confidence by EFL students result in greater nervousness as they feel inhibited from giving oral presentation whenever the teacher asks them to do so (p.11).

1.7.2. Listeners' Boredom

According to Buksik (2009), listeners' boredom is considered a negative feeling of emptiness, and lack of interest (Cited in Kruk, 2015, p.27). It is a common feeling in EFL classrooms especially during oral presentations.

According to King (2002) the majority of students tend to memorize the whole presentation and take every word by heart. As a result, the audience will get bored since the speaker focuses on remembering information as reading without trying to convey the meaning. Besides, he emphasizes that if there is no interaction between speakers and listeners, the latter will lose their attention with time, so they start talking to each other and creating chaos within the classrooms (p.405).

Moreover, reading the written English becomes a routine for EFL students when they come to deliver an oral presentation, instead of using communicative English as explaining and illustrating difficult words and sentences. On the other hand, the lack of background knowledge about the topic prevents the listeners from interaction and participation, as they

cannot express their points of view or give feedback to the presenter, resulting in lacking interest among the students and neglecting what the speaker is saying. This makes the latter feel less confident. In addition to that, when students are not really motivated to the use of conversational English and the importance of establishing eye contact, using body language, as well as asking and responding to questions, they fail to engage the audience and keep their interest (King, 2002, p.405).

1.8. Assessment of Oral Presentations

The evaluation of students' oral presentations is regarded as an essential requirement of many university teachers since improving students' oral communication skills is a primary outcome of any presentation; and it is not sufficient to only ask students to make an oral presentation rather they need feedback which describes their performance, strengths and weaknesses as well as that they can improve.

There are three main strategies for assessment that offer more feedback to students on their presentations which are peer-assessment, self-assessment, and teacher-assessment. Self-assessment is done when the speaker evaluate himself/herself through a video record in order to discover the weaknesses in the delivery such as lack of eye contact, insufficient volume, etc that they are not aware of during the oral presentation. Peer-assessment is used to give feedback of each student's presentation for self-assessment. Teacher-assessment is used to give authentic feedback and a suitable mark based on some evaluation criteria. Those criteria are the details of performance on which a presentation is evaluated, and given feedback or a mark (Dollisso&Koundinya, 2011, pp.39-40).

According to Matthews and Marino (1990) delivery, content, organization and language are four categories for assessing an oral presentation (Cited in Montero, Carbonell, Watts &Gotor, 2001, pp.4-5).

Firstly, assessing delivery of oral presentations refers to the evaluation of whether the speaker presents in a clear and natural way, with a speed which is suitable for the audience to understand easily, and holds the listeners' attention through making direct eye contact without using notes or reciting from memory. In addition, assessing delivery includes physical appearance of the speaker i.e. whether the content is reinforced by using gestures, body language and posture or not because any oral presentation that is given naturally will be more effective and comprehensible for the teacher and the listeners as well.

Secondly, in evaluating the content of an oral presentation, the teacher evaluates the appropriateness of the topic for the audience, checks whether main points and ideas are clearly made with providing sufficient and connected details, information and examples to the topic, and check the speaker understanding of the content by answering all class questions.

Thirdly, the criteria for assessing organization of an oral presentation include assessing the ability of the presenter to present information in a logical, organized, structured and coherent manner. It also includes assessing the ability to clearly indicate the main stages of the presentation which are introduction, body and conclusion i.e. using transitions from one idea to another one so the audience can follow easily. Last assessing considers the ability of the speaker to draw a remarkable conclusion for the audience.

Lastly, in evaluating the language, teachers focus on the accuracy and the clarity of information i.e. that all ideas are explained precisely and explicitly. For instance, the use of words and vocabulary must be easy to understand in which the speaker should avoid ambiguous and inappropriate expressions. Furthermore, the pronunciation, intonation and grammar should be correct so that the speaker can attain accuracy in his/her talking.

Conclusion

This chapter shed light on oral presentations in foreign language teaching and learning. Oral presentations are defined as a formal way of communicating information to an audience. They are credited for improving students' English language abilities and developing their oral communication skills. Two types of this communicative activity are distinguished, individual presentations and group presentations. Concerning styles of delivery, they range between memorized, impromptu, manuscript and extemporaneous presentations depending on whether the speakers prepare themselves or rely on any written document during the delivery. As for purposes behind delivering an oral presentation, they can be informative, persuasive, and entertaining. Key elements should be taken into account in order to deliver an effective presentation including planning and preparation, practice and rehearsal, presentation structure as well as some presentation skills such as body language, eye contact, voice, and pronunciation. In making presentations, it showed that EFL students cause the problems of speech anxiety and group boredom. Last, it pointed out that the audience to an oral presentation in EFL classrooms would appreciate the speaker's ability to present information in a logical, organized, structured and coherent manner.

Chapter Two: Interaction and Interactive Features in the Foreign Language Classrooms

Introduction

2.1. The nature of Classroom Interaction

2.1.1. Definition of Classroom Interaction

2.1.2. Classroom Interaction vs. Classroom Discourse vs. Classroom Talk

2.1.3. The Continuum from Monologic to Interactive Classrooms

2.2. Patterns of Classroom Interaction

2.2.1. Teacher-Learner/ Group of Learners Interaction

2.2.2. Learner-Learner-Interaction

2.2.3. Initiation- Response- Feedback /Evaluation Pattern

2.2.4. Facilitate-Listen-Engage Pattern.

2.3. Features of Interaction in Foreign Language Classrooms

2.3.1. Questioning

2.3.1.1. Clarification Requests

2.3.1.2. Comprehension Checks

2.3.1.3. Elicitations

2.3.2. Modified Repetition

2.3.3. Negotiation of Meaning

2.3.4. Turn Taking

2.3.5. Interruption and Overlap

2.3.6. Feedback on Students' Performance

2.3.7. Non-verbal Communication

2.4. Interaction in English Language Learning Theories

2.4.1. The Input Hypothesis (1981)

2.4.2. The Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985-1995)

2.4.3. The Interaction Hypothesis (1981-1996)

2.5. Interaction in English Language Teaching Theories

2.5.1. Grammar Translation Method

2.5.2. Direct Method

2.5.3. Audio-lingual Method

2.5.4. Interaction in Communicative Language Teaching

2.6. The Significance of Classroom Interaction

2.7. Components of Classroom Interaction

2.7.1. Collaborative Dialogue

2.7.2. Group Discussion

2.7.3. Co-Construction

2.8. Factors Affecting Classroom Interaction

Conclusion

Chapter Two:

Interaction and Interactive Features in the Foreign Language Classes

Introduction

Classroom interaction plays a key role in the process of language teaching and learning. Hence, teachers have to empower interaction inside the classroom as the core of communication to facilitate the learning process for students. Interaction gives students the opportunity to actively involve each other, so they can receive the input that is provided by the teacher or the other classmates, and produce the output at the same time (Adaba, 2017, p.1).

The present chapter revolves around the related literature about the concept of interaction and the main interactive features in the foreign language classes. It starts with exploring the nature of classroom interaction by providing its definition, the difference between classroom discourse and classroom talk, and it then presents a historical background about the continuum from monologic to interactive classrooms. It also discusses the main patterns of classroom interaction. Next, the major features of interaction in foreign language classrooms are explained and demonstrated including questioning, modified repetition, negotiation of meaning, turn taking, interruption and overlap, feedback on students' performance, and non-verbal communication. Subsequently, the chapter explores the place of interaction in language learning theories as well as in language teaching theories. The chapter concludes by highlighting the significance of classroom interaction, its components, and factors that may influence students' interaction in the classroom.

2.1. The Nature of Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction in the target language is generally considered important in facilitating and improving students' language learning development (Yu, 2008, p.49). To gain

clearer insights into the term classroom interaction, it is defined in what follows and the difference between classroom discourse and classroom talk is determined, in addition to explaining the continuum from monologic to interactive classrooms.

2.1.1. Definition of Classroom Interaction

According to the Cambridge international dictionary of English, the verb “to interact” means to communicate with or react to, while the new Oxford dictionary of English defines interaction as reciprocal action or influence. This reveals that interaction is more than action and reaction or talk (Cited in Fojkar, 2005, p.128). Wilkinson (1982) explained that interaction in classrooms goes between the teacher and students about a pedagogic content. It takes place when the speaker transmits a message, and the receiver signals the reception of it, and shows the reaction which in turn leads to further reactions (Cited in Mingzhi, 2005, p.57).

Allwright and Bailey (1994) defined classroom interaction as a cooperative work between the teacher and students and among students themselves, where both of them contribute collectively in the interactional process. In this direction, they pointed that interaction means participation of the teacher and learners in different activities, and a negotiation of teacher’s meaning and students’ comprehension, it comes in the form of give and take in order to build shared understanding (Cited in Al-madjalawi, 2005, p.20).

Moreover, Hardman (2016) stated that interaction refers to all that happen in the classroom during the teaching and learning process, either between teacher and learner or among peers. Fojkar (2005) defined interaction as a two-way process where the teacher influences the learners and vice versa. The influence among participants can be achieved through exchanging ideas and opinions, as well as asking questions and extending communication via classroom conversations (p.128). In this vein, Kent and Taylor (1998) defined classroom interaction as “any negotiated exchange of ideas and opinions” (p.325). It

involves conversation between the teacher and students and students among each other, through asking questions and receiving responses (Cited in Muckensturm, 2013, p.14).

Besides, Mercer (2000) pointed out that interaction is the ability to produce ideas and concepts seen from someone else's point of view. It is characterized by open questions and answers between participants, and the ability to construct shared knowledge attempting to change their minds and critically influence their own ideas (Cited in classroom talk and teaching, n.d, p.2).

Dunkin and Biddle (1974) on the other hand, viewed interaction as a "behavior" where the use of language and non-verbal means of expression are two fundamental resources of classroom interaction, and in which non-verbal signals play a role as crucial as that played by verbal language (Cited in Rex & Green, 2018, p. 572). Adaba (2017) in this context added that classroom interaction can be defined as a practice which improves the development of the learners' language skills as they are supposed to be engaged in reciprocal verbal and non-verbal actions (p.3).

2.1.2. Classroom Interaction vs. Classroom Discourse vs. Classroom Talk

There are at least two terms which are used sometimes interchangeably with classroom interaction; these are classroom discourse and classroom talk.

According to Xin, Luzheng, and Biru (2011), the oral use of language among students and teachers or among students themselves is commonly referred to as classroom discourse. Though there are other means of communication in the classroom including the written use of language, classroom discourse focuses on the spoken language in which conversations and dialogues are the media in the process of communication (p.752).

According to Jocuns (2012), classroom discourse is also called classroom talk, which refers to any form of talk that happens among students and the teacher in the classroom

setting (p.3). That is to say, it is concerned with the moments of producing spoken language within the classroom.

Alternatively, Pausa, Asrifan, and Chen (2017) stated that classroom talk is comprised of two main patterns which are teacher talk and student talk. The former covers the teacher's explanation, questions, instructions and feedback while the latter covers the students' responses and asking questions (p.106). Nunan (1991) stated that teacher talk plays an essential role in forming the classroom discourse and creating opportunities for students to develop their performance in the learning process (Cited in Xin et al, 2011, p.753). It also provides for collaborative learning in the classroom (Hardman, 2016, p.5). Moreover, Kerawalla et al., (2010), Barnes (1976) suggested that classroom talk consists of two different kinds of talk which are exploratory talk and presentational talk. Exploratory talk enables students to develop knowledge and improve their understanding by actively participating together to explore meaning of a certain topic in a particular context. Presentational talk is considered as an evaluation of students' performance. It is a process of delivering, presenting, and sharing knowledge to the audience rather than negotiate meaning in a given context. Barnes stated that presentational talk is much required from students due to its role in the learning process (as cited in the sociality of classroom practice, n.d, pp.5-6).

2.1.3. The Continuum from Monologic to Interactive Classrooms

Russian linguist Yakubinsky (1997) stated that dialogue is characterized by the continuous interruption and intervention between one speaker and another; anyone can attend or participate in the interlocutor's speech. In contrast, monologue is allied to the speaker's authority in speech without allowing any interruption by the listeners. In essence, a dialogic form of speech has primacy over a monologic one, in the sense that it is the general form of humans' communication. In other words, dialogic speech is natural; therefore, according to

Yakubinsky, the naturalness of dialogic interaction should be the basis for studying a language as it contrasts with the artificiality of monologue. In addition, the direct or face-to-face interaction is important to exchange and negotiate meaning between speakers (Skidmore & Murakami, 2016, pp.17-19).

In the context of language teaching in classrooms, a teaching approach that is totally dominated by the teacher contributes to making classroom talk monologic. Teaching is mainly focused on the transmission of knowledge for students (Lyle, 2008, p.225). In monologic classrooms, teachers often do the majority of talk; they explain, describe, and clarify the content of the lesson (Vander veen, Kruistum, and van Oers, 2017, p.81).

Interaction in classrooms often takes the form of what is known as the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) approach in which the teacher asks a question, followed by a response of students, and after that the teacher gives feedback to their answer (Cazden, 2001, p.30). In other words, teachers dominate interaction in the classroom and they take the responsibility of explanation, while students give short, disjointed responses and they have no opportunity to explain their ideas or collaborate together in a conversation. They are most of the time inanimate and passive rather than interactive (Kathard, Pillay.D & Pillay.M, 2015, p.223).

With the advent of communicative language teaching, the main terms “dialogue” and “dialogic” emerged in the language classroom (Alexander, 2017, p.1). Teachers started looking for improving the quality of talk and how they could implement a dialogic approach to teaching and learning within the classroom (Cited in Callander, 2013, p.37). A need for interactive learning inside the classroom was felt by teachers because some communicative skills were required and highly becoming important for students in their future careers (Meijers, 2013, p.4).

In addition, in Alexander's work (2005), it was proposed that the main role for the teacher is to provide students with interactive opportunities to exchange ideas and reach understanding. In other words, the traditional way of teachers' transmitting and delivering knowledge to students is not enough in the process of teaching and learning. This is because fostering interactive teaching and learning in the classroom instead of teacher's authority allows students to take a part in constructing their knowledge (Cited in Fisher, 2011, pp.14-15).

Besides, Reznitskaya (2012) stated that in interactive classroom both teachers and students make significant contributions to classroom talk. In other words, students can share and exchange ideas, ask questions and show their personal point of views to each other, while the teacher tries to create a connection among students' ideas and transfer those ideas to other students (pp.446-456). So, the teacher's role changes from the giver of information to a facilitator of understanding between students (Cited in Callander, 2013, p.36).

2.2. Patterns of Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction patterns refer to any kind of interaction that occurs in the classroom. Several ways could be used to classify interaction in discourse, but all of them are important to involve learners and create an effective learning atmosphere. Classroom interaction then, cannot be one way; it should two-way, three-way or four-way. Rivers (1987) viewed the types of interaction as teacher-learner/group of learners interaction and learner-learner interaction (Cited in Adaba, 2017, p.3). In addition to teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction, Initiation-Response-Feedback and Facilitate-Listen-Engage are other important patterns of classroom interaction (Callandar, 2013, p.29).

2.2.1. Teacher- Learner/Group of Learners Interaction

In EFL classrooms, the teacher-learner interaction is mainly characterized by teacher's questions and students' responses. According to Komar and Mozetić (2004), teacher-learner interaction is achieved when the teacher deals and addresses only one learner or the whole class. In this case, the teacher is the leader of interaction who decides about the questions asked, and the activities selected, while students are required to repeat the structures that the teacher has already produced (Cited in Maja, 2015, p.54).

The purpose of the teacher from this kind of interaction is to inspire the students to talk and activate their speaking skill since the latter require much practice and experience. If teachers minimize their talk-time in the classroom, then this does not mean that they have no role to play. On the contrary, the teachers' main job is to involve as much students as they can. Hence, the teacher should be careful about some language aspects which make the input clear and understood such as voice, tone, body language (Adaba, 2017, p.3).

2.2.2. Learner-Learner Interaction

This type of interaction occurs between learners themselves; it can be in the form of pair-work or group discussions. Johnson (1995) pointed out that if learner-learner interaction is well-managed and organized, then it helps for learners' cognitive development, their academic achievement as well as social skills through collaborative work. Komar and Mozetić (2004), on the other hand, emphasized the role of peer interaction in encouraging students and motivating them to communicate among each other using the target language. Also, students have the opportunity to share knowledge by asking questions and receiving feedback from their peers (Cited in Maja, 2015, p.55).

2.2.3. Initiation-Response-Feedback/Evaluation Pattern

In an ordinary EFL classroom, one will probably notice that the teacher dominates most of the classroom discourse by asking questions and talking more than students do, while the students respond to teacher's questions. This process is often called Initiation-Response-Feedback/ Follow-up (IRF) (Cited in Vander veen, Dobber&Oers 2017, p.32).

Initiation-response-feedback is a well-known process or pattern in foreign language teaching and learning. It consists of three steps: an initiation; where the teacher mainly asks closed questions, followed by the student's response which tends to be short and brief; after that the teacher gives a feedback move in the form of evaluation of the student's response such as correct, wrong, well-done, or supplies further explanation about what has been said. In the IRF form, the teacher usually knows the answer and expects the learner to respond correctly. No space is allowed for learners to extend conversations or enter in discussions (Callandar, 2013, p.29). Moreover, O'Connor and Michaels (2007) and Moll (1992) discussed the Initiated-Response Evaluation (IRE) pattern which has to do with re-voicing of the student's response, where the teacher evaluates the student's answer through reformulation. Students in this case, will be given the chance to agree or disagree on the teacher's explanation. Through re-voicing, students will have the opportunity to ensure that they have expressed themselves clearly after hearing their thoughts spoken out loud by the teacher. Although the teacher is still dominating and controlling the discourse, re-voicing helps students to build their understanding through collaborating with their teachers (Cited in Callandar, 2013, p.30).

Walsh (2012) described IRF/IRE as limited, controlled and dominated by the tutor as it reduces students' participation and restricts their creativity and language use, while Wells (1993) indicated that the two patterns are neither entirely good nor entirely bad; they depend on the type of follow-ups the teacher uses to react to the students' contributions or extend their answers (Cited in Hardman, 2016, p.7).

2.2.4. Facilitate-Listen-Engage Pattern

Classroom discourse is an essential component of instruction where both teachers and learners need to exchange information and share knowledge, allowing the space for further interaction and negotiation. Facilitate-Listen-Engage (FLE) is another model to create an interactive atmosphere among students, and establish a sense of belonging within the classroom. In this model, the teacher is considered as a ‘facilitator’ who intentionally plans lessons and engages students in the learning process. Students, therefore, actively participate in the ‘listen’ phase in which the teacher and students cohesively exchange information and listen to one another, so that a kind of respect will be created within the classroom. In this sense, McGill (2014) asserted that “one of the most sincere forms of respect is actually listening to what another has to say” (p.1). In the ‘engage’ phase, the teacher will purposefully offer the chance for the audience to be involved in rich discussions, taking into account that every member of the classroom is worthy. Bennett-Conroy (2012) claimed that this model helps in creating teacher-student and student-student interaction. Consequently, it allows all participants to become equal and active with their teachers as well as their peers, comparing with the traditional approaches where students are passive participants who only get information. Haney et al (2011) emphasized on establishing students-centeredness and a sense of connectedness among students, saying that involving students “fosters belonging rather than isolation” (Cited in Lloyd, Kolodziej, & Brashears, 2016, pp.291-298).

2.3. Features of Interaction in Foreign Language Classroom

Classroom interaction is one of the essential means by which learning is accomplished within a foreign language classroom. This process is characterized by the use of a variety of interactional features to negotiate meaning among the teacher and students. The use of interactive features is expected not only from the teacher, but also from the audience since input should be available from both of them (Kasim, 2004, p.7). Various interactive features

were introduced by many researchers. Among these, the most relevant ones are: questioning, modified repetition, negotiation of meaning, turn taking, interruption and overlap, feedback on students' performance, and non-verbal communication.

2.3.1. Questioning

According to Richards and Lockhart (2000), questioning is one of the most common strategies used by teachers; it is considered as the quickest and easiest technique that motivates students and guides them toward a real conversation. It is considered as a key tool in the teaching process that creates a natural interaction in the classroom. In a related direction, McCormick and Donato (2000) stated that questions are a "fundamental discursive tool for engaging learners in instructional interactions, checking comprehension and building understanding of complex concepts." (Cited in Sánchez García, 2010, p.16).

Donald and Eggen (1989) highlighted the functions of classroom interaction, indicating that it can be split off into three categories: diagnostic, instructional and motivational (Cited in Xiao-yan, 2006, pp. 17-18). As a diagnostic tool, asking questions allows teachers to discover students' viewpoints about certain topics and issues. Besides, through questioning the teacher can evaluate and assess his/her students and find out what is understood and what is misunderstood. The instructional function of questioning emphasizes the role of questions in helping students to activate their schemata, and integrate the new knowledge with the previous one through practicing and receiving feedback. Also, questions can be used to negotiate the content and reach satisfactory conclusions (Cited in Xiao-yan, 2006, pp. 17-18). In the motivational function; questions are a good tool for engaging students in the lesson and raising their comprehension. At the beginning, the teacher can initiate the lesson with a question to catch the students' attention and raise their interest. During the flow of the lesson, questions may encourage participation and offer an opportunity for involving as many students as possible (Cited in Xiao-yan, 2006, pp. 17-18).

Furthermore, several kinds of questions can be used by the teacher to establish an interactional environment. According to Thompson (1998), questions can be classified into “audience-oriented” questions and “content-oriented” questions. The former need short responses from the audience such as comprehension checks, while the latter are used to bring up new information and raise new issues. Dalton-Puffer (2007) on the other hand, listed two categories of questions: “display” questions and “referential” questions. Likewise, Barnes (1969) named them “open” questions and “closed” questions. The display or closed questions require a short and limited answer, usually by “yes” or “no”, and the answer is often known by the questioner, whereas the second pair which is referential and open, allows the audience to give further responses and may sometimes bring about new questions. This type contributes to achieving and maintaining real classroom interaction (Cited in Sánchez García, 2010, pp.16-17).

Three types of questioning techniques are typical to classroom settings. These are clarification requests, comprehension checks, and elicitations.

2.3.1.1. Clarification Requests

Clarification requests are essential to yield a successful interaction. They are a kind of questions which tends to occur whenever there is a failure of understanding, i.e. when the students misunderstand what the speaker has already said, and seek for repetition using such phrases as: could you repeat? What do you mean by that? (Sánchez García, 2010, p.23).

Clarification requests take many forms; it includes specific and nonspecific requests. The former are used for confirmation for example:

T: John went to the super market.

S: The super market?

Nonspecific requests occur when there is a hearing problem or a sudden shift of the topic such as: would you mind repeating that please?

According to Corsaro (1977), clarification requests help for better understanding as they prevent communication breakdowns. In addition, asking for clarification provides students with opportunities to negotiate meaning through repeating, revising or adding extra information resulting in second language development. Moreover, clarification requests inspire students and encourage them to talk and elaborate their contribution so that they receive more input (Cited in Samuelsson & Lyxell, 2013, p.3)

2.3.1.2. Comprehension Checks

Comprehension checks are questions aim to ensure students' understanding of the discourse. They occur when the speaker attempts to know whether the audience have understood a preceding message. The speaker may use expressions such as: Ok? Have you understood? Is it clear? (Sánchez García, 2010, p.23)

Ellis (1991) emphasized the role of comprehension checks in fostering classroom interaction. He argued that checking students' comprehension helps in modifying interaction since the meaning of difficult ideas and unclear utterances will be repeated until they become understood. Besides, comprehension checks are helpful for dialogue extension, as they encourage students' participation and production of new ideas; moreover, teachers will be sure that their students grasp the message appropriately (Cited in Florkowska, 2018, p.17).

2.3.1.3. Elicitations

Elicitation is one of the essential elements to reach a fruitful classroom interaction as it stimulates students' responses. Brulhart (1986) suggested that teachers should elicit students' responses through using some interactional moves, such as referential and display questions,

or-choice questions, expansions, self-repetition, other-repetition (Cited in Almohizea, 2018, p.53).

Referential or open questions tend to elicit more responses than display questions do; since in referential questions the answer is not fixed, varies from one student to another and it is not known by the tutor; consequently, students will feel free to give independent answers and express their opinions. On the contrary, display or closed questions elicit answers which are usually known by the teacher and are designed to elicit specific structures. In this type, students are supposed to give short responses generally by “yes” or “no”. Display questions are alternatively called “convergent questions” by Richards and Lockhart (2000) since they have a rational or a finite number of answers as they do not require students to think; referential questions, on the other hand, are called “divergent questions”, as they require students to give diverse responses and engage in high-level of thinking. These types of questions help to engage students in the lesson, increase their comprehension, and promote interaction in the classroom (Cited in Xiao-yan, 2006, p.19).

Or-choice questions are those which have two possible answers; they offer different options for the student to select from. An or-choice question is connected with the conjunction ‘or’; for example: do you want coffee or tea? Or-questions are closed questions, and tend to elicit few responses since the student will find himself/ herself restricted to certain choices.

Expansions occur when the tutor reacts to his/her students’ responses providing extra elaborations, explanations, and illustration. The teacher uses such phrases as: ‘in other words’, ‘meaning that’, etc.

Self-repetition occurs when the teacher repeats the last word, idea, part or the whole of the student’s response. While other-repetition happens when the teacher re-voices the student’s utterance (Cited in Almohizea, 2018, p.53).

Sánchez García (2010) introduced two other types of questions which help in eliciting students' responses and promoting classroom interaction; they are retrospective questions and personal addresses. The former occur when the speaker requests the listeners to revise or summarize what has been heard or uttered, while the latter occurs when the speaker addresses a certain individual to respond to the question asked (p.23).

According to Al-Ghamdi (2017), using elicitation strategies is of crucial importance in increasing students' contribution and maximizing interaction within the classroom environment. Additionally, through elicitation students will have the opportunity to express their opinions and expand their participation (p.93).

2.3.2. Modified Repetition

According to Long and Freeman (2000), teacher talk modification is important for students' comprehension. Modified repetition occurs when the speaker asks to repeat a vague utterance attempting to make it much easier in terms of syntax, phonology, or morphology.

According to Chaudron (1988), modified repetition can be reached through slowing down the speech being repeated, paraphrasing as well as using simple and familiar vocabulary. Also, the speaker should make long pauses between utterances so that the hearer will assimilate the repeated speech. Besides, Chaudron emphasized the use of declarative sentences or statements instead of mixing up the utterance with questions. Last but not least, clear and correct pronunciation is another essential point to give a comprehensible modified repetition (Cited in Xiao-yan, 2006, p.14).

Kasim (2004) mentioned two types of repetition: complete repetition and modified repetition. The former is done when the speaker repeats the exact utterance when reacting to students' clarification requests. However, the latter is done through paraphrasing and simplifying the preceding speech (p.8).

Moreover, Walsh (2013) pointed out that “the process of taking a learner’s contribution and shaping it into something more meaningful has been termed appropriateness.”(p.58).

It occurs when the teacher provides some modifications in the students’ responses as correcting mistakes, making coherence and cohesion, etc. This strategy is important to inspire teacher- learner interaction. However, it requires higher vocabulary storage and the ability to modify utterances to be more appropriate and meaningful (Cited in El-Ghamdi, 2017, p.88).

2.3.3. Negotiation of Meaning

According to Long (1996), negotiation is a conversation among individuals that contains such elements as repetition, extension, reformulation, correction, modification of input and initiated output. He added that “negotiation for meaning (...) facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learning capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways”. That is to say, meaning negotiation helps learners to receive input, and consequently produce their own output. In addition, Swain (1985) claimed that although input is necessary for students, it is necessary to negotiate it to be comprehensible so that students introduce their comprehensible output. For her, this can be achieved through noticing the gap between the desired knowledge students want to convey and that which they can convey. As a result, they discover what they do know and what they do not (Cited in Wright, 2016, pp.161-162).

Pica (1994) asserted that negotiation of meaning “contributes to conditions, processes, and outcomes of L2 learning by facilitating learners’ comprehension and structural segmentation of L2 input, access to lexical form and meaning, and production of modified input” (Cited in Sánchez García, 2010, p.14). Negotiation of meaning among the teacher and students as well as peers helps to ease complex thoughts and ambiguous structures. Therefore, the internalization of L2 form and meaning will be increased and different misunderstandings will be overcome.

2.3.4. Turn Taking

Turn taking is a basic constituent of an organized classroom interaction. It can be generally fulfilled through nominating; where the teacher selects a particular student to respond to his/her question. Nominating has an essential role in turning the speaking opportunities from a student to another and overcoming their silence through regulating who speaks, what and when (Kasim, 2004, p.9).

According to Cameron (2001) and Edwards (2008), turn taking plays a significant role for dialogue or conversation to flow in an ideal manner. It occurs when the teacher chooses somebody from the class to talk, followed by a short silence or negotiation before the next speaker takes the turn to talk. They added that turn taking is not planned beforehand; rather it develops when students engage in a dialogue or a lesson. Furthermore, Sacks et al, (1974) suggested three steps for managing turn taking in EFL classrooms. First, the teacher nominates a student or students. Next, students self-select themselves. Third, the first speaker (the teacher) may carry on the speech after the students' contributions. Managing turn taking seems to be simple and straightforward; however, Wilson and Zimmerman (1986) argued that it is not just considered as stimulus and response, rather it should be a collaborative activity done in an organized manner where all members respect each other's turn and opinion (Tavakoli, 2016, p.137).

2.3.5. Interruption and Overlap

According to Edwards (2008), what makes a dialogic talk different from a monologic talk is interruption or simultaneous talk. Interruption occurs whenever a member of the participants takes the floor to speak and another member stops him/her, or when the students are in a period of silence and one breaks the silence, while overlap occurs when two or more speakers talk at the same time; it is also called 'double talk' (Cameron, cited in Tavakoli, 2016, p.137).

In EFL classes, when the teacher is explaining the elements of the lesson using complex words or unclear utterances, interruption usually takes place. In this case, interruption is insightful for students since the teacher will repeat his/her speech and make it simpler so that the content will be comprehensible. However, interruption is not always helpful; rather it can be disturbing if students use it in a wrong manner. Hence, students should be intelligent when trying to interrupt or overlap the speaker.

Heldner and Edlund (2010) indicated that interruption and overlap are very essential in classroom interaction, since they give the chance for the students to express their opinions and react to each other's points of view so that it extends dialogue, build competitive conversations which contain argumentation and create an exciting atmosphere for learning (p.557).

2.3.6. Feedback on Students' Performance

Feedback is another essential aspect of interaction in a foreign language classroom. According to Cook (2000), feedback refers to the teacher's positive or negative evaluation on a student's response. Richards and Lockhart (2000) stated that feedback is used not only to identify the way that students have performed, but also to increase motivation and establish an interactional atmosphere within the classroom. It might be given by means of praise, comment, non-verbal reactions or by silence (Cited in Xiao-yan, 2006, p.20).

Feedback has a positive role in increasing students' motivation and making them more dynamic, i.e. when students who participate in the classroom receive more feedback, this can be challenging for the rest and become eager to be involved in the interaction and express themselves. Thus, teacher's feedback is very important to encourage students' participation and raise their awareness and comprehension (Puasa et al., 2017, p.113).

2.3.7. Non-verbal communication

According to Andersen (1999), non-verbal communication includes “all communication other than language.” (Cited in Gregersen, n.d., p.52). Non-verbal communication refers to all kinds of communication except the verbal exchange of words.

Young and Travis (2012) stated that non-verbal communication is of crucial importance in the language classroom since it completes and reinforces the meaning of the verbal message. Accordingly, Neill (1991) asserted that “non-verbal communication within the classroom is very important because the teacher and pupils often have more confidence in the non-verbal than in the verbal message.”(Cited in Kožić, Žunac&Tomić, 2013, p.142). To put it differently, using non-verbal communication is a skill which is required from the teacher during the explanation of the lessons since it turns the message from abstract to concrete.

Within the classroom environment, there is constant non-verbal interaction among the teacher and students and among students themselves. Devito and Hecht (1990) indicated that non-verbal interaction cannot be separated from verbal interaction because of its significance in making the message easily received and understood without much speaking. Besides, visual channels create a motivational atmosphere within the classroom and help to engage students in the learning process. Knapp and Hall (2006) discussed some non-verbal communications used by the teacher during classroom interaction, which are:

- Using the thumb up when the student produces a correct answer.
- Smiling when praising students.
- Using the index when addressing students to take turns.
- Nodding the head up and down to express agreement and encourage the student to continue or when he/she gives a correct answer.
- Eye brows meeting in the middle indicates “what”(Cited in Gregersen, n.d, pp.53-55).

2.4. Interaction in Language Learning Theories

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), the Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, and the Output Hypothesis are three major theories in which interaction has an important role in developing students' language learning process (Zhang, 2009, p. 91).

2.4.1. The Input Hypothesis (1981)

In the early language learning theories there was an entire reliance on the input that the learner received, particularly the behaviorist theories of language. The language learning process was regarded as a habit formation i.e. the learner acquires a language (L1/ L2) through a stimulus-response and imitation. In the input hypothesis of Krashen (1981), input is highly important in language acquisition; it focuses on providing comprehensible input for the learners since it leads to form what is known language habits. In other words, the input hypothesis focuses on the goal of making the input comprehensible to the learner who has limited knowledge of the target language. However, in this hypothesis, interaction as forming a conversation and negotiation was not considered as an objective in the language learning process (Gass, n.d., pp. 228-232).

2.4.2. The Output Hypothesis (Swain,1985- 1995)

In language learning, output refers to the language that a learner produces (Zhang, 2009, p.93). Swain's output hypothesis was introduced as a reaction to Krashen's input hypothesis (Jezo, 2011, p.13). This hypothesis states that comprehensible output is also an essential part in L2 acquisition and the use of comprehensible input alone is insufficient to the second language learning process. In other words, the output hypothesis claims that learners acquire language when they attempt to transmit a message in a productive way such as speaking or writing (Zhang, 2009, p.93).

Overall, Swain (1985, 1995, and 2005) introduced at least four main functions of output in L2 acquisition; these are the noticing function, hypothesis-testing function, metalinguistic function, and developing fluency (Cited in Jezo, 2011, pp.13-14). The first function of output is called the noticing function or the consciousness-raising role. It refers to the state when learners notice their weaknesses in producing the second, and as a result they can consciously identify their errors. In this process, the learners will use their previous knowledge in ways which have not been used before. The second function of output is named as hypothesis-testing function of output. In this function, Swain observed that the learner's output is accepted or changed only when he/she negotiates and interacts with other learners or with the teacher besides to the feedback that he/she receives. This negotiation and feedback lead to make the output comprehensible or make some modifications. The third function of output is called metalinguistic function; and is used by learners when they try together to solve linguistic problems during the performance of some tasks. This leads to extend the learner's knowledge about the structures and rules of language. The fourth function of output is developing fluency. Swain argues that frequency in producing output in the target language helps learners to gain fluency and self-confidence in using L2.

2.4.3. The Interaction Hypothesis (1981-1996)

The interaction hypothesis was proposed by Long (1981-1996); it considers interaction as one of the fundamental factors for L2 development (Ellis, 1991, p.3). In other words, Long argues that interactive input is very important than non-interactive input i.e. input which occurs in two-way interaction in the target language is very much more comprehensible than that which occurs in one-way communication (Shannon, 2011, pp.19-20). The Interaction Hypothesis claims that negotiation plays an essential role in the classroom since it is deemed as a form of real use of language by students according to their learning purpose. It refers to

the peer interaction and communication in various situations, which lead to students' comprehension and facilitating second language acquisition process (Yu, 2008, pp.48-49).

Moreover, Congmin (2013, p.22) stated that interaction has a significant role for L2 acquisition because it provides students with opportunities to receive comprehensible input. In addition, Long (1983) argued that interaction makes the process of acquiring a language easy for students thanks to the changes and modifications that they are exposed to during a conversation. That is to say, in a conversation, students negotiate meaning with each other, and this negotiation leads to different changes in the input, and make it comprehensible for them through, for instance, comprehension checks, clarification requests, paraphrasing, repetitions (Cited in Shannon, 2011, p.20). In short, Shannon (2011) pointed out that negotiation of meaning has great effects on language acquisition. It enriches and facilitates language learning; meantime it helps the teacher to notice the difference between received input and students' output (p.22).

2.5. Interaction in English Language Teaching Theories

Theories of English language teaching are characterized as the emphasis on certain different features. Specifically, the grammar translation method, the direct method, the audio-lingual method, and communicative language teaching are compared and contrasted in order to explore the place and the role of interaction features among the principles of each theory.

2.5.1. Grammar Translation Method

According to Kim (2008), the grammar translation method (GTM) is the oldest method of teaching EFL. Hence, it is also called the classical method since it was first used for teaching classical languages 'Latin and Greek' (Cited in Zhou & Niu, 2015, p.798). In addition, Richards and Rodgers (1986, pp.3-4) state that the purpose of this method is to develop students' reading ability to read the language literature in the target language.

GTM mainly focuses on reading and writing with no or little emphasis on speaking and listening. Moreover, Sanjaya (2014) pointed out that students in this method are exposed to translate sentences and texts from mother tongues to foreign languages and vice-versa. They learn grammar rules deductively with no intent of using the target language for communication. In other words, the nature of interaction in GTM is mostly from the teacher to students and student-student interaction is minimal. The students' native language is the medium of the learning process with no real use of the target language with each other in the classroom setting (pp.59-60). Interaction in GTM between teacher and students is generally absent; the teacher is considered the main source of information and students only ask questions if they do not understand (Sanjaya, 2014, pp.59-60).

Consequently, through this method, learners will not be able to form even a small part of a conversation, because the teacher usually uses their native language and focuses on grammatical rules, along with memorization of vocabulary and translation of literary texts (Abdullah, 2013, p.126).

2.5.2. Direct Method

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), towards the mid of 19th century, the GTM started to be questioned and rejected because of several factors. One of them is the increase of different opportunities for European to communicate and develop their oral proficiency in foreign languages. As a result, different language teachers and linguists started writing about the need of alternative approaches and methods to language teaching. One of these methods is the direct method (pp.5-11).

The direct method is characterized by developing oral communication skills through question and answer exchanges between the teacher and learners. Franke (1884) stated that in the direct method the language structure should be associated with meaning in the target

language. In other words, learners could best learn a language by using it actively in the classroom i.e. through involvement in conversations for example as a natural and authentic learning situation (Cited in Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.9).

In addition, Abdullah (2013) stated that the direct method is based on the interaction between students using the target language. That is, there is oral interaction and spontaneous use of the language in the classroom between students. This method follows some teaching techniques which are question-answer activities, self-correction, conversation practice, etc (p.12).

2.5.3. The Audio-lingual Method

The audio-lingual method is an oral-based approach. That is, oral skills are first to be taught, then reading and writing skills. This method focuses on learning the sentence and its sound patterns. It drills students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns in the target language, and language structures are learnt through imitation, repetitions, and memorization. That is to say, the teacher models a dialogue, a conversation in the target language between two students, and then they should listen and mimic the model correctly (Larsen Freeman, 2011, p.35).

As a result, when the teacher starts a chain of drills, students will take different roles in the dialogue; this is a student-student interaction that is initiated by the teacher. So, most of the interaction in audio-lingual method is between the teacher and students (Larsen Freeman, 2011, p.46).

2.5.4. Interaction in Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is one of the latest approaches in English language classrooms that is used today by many teachers in different countries. The main goal of CLT is to develop students' communicative competence. It focuses on teaching students

how to communicate in the target language and perform certain functions within social contexts rather than just mastery of language structure. In other words, learning grammatical forms of language and understanding their functions and meanings in social contexts are equally important in CLT. It focuses more on developing students' fluency than accuracy in performing dialogues, role plays, discussions, etc (Zhou & Niu, 2015, pp.800-801).

Moreover, in the CLT approach, students are supposed to be actively interacting with other classmates, teachers or materials (Adaba, 2017, p.4). The teacher is responsible to establish situations likely to encourage communication between students through setting up cooperative tasks and activities which give them opportunities to work on negotiating meaning.

In short, in the CLT approach, there is a student-teacher interaction as well as student-student interaction which occur in different situations like pairs, small groups, whole groups, etc (Lasren Freeman, 2011, pp.121-130). The teacher emphasizes on the real use of language within authentic contexts and materials as an effective way of developing language skills and functions.

2.6. The Significance of Classroom Interaction

According to Brown (2007), interaction "is considered the heart of communication." (p.165). Classroom interaction, therefore, plays a fundamental role to yield a good atmosphere in the foreign language teaching and learning (Cited in Villalobos & Arellano, 2018, p.2).

According to Ellis (1990), classroom interaction is meaning-focused through which students have the opportunity for mutual understanding, so that they prevent communication breakdowns. Brown (2015) added that interaction is the core of second language/ foreign learning, through which learners are engaged in order to enhance their communication skills, and socialize their own identities through negotiation and collaboration among each other

(Cited in Hanum, n.d., p.1). Moreover, Wang (2010) asserted that “interactive input is more important than non-interactive input” (Cited in Villalobos & Arellano (2018, p.3). In other words, allowing the students to talk and dominate the classroom discourse may enhance their learning, since they use the language for the purpose of communication rather than just learning the content by heart, or reacting to questions which are related to a given topic.

Furthermore, classroom interaction is a good strategy to develop the learners’ language; students will easily acquire the linguistic knowledge and communicative competence as long as they have the desire and interest to communicate with others using the target language. Hall and Walsh (2002) claimed that the essence of classroom interaction is when teachers and students have an understanding of their roles and relationships, and build their expectations and needs as members of the classroom. Besides, Mackey (2007) and Ellis (2003) emphasized the role of interaction in language development; in which students who interact and speak in the classroom receive more feedback so that they have better language achievements than those who remain silent. Also, interaction fosters not only language skills but also social skills as respect, persuading, etc (Cited in Masjedi & Tabatabaei, 2018, pp.232-233).

Allwright (1984) argued that the classroom which is dominated by the teacher is no longer an effective one, stating that “everything that happens in the classroom happens through a process of live person to person interaction”. Hence, foreign language teachers should reduce their dominance and let the students actively participate and do their job. While Long (1983) pointed out that knowledge offered by the teacher alone is not sufficient to make the input comprehensible. Classroom interaction provides the students with the chance to ask for repetition, clarification or confirmation as a kind of negotiation among the teacher and students, and students among themselves resulting in acquiring more intake (Cited in Mingzhi, 2005, p. 56).

Moreover, classroom interaction leads to deep learning. According to Jacobs (2014), deep learning refers to transferring the knowledge gained in the classroom and applying it in different contexts. Deep learning is long-life learning since it is based on comprehension, reflection on the content studied to be linked in various situations. Parsons (2009) indicated that when students engage in group discussions, they learn how to shift to from one idea to another, control turn taking, negotiate meaning and give feedback to each other and this leads to deep understanding (Cited in Bogard,Consalvo& Worthy 2018, p.4).

Furthermore, Alexander (2010) suggested that classroom interaction extends conversations and discussions between students.As a result, they willdevelop their criticalthinking through asking questions and analyzing other members' point of views trying to solve problems and find solutions. According to Nystrand et al. (1997) "What ultimately counts is the extent to which teaching requires pupils to think, not just report someone else's thinking" (Cited in Alexander, 2010, p.4). Classroom interaction, therefore, enables students to cross the boundaries of their own thinking and their own position, trying to understand the position of others because when students think critically, they do not easily accept the other side's opinions. On the contrary, they reason and review the ideas produced and make different reactions, and this allows the space for further interaction.

2.7. Components of Classroom Interaction

Since the essence of any instruction is learning, teachers and students should follow certain strategies to gain knowledge and reach mutual understanding. Classroom interaction is a good means to achieve a successful instruction; it is characterized by collaborative dialogue, group discussion and co-construction (Sanchez Garcia, 2010, p.11).

2.7.1. Collaborative dialogue

According to Swain (2000), collaborative dialogue is “knowledge of building dialogue, in which language use and language learning can co-occur. It is language use mediating language learning. It is cognitive activity and it is social activity” (p.97). Collaborative dialogue is a kind of interaction either between the students or between the teacher and students. Johnson (2004), in a similar vein, indicated that collaborative dialogue results from a continuous interaction among learners as well as other members of their socio-cultural environment such as teachers, friends, parents, etc. This idea was emphasized by Vygotsky’s (1978) socio-cultural theory, stating that learning has to do with the learners’ self-guidance, adult guidance, and collaboration with more capable peers (Cited in Yu, 2008, p.48).

Collaborative dialogue offers the students numerous advantages since it is a student-centred instruction. Brook (1990) pointed out that collaborative dialogue helps students to accomplish meaningful learning since it deals with problem solving. Moreover, through dialogue, students become knowledgeable, strategic and self-determined, i.e. when students talk and interact with one another, they will have the chance to examine each other’s perspectives. As a result, they gain knowledge about different topics, subjects and issues. Also, students learn how to build arguments and give evidence in addition to respect each other’s point of view. Besides, through dialogue students will be self-determined in the sense that they distinguish between what is right and what is wrong, what is good and what is bad, and what should they believe and what they should not. Furthermore, students will have the opportunity to be involved in authentic tasks and connect new information with previous one (p.1).

2.7.2. Group Discussion

Ellis and Fato (1999) defined group discussions in EFL classes as verbal exchanges between learners on a given subject. It occurs when the speakers intentionally want to prevent communication breakdowns. They also pointed out that whenever EFL students find problems

during communicating with each other, they have the opportunity to find solutions through meaning negotiation and discussion. Consequently, they will overcome different misunderstandings and at the same time acquire new knowledge. Allwright (1984) also asserted that interactive negotiation can be face-to-face communication, in the form of group discussions on a given issue to reach agreement. According to him, discussion among the classroom members is an essential component in classroom interaction, i.e. students who actively engaged in a discussion would retain more L2 words and achieve higher vocabulary scores. Besides, group discussions do not only help learners to acquire the content, but also acquire language form and meanings such as: vocabulary, pronunciation, etc. Krashen (1981), on the other hand, indicated that discussions are very crucial to simplify input and make it comprehensible (Cited in Yu, 2008, p.48).

2.7.3. Co-construction

Co-construction emphasizes collaboration and partnership working. He and Young (1998) stated that interactional competence includes students' knowledge and their responsibility to construct an appropriate interaction in a given social context, i.e. students negotiate meaning through interacting and exchanging opinions, and jointly relate the knowledge gained to their real-life context (As cited in Yu, 2008, p.49). Moreover, through this process, students will be able to develop many skills such as problem solving as well as forming relationships with the teacher and their peers. Furthermore, co-construction results in effective communication as long as students are interacting with each other.

2.8. Factors Affecting Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction is a process of action and reaction, either verbal or non-verbal, between two participants: the teacher and students, on the one hand, and students among each other, on the other hand. It is not easily reached since both parties (teacher and learners) are expected to contribute in the process of interaction. Although teachers work to create more

opportunities for negotiation and establish an exciting atmosphere, they usually find themselves in the problem of students' non-participation. The latter is caused by many factors, some of them are: lack of proficiency, inadequate knowledge about the topic, as well as some psychological factors like introversion, lack of motivation and interest, and anxiety (Congmin, 2016, p.20).

According to Ellis (1994), the relationship between language proficiency and students' participation is not easy to identify. However, he suggested that language proficiency is an essential motive for learners' participation; that is to say, the more proficient the students are, the more they have the desire to participate and prove themselves; whereas, if the student has a low proficiency level, it would be natural that they do not take risks and turns since they will feel embarrassed if they make mistakes. Hence, lack of proficiency inhibits students' contribution and limits their interaction within the classroom. However, some researchers concluded that not all students who have good proficiency levels actively participate and the other way around. In the meantime, low proficient learners are said to profit more through listening to their classmates' speeches than engaging in classroom participation (Cited in Congmin, 2016, pp.20-21).

Allwright and Bailey (1991) claimed that "the amount of interaction occurring during lessons depends also on the learner's ability level and the subject studied" (Cited in Congmin, 2016, p.21). Consequently, when students do not have background knowledge about the topic being discussed, they will be unable to interact and share their views with their peers. Moreover, many students have higher capacities in certain modules, but do not have in others; this can be a reason for the students' non-participation within the classroom. According to Howard et al. (2002), when students do not prepare for the classroom tasks and activities, they feel uncomfortable to participate since they think that they will be judged by their classmates if they fail to respond (Cited in Susak, 2012, p.12).

Another factor which affects interaction in EFL classrooms is also related to the psychological profile of the students. Being introvert or extrovert is to an extent reflected in the student participation. Extrovert students are risk-taker students; they tend to actively participate and dominate the class even though they are not sure of the answer and are not linguistically competent. While introvert students tend to remain silent and reticent although they know the answer. Woosley (2001) made a distinction between introvert and extrovert learners indicating that extrovert students are more likely to communicate give and receive ideas and they prefer learning through doing. However, introvert students prefer to communicate their ideas through writing rather than speaking. Extroversion and introversion really matter in classroom interaction and in the way students receive and process the content (Murphy, Croteau, Eduijee, & Parkman, 2017, pp.438-439).

In addition, Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that motivation and interest are two important factors which are responsible for students' interaction. Motivation is divided into two types: extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. The former is developed when the learner is given a reward (it can be seen) while the latter is developed inside the learner, and has to do with the desire and self-satisfaction in learning. Gardner and Lambert indicated that some students are motivated to participate because they are interested in the topic or the subject matter whereas those who are not interested are likely to remain silent and passive (Cited in Congmin, 2016, pp.21-22). Arends (1991), on the other hand, asserted that classroom interaction is highly dependent on students' motivation in the sense that motivated students are active students; they have the desire to do tasks and exercises even outside the classroom, and tend to interact actively within it (Cited in Al-Madjalawi, 2005, p.30).

Furthermore, a significant factor which affects students' interaction and participation within the foreign language classroom is anxiety. According to Young (1990), "speaking in the foreign language is often cited by students as their most anxiety-producing experience."

(Cited in Occhipinti, 2009, p.6). Students' fear of speaking is mainly caused by the belief that they will make errors; this will exclude them from interaction within different classroom tasks. Being anxious results also from students' self-degradation in which students underestimate their capacities and believe that they are unable to perform the language tasks, and this will restrict their ability to elaborate information and collaborate with other members. Besides, Young (1999) indicated that being anxious to interact and contribute in conversations is highly determined by students' low ability level in speaking, and limited proficiency in the foreign language. Moreover, lack of self-esteem can be regarded as another source of anxiety; it comes from the fact that the student assumes that his/her mates are better than him/her in terms of accuracy, fluency, accent, etc.; this may damage the students' performance in the classroom even more (Cited in Occhipinti, 2009, pp.23-26).

Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with interaction and interactive features in the foreign language classrooms and defined classroom interaction as a kind of action and reaction between the teacher and the students within the classroom environment. The term was found to be used sometimes interchangeably with classroom discourse and classroom talk to denote any form of talk that happens among the students and the teacher. Moreover, classrooms have been characterized on a continuum ranging from monologic to interactive ones where different patterns of interaction can be distinguished including teacher-learner/group-of-learners interaction/learner-learner interaction. Interactions are usually initiated by the teacher who asks questions, followed by responses from students and then by feedback/evaluation from the teacher. In foreign language classrooms, it is established that the interactive features that are used by students generally fall within the categories of questioning, clarification requests, comprehension checks, elicitation, modified repetition, negotiation of meaning, turn taking, interruption and overlap, feedback on students' performance, and non-verbal communication.

In addition, the historical review of interaction revealed that it has been central in some language learning theories such as the interaction hypothesis as well as in English language teaching theories such as the direct method and the communicative language teaching while it has not been considered vital in others such as the input hypothesis and the grammar translation method. To conclude, the significance of classroom interaction lies in its potential in enhancing students' communication skills, making the input more comprehensible for them, establishing a classroom community; negotiating meaning.

Chapter Three : Field Work

Introduction

3.1. Data Collection Procedures

3.2. Population and Sampling

3.3. Classroom Observation

3.3.1. Description of Classroom Observation

3.3.2. Analysis of Classroom Observation

3.3.3. Interpretation of Classroom Observation Results

3.4. Students Questionnaire

3.4.1. Description of Students Questionnaire

3.4.2. Analysis of Students Questionnaire

3.4.3. Interpretation of Students Questionnaire

3.5. Teachers Questionnaire

3.5.1. Description of Teachers Questionnaire

3.5.2. Analysis of Teachers Questionnaire

3.5.3. Interpretation of Teacher Questionnaire

3.6. Overall Analysis of Results

Conclusion

Chapter Three: Field Work

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the field work of the current study which investigates the role of interactive features in the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations in EFL classrooms. It, first, describes the main procedures employed in collecting data and selecting the target population and the sample. Next, the classroom observation of the student presenters and audience as well as the questionnaires submitted to the teachers and the students are presented, analyzed and interpreted separately. The chapter ends by discussing and interpreting all the data obtained from the investigation by way of answering the research questions.

3.1. Data collection Procedures

For the purpose of gathering data, three tools are considered appropriate to be used in our study: a classroom observation, a questionnaire for teachers and another for students. The reason behind conducting classroom observation is to observe the frequency of certain interactive features used by EFL students when they deliver an oral presentation. Classroom observation also investigates the relationship between the use of interactive features and the audience appreciation of the oral presentations. The teacher questionnaire, on the other hand, is used to attain two main purposes: discover the teachers' attitudes towards the role of features of interaction in academic oral presentations and whether interactivity is an essential criterion in their evaluations of the students' oral presentations. Third, the presenter questionnaire aims to explore the students' perceptions about the importance of interactive features in the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations, comparing their attitudes with their actual performance.

3.2. Population and Sampling

The study sheds light on the population of third-year-license and first-year-master students of English and their respective teachers at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University. The sample selected for this study consists of student presenters, audiences to these presenters across six classes, and the teachers who employ oral presentations in their teaching of the two levels investigated.

Twenty (20) students from six classes have been observed during their delivery of oral presentations and given a questionnaire by the end of their presentations. The questionnaire aims to investigate whether students associate interactive features with ease of delivery as well as good appreciation of oral presentations.

Second, the audience are administered an evaluation sheet after the delivery of each presentation. There were ten (10) presentations in total. The audiences to presentations vary from one class to another. There were twenty-six (26) listeners in each of the first, fifth, eighth and tenth presentations, thirty (30) in each of the presentations two, three and four while there were twenty-five (25) members attending in presentation nine.

Third, ten (10) teachers who use oral presentations as part of the students' assessment were given a questionnaire which aimed to discover the teachers' attitudes towards the role of interaction in oral presentations and whether it is an essential criterion in the evaluation of the students' oral presentations.

The samples of students and teachers are, therefore, selected on the basis of convenience sampling. That is to say, the researcher selected the sample which suits the research topic according to the availability of oral presentations and the familiarity of students with delivering oral presentations.

3.3. Classroom Observation

3.3.1. Description of Classroom Observation

Classroom observation is a procedure that offers the opportunity to gather data in a tutorial session (Nunan & Bailey, 2009, p.258). It is very helpful for observing what actually happens in the classroom and to have authentic results. Hence, it was used in our research in order to see whether or not EFL students use the criteria of interaction during their delivery of oral presentations.

In this study, classroom observation was carried out on both third-year-license and first-year-master students of the English language at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University. Twenty (20) students in ten presentations from different classes and with different modules were observed by the researchers in a period of nine days, starting on the 15th of May and ending on the 23rd from the same month during the academic year 2018-2019. The researchers sat at the back of the classroom and each time an interactive feature was produced by the presenter, it was written down in the observation scheme. At the end of each presentation, the evaluation sheets were distributed to the audience to give their feedback about the presentation. However, the evaluation sheet was not given to the presenters in order to avoid any kind of results biases; instead, they were given a questionnaire in order to elicit their opinions about interaction and the role of interactive features in delivering and appreciating an oral presentation. In addition, tape recordings of all the presentations were used after asking permission of both the teacher and students. The recordings were helpful for remembering small details and making a thorough interpretation of the results obtained. Remarkably, in conducting the classroom observation, the researchers did not observe in the same way i.e. one may have forgotten or did not clearly notice an interactive feature that is used by the presenter which led sometimes to get different numbers of interactive features at the end of the presentation. The average of observation was calculated, then, between the observers.

It is worth noting that the researchers supposed that interactive features are the central factors that lead to ease of delivery and good appreciation by the audience, irrespective of the individual differences between the members contributing to the same presentation. While this neglects the role of the individual presenter, it is considered the most practical way of implementing the classroom observation. This is because the audience were limited by time and could not possibly evaluate each presenter individually. Moreover, it was not practical for us to impose on students to do too many things, as it would be a disturbance for them and the teacher as well.

The data obtained are analyzed in accordance to the oral presentations in which they occur (from Presentation One to Presentation Ten). Observation of each presentation is introduced in the form of four sub-sections referring to the frequency of the presenter's negotiation of meaning, the frequency of the presenter's responses to students' clarification requests and comments, the number of students involved in interaction and frequency of their participation and a students' evaluation sheet. These aspects of classroom observation are described below.

(A) *The frequency of the presenters' negotiation of meaning* is observed using categories

defined in Table 3.01 below. These are comprehension checks, comprehension checks followed by elicitation, and elicitations.

Table 3.01

Categories for Observing the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning

<i>A) The presenters' negotiation of meaning</i>	<i>Definition</i>
<i>1. Comprehension checks</i>	The speaker attempts to know whether the audience have understood a preceding message.
<i>2. Comprehension checks followed by elicitations</i>	Questions that test the listener's comprehension and further ask him/her to paraphrase or summarize what has been produced by the speaker.
<i>3. Elicitations</i>	Different techniques used by the speaker when asking the students for further information and illustrations.

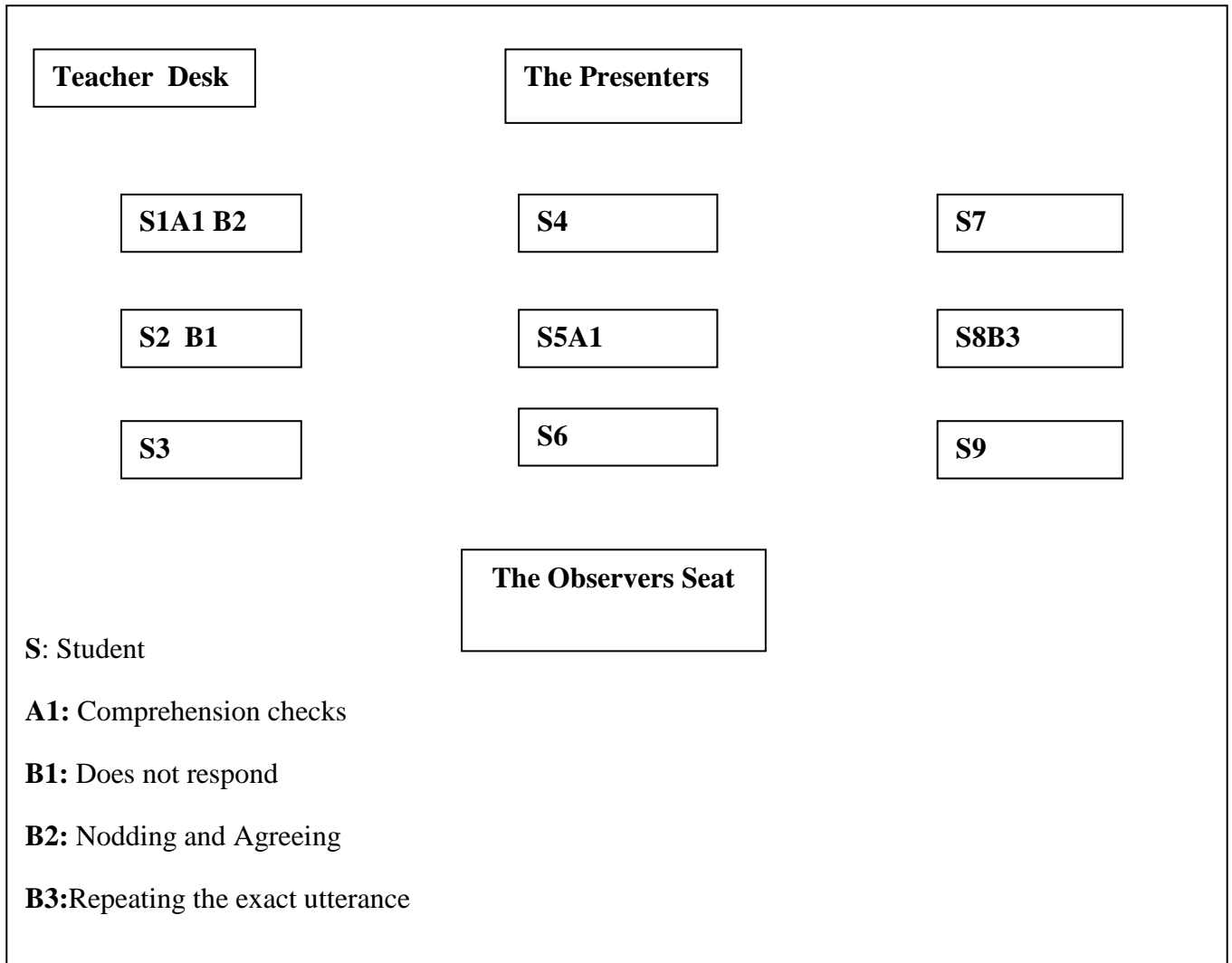
(B) *The frequency of the presenters' responses to students' clarification requests and comments* is observed using categories shown in Table 3.02 below, covering the various types of responses by the presenters. The latter may not respond, may nod and agree, repeat the exact utterance, modify their repetitions, interrupt or overlap.

Table 3.02

Categories for Observing the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments

<i>B) The presenters' responses to audience's clarification requests and comments</i>	<i>Definition</i>
<i>1. Does not respond</i>	Refers to instances where the presenter does not provide any verbal or non-verbal response to the audience clarification requests and comments.
<i>2. Nodding and agreeing</i>	A non-verbal reaction produced by the speaker which indicates agreement with the students' comments.
<i>3. Repeating the exact utterance</i>	Occurs when the presenter repeats the preceding speech as it is, as a response to the students' clarification requests.
<i>4. Modified repetition</i>	Refers to a situation where the speaker is asked to repeat a vague utterance, to make it easier. This includes using techniques such as summarizing, paraphrasing, or illustrating.

(C) The number of students involved in interaction and frequency of their participation is observed by drawing a seating chart which includes the teacher, the presenter, and the audience as shown in the figure below.



The figure 3.01 above represents the seating chart for observing participating students in the presentation. It shows the presenter’s position, the audience seating arrangement, the teacher desk, and the observers’ seat. For example, students 1 (S1) has participated twice during the presentation by responding to a comprehension check by the presenter (A1) and asking a clarification request or making a comment to which he was answered by nodding and agreeing (B2) by the presenter.

(D) *Audience evaluation sheet* refers to the audience opinion in terms of their appreciation and comprehension of the oral presentations using a Likert scale. The evaluation sheet is based on two questions; question one is asked about the overall opinion about the presentation and question two is asked about the clarity and comprehensibility of the presentation. Each question is illustrated by a Likert scale.

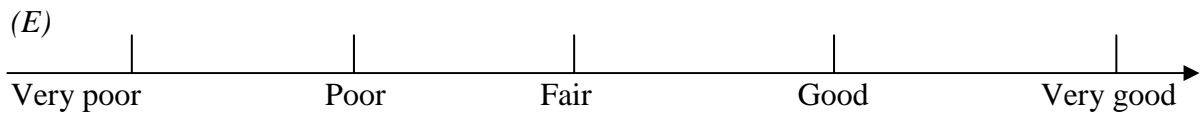


Figure 3.2. A Likert Scale for the Audience Overall Opinion about the Presentations

The figure above represents a scale which shows the audience's overall opinion about the presentation, from very poor to very good.

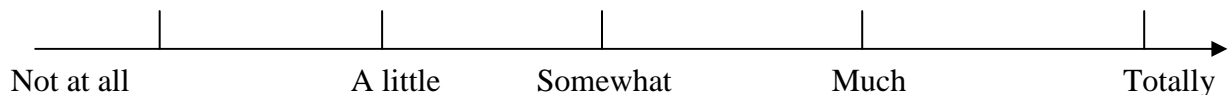


Figure 3.3. A Likert Scale for Assessing Clarity and Comprehensibility of the Presentations

The Likert scale above represents the audience's perception towards the presentation in terms of clarity and comprehensibility, ranging from not comprehensible at all to totally clear and comprehensible.

3.3.2. Analysis of Classroom Observation

3.3.2.1. Interactive Features in Presentation One

A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning*

The results obtained from observing presentation one show that the presenter did not negotiate meaning with the audience at all. The interactive features which are represented in comprehension checks and elicitations were entirely absent. Besides, it was noticed that the presenters had a tendency for memorization.

B) The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to audience's Clarification Requests and Comments

Table 3. 03

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation One

Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
05	1-Does not respond	00	00
	2-Nodding and agreeing	02	40
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	00	00
	4-Modified repetition	03	60
	5-Interruption and overlap	00	00
	Total	05	100

All contributions were done by the teacher, in which he/she asked the presenter five questions at the end of the presentation. The presenters responded using two interactive features: nodding and agreeing with a percentage of 40% as well as modified repetition with a percentage of 60%.

C) The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation

The whole number of the students in the classroom was twenty-six (26) students, However, none of them interacted with the presenter, i.e. there was no student who got involved and participates with the presenter during presentation one.

D) Audience's Evaluation Sheet

Table 3.04

Audience Evaluation of Presentation One

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	0	0
b. Poor	9	34.61
c. Fair	11	42.31
d. Good	6	23.08
e. Very good	0	0
Total	26	100%

From table 3.04, the overall opinion about presentation one, according to the audience, was fair with a percentage of 42.31% while 34.61% stated that the presentation was poor. However, 23.08% of the audience viewed that the presentation as good.

Table 3.05
Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation One

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	7	26.92
b. A little	12	46.16
c. Somewhat	6	23.08
d. Much	0	00
e. Totally	1	3.84
Total	26	100%

The audience's viewpoint, on the whole, was that the presentation was a little bit clear or not comprehensible at all with a percentage of 73.08% ($73.08\% = 26.92\% + 46.16\%$). 23.08% of the audience evaluated somehow understandable, while one listener (3.84%) expressed that the presentation was completely comprehensible.

3.3.2.2. Interactive Features in Presentation Two

A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning*

Table 3.06
The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation two

Interactive Features	N	%
1- Comprehension checks	01	100
2- Comprehension checks followed by elicitation	00	00
3- Elicitation	00	00
Total	01	100

Concerning presentation two, and from the table above, it is apparent that the presenter's negotiation of meaning was represented only once through the use of the interactive feature of comprehension checks. No instances were noticed of the use of comprehension checks followed by elicitation or elicitations.

B) The Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments

Table 3.07

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Two

Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
08	1-Does not respond	01	12.50
	2-Nodding and agreeing	01	12.50
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	05	62.50
	4-Modified repetition	01	12.50
	Total	08	100

In response to the audience's clarification requests and comments during presentation two, the presenters repeated the exact utterance twice representing 62.50% of all the interactive features they used. The other interactive features 'does not respond', 'nodding and agreeing', and 'modified repetition' were used by the presenters only once with a percentage of 12.50% for each feature.

C) The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation

Table 3.08

The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Two

Number of Students in Classroom	Number and Percentage of Participating Students	Number of Participations	Frequency and percentage of Participation per Student
30	3 (10%)	06	S1: 03 (50%) S2: 02 (33.33%) S3: 01 (16.67%)

This table mirrors the number of students involved in presentation two where the total number of students in the classroom is 30 students and only 3 students were actively involved in the presentation i.e. there was little interaction and participation between the presenter and those three students. The first student (S1) participated three times, while the second one participated twice, and the third student participated only one time.

D) Audience's Evaluation Sheet

Table 3.09
Audience Evaluation of Presentation Two

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	4	13.33
b. Poor	2	6.67
c. Fair	4	13.33
d. Good	15	50
e. Very good	5	16.67
Total	30	100%

Data obtained show that half 50% of the audience thought that presentation two was good, and 16.67% evaluated it as a very good presentation while 13.33% expressed that it was fair. However, 20% (13.33%+6.67%) stated that this presentation was either poor or very poor in quality.

Table 3.10
Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Two

Options	N	%
a- Not at all	5	16.66
b- A little	6	20
c- Somewhat	11	36.67
d- Much	6	20
e- Totally	2	6.67
Total	30	100%

36.66% (36.66%=20%+16.66%) of the audience stated that presentation two was either a little bit or not comprehensible, while 26.67% of the audience said that the presentation was much or totally comprehensible. Moreover, according to 36.67% of the audience, the presentation was somewhat comprehensible.

3.3.2.3. Interactive Features in Presentation Three**A) The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning**

In presentation three, the presenters did not rely on using negotiation of meaning. This presentation consisted of three members and all of them were reading from their script.

B) *The Presenters' Responses to Audiences' Clarification Requests and Comments*

Table 3.11

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to the Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Three

Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
05	1-Does not respond	03	60
	2-Nodding and agreeing	02	40
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	00	00
	4-Modified repetition	00	00
	Total	05	100

In presentation three, the teacher asked the audience a set of questions (five questions), three of which, representing a percentage of 60%, were not answered by the presenters, and two were responded to by nodding or saying 'yes'.

C) *The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation*

The number of students in the whole classroom was thirty students. However, no contribution from the students was noticed.

D) *Audience's Evaluation Sheet*

Table 3.12

Audience Evaluation of Presentation Three

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	3	10
b. Poor	18	60
c. Fair	5	16.66
d. Good	2	6.67
e. Very good	2	6.67
Total	30	100%

Data show that most the audience viewed presentation three as poor or very poor with a percentage of 70% ($70\% = 60\% + 10\%$), while 16.66% from the audience stated that it was fair; only 13.34% ($13.34\% = 6.67\% + 6.67\%$) of them stated that it was a good or very good presentation.

Table 3.13
Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Three

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	6	10
b. A little	17	60
c. Somewhat	3	16.66
d. Much	3	6.67
e. Totally	1	6.67
Total	30	100%

One can notice from the table above that most of the audience stated that the presentation was little or not comprehensible at all with a percentage of 70% (70= 60+10), while 16.66% said that the presentation is somewhat clear, and 13.34% stated that it was much or totally comprehensible.

3.3.2.4. Interactive Features in Presentation Four

A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning*

Presentation four contained no interactive features used by the presenter. Two presenters were reading the content from the paper and the others seemed to memorize the whole presentation.

B) *The Presenters' Responses to Audiences' Clarification Requests and Comments*

Table 3.14

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Four

Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
07	1-Does not respond	04	57.15
	2-Nodding and agreeing	03	42.85
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	00	00
	4-Modified repetition	00	00
	Total	07	100

The contribution of clarification requests and comments came from the teacher only through asking questions by the end of the presentation. The presenters did not respond to four questions, while three others were responded to them by just nodding.

C) *The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation*

In presentation four, the whole number of the students in the classroom was 30. However, there was no interaction between the presenter and the audience.

D) *Audience's Evaluation Sheet*

Table 3.15
Audience Evaluation of Presentation Four

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	5	16.66
b. Poor	9	30
c. Fair	14	46.67
d. Good	2	6.67
e. Very good	0	0
Total	30	100%

The audience had mixed opinions about presentation four. While 14 students indicated that it was poor or very poor in quality, 14 others said that it was fair; only 2 students admitted that it was a good presentation.

Table 3.16
Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Four

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	6	20
b. A little	10	33.33
c. Somewhat	11	36.67
d. Much	3	10
e. Totally	0	0
Total	30	100%

As shown in the table above, 53.33% ($53.33 = 20 + 33.33$) stated that the presentation was little or not understood. 36.67% said that it was somewhat clear, and 10% admitted that it was much comprehensible.

3.3.2.5. Interactive Features in Presentation Five

A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning*

Table 3.17

The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Five

Interactive Features	N	%
1- Comprehension checks	00	00
2- Comprehension checks followed by elicitation	00	00
3- Elicitation	10	100
Total	10	100

The results shown in the table above describe the frequency of the interactive features used by the presenter to negotiate meaning with the audience. It can be noticed that elicitation was the only interactive feature used by the presenters in ten instances. The presenters elicited responses from the audience through giving them an exercise at the end of the presentation.

B) *The Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments*

Table 3.18

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Five

Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
03	1-Does not respond	00	00
	2-Nodding and agreeing	02	66.67
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	00	00
	4-Modified repetition	01	33.33
	Total	03	100

The frequency of the presenter's responses to the audience clarification requests and comments was represented through the interactive feature of "nodding and agreeing" with a percentage of 66.67% and one instance of modified repetition 33.33% while other interactive features were absent.

C) *The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation*

Table 3.19

The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Five

Number of Students in Classroom	Number and Percentage of Participating Students	Number of Participations	Frequency and percentage of Participation per Student
26	08 (30.76%)	12	S1: 03 (25) S2: 03 (25) S3: 01(8.33) S4: 01(8.33) S5: 01(8.33) S6: 01(8.33) S7: 01(8.33) S8: 01(8.33)

In presentation five, the whole number of students in the classroom was 26; eight (8) of them were actively involved in the presentation with a percentage of 30.76%. The frequency of participation in general was twelve times in which two students participated three times each, while each one of the other six students participated only once.

D) *Audience' Evaluation Sheet*

Table3. 20

Audience Evaluation of Presentation Five

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	1	3.85
b. Poor	1	3.85
c. Fair	12	46.15
d. Good	10	38.46
e. Very good	2	7.69
Total	26	100%

This table reveals most of the audience viewed presentation five as either fair (12 students) or good in quality (10 students). Only two students stated that it was a poor presentation.

Table3. 21
Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Five

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	0	00
b. A little	3	11.53
c. Somewhat	10	38.46
d. Much	8	30.76
e. Totally	5	19.23
Total	26	100%

The majority of the audience indicated that the presentation was totally comprehensible with a rate of 49.99% ($49.99\% = 30.76\% + 19.23\%$). While 38.46% stated that it was little understood. 11.53% others said that the presentation was little comprehensible.

3.3.2.6. Interactive Features in Presentation Six

A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning*

Table 3.22
The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Six

Interactive Features	N	%
4- Comprehension checks	02	20
5- Comprehension checks followed by elicitation	00	00
6- Elicitation	08	80
Total	10	100

We can notice from the table above that the most frequent interactive feature, as far as the presenter's negotiation of meaning is concerned, was elicitation representing 80% of all instances; the presenter asked some closed questions such as "*what do you know about the topic?*" or *yes/no* question to elicit the students' responses. Comprehension checks, on the other hand, represented 20% of the interactive features used while no comprehension checks followed by elicitation were produced by the presenters.

B) *The Presenters' Responses to Audiences' Clarification Requests and Comments*

Table3. 23

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Six

Audience Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
07	1-Does not respond	0	0
	2-Nodding and agreeing	01	14.29
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	05	71.43
	4-Modified repetition	01	14.29
	Total	07	100

In presentation six, the presenters repeated the same utterance most of the time (71.43%) when responding to the audience's clarification requests and comments. Nodding and agreeing' and 'modified repetition' occurred only once (14.29%) while no instance was noticed in the remaining feature.

C) *The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation*

Table 3.24

The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Six

Number of Students in Classroom	Number and Percentage of Participating Students	Number of Participations	Frequency and percentage of Participation per Student
29	04 (13.79%)	11	S1: 04 (36.36) S2: 04 (36.36) S3: 02 (18.18) S4: 01 (9.09)

The data above show that only 4 students out of 29 were involved in the presentation. Two students contributed four times 13.79% each, the third student participated twice and another student participated once.

D) *Audience's Evaluation Sheet*

Table 3.25

Audience Evaluation of Presentation Six

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	0	00
b. Poor	2	6.89
c. Fair	12	41.38
d. Good	15	51.72
e. Very good	0	00
Total	29	100%

About half of the audience (51.72%) considered presentation five as a good one while some of them (41.37%) considered it as fair; however, 6.89% of the audience considered it as a poor presentation.

Table 3.26

Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Six

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	0	00
b. A little	4	13.79
c. Somewhat	11	37.93
d. Much	10	34.49
e. Totally	4	13.79
Total	29	100%

In presentation six, the majority of the audience stated that it was much or totally clear and understood with a rate of 48.28% ($48.28\% = 34.49\% + 13.79\%$). 37.93 said that the presentation is somewhat comprehensible, while 13.79% indicated that the presentation was little comprehensible.

3.3.2.7. Interactive Features in Presentation Seven

A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning*

Table3. 27

The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Seven

Interactive Features	N	%
1- Comprehension checks	01	25
2- Comprehension checks followed by elicitation	00	00
3- Elicitation	03	75
Total	04	100

Observation of the seventh presentation revealed that three out of the four instances of interactive features represent “elicitations”. The remaining instance is a comprehension check. However, no instance was noticed for comprehension checks followed by elicitations.

B) *The Presenters' Responses to Audiences' Clarification Requests and Comments*

Table3. 28

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Seven

Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
06	1-Does not respond	01	16.67
	2-Nodding and agreeing	04	66.67
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	01	16.67
	4-Modified repetition	00	00
	Total	06	100

The highest rate in the data tabulated above refers to ‘nodding and agreeing’, representing a 66.67% of the presenters’ responses. The remaining two instances represent “does not respond” and “repeating the exact utterance”.

C) The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation

Table 3.29

The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Seven

Number of Students in Classroom	Number and Percentage of Participating Students	Number of Participations	Frequency and percentage of Participation per Student
29	07 (24.13%)	10	S1: 02 (20) S2: 02 (20) S3: 02 (20) S4: 01 (10) S5: 01 (10) S6: 01 (10) S7: 01 (10)

In presentation seven, 7 students out of 29 were involved by the presenters during the presentation delivery. The students one (S1), two (S2) and three (S3) interacted with the presenters in two occasions. Others contributed only once.

D) Audience's Evaluation Sheet

Table 3.30

Audience Evaluation of Presentation Seven

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	2	6.89
b. Poor	12	41.38
c. Fair	11	37.94
d. Good	3	10.34
e. Very good	1	3.44
Total	29	100%

Data tabulated above show that the dominant opinion of the audience about presentation seven was to qualify it as poor or very poor (48.27%=41.38%+6.89%) while about 38% of them said that it was fair and 13.78% (13.78%=10.34%+3.44%) viewed it as good.

Table 3.31

Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Seven

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	5	17.24
b. A little	13	44.83
c. Somewhat	10	34.49
d. Much	1	3.44
e. Totally	0	00
Total	29	100%

Results presented above indicate that the majority of audience stated that the presentation was little or not comprehensible at all with a percentage of 62.07%

(62.07%=17.24%+44.83%). While 34.49% of the respondents said that it is somewhat comprehensible. However, only 3.44% viewed the presentation as much comprehensible.

3.3.2.8. Interactive Features in Presentation Eight**A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning***

In presentation eight, no interactive features in the presenters' talk occurred. The presentation was delivered by five members; some of them had a complete memorization of the presentation, while some others were reading from the script.

B) *The Presenters' Responses to Audiences' Clarification Requests and Comments*

Table 3.32

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Eight

Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
07	1-Does not respond	03	42.85
	2-Nodding and agreeing	03	42.85
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	01	14.29
	4-Modified repetition	00	00
	Total	07	100

In presentation eight, the presenters were requested by the teacher to respond to some questions by the end of the presentation. Three of those questions were not answered, three others received 'nodding and agreeing' and one response was done by repeating the same utterance.

C) The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation

In presentation eight, there were 26 subjects in the classroom, but none of them was involved during the explanation process of the presentation.

D) Audience's Evaluation Sheet

Table 3.33

Audience Evaluation of Presentation Eight

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	1	3.84
b. Poor	2	7.69
c. Fair	15	57.69
d. Good	7	26.92
e. Very good	1	3.84
Total	26	100%

As it is clearly noticed from table above, more than half the audience (57.69%) qualify the presentation as fair; 30.76% ($30.76\% = 3.84\% + 26.92\%$) of them stated it was good.

However, 11.53% of the whole audience expressed their dissatisfaction with the poor quality of the presentation.

Table 3.34

Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Eight

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	1	3.84
b. A little	12	46.16
c. Somewhat	11	42.31
d. Much	2	7.69
e. Totally	0	00
Total	26	100%

As far clarity and comprehensibility of presentation eight is concerned, half of the audience 50% (50%=46.16%+3.84%) expressed that the presentation was little or not at all obvious and understandable. While 42.31% of the participants stated that it was somewhat comprehensible, and only 7.69% of them viewed that the presentation as much understood.

3.3.2.9. Interactive Features in Presentation Nine

A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning*

The results obtained indicate that no comprehension checks and no elicitations were introduced by the speaker in presentation nine. It is concluded that the presentation was delivered in a monologic manner since no interaction occurred among participants (the presenter/ the audience).

B) *The Presenters' Responses to Audiences' Clarification Requests and Comments*

Table 3.35

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Nine

Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
05	1-Does not respond	02	40
	2-Nodding and agreeing	03	60
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	0	0
	4-Modified repetition	0	0
	Total	05	100

In presentation nine, the presenters were invited to respond to the teachers' questions after they finished presenting. The presenters did not respond to two questions (40%). In three others (60%), the presenters just nodded their heads.

C) *The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation*

Since no interactive features occurred with the students in presentation nine, no student from the 25 subjects within the classroom took part in the participation.

D) Audience's Evaluation Sheet

Table 3.36

Audience Evaluation of Presentation Nine

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	2	8
b. Poor	5	20
c. Fair	15	60
d. Good	3	12
e. Very good	0	0
Total	25	100%

Presentation nine according to the majority of the class (60%) was fair, while 28% (28%=20%+8%) of the audience stated that it was a poor presentation. Only 12% of them expressed their satisfaction with the way the presentation was delivered.

Table 3.37

Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Nine

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	5	20
b. A little	10	40
c. Somewhat	8	32
d. Much	1	4
e. Totally	1	4
Total	25	100%

Data obtained show that most of the audience (60%) (60%= 20%+40%) stated that the presentation was little or not at all comprehensible. 32% of the them viewed that the presentation was somewhat clear, and only 8% (8%=4%+4%) indicated that it was much or totally comprehensive.

3.3.2.10. Interactive Features in Presentation Ten

A) *The Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning*

Table 3.38

The Frequency of the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning in Presentation Ten

Interactive Features	N	%
1- Comprehension checks	05	80
2- Comprehension checks followed by elicitation	00	00
3- Elicitation	01	20
Total	06	100

Comprehension checks constitute five out of six with a percentage of 80%; the presenter used some expressions as “ok?” or “is it clear”. However, the remaining instance represents elicitations with a percentage of 20%.

B) *The Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments*

Table 3.39

The Frequency of the Presenters' Responses to Audience's Clarification Requests and Comments in Presentation Ten

Audience Clarification Requests and Comments	Interactive Features	N	%
08	1-Does not respond	00	00
	2-Nodding and agreeing	01	12.5
	3-Repeating the exact utterance	02	25
	4-Modified repetition	05	62.5
	Total	08	100

As shown in the table above, modified repetition was the most frequent aspect of interaction used by the presenters in presentation ten. The presenter also repeated the same utterance twice (25%) when they responded to the questions while nodding and agreeing was used only one time (12.50%).

C) *The Number of Participating Students and Frequency of their Participation*

Table 3.40

The Number and Frequency of Students Involved in Presentation Ten

Number of Students in Classroom	Number and Percentage of Participating Students	Number of Participations	Frequency and percentage of Participation per Student
26	04 (15.38%)	07	S1: 03 (42.85) S2: 02 (28.57) S3: 01 (14.29) S4: 01 (14.29)

As noticed in table 3.40, the number of students involved makes up 4 out of 26. Student one (S1) contributed in the participation three times. Student two (S2) participated two times. While the two remaining subjects contributed only one time for each.

D) *Audience's Evaluation Sheet*

Table 3.41

Audience Evaluation of Presentation Ten

Options	N	%
a. Very poor	0	00
b. Poor	2	7.69
c. Fair	9	34.61
d. Good	10	38.46
e. Very good	5	19.23
Total	26	100%

It can be seen that the opinion about the presentation was fair for 34.61% of the audience, good or very good for more than half of them (57.69%=38.46%+19.23%), and only 7.69% of the students viewed it as a poor presentation.

Table 3.42

Clarity and Comprehensibility of Presentation Ten

Options	N	%
a. Not at all	1	3.84
b. A little	5	19.23
c. Somewhat	15	57.69
d. Much	3	11.53
e. Totally	2	7.69
Total	26	100%

The majority of the audience stated that the presentation was somewhat clear and comprehensible with a rate of 57.69%, while 23.07% (3.84%+19.23%) of them said that it was little or not at all understandable. However, only 19.22% (11.53%+7.69%) said that the presentation was much or completely understood.

3.3.2.11. Summary of Interactive Features in the Tenth Presentations

The summary of the classroom observation results is demonstrated by reviewing the findings obtained from all the presentations (from One to Ten). The presenter’s negotiation of meaning, the presenter’s responses to audiences’ clarification requests and comments, the number of students involved and the frequency of their participation, and the audience appreciation of the oral presentations.

Table3.43

Summary of Classroom Observation Results

Present-ation Number	Interactive Features							Evaluation criteria		
	A1	A2	A3	B1	B2	B3	B4	Number of students involved	Number of Participations	Appreciation
One	0	0	0	/	2	0	3	00	00	2.5
Two	1	0	0	1	1	5	1	03	06	3
Three	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	00	00	2
Four	0	0	0	4	3	0	0	00	00	2
Five	0	0	10	/	2	0	1	08	12	3
Six	2	0	8	/	1	5	1	04	11	3
Seven	1	0	3	1	4	1	0	07	10	3
Eight	0	0	0	3	3	1	0	00	00	2.5
Nine	0	0	0	2	3	0	0	00	00	2.5
Ten	5	0	1	/	1	2	5	04	07	3.5
Average	0.9	0	2.2	1.4	2.2	1.4	1.1	2.6	4.6	2.7

Key A1: Comprehension checks **A2:** Comprehension checks followed by elicitations
A3: Elicitations **B1:** Does not respond **B2:** Nodding and agreeing **B3:** Repeat the exact utterance
B4: Modified repetition **Appreciation=** Evaluation+ Clarity/2

a) Relationship between comprehension checks and the students' participation and appreciation

Five presentations contained no comprehension checks, and at the same time no student was involved in interaction. However, in presentation five, there were eight students involved without the existence of comprehension checks. Where comprehension checks were used by the presenters, however, there was students' involvement each time. A quite similar relationship can be seen between comprehension checks and the number of participations. It can be said that comprehension checks ensure that there was participation in the classroom. The appreciation of the presentations where comprehension checks did not occur are 'below the average', while those where comprehension checks occurred are 'above average'.

b) Relationship between comprehension checks followed by elicitation and the students' participation and appreciation

Five presentations contained no comprehension checks followed by elicitation; at the same time no student was involved in interaction. However, in presentation 2, 5, 6, 7, and 10 there was students' involvement without the existence of comprehension checks followed by elicitations. A similar relationship can be seen between comprehension checks followed by elicitation and the number of students' participations. It can be said that the use of comprehension checks followed by elicitation does not co-occur with interaction in the presentation. As far as appreciation is concerned, all presentations are said to be 'average'.

c) Relationship between elicitations and the students' participation and appreciation

Five presentations contained no elicitations, and at the same time no student was involved in the participation. However, in presentation two there were 3 students involved without the existence of elicitation. In four presentations which contain elicitations there were students

involved each time. A similar relationship can be seen between elicitations and the number of participations. It can be concluded that elicitations are related to interaction between the presenter and the audience. In terms of students' appreciation, presentations where no elicitations were used by the presenter are 'below the average', while the presentations in which elicitations were used are a little above the average.

d) Relationship between absence of responses to audience's clarifications requests and students' participation and appreciation

In presentations 1, 5, 6, and 10 there was some kind of response to audience's clarification requests and comments and there was students' involvement, except for presentation 1 where there was no students' participation. However, in presentations 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9 when the presenters' did not respond to audience's clarification requests and comments, there was no student involved in interaction. A similar relationship is noticed when the presenter responded to clarification requests and comments and the number of students' participations. So, it can be said that the presenters' answers to the audience clarification requests and comments ensure that there was interaction in the presentation. The presentations where the presenters did not respond to clarification requests are slightly 'below the average', while the presentations where the presenters responded to the audience's clarification requests are 'average'.

e) Relationship between nodding and agreeing and students' participation and appreciation

In five presentations the presenters responded by nodding and agreeing, and there were students involved in interaction whereas in five others, the presenters responded by nodding and agreeing, and no student was involved in participation. A similar relationship can be viewed between nodding and agreeing and the number of students' participations. Hence, the

use of nodding and agreeing did not ensure that there was interaction in the presentation. with regard to the students' appreciation, all the presentations are appreciated as 'average'.

f) Relationship between repeating the exact utterance and students' participation and appreciation

In four presentations the presenter did not respond to audience's clarification requests and comments by repeating the exact utterance, at the same time there was no students' involvement. However, in presentation five, there was no repetition of the same utterance and there were eight students involved. In presentations where the presenters responded by repeating the exact utterance, there was students' involvement each time. A similar relationship can be seen between repeating the exact utterance and the number of students' participations. It can be deduced that the presenters' repetition of the exact utterance ensures that there is interactivity during the presentation. Concerning the audience's appreciation, the presentations which do not contain repeating the exact utterance are "below the average", and the presentations which contain repeating the exact utterance are "average".

g) Relationship between modified repetition and students' participation and appreciation

Four presentations do not contain the presenters' modified repetition, and at the same time, there were no students involved in interaction. But, in presentation seven there were seven students involved without the use of modified repetition. Where modified repetition existed, there was students' involvement each time. A similar relationship can be seen between modified repetition and the number of students' participation. It can be said that using modified repetition ensures that there is participation in the classroom. The appreciation of the presentation which did not contain modified repetition is 'below average', while the presentations which contained modified are 'average'.

3.3.3. Interpretation of classroom observation Results

From the aforementioned summary of classroom observation results, it is concluded that the features of interaction which are used by EFL students in their presentation delivery are elicitations, comprehension checks, repeating the exact utterance, modified repetition, and nodding and agreeing, while comprehension checks followed by elicitations are totally absent. Some of the used interactive features help the presenter to create interaction and engage more students in classroom participation as elicitations, comprehension checks, modified repetition, and repeating the exact utterance. Moreover, it is deduced that there is a relationship between the use of comprehension checks, elicitations, repeating the exact utterance, as well as modified repetition and the audience's comprehension and evaluation of the presentation. However, according to the results obtained, comprehension checks followed by elicitation and nodding and agreeing have no relationship with the students' appreciation and comprehension of the oral presentation.

3.4. The Presenter Questionnaire

3.4.1. Description of Presenter Questionnaire

The other used instrument is the students' questionnaire; it aims to explore students' perception toward the role of using interaction features on their delivery and appreciation of oral presentation as well as to investigate if there is a relation between their views and the actual performance. Hence, the same twenty (20) students who deliver the presentation were given the questionnaire, i.e. the questionnaire is submitted to only (20) students of third and first year master from different groups who are concerned with giving oral presentations tasks.

The student's questionnaire is made up of two sections with a total number of 18 questions in which students are required to pick up the most appropriate answer from a series

of options. Only the most important questions which serve the present research were asked and arranged in a logical order.

The first section entitled “Delivering Oral Presentations”, it contains twelve questions, aims to know the presenter’s opinion about interaction and the importance of interactive features in delivering oral presentations. In question (1) and (2) students are asked whether or not making oral presentations in EFL classroom helps in learning English language, and if it is a challenging task for them. Question (3) and (4) ask which kind of presentation delivery is more appreciated by the students and which one is more effective and comprehensible. Question (5) probes whether interaction with the audience facilitates the task of presenting or not, next, question (6), (7) and (8) aim to indicate if the presenter uses comprehension checks, and which strategies he/she uses to elicit the listeners’ responses. In question (9) and (10) the respondents asked if they are requested to clarify certain elements of the presentation and how often they respond to them. Finally, question (11) and (12) ask the presenters if they allow the audience to contribute in the explanation during the presentation and if their contribution is insightful or interrupting for them.

The second section however, deals with “Audience to Oral Presentations”; it aims to probe the audience perspective towards the importance of using interactive features in oral presentations. Question, (13), aims to find out whether listening to oral presentations helps in learning English and why. Moving to question (14) which seeks to explore if there is interaction among the presenter and the audience during an oral presentation. Question (15) is asked to specify the type of presentations which is more effective and clear. The last three questions (16), (17) and (18) aim to find out whether the presenter checks the audience comprehension, if the listeners ask for clarification and how often they interrupt the speaker.

3.4.2. Analysis of Presenter questionnaire

This section is devoted to make an adequate presentation of the general results in percentage terms within tables. Then, the results obtained will be discussed and interpreted in the light of the already stated research hypothesis.

Section One: Delivery of Oral Presentations

Q1: Do you think that delivering oral presentations helps in learning English?

- a- Yes
- b- No

Table3.44

Presenters' Attitudes towards the Role of Delivering Oral Presentations in Learning English

Options	N	%
a	19	95
b	1	5
Total	20	100%

The majority of the students (95%) opted for “yes”, meaning that they find that delivering oral presentation helpful in learning English. However, only 5% of the respondents stated that oral presentation tasks do not help in their learning of English. Actually, among the reasons that were given by the presenters who opted for “yes” are worthy to be mentioned:

- Oral presentations help in developing listening and speaking skills.
- Oral presentations help in developing oral communication skills.
- Oral presentations encourage students to be self-confident to speak in front of the audience.
- Oral presentations help in developing accuracy and fluency in speaking.

Q2: Do you find the process of delivering oral presentations challenging?

- a- Strongly agree
- b- Agree
- c- Disagree
- d- Strongly disagree

Table3.45

Presenters' Views about the challenging nature of Delivering Oral Presentations

Options	N	%
a	2	10
b	15	75
c	1	5
d	2	10
Total	20	100%

This question primarily aims to find out whether students find the process of delivering oral presentations challenging or not. 85% (85%= 10%+ 75%) of the presenters opted for “strongly agree” and “agree” in the sense that delivering oral presentation is challenging and not easy to perform, while 15% (15%=5%+10%) of the respondents opted for “disagree” and “strongly disagree”, stating that making oral presentation projects is difficult and challenging.

Q3: When you are given an academic oral presentation, how do you usually deliver it?

- a- In a monologic manner (only you talk)
- b- In an interactive manner (involve the audience)

Table3.46

Presenters' Manner of Delivering Oral Presentations

Options	N	%
a	8	40
b	12	60
Total	20	100%

60% of the respondents stated that they usually deliver the oral presentations in an interactive way, while 40% of them usually deliver them in a monologic manner.

Q4: Which type of presentations do you think are clearer and more effective when you deliver them?

- a- Monologic ones
- b- Interactive ones
- c- neutral

Table3.47

The Presenters' Opinions about Relative Effectiveness of Monologic and Interactive Presentations

Options	N	%
a	3	15
b	14	70
c	3	15
Total	20	100%

It can be noticed that the majority of the presenters 70% stated that the interactive oral presentations are more effective and clearer in the delivery than the monologic type 15%, while other 15% are neutral in their opinions.

Q5: Do you think that interaction with the teacher and other students facilitates the task of presenting?

- a- Strongly agree
- b- Agree
- c- Disagree
- d- Strongly disagree

Table3.48

Presenters' Attitudes towards the Facilitating Role of Interaction during the Presentation

Options	N	%
a	10	50
b	7	35
c	3	15
d	0	00
Total	20	100%

The vast majority of the respondents 85% (85%= 50%+35%) agreed and strongly agreed with the role of interaction with the teacher and the audience in facilitating the process of delivering the presentation, while 15% disagree with the fact that interaction with the audience leads to ease and facilitate the delivery of the presentation.

Q6: Do you believe it is necessary to check whether the audience have understood what you say?

- a- Strongly agree
- b- Agree
- c- Disagree
- d- Strongly disagree

Table3.49

The Presenters' Opinions about the Necessity of Using Comprehension Checks

Options	N	%
a	10	50
b	9	45
c	1	5
d	00	00
Total	20	100%

The majority of the presenters 95% ($95\% = 50\% + 45\%$) opted for “agree” and “strongly agree” confirming that checking the audience comprehension is necessary during the presentation, while 5% of the respondents disagree stating that it is not necessary for the presenter to check whether the audience understand the message or not.

Q7: How often do you check if your audience have understood what you say?

- a- Always
- b- Often
- c- Sometimes
- d- Rarely
- e- Never

Table3.50

The Frequency of Using Comprehension Checks by the Presenter

Options	N	%
a	4	20
b	3	15
c	8	40
d	2	10
e	3	15
Total	20	100%

Question seven is a follow-up to question six. Most of the presenters 75% ($75\% = 20\% + 15\% + 40\%$) frequently check the audience understanding, while 25% ($25\% = 10\% + 15\%$) of the respondents scarcely or never check the audience comprehension during the presentation.

Q8: How do you usually elicit whether your audience have understood your message?

- a- Ask yes/no questions
- b- Ask display questions (require demonstration and explanation)
- c- None of the above
- d- Others, please specify

Table3.51

The Strategies Used by the Presenter for Confirming the Audience's Comprehension

Options	N	%
a	7	35
b	7	35
c	5	25
d	1	5
Total	20	100%

The results show that 35% of the presenters usually elicit whether audience understand or not, by asking yes/no questions, while other 35% of them by asking display questions which require demonstration and explanation from the audience. However, 30% of the respondents often elicit understanding through asking the audience to repeat the exact utterances that the presenter has already said during the presentation.

Q9:Do you usually get asked to clarify some parts of the presentation?

- a- Always**
- b- Often**
- c- Sometimes**
- d- Rarely**
- e- never**

Table3.52

The Frequency of Getting Asked for Clarification by the Audience

Options	N	%
a	3	15
b	6	30
c	7	35
d	2	10
e	2	10
Total	20	100%

This table reveals that the majority of the presenters 80% ($80\% = 15\% + 30\% + 35\%$) are frequently asked to clarify and illustrate some parts of the presentation, while 20% ($20\% = 10\% + 10\%$) of the respondents show that they rarely or never get asked by the audience to clarify some parts of the presentation.

Q10: How often do you respond to clarification requests by your audience?

- a- Always
- b- Often
- c- Sometimes
- d- Rarely
- e- Never

Table3.53

The Frequency of the Presenter's Responses to Clarification Requests by the Audience

Options	N	%
a	7	35
b	6	30
c	4	20
d	2	10
e	1	5
Total	20	100%

This question is a follow-up to question nine. The results demonstrated that 85% (85%=35%+30%+20%) of the presenters generally respond to the audience's clarification requests, while 15% (15% =10%+5%) of them rarely or never give a response to the audience clarification requests.

Q11: Do you allow the audience to contribute into the explanation process?

- a- Always
- b- Often
- c- Sometimes
- d- Rarely
- e- Never

Table3.54

Presenters' Attitudes towards Allowing Audience Contributions in the Explanation Process

Options	N	%
a	1	5
b	7	35
c	6	30
d	4	20
e	2	10
Total	20	100%

Responses to this question showed that a considerable percentage of the presenters 70% (70%=5%+35%+30%) pointed out that they allow the audience to contribute and participate

in the explanation process of the presentation, while 30% (30%= 20%+10%) rarely or never let the audience contribute into the process of explanation.

Q12: Do you think that comments and contributions by the audience are:

- a- Interrupting and confusing
- b- Insightful and Helpful

Table3.55

Presenter's Attitudes towards the Role of Audience Comments and Contributions

Options	N	%
a	5	25
b	15	75
Total	20	100%

The majority of the presenters 75% admitted that making comments or any intervention by the audience during the delivery of the presentation is very insightful and helpful, while 25% of the respondents show that comments are a kind of interruption and confusion for the presenter.

Section Two: Audience to Oral Presentations

Q13: Do you think that listening/ following oral presentations helps in learning English?

- a- Yes
- b- No

Table3.56

Audience Attitudes about the Role of Listening to Oral Presentations in Learning English

Options	N	%
a	19	95
b	1	5
Total	20	100%

The majority of audience 95% stated that listening to an oral presentation is helpful in learning English, while 5% of them stated that making oral presentations does not help in learning English. Those who thought that oral presentations are helpful provided some justifications which are:

- Oral presentations prepare audience to contribute to further discussions and negotiation
- Oral presentations develop speaking and listening skills
- Through following an oral presentation, we can acquire new vocabulary

Q14: When you are the audience of an oral presentation, how often do you interact with the presenter?

- a- Frequently**
- b- Sometimes**
- c- Rarely**
- d- Never**

Table3.57

Audience’s Frequency of Interaction with the Presenter in Oral Presentations

Options	N	%
a	4	20
b	8	40
c	6	30
d	2	10
Total	20	100%

The results reflect that 60% (60%= 20%+40%) from the audience frequently create a kind of interaction with the presenter, while 40% (40%=30%+10%) of them rarely or never get involved in interaction with the presenter.

Q15: Which type of presentations do you think are clearer and more effective when you are on the listening end?

- a- Monologic ones**
- b- Interactive ones**
- c- Neutral**

Table3.58

The Audience’s Perceptions of the Relative Effectiveness of Monologic and Interactive Presentations

Option	N	%
a	3	15
b	16	80
c	1	5
Total	20	100%

The majority of the audience 80% stated that the interactive type of performing oral presentations is more effective than monologic types, while 15% admitted that the monologic type is the one which is more effective. However, only 5% opted for neutral.

Q16: Is it necessary for the presenter to check your comprehension?

- a- Strongly agree
- b- Agree
- c- Disagree
- d- Strongly disagree

Table3.59

Audience Attitudes towards the Necessity of Using Comprehension Checks

Options	N	%
a	7	35
b	11	55
c	1	5
d	1	5
Total	20	100%

The majority of audience (90%) (90%=35%+55%) opted for ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’. They stated that it is necessary for the presenter to check the audience comprehension, however, only 5% of the respondents opted for ‘disagree’ and other 5% opted for ‘strongly disagree’.

Q17: How often do you ask the presenter for clarification?

- a- Always
- b- Often
- c- Rarely
- d- Never

Table 3.60

The Frequency of Making Clarification Requests by the Audience

Options	N	%
a	1	5
b	7	35
c	11	55
d	1	5
Total	20	100%

55% of the audience rarely ask the presenter for clarification and explanation, while 40% (40%=5%+35%) of them frequently ask the presenter to clarify some parts of the presentation. However, only 5% of the respondents stated that they never ask the presenter to give more clarification during the presentation.

Q18: How often do you interrupt the presenter?

- a- Always
- b- Often
- c- Rarely
- d- Never

Table3.61

The Frequency of Interruptions Made by the Audience

Options	N	%
a	1	5
b	7	35
c	11	55
d	1	5
Total	20	100%

The results in this table show that 55% of the audience rarely interrupt the presenter during the presentation delivery, while 40% (40%=5%+35%) of them frequently interrupt the presenter. However, only 5% of the respondents never interrupt the presenter during the delivery.

3.4.3. Interpretation of Presenter Questionnaire

Taking into account the aforesaid analysis, one can draw different conclusions and interpretations through making a relationship between the students' answers within the full questionnaire.

As far as the first section of the questionnaire is concerned, its main aim is to gather some information about the presenters' attitudes towards the process of delivering oral presentations in EFL classrooms. The obtained results (from Q1) demonstrate that 95% of presenters were of the view that delivering oral presentations is very helpful and beneficial in their English learning. Thus, they have positive views towards assigning oral presentation tasks in their classes; meanwhile, 85% of the presenters stated that the process of delivering oral presentations is very challenging and they encounter some difficulties and problems during the performance (Q2). However, the main conclusion that can be drawn from this section is that the majority of the presenters (60%) deliver a given oral presentation in an interactive

manner, and 70% of them admitted that it is more effective and the clearer during the delivery than the monologic type since it facilitates the task of presenting (Q3, Q4, & Q5). Besides, through Q6, Q7, Q9 & Q10, the vast majority of the presenters (95%) viewed that interaction is necessary to check audience's comprehension since they frequently (75%) check whether the latter have understood or not, they usually (80%) get asked to clarify some parts of the presentation, and respond to their clarification requests (85%). Thus, from Q11 & Q12, 70% of the presenters allow the audience to participate into the explanation process and 75% of them consider that any contribution or comment by the audience is insightful and helpful.

The second section of the questionnaire is devoted to shedding light on audience's stance towards oral presentation projects. Succinctly speaking, responses to Q14, Q15, & Q16 indicate that 80% of the audience also admitted that the interactive type of presentations is the most effective and the clearest when they are on the listening end. Accordingly, 60% of them generally interact with the presenter, while 90% stated that the presenter should check their comprehension of the presentation message.

3.5. Teacher Questionnaire

3.5.1. Description of Teacher Questionnaire

A questionnaire was designed for teachers in order to elicit their view points towards the use of interactive features, the role of interaction in the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations, and if interactivity is a main criterion in their evaluation process. The questionnaire was given to 10 teachers who assigned oral presentations in the classroom as part of students' assessment.

The questionnaire consists of 10 questions. Questions (1), (2) and (3) seek to discover which type of presentation delivery was preferred by the teachers in terms of clarity and effectiveness, and whether the teacher encourages the students to deliver in a monologic or in

an interactive manner. Besides, questions (4), (5), (6) and (7) were asked to find out whether teachers motivate their students to use certain features of interaction which are comprehension checks, clarification requests, and contributing in the explanation process when they expose them to deliver oral presentations, and if they are helpful or confusing for the learning process. In questions (8) and (9), the researchers seek to find out which aspects are followed by teachers in evaluating oral presentations, and whether interactivity is a main criterion in their evaluation. Finally, question (10) aims to know which features of interaction are considered to be appropriate for a good evaluation.

3.5.2. Analysis of Teacher Questionnaire

Q1: Which type of presentations do you think are generally clearer and more effective?

- a. Monologic ones
- b. Interactive
- c. Neutral

Table3.62

Teachers' Opinions about Relative Effectiveness of Monologic and Interactive Presentations

Options	N	%
a	00	00
b	10	100
c	00	00
Total	10	100%

From the table above, it is noticed that all teachers picked up the second option with a percentage of 100% while other options have not been chosen by any teacher; this leads to conclude that interactive oral presentations are more effective and clearer than monologic ones.

Q2: How often do you encourage your students to present in a monologic manner?

- a. Always
- b. Often
- c. Sometimes
- d. Rarely
- e. Never

Table 3.63

Frequency of Teachers' Encouragement of Monologic Presentations

Options	N	%
a	00	00
b	2	20
c	3	30
d	3	30
e	2	20
Total	10	100%

There are different views about teachers' encouragement of students to present in a monologic manner, with 50% doing so sometimes and frequently. However, none of them selected option one, meaning that no teacher always motivates students to deliver monologic presentations.

Q3: How often do you encourage your students to present in an interactive manner?

- a. Always
- b. Often
- c. Sometimes
- d. Rarely
- e. Never

Table 3.64

Frequency of Teachers' Encouragement of Interactive Presentations

Options	N	%
a	6	60
b	2	20
c	2	20
d	00	00
e	00	00
Total	10	100%

As the table above shows, 6 out of 10 teachers always encourage their students to deliver in an interactive manner with a percentage of 60%; this reveals that interactive presentations are very demanded by teachers.

Q4: Is it necessary for the presenter to check whether the audiences have understood what he/ she says?

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. Disagree
- d. Strongly disagree

Table 3.65

Teachers' Opinions about the Necessity of Using Comprehension Checks by Presenters

Options	N	%
A	7	70
B	3	30
C	00	00
D	00	00
Total	10	100%

All teachers either strongly agree or agree that using comprehension checks highly contributes to the audience' understanding of oral presentations' content.

Q5: Do you encourage the students listening to the presenter to ask for clarification when they fail to understand?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Table3.66

Teachers' Attitudes about the Use of Clarification Requests in Oral Presentations

Options	N	%
A	10	100
B	00	00
Total	10	100%

All teachers agree that students should follow with the presenter in order to ask for clarifications when they fail to grasp certain parts of the presentation.

Q6: Do you allow the audience to contribute to the explanation process that is carried out by the presenter?

- a. Always
- b. Often
- c. Sometime
- d. Rarely
- e. Never

Table 3.67

Teachers' Attitudes towards Allowing Audience Contributions in the Explanation Process

Options	N	%
A	3	30
B	3	30
C	3	30
D	0	00
E	1	10
Total	10	100%

Different teachers' views are noticed in the table above: an equal percentage of 30% is given to three options 'always', 'often' and 'sometimes'; this indicates that most teachers allow the listeners to contribute to the explanation process during an oral presentation, while only 10% have never given permission to the audience to impart and share their views.

Q7: Do you think that comments and contributions by the audience to an oral presentation are:

- a. Interrupting and confusing.**
- b. Insightful and helpful.**
- c. Others, please specify**

Table 3.68

Teachers' Attitudes towards the Role of Audience Comments and Contributions in Presentations

Options	N	%
A	1	10
B	7	70
C	2	20
Total	10	100%

The data tabulated above show that the highest percentage of teachers, 70%, said that comments and contributions by the audience are insightful and helpful while only 10% said that they are confusing and interrupting. Two respondents chose the option "c", they gave the following answers:

Teacher 1: "Comments and contributions by the audience are interrupting and confusing during the presentation, insightful and helpful after the presentation."

Teacher 2: “It depends on the manner in which comments are made. If they are part of a general agreement among students and the teacher, if they are related to the topic, and if they are done in an orderly manner, then they are welcome and insightful.”

Q8: Which of these aspects do you focus on in evaluating an oral presentation?

- a. Language
- b. Content
- c. Delivery
- d. Organization
- e. Others, please specify

Table 3.69

The Main Aspects of Teachers' Evaluation of Oral Presentations

Options	N	%
C	1	10
b.+c.+d.	1	10
a+b+c	1	10
a+b+c+d	4	40
a+b+c+d+e	3	30
Total	10	100%

One can notice from the results shown in the table above that all teachers chose the option ‘c’ which is delivery as the main aspect in evaluating an oral presentation [(c):1+(b+c+d):1+ (a+b+c):1+ (a+b+c+d):4+ (a+b+c+d+e):3=10]. Holistic evaluation, which considers that all aspects should be included in the evaluation process, is selected by seven teachers. ‘Content’ is also important for four teachers in their evaluations. The aspects of ‘language’ and ‘organization’ are each selected by three teachers for evaluating presentations. Three other teachers suggested other criteria to be considered in evaluating an oral presentation (option ‘e’):

Teacher 1: Clarity and relevance

Teacher 2: self-confidence

Teacher 3: Body language and facial expressions in role plays

Q9: Is the interactivity of an oral presentation a main criterion of its positive evaluation?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Table 3.70

Teachers' Perception towards the centrality of Interaction in Evaluating Oral Presentations

Options	N	%
A	8	80
B	2	20
Total	10	100%

It is clear from the table above that 80% from the respondents emphasize that interactivity is a main criterion to be considered in oral presentations evaluation. Some teachers said it is essential because interaction is a useful means to increase oral communication and to improve the speaking skills. Others indicated that interaction demonstrates the ability of the presenter to perform and deliver his/her ideas spontaneously. Some teachers, on the other hand, mention that the aspect of interactivity allows the presenter to monitor and adapt what he/she says to be comprehensible, as it helps the listeners to express themselves through exchanging thoughts.

However, 20% of the respondents selected the second choice indicating that interactivity is not a main criterion for their evaluation of oral presentations because the content and purpose of some presentations do not allow the audience to interact with the presenter.

Q10: What interactive features of oral presentations contribute to a good evaluation?

- a. **Checking for audience comprehension asking yes/no questions.**
- b. **Checking for audience comprehension asking display questions which require the audience to re-explain the presented ideas.**
- c. **Checking for audience comprehension by eliciting further examples.**
- d. **Responding to clarification requests by the audience.**
- e. **Opening the room for the audience to contribute further information about the topic.**
- f. **Others, please specify:**

Table 3.71

Teachers' Attitudes about the Interactive Features Contributing to Good Evaluation of Presentations

Options	N	%
a+b+c+d+e	1	10
a+b+d+e	1	10
a+d+e	1	10
b+e	2	20
b+d	3	30
c+e	1	10
E	1	10
Total	10	100%

The answers yielded from the question above reveal that the most appropriate interactive feature which contributes to a good evaluation is 'e' which is 'opening the room for the audience to contribute further information about the topic' since it was selected by seven teachers [(“e”:1+ (a+d+c+d+e):1+ (a+b+d+e):1+ (a+d+e):1+ (b+e):2+ (c+e):1=7] . Besides, four other teachers selected the option 'b'and 'd' indicating that checking the audience comprehension through asking display questions, and responding to their clarification requests are other important criteria for assessing oral presentations (4 instances). Comprehension checks are selected by three respondents. Last, option “c” was chosen by only one respondent which reveals that one teacher does not focus on checking for audience comprehension by eliciting further examples.

3.5.3. Interpretation of Teacher Questionnaire

The information yielded from this tool revealed that EFL teachers who were involved in this piece of study concluded in the first question that interactive presentations are more effective and comprehensible than monologic ones. This conclusion was emphasized in the second and the third questions in which 60% of teachers sometimes or rarely encourage their students to deliver in a monologic manner; and 60% frequently do encourage them to perform in an interactive way. Moreover, it is deduced from teachers' responses that they support the students' use of interactive features in their presentations and this is shown in questions 4, 5,

6, and 7, in which 70% agreed that presenters should check the listeners' comprehension of the ideas being delivered. Also, all respondents asserted that when listening to the presenter, it is important for the audience to ask for clarification after the presentation, 90% indicated that contributions from the listeners in the explanation process are afforded; these comments and contributions were said to be insightful and helpful by 70% of the teachers. In addition, from questions 8, 9 and 10, it is concluded that all the respondents focus on 'delivery' to evaluate students' presentations; however, the aspect of interactivity is another essential criterion to be considered in the evaluation process since it represents 80% of the sample's views. In this regard, 70% of the teachers included in our study emphasized that opening the room for the audience to give further information about the topic was the main feature of interactivity that contributed to a good evaluation of oral presentations.

3.6. Overall Analysis of Results

As mentioned in the general introduction, the aim of the present study is to explore the place of using interactive features in the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations. This aim was achieved by analyzing the data obtained using the research instruments of classroom observation, presenter questionnaire as well as the teacher questionnaire.

3.6.1. The use of interactive features in EFL oral presentations

Results obtained from classroom observation demonstrated that EFL students do not rely too much on interactive features when delivering an oral presentation. Most interactive features were. First, elicitations and modified repetitions are the mostly used interactive features in the ten presentations. Second, comprehension checks, repeating the exact utterance, and modified repetition occur less frequently than elicitations and modified repetition ten presentations. However, comprehension checks followed by elicitations were totally absent.

3.6.2. Relationship between interactive features and the students' participation and involvement

The interpretation of the classroom observation also concluded that in most cases where interactive features existed in the presentation, there were students' involvement and participation i.e. where elicitation occurs, a higher number of participation increased (in presentation 5 there were 10 elicitations and 8 students were involved with 12 number of participation). While, whenever there were no interactive features, no participation was noticed (in presentations 1, 3, 4, 8, 9 there were no elicitations and no students' involvement). From this it can be said that there is a relationship between interactive features and the students' involvement in the interaction.

3.6.3. Relationship between interactive features and the ease of the presentation delivery

Based on what is interpreted in the presenter questionnaire, it is concluded that there is a relationship between the use of interactive features and the ease of delivering oral presentations, since the majority of the presenters (85%) have a positive attitude about the role of interactive features in facilitating the task of presenting.

3.6.4. Relationship between using interactive features and the audience's comprehension

Classroom observation results also revealed that there is a relationship between the availability of interactive features and the oral presentations comprehension and appreciation. This is deduced from the interpretation of the classroom observation where comprehension checks and elicitation were used; the appreciation was slightly above the average. Also, where repeating the exact utterance and modified repetition occurred, the appreciation was average, while where they did not occur, the audience's appreciation was slightly below average. Moreover, the total absence of comprehension checks followed by elicitation made

the appreciation of the presentations slightly below average. However, only nodding and agreeing have no relationship with the audience's appreciation since in the presentations which contained nodding and agreeing and which do not are average. Most interactive features (comprehension checks, elicitation, nodding and agreeing, repeating the exact utterance and modified repetition) lead to the audience's appreciation, while only one interactive feature (comprehension checks followed by elicitation) has nothing to do with audience's appreciation.

3.6.5. Relationship between the presenters' attitudes about the place of interactive features in oral presentations and their actual performance

From a comparison between the observation and the presenters' opinions in the questionnaire, it is noticed that there is a difference between their attitudes about interaction in oral presentations and their performance in the classroom. The analysis of the presenters' questionnaire reveals that the interactive type of oral presentations it is taught to be more effective and clearer in the delivery than the monologic one. Besides, 95% of the presenters said that checking the audience comprehension is necessary. However, comprehension checks were used only 9 times in the ten presentations. Also, 65% said that they always respond to clarification requests made by the audience. However, there were many instances in 6 presentations in which the speaker did not want to show any response. On the contrary, in the students' real performance, there is a shortage in interaction as they do not rely much on the use of these interactive features.

3.6.6. Teachers attitudes toward using interactivity aspect as a criterion for students' evaluation

According to the teacher questionnaire, it is deduced that interactive presentations are more effective than monologic ones. Teachers usually encourage their students to present in an interactive manner rather than in a monologic manner, and they support the use of

interactive features during the delivery. Also, teachers consider interaction as another essential criterion for a good evaluation of students' oral presentations.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented an analysis of the results generated by the research tools used in the current study. In this chapter, classroom observation as well as students' and teachers' questionnaire were described and analyzed in which the role of interactive features on the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations in EFL classrooms was investigated. The researchers believe that interactive features are very effective and important in the students' appreciation and comprehension of oral presentations. It is apparent from the findings from classroom observation that students' good delivery and appreciation were achieved through the use of interactive features. Likewise, results from students' answers acknowledge more the clarity and comprehensibility of the interactive type of oral presentations over the monologic one and they agree that it enhances their English learning. Also, results from teachers' questionnaire admitted that the aspect of interaction is considered as another main criterion in the evaluation of students' oral presentations. Remarkably, according to both teachers and students' attitudes, it is no wonder that interaction will be fruitful for the appreciation and comprehension of oral presentations.

General Conclusion

1. Putting it Altogether
2. Limitations of the Study
3. Pedagogical Recommandations
4. Suggestions for Further Research

General Conclusion

1. Putting it Altogether

The present study has been undertaken to investigate the role of interactive features in the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations in EFL classrooms and to gauge both teachers' and students' attitudes towards their use. The study is divided into two parts: a theoretical and a practical one. The theoretical part comprises two chapters which are purely descriptive reviewing related literature, whereas the third chapter is concerned with the field work.

The first chapter in the theoretical part sheds light on oral presentations in foreign language teaching and learning. They are defined as a kind of speech which consists of the speaker, the audience and the message. Oral presentations are considered an important communicative activity in the English learning process. Besides, the speaker has the opportunity to deliver individually or in groups adopting several styles of delivery. Moreover, oral presentations have different purposes according to the topic, teacher or setting; these purposes are to inform, to persuade, and to entertain. In order to make an effective presentation, the speaker needs to structure the presentation, and use different gestures not just reading from the script. Furthermore, it was found out that delivering oral presentations are not free from difficulties as anxiety. Finally, different aspects of oral presentations are considered to be appropriate in its positive assessment by the teacher and the audience such as content organization and language, etc.

The second chapter presents interaction and interactive features in EFL classrooms. Classroom interaction was defined as the negotiation among the teacher and students or among the students themselves. The term is sometimes used interchangeably with classroom discourse and classroom talk. However, classroom talk can sometimes be monologic, while classroom interaction occur between other patterns as teacher-learner interaction and learner-

learner interaction. Moreover, classroom interaction is characterized by the use of such interactive features as comprehension checks and questioning. Next, interaction is regarded as a valuable aspect in language learning theories where learners are expected to understand the input. Finally, classroom interaction can be affected by many factors such as lack of proficiency and lack of interest; they are considerable obstacles for achieving an effective learning environment.

The practical part represents the field work which presents data collection procedures, analysis of data, and discussion and interpretation of the results. The frequency of interactive features in oral presentations is explored by using classroom observation, while a questionnaire explored students' attitudes towards the use interactive feature in presentations in order to compare them to their actual or real performance. The other questionnaire was designed for teachers who usually give their students oral presentations as a task for evaluation. The findings obtained from classroom observation supported our hypothesis in which the use of interactive features in oral presentations leads to a good appreciation (evaluation and clarity) by the audience. In presentations which contained some interactive features as comprehension checks, elicitations, modified repetition and repeating the exact utterance were appreciated and were comprehensive by the audience, they engaged more students in interaction. In the meantime, results from the presenter's questionnaire showed that an interactive presentation was the most appreciated type of presentations which eases the delivery and comprehension comparing with a monologic one. Moreover, from the teacher questionnaire; it was revealed that teachers admitted the role of interaction in oral presentation as they considered it a main criterion for its positive evaluation.

2. Limitations of the Study

During the preparation of this piece of research we encountered some difficulties that need to be acknowledged. First, classroom interaction is a wide field in foreign language

contexts; it contains many aspects that cannot be covered when it is put under investigation. Thus, it was not applicable for us to cover all interactive features in classroom observation. Also, in conducting the classroom observation, the ideal way to make a perfect observation is that the presenters should be observed and evaluated individually by the audience in order to take other aspects into consideration that lead to a good presentation such as language proficiency. However, imposing on the audience to answer the evaluation sheet for each presenter is a disturbance for them, as they concentrated on responding the evaluation sheet rather than the presentation itself.

3. Pedagogical Recommendations

The present study is an attempt to investigate the role of using interactive features in the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations. The results from this investigation revealed that there was a connection between the use of interactive features by the presenter and the audience's comprehension of oral presentations. Similarly, it was found that the use of interactive features is of crucial importance and they may lead to a good delivery and appreciation by the presenters and a positive evaluation by the teachers. In the light of these findings, the following recommendations are made:

- 1- Since there is a mismatch between EFL students' attitudes about the place of interaction in oral presentations and their performance in the classroom; they should give more attention and care to the use of interactive features when delivering oral presentations.
- 2- It is better for students to learn how to adopt interactive features during oral presentations so that to reduce anxiety, facilitate their delivery and make a good appreciation by the audience.
- 3- Interaction in oral presentations helps the listeners to negotiate meaning and exchange opinions; this makes ideas comprehensible for them.

- 4- Teachers should inspire students to create interaction and use interactive features in oral presentations through making them aware of their importance.
- 5- Teachers should take the interactivity aspect into consideration in the students' evaluation of oral presentations; this motivates them to deliver interactive rather than monologic presentations.

4. Suggestions for Further Research

Based on our review of the literature which tackled interaction and interactive features in oral presentations, it is noteworthy to empower future researchers with the following suggestions:

- 1- Future researchers may conduct an experimental research to test the effectiveness of interactive features in oral presentations in which one group is trained to use interactive features and the other one is trained to present in a monologic manner in order to find out new conclusions and insightful improvements.
- 2- Future researchers are recommended to investigate the role of using different types of questions in the classroom for example there is a difference between referential questions in promoting classroom interaction, and increasing understanding in oral presentations,
- 3- Future researchers should consider the gap between the students' perspective about the importance of interaction in oral presentations, and their performance in the classroom.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 01: Classroom Observation

(A) The frequency of the presenters' Negotiation of Meaning

Categories for Observing the Presenters' Negotiation of Meaning

<i>A) The presenters' negotiation of meaning</i>	<i>Symbols</i>
<i>1. Comprehension checks</i>	A1
<i>2. Comprehension checks followed by elicitations</i>	A2
<i>3. Elicitations</i>	A3

(B) The frequency of the presenters' responses to audience's clarification requests and comments

Categories for Observing the Presenters' Responses to Audience Clarification Requests and Comments

<i>B) The presenters' responses to students' clarification requests and comments</i>	<i>Symbols</i>
<i>1. Does not respond</i>	B1
<i>2. Nodding and agreeing</i>	B2
<i>3. Repeating the exact utterance</i>	B3
<i>4. Modified repetition</i>	B4

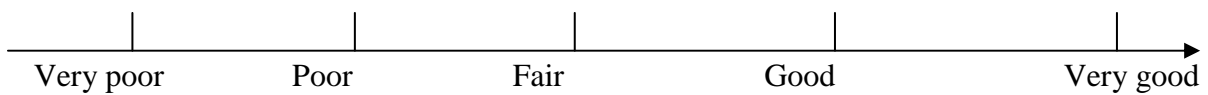
(C) The number of students involved in interaction and frequency of their participation

Teacher Desk	The Presenters	
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
	The Observers Seat	

(D) Audience's evaluation sheet

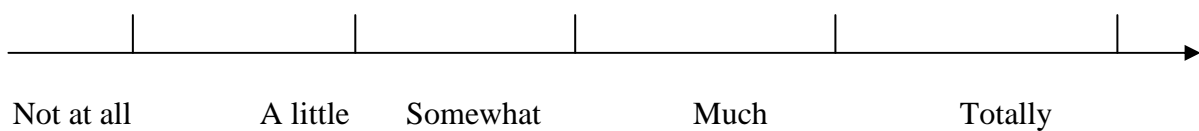
1- What is your overall opinion about the presentation?

The Audience Overall Opinion about the Presentations



2- How clear and comprehensible has the presentation been?

Assessing Clarity and Comprehensibility of the Presentations



Appendix02:

Presenter Questionnaire

Dear student,

We are carrying out research to investigate the role of interaction in academic oral presentations in EFL classrooms. You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire by ticking (✓) the box that corresponds to your answer, and providing explanation when needed.

Section One: Delivering Oral Presentations

1- Do you think that delivering oral presentations helps in learning English?

- a- Yes
- b- No

Please justify your answer:

.....
.....

2- Do you find the process of delivering oral presentations challenging?

- a- Strongly agree
- b- agree
- c- Disagree
- d- Strongly disagree

b- When you are given an academic oral presentation, how do you usually deliver it?

- a) in a monologic manner (only you talk)
- b) in an interactive manner (involve the audience)

c- Which type of presentations do you think are clearer and more effective when you deliver them?

- a) Monologic ones
- b) Interactive ones
- c) Neutral

d- Do you think that interaction with the teacher and other students facilitates the task of presenting?

- a- Strongly agree
- b- Agree
- c- Disagree
- d- Strongly disagree

e- Do you believe it is necessary to check whether the audience have understood what you say?

a- Strongly agree b- Agree c- Disagree d- Strongly disagree

f- How often do you check whether if your audience have understood what you say?

a- Always b- Often c- Sometimes d- Rarely e- Never

g- How do you usually elicit whether your audience have understood your message?

a) Ask yes/no questions

b) Ask display questions (require demonstration and explanation)

c) None of the above

d) Others, please specify.....

.....

.....

h- Do you usually get asked to clarify some parts of the presentation?

a- Always b- Often c- Sometimes d- Rarely e- Never

i- How often do you respond to clarification requests by your audience?

a- Always b- Often c- Sometimes d- Rarely e- Never

j- Do you allow the audience to contribute into the explanation process?

a- Always b- Often c- Sometimes d- Rarely e- Never

k- Do you think that comments and contributions by the audience are:

a) Interrupting and confusing?

b) Insightful and helpful?

Section Two: Audience to Oral Presentations

1- Do you think that listening/following oral presentations helps in learning English?

a- Yes

b- No

Please, justify your answer:

.....

.....

m- When you are the audience of an oral presentation, how often do you interact with the presenter?

a- Frequently b- Sometimes c- Rarely d- Never

n- Which type of presentations do you think are more effective and clear when you are on the listening end?

a) Monologic ones

b) Interactive ones

c) Neutral

o- Is it necessary for the presenter to check your comprehension?

a- Strongly agree b- Agree c- Disagree d- Strongly disagree

p- How often do you ask the presenter for clarification?

a- Always b- Often c- Rarely d- Never

q- How often do you interrupt the presenter?

a- Always b- Often c- Rarely d- Never

Thank you for your collaboration

Appendix 03:

Teachers Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

The present questionnaire is part of a research seeking to know teachers' perceptions about the importance of interactivity in the delivery and appreciation of oral presentations in EFL classrooms.

We would be very grateful if you devote some of your time to answer the following questionnaire, ticking (✓) the appropriate answer and supplying information whenever necessary.

1- Which type of presentations do you think are generally clearer and more effective?

a- Monologic ones

b- Interactive ones

c- Neutral

- 2- How often do you encourage your students to present in a monologic manner?
 a- Always b- Often c- Sometimes c- Rarely d- Never
- 3- How often do you encourage your students to present in an interactive manner?
 a- Always b- Often c- Sometimes c- Rarely d- Never
- 4- Is it necessary for the presenter to check whether the audience have understood what he/she says?
 a- Strongly agree b- Agree c- Disagree d- Strongly disagree
- 5- Do you encourage the students listening to the presenter to ask for clarification when they fail to understand?
 a- Yes
 b- No
- 6- Do you allow the audience to contribute to the explanation process that is carried out by a presenter?
 a- Always b- Often c- Sometimes c- Rarely d- Never
- 7- Do you think that comments and contributions by the audience to an oral presentation are:
 a- Interrupting and confusing
 b- Insightful and helpful
 c- Others, please specify:

- 8- Which of these aspects do you focus on evaluating an oral presentation?
 a- Language
 b- Content
 c- Delivery
 d- Organization
 e- Others, please specify:

 .
- 9- Is the interactivity of an oral presentation a main criterion of its positive evaluation?
 a- Yes b- No

Please, justify.....

.....

.....

10- What interactive features of oral presentations contribute to a good evaluation?

a) Checking for audience comprehension asking yes/no questions

b) Checking for audience comprehension asking display questions which require the audience to re-explain the presented ideas.

c) Checking for audience comprehension by eliciting further examples.

d) Responding to clarification requests by the audience.

e) Opening the room for the audience to contribute further information about the topic.

f) Others, please specify:

.....

.....

Thank you for your cooperation

Resumé

La présente étude a examiné la relation potentielle entre l'utilisation de fonctions interactives, la présentation et l'appréciation de présentations orales dans des classes d'anglais. Elle a également examiné les attitudes des élèves qui font des présentations orales et les opinions des enseignants concernant le rôle de l'interactivité dans le processus de présentation des exposés oraux. L'étude a été réalisée à l'aide d'une observation en classe et de deux questionnaires. L'observation en classe de dix présentations a été effectuée avec des étudiants de licence de troisième année et de première année d'anglais à l'Université Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia de Jijel. Elle était suivie de deux questionnaires; le premier a été soumis à 20 étudiants qui ont présenté l'exposé et le second à 10 enseignants qui ont fait des exposés oraux dans le cadre de leur évaluation. Le présent travail de recherche s'articule autour d'une hypothèse de base, à savoir que si un présentateur utilise des fonctionnalités interactives qui vérifient la compréhension du public, suscitent des réponses et modifient la conversation de manière à permettre, cela aura un impact positif sur la présentation, la compréhension et l'évaluation par le public; enseignant et étudiants. À cette fin, l'analyse des résultats générés par l'observation en classe a montré que l'élément interactif le plus fréquemment utilisé par le présentateur était les élicitations. De plus, les résultats obtenus ont révélé que la participation des étudiants, leur bonne prestation et leur appréciation par le public étaient liées à l'utilisation de fonctions interactives par le présentateur. De même, l'analyse des résultats générés par le questionnaire du présentateur et celui des enseignants a révélé que la grande majorité des étudiants et des enseignants ont une attitude positive à l'égard de l'interaction lors de la présentation et de l'appréciation des présentations orales. Ils considèrent que le type interactif est plus efficace dans la présentation que le type monologique, et l'interaction est un critère essentiel pour évaluer les performances des présentateurs.

ملخص

هذه الدراسة هي محاولة تحقق في العلاقة المحتملة بين استخدام الميزات التفاعلية، تقديم وتقدير العروض الشفهية في أقسام اللغة الإنجليزية. كما بحثت في مواقف الطلاب الذين يقدمون العروض الشفهية وآراء المعلمين تجاه دور التفاعل في عملية تقديم العروض الشفهية. أجريت هذه الدراسة من خلال استخدام الملاحظة الصفية واثنين من الاستبيانات. الملاحظة الصفية تمت لعشرة عروض شفوية مع طلاب السنة الثالثة و سنة أولي ماستر تخصص لغة الإنجليزية في جامعة محمد صديق بن يحيى في جيجل. بعد الملاحظة الصفية تم تسليم الاستبيان؛ الاستبيان الأول تم تقديمه إلى 20 طالبًا الذين قاموا بالعرض الشفوي، بينما تم تقديم الاستبيان الثاني إلى 10 مدرسين قدموا عروضًا شفهية كواجب لتقييم الطلاب. يدور العمل البحثي الحالي حول فرضية أساسية واحدة وهي أن مقدم العرض إذا استخدم ميزات تفاعلية التي تتحقق من فهم الجمهور و تستنبط الإجابة منهم ويعدل الكلام من أجل جعل الآخرين يفهمون العرض الشفهي، هذا سيؤثر إيجابًا على التقديم والفهم والتقييم من قبل الجمهور ؛ المعلم والطلاب. لتحقيق هذه الغاية، أظهر تحليل النتائج الناتجة عن الملاحظة الصفية أن الميزة التفاعلية الأكثر شيوعًا التي يستخدمها مقدم العرض كانت الاستنباط. بالإضافة إلي ذلك، كشفت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها أن مشاركة الطلاب، والتقديم الجيد والتقدير من قبل الجمهور يرتبط باستخدام الميزات التفاعلية من قبل مقدم العرض. وبالمثل، كشف تحليل النتائج الناتجة عن استبيان مقدم العرض وكذلك استبيان المعلم أن الغالبية العظمى من الطلاب والمعلمين لديهم مواقف إيجابية تجاه التفاعل في تقديم العروض الشفهية وتقديرها حيث يعتبر المعلمين النوع التفاعلي أكثر فاعلية في التقديم بدلاً من النوع الأحادي للعروض الشفهية، وجانب التفاعل هو معيار رئيسي لتقييم أداء المقدمين.

الكلمات المفتاحية: العروض التقديمية الشفهية- الميزات التفاعلية- تقديم و تقييم العروض التقديمية الشفهية