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**Teacher Turn-Allocation Behaviour and Its Effect on Learner
Involvement in Oral Interaction: The Case of Licence EFL
Speaking Classes at Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia University-Jijel**

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilments of the requirements for the degree of Master in
English linguistics

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work:

to the cherished memory of my beloved father;

to the most ardent being who bestowed me with her never-ending encouragement, my

mother;

to my brothers and sisters;

to my niece and nephews;

to all my relatives, friends, teachers and colleagues;

and to all students of English.

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Abstract

As certain classroom turn-allocation strategies reportedly yield more interaction than others, this study attempts to explore the turn-allocation strategies employed by EFL university teachers and their immediate impact on learner investment in oral interaction, thereby establishing an inventory of strategies that are likely to increase student talk. In order to investigate this research concern, two questionnaires and a classroom observation scheme were devised and implemented with Licence EFL Speaking teachers and students at Mohamed Saddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel. An additional research tool, namely a follow-up interview with teachers was equally incorporated into the research design so as to sustain and expand the reach of the aforementioned devices. Results show that the most frequent turn-allocation strategies are teachers' permission for learner self-selection, bodily gestures, general nomination, individual nomination, and invitations to bid, respectively. However, the amount of student talk prompted by these strategies exhibits discrepancies with their frequencies. Learner self-selection yielded the lowest amount of student talk, while individual nomination was found to trigger the utmost amount of it. The study also suggests that student nomination, standing next to a student, and to some extent gestures are the most optimal turn-allocation strategies in terms of the amount of talk they generate. Finally, the study points out the necessity of an examination of gestural turn-allocation strategies through video-taping, noting the frequency of each single strategy, and considering which ones are optimal for increasing student talk than others.

List of abbreviations

CA:	Conversation Analysis
CF:	Corrective Feedback
CI:	Classroom Interaction
CLIL:	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ESL:	English as a Second Language
FLL:	Foreign Language Learner
FPP:	First Pair Part
FT:	Foreigner Talk
HIG:	High Input Generators
IRE:	Initiation Response Evaluation
IRF:	Initiation Response Feedback
LIG:	Low Input Generators
NNS:	Non Native Speakers
NS:	Native Speakers
SLL:	Second Language Learner
SPP:	Second Pair Part
TCU:	Turn Constructional Unit
TL:	Target Language
TRP:	Transition Relevance Place
ZPD:	Zone of Proximal Development

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

General Introduction

1. Introduction

After being neglected by traditional teaching methods, classroom interaction has procured a central position in nowadays educational systems, which, in turn, have been prone to change with the advent of alternative teaching methods. Teachers hitherto lend more attention to learners' participation in classroom interaction rather than merely lecture and impart knowledge. Teachers, are, thus, invited to fuel both good and less able students so that they invest in classroom discourse. In so doing, teachers, in fact, draw on a range of turn-allocation strategies to distribute turns among students and manage classroom interaction. They tend to have the privilege and the legitimate power to manage the floor, whom to speak and whom to remain silent; hence, they have a significant control over interaction taking place in class, say classroom discourse.

Out of familiarity with classroom turn-allocation strategies, EFL teachers tend to distribute turns carelessly, expecting their students to take them readily, and thereby enrich classroom interaction. However, turn allocation can only be effective if it is used systematically. The fact of the matter is that some teachers lean towards the use of certain turn-allocation strategies whilst disregarding others that may be crucially significant for prompting students' participation in oral interaction. By way of illustration, teachers' persistence on allocating turns to students via a number of nonverbal nomination strategies, including gazes and head nods, for the sake of eliciting answers is presumably recurrent in EFL teacher practices, albeit these strategies may seem to be fruitless if they are favoured persistently over other turn-allocation strategies. Indeed, students would also appreciate being called by name for turns so that they do not feel anonymous to the teacher and, accordingly, have a sense of motivation to invest more in oral interaction.

A similar problem is teachers' endorsement of students' self-selection and initiation of turns. Such practice favours rather than does away with student reticence. Therefore, teachers find themselves in disagreeable situations where only more able students are contributing to classroom interaction. What is more, students' self-selection may end up in a chaotic overlapping talk, unless the teacher intervenes using another turn-allocation strategy, namely asking students to bid for turns (by putting up the hand). It follows, then, that teachers should be made aware of how to cope with such problematic situations as they should also be sensitized to put in some efforts to urge less able students to invest in interactional turns like their more able counterparts. This can be simply fulfilled through the use of multiple turn-allocation techniques, namely verbal nomination, such as using the student's selected name or address terms; nonverbal nomination, such as facial expressions and gestures; and even encouraging peers to allocate turns for those students who are unwilling to take part in communication. Hence, inviting the utmost number of students to invest in classroom interaction requires the use of varied turn-allocation techniques instead of employing a limited number of strategies over others.

Turn allocation will be used in this research study to refer to teachers' behaviour in distributing turns among students to organise and manage interaction in the classroom. It refers to the techniques through which teachers signal next speakers, namely students' names, gestures, such as gazes towards the student who is expected to take the turn, and pointing gestures with the finger or the chin. The current study, then, attempts to, firstly, explore turn-allocation behaviour of EFL teachers, and then to establish the potential effect of turn-allocation strategies on the quality and richness of classroom participation and learner involvement in oral interaction.

2. Background of the problem

The various studies that delved into the study of classroom turn-taking, be them language or main stream classes, revealed that classroom turn-taking activities follow nearly the same patterns, wherein the teacher is the supreme authority. Both studies conducted by McHoul (1978) and Ingram and Elliott (2014) agree on the fact that classroom conversations follow a conventional pattern. Actually, Ingram and Eliot asserted that this type of talk obeys to the rules figured out by McHoul, which indicate that classroom turn-taking is utterly controlled by the teacher, with the exception of learners' initiating to ask questions and to perform repairs.

Nevertheless, these researchers advanced dissimilar reasons that contribute to the shaping of classroom talk. According to McHoul (1978), classroom exchanges are primarily dominated by the teacher who has the total and the exclusive right to select any speaker s/he wants besides to having the prerogative to self-select at a transition relevance place (TRP)-the point in conversation where the turn is allocated to another speaker- even when a student is occupying the floor.

Ingram and Elliott (2014), on the other hand, thought that classroom discourse is moulded by the nature of the classroom itself. They explained that there is a significant difference between conversational and classroom turn-taking. Whereas speakers in natural conversation are in competition to take turns, classroom turn-taking bears some constraints, such as the teacher having more rights over the floor. Such constraints lead to longer pauses between and within turns. These pauses, unsurprisingly, are not estimated negatively as they are in natural conversation; rather, they give learners more time to reflect and expand on their answers and, thereby increase learners' interaction. Mehan (1979), in turn, corroborated the view that teachers, as a rule, control classroom discourse. He found that the teacher usually

initiates talk by asking a question, then, the student responds to the question, and ultimately the teacher provides feedback, a process that he called initiation-response-follow up sequence (IRF). Mehan additionally, highlighted three types of turn allocation, namely invitations to bid (asking students to raise hands to answer), invitations to reply (making an incomplete statement and waiting for students to complete it together) as well as individual nomination (calling students by their names/address terms). On the whole, these research studies demonstrated that teacher dominance of classroom discourse and absence of student initiation are common in most classrooms.

Further research studies relative to turn-allocation behaviour revealed the cover on new strategies. Dalacorte (1999, cited in Cipriani, 2001) conducted a study following an ethnographic and quantitative approach in an attempt to explore turn-taking strategies used in foreign language classrooms. Her findings demonstrated a number of turn-taking strategies. These strategies concerned not only teachers' turn-allocation behaviour but also learners' turn-taking behaviour. Among the strategies she identified are turns asked by the teacher or a learner to answer a question, learner self-initiated turns to answer questions, learner self-initiated turns pertaining to doubts and difficulties, self-initiated turns to evoke a topic or to add a comment, as well as turns requested for correction or participation.

In Kääntä's (2010) study, teacher turn allocation and repair practices in both EFL and biology and physics classes were investigated. The analysis showed that for the turn-allocation component, teachers employ embodied allocations through the use of semiotic resources, namely pointing gestures, gazes, and head nods. Verbal allocations, on the other hand, concerned teachers' use of verbal commands to students to elicit responses. Still, she came to the conclusion that teachers relied more on "gaze-related verbal turn allocations" (p.258); that is, a combination of verbal and nonverbal turn allocation.

On the basis of what has been discussed above, this current study will further explore turn-allocation strategies in one of the Algerian EFL contexts, more particularly at Mohammed Soddik Ben Yahia University-Jijel. Moreover, it will attempt to fill the gap in research by conducting further research to investigate the potential impact of turn-allocation behaviours on enriching classroom oral interaction.

3. Statement of the problem

It has been wrongly believed that teachers should generate most of classroom discourse and that they have the power to give turns to their learners whenever they think it is appropriate, in accordance to their motivations and needs for interaction. Added to that, it is neglected that teachers should use such entitlement of turn allocation to the advantage of classroom interaction, to prompt learners' participation in classroom talk.

Based on what has been stated in the section above, this research study will attempt to explore turn-allocation behaviour of higher education teachers in teaching Speaking to EFL learners. Moreover, the current investigation will endeavour to investigate the impact of teachers' turn-allocation behaviour on students' investment in oral interaction and potentially unveil the best interaction-provoking turn-allocation strategies. It seems that little attention has been given to how teachers would possibly vary their use of turn-allocation techniques to boost interaction in EFL classes and, from another side, to learners' interaction behaviour in response to these strategies. Thereby, the purpose of the study is to describe the extent to which teachers' distribution of turns among EFL learners influences their contribution to oral communication during Speaking classes.

4. Research questions

To probe into the problem, the following questions are posed:

- ❖ What are the turn-allocation strategies used by EFL Speaking teachers at university level to distribute turns and manage classroom interaction?
- ❖ Do the turn-allocation strategies used by EFL Speaking teachers at university level to distribute turns and manage classroom discourse enhance oral interaction?
- ❖ What are the most optimal turn-allocation strategies for enriching classroom interaction?

5. Hypothesis

The current research study is primarily based on the following research hypothesis:

Teachers' turn-allocation behaviour in Licence EFL Oral Expression classes affects learners' involvement in oral participation.

6. Significance of the study

Previous research on the topic predominantly indicated that teachers in classrooms are the absolute authority when it comes to allocating turns to students. Therefore, it is worth investigating whether such prerogative is exerted appropriately to generate rich classroom interaction. And if teachers are unaware that the manner in which they allocate turns to their students affects their contribution to classroom interaction, then this study can sensitise them to vary their turn-allocation strategies. Therefore, it is of merit to delve into the techniques to which Speaking teachers at university are clinging when distributing turns among their learners.

The study is also significant because it might unravel novel turn-allocation behaviours which teachers might be using intuitively to manage classroom communication and improve students' share in interaction.

Furthermore, and most importantly, this study will attempt to show the firm link between teacher turn-allocation behaviour and the kind of interaction being generated, that is, the extent to which certain turn-allocation techniques produce richer classroom interaction, and others inhibit its quantity and quality.

7. Research methodology and procedure

In order to grasp the topic under investigation and to answer the previously asked research questions, classroom observation will be used as the major research instrument to explore turn-allocation behaviours employed by EFL University teachers during Speaking sessions and equally measure their impact on the kind of interaction being generated. In order to do so, an observation scheme will be designed in a way that would allow the researcher to note down the turn-allocation strategies teachers conform to in managing classroom talk, and, equally, to record the amount of time they generate. The observation scheme is to be designed on the basis of prior informal observation of the target research setting and on the basis of readings in the field of expert literature relative to turn-allocation strategies.

Two further research instruments will be administered, namely a questionnaire and a follow-up interview. The questionnaires will be implemented to inquire about the major turn-allocation strategies used in target classes for managing interaction and about students' reactions to them in terms of involvement. The follow-up interview, on the other hand, will seek to find explanations for issues that might emerge from the close-ended questions in the questionnaires and from the observation scheme.

As far as the sample is concerned, the participants are to be chosen from Licence EFL Speaking classes, mainly from third-year classes at the University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. The study will attempt to focus primarily on third-year classes since they are deemed with more fluency and more willingness to get involved in interaction as compared to their first and second year counterparts.

8. Organisation of the study

The current thesis opens up with a general introduction that introduces the topic; then, two chapters will follow. The first chapter deals with two major theoretical sections. The first section will take a broader look at classroom interaction, and the second will consider turn-taking in natural conversation and narrow down the lens to scrutinize turn-allocation behaviours in language classes. The second chapter will be, in turn, divided into three main sections: The first section will be devoted to the presentation and defence of the methodology that is to be implemented to investigate the topic at hand; the second section, on the other hand, will present and analyse the data that are to be produced from the execution of the research design set up in the previous section, and the third and final section will attempt to interpret the major findings.

Finally, a general conclusion will sum up the major mile stones in the whole research process and briefly present the most significant outcomes of the study.

CHAPTER ONE

Chapter one: classroom interaction and teacher turn-allocation behaviour

Introduction

Given that the present research seeks to investigate the various turn-allocation strategies used by teachers and their potential effects on classroom interaction, the first chapter discusses three main issues: classroom interaction, turn-taking system, and teacher turn-allocation behaviour. It is divided into two sections. The first section is devoted to reviewing major concepts in classroom interaction regarding its centrality in the present study. It directs attention to some issues vis-à-vis interactive processes in the classroom context, including effectiveness of interaction in language growth, teacher talk, teacher's role, IRF sequence, and negotiated interaction.

The second section, on the other hand, is divided into two subsections. So long as turn-allocation is an indispensable part of the turn-taking system, it is worth first evoking the essential elements of the latter in the first subsection, including its components, how sequences are organised in turns, silence and overlaps, as well as repairs and backchannels. In the second subsection, a transition is made to the core topic of the present research: attention is mainly centred on the strategies to which teachers adhere to allocate turns to students, and so, manage participation in the classroom.

1.1. Classroom interaction

One of the distinctive traits of human beings is their ability to use language communicatively. The latter serves as a stepping stone to articulating thoughts, feelings, and exchanging information. Ergo interaction is a regular process that is undertaken between two parties or more for communicative purposes. It is described by Robinson (1994) as a reciprocal face-to-face action that can be depicted in a written or spoken mode, as well as in

nonverbal modes, such as facial expressions, eye contact, gesture, posture, and touch.

Likewise, Ellis and Fotos (1999) characterised interaction as both the interpersonal (communication with one or more people) and the intrapersonal (communication with the self) processes involved in face-to-face communication. These interactional processes are closely related when it comes to language use and acquisition on the ground that intrapersonal interaction is imperative for interpersonal interaction to occur, whereas, interpersonal interaction is significant in activating mental processes, say intrapersonal operations. Nonetheless, from the perspective of the present research, interaction is restricted to the classroom context, say classroom interaction. To be more precise, interaction is that communication developed from interactional dealings between teachers and their students as well as between students per se: teacher-student and student-student interaction.

1.1.1. The role of interaction in language growth

Interaction has been acknowledged prodigiously for its remarkable weightiness in fostering language development; not only does it supply learners with input, but also allows them to produce output. In actual fact, studies on interaction and second language acquisition were motivated by research vis-à-vis foreigner talk (FT) and how native speakers (NS) modify input for non-native speakers (NNS) in conversational exchanges. In this regard, Long (1981) attempted to lay emphasis on the adjustments made by NS to NNS in interaction as a way for increasing classroom give-and-take and maximising comprehensibility of input. He deduced that when communicating with NNS, NS essentially perform both linguistic and interactional adjustments and that the latter are, for the most part, facilitative to language learning (cited in Hall & Verplaetse, 2000).

In his updated interactionist hypothesis, Long (1966) pointed out that negotiation in interaction elicits negative feedback, such as recasts -repetition of utterances with alteration

in terms of their forms- which smooths the path for noticing language forms. Most importantly, negative feedback is supportive to the process of language acquisition (cited in Mackey, 1999). Saying it otherwise, Long extended his interactionist hypothesis to further encompass mental processes, which he formerly set aside: lending attention to linguistic forms has a tendency to activate mental processes.

The role of interaction in language learning was also craned to reach learners' output. The growing dissatisfaction with the eminence of input in language acquisition led the way for the advent of the output hypothesis. Swain (1995) hypothesised that input by itself is not sufficient for language growth, and that instead for output to be set aside, it should be recognised for its beneficial role in language acquisition. Indeed, Swain's output hypothesis underscored that learners' output during interaction yields conspicuous bearings on language acquisition.

Swain (1995) assigned learners' output three functions pertinent to accuracy, namely noticing, hypothesis testing, as well as reflection. Putting it differently, output has a noticing function in a sense that it raises learners' consciousness about gaps and problems in their current second language system and, further, activates cognitive processes. Also, it has a hypothesis testing function so long as it gives opportunities for learners to test their comprehension and to experiment with new language forms. Moreover, it has a metalinguistic function in that learners' reflection on their target language productions leads the way for analysing as well as internalising linguistic knowledge. Therefore, production of output serves not only as a practice for previously acquired knowledge, but also as a tool that assists learners to acquire knowledge.

By and large, classrooms -which are typically intended for pedagogical and educational ends- are characterised by a specific communication engendered from contact

between students and teachers, viz. classroom interaction (CI). Allwright and Baily (1991) maintained that in spite of the fact that the teacher has a claim to make executive decisions in class, such as the distribution of turns, selection of topics, and choice of the language to be used, CI is not managed solely by teachers. Rather, the process calls for learners' cooperation in order for interaction along with the lesson to be successful.

Similarly, Corder (1977) declared that courses are co-productions which emanate from the cooperative process between both learners and instructors. The role of learners in such process is equally significant when compared to that played by the teacher (cited in Slimani, 1992). By the same token, Hall and Walsh (2002) endorsed the view that interaction is not exclusively centred on teachers. It is during the course of interaction that teachers and students build a common body of knowledge wherein interaction serves as a tool that enables them to understand and negotiate their roles and relationships in the classroom (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Dippold, 2015). Hence, taking all these views together, it can be deduced that classroom interaction is a classroom communicative event that is jointly constructed by both the teacher and the learner.

As it was noted above, that classroom interactive processes evolve from both teacher and learner contribution, it is also of merit to add that such processes are fundamentally central in developing learners' speaking ability. In point of fact, learners learn from each other as well as from their teacher when engaged in negotiation of meaning.

Seliger (1977) indicated that language classrooms comprise two types of learners: high input generators (HIG) and low input generators (LIG). High input generators are voluntarily investing in interaction, taking interactional turns and seeking every opportunity to practice the language, to speak and make others speak. On the other hand, low input generators tend to have passive roles in interaction or they are keen to shirk participation at

all. He concluded that HIG have more opportunities to practise the target language (TL) and, thus, they have better prospects for language development. From this perspective, students are called not only to take part in interaction, but also to maximise their commitment in order to get more and more feedback directly related to their interlanguage, and, hence, to bridge the hiatus between their receptive knowledge and its active use in communication.

Generating input is not less important for learners than sociocultural interaction. In fact, the precept that language burgeons with sociocultural interaction further adds to the literature of interaction and language development. Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) provides a good instance of how language can be enhanced via receiving assistance from people during interaction (van Lier, 1996). Vygotsky (1978) explained ZPD as the gap between what the learner is able to perform autonomously, his/her current developmental level, and the potential developmental level that is to be attained via the very support received from both the adult and more able peers in a process of collaboration and problem solving (cited in van Lier, 1996). In other words, what an individual is currently unable to perform without others' assistance and regulation will be autonomously attained in the long run. The guidance received from the expert is labelled by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) as scaffolding. The latter is defined as the teacher's assistance to the novice in a way that would allow him/her to learn external knowledge and ultimately be able to accomplish learning tasks (cited in Huong, 2003).

The implication of the sociocultural theory in the classroom is, thereby, depicted in that learners are social beings who can learn when working in collaboration. In addition, the teacher and more able peers serve as experts who would endow the novice with the required scaffolding as to enable him/her to work within ZPD, before s/he in due course arrives at autonomy. To cut it short, language learning is promoted via social interaction and shared processes, in the vein of problem solving and discussion.

In addition to negotiation and sociocultural interaction, the notion of uptake has also been recognised for its decisive role in linguistic growth. Slimani (1992) defined uptake as what learners claim to have learnt from the interactive process. In point of fact, the notion per se has been evoked by Allwright (1984) who recommended that it should be studied and scrutinised (cited in Slimani, 1992).

In her attempt to investigate the relationship between interaction and uptake, Slimani (1992) resorted to learners' perceptions with reference to what they claimed to have learnt and recalled from classroom events depending on Uptake Charts and Uptake Identification Probes. The fruits of her research revealed that learners' uptake is both topicalised and idiosyncratic. That is, firstly, uptaken items that stemmed from interaction other than from what the teacher has previously pre-specified in the lesson plan soon became the topic of conversation in classroom discourse. Secondly, learners reacted autonomously to what took place in the interactive event, and this would make it quite palpable that the teacher's plan should not be used to gauge what has been uptaken from a lesson. Put it another way, learners benefit from what teachers present in the lesson plan; but, they further claim uptake from the interactive processes taking place in class.

In sum, there is a large consent about the fact that CI is co-constructed by learners' and teachers' cooperation. Also, interaction, as it was noted, is estimated with a tremendous impact on language development. Input comprehensibility in interaction, production of output, involvement in sociocultural interaction, and uptake claimed from classroom interactive processes are all notions which have been credited with gravity in language learning.

After reviewing major insights pertinent to classroom interaction and language growth, a transition is made to one of the fairly important aspects of classroom interaction, namely teacher talk.

1.1.2. Teacher talk

Teacher talk represents the kind of discourse employed by instructors to run the show in their teaching practices. Frey (1988) looked at teacher talk as that impromptu speech of teachers excluding any of the prearranged activities manifest in the textbook and introduced to learners. Yet again, Krashen (1981) explained the term as “the classroom language that accompanies exercises, the language of explanations in second language and in some foreign language classrooms, and the language of classroom management” (p.121). Putting it in other words, it is the language used by teachers to manage their classes and provide explanations for learners when dealing with the various classroom activities.

Whilst there are numerous sources for input in the classroom such as teaching materials, teacher talk is, in actual fact, the most generated classroom input that serves as succour for a better acquisition of language. It is characterised by simplicity given that teachers modify it for learners’ comprehension. This view is reinforced by both Omaggio (1986) and Krashen (1982). Omaggio, from her part, asserted that teachers’ talk is principally featured by a slow speech rate, the use of most frequent and basic vocabulary, paraphrases, paralinguistic forms, and restatements to assure learners’ comprehension (cited in Frey, 1988).

Krashen (1982), on the other hand, embraced the assumption that acquirers of a second language (L2) receive a roughly-tuned comprehensible input in the form (i+1), input that is a step beyond their level of proficiency. He thought of teacher talk as a kind of foreigner talk in the classroom. It is characterised by modifications; particularly at beginners’

level; made in terms of language forms and functions for the sake of comprehension as well as communication, rather than for language teaching. In this manner, teacher talk has a prior role in rendering discourse comprehensible as it is, moreover, essential in turning input into intake. It would be, then, rational to delineate some of the prevailing aspects of teacher talk, namely paraphrasing and repetition, corrective feedback, as well as questioning for the reason that they constitute parts of teachers' behaviour in allocating turns.

1.1.2.1. Paraphrasing and repetition

Teachers' discursive features as paraphrasing and repetition of utterances have been widely acclaimed for the impact they have on language learning. As a matter of fact, they have been recommended in many studies such as Frey's (1988), Simich-Dudgeon et al.'s (1989), and Verplaetse's (2000), all of which agree on a consensus that paraphrasing is, for the most part, helpful rather than harmful to learners. Frey speculated that paraphrasing is remarkably effective when it comes to practicing grammar forms. In addition to practising how to say something differently, paraphrasing also prepares the way for practising what is restated semantically speaking. Moreover, Simich-Dudgeon et al. denoted that when teachers paraphrase students' responses, they are actually providing a good opportunity for them to co-construct their contributions with their instructor as well as their classmates.

Additionally, Verplaetse (2000) concluded that in reaction to students' incomplete responses, teachers essentially provided acceptance acts, such as repetitions, back-channels, as well as paraphrasing. Teachers' paraphrase was considered to have a positive impact on students. This can be explained by the fact that the student who makes a contribution is more likely to extend his/her ideas, for s/he is not evaluated for the response value. Besides, whenever the teacher echoes students' incomplete responses in a proper and more academic manner, peers will have a clearer picture of what the student was actually saying and, hence,

they will themselves have the possibility to expand on that response. What can be retained from this is that teachers' paraphrasing allows a student for whom a turn is allocated to extend their turns in interaction and further encourages other learners to take turns and this will indubitably prompt richer classroom discourse.

In addition to paraphrasing, repetition is another aspect of teacher talk. Focusing on repetition, Duff (2000) claimed that the latter is efficient in validating learners' contributions. In addition, it is a means for speakers to build on the topic in the conversation. More to the point, through repetitions made by both teachers and students, learners would presumably lend attention to both conceptual and linguistic items and so process utterances both lexically and syntactically.

Another indispensable aspect of teacher talk to be discussed next is teachers' corrective feedback.

1.1.2.2. Corrective feedback

With each contribution and performance of learners in the classroom, the teacher is vigilant to the kinds of responses provided. Foreign and second language learners (FLL) and (SLL) are prone to err when producing target language utterances and their errors are, as a rule, inspected by their teachers. Simply, the instructors' behaviour in evaluating learners' output and providing feedback is a sheer ritual in the classroom. Such behaviour is by and large referred to as corrective feedback (CF). Ellis (2009) defined CF as how teachers respond to the erroneous linguistic forms produced by learners.

Corrective feedback is one of the foremost aspects of teacher talk from which learners benefit to mature communicatively speaking. Being acquainted with their errors, learners will shirk the recurrence of erroneous productions in future interactional transactions and warrant

a sound and accurate internalisation of the target language. Thus, teachers take the responsibility of tackling their students' errors. In doing so, teachers draw on a variety of strategies. By way of example, Tsui (1995) asserted that teachers undergo a decision making process as whether to correct learners' errors themselves, to steer the student who erred to self-correct, or to invite other students to correct them. She added that in case teachers opted for correcting ill-formed utterances themselves, then repetition of the student's response with correction will simply draw a picture for the learner to notice the correct form. This is a good example of direct or explicit corrective feedback. Furthermore, teachers can guide learners to self-correct by pointing out to their errors either explicitly by, for example, repeating the response with a rising intonation in the location of the error, or implicitly by asking the student to repeat a certain word or sentence.

As an attempt to scrutinise types of corrective feedback in primary level, Lyster and Ranta (1997) ultimately unveiled the cover on six types. The latter were categorised into two chief categories, namely reformulations and prompts. The reformulation category includes recasts and explicit correction, whilst the prompts' category encompasses clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, elicitation, as well as repetition. Recasts were further regarded as reformulations by Ellis, et al. (2002): they involve complete or partial reformulations of the student's response. He believed that they are the most well-known form of implicit feedback. Still, Ellis, et al. deplored the constant corrective function of recasts as it is not at all times evident and recognisable. Thereby, he suggested that CF should be less implicit. All in all, most researchers concurred in the view that types of CF can be either explicit or implicit. Nonetheless, as Tsui (1995) declared, the answer to the question of what kinds of error treatment are more efficient than others remains unanswered.

It can be inferred from the above assumptions that allowing peers to correct one's errors, self-correction, recasts, reformulations, clarification requests, repetition and

metalinguistic clues are instances where the learner's contribution is not halted and disrupted by the teacher; rather, learners are encouraged to carry on speaking when turns are allocated to them in an indirect manner. That is, instead of providing direct correction to learners' errors, the teacher can implicitly provoke them to speak and this behaviour is utterly supportive for enriching classroom interaction. The next discussion of teachers' questioning behaviour will also demonstrate how types of questions affect the amount of interaction elicited from learners.

1.1.2.3. Questioning

A further pervasive feature of teachers' talk is their questioning behaviour. Chaudron (1988) asserted that an assortment of studies probing into teachers' questioning behaviour demonstrated that questions amount to twenty to forty per cent of classroom talk (as cited in Tsui, 1995). Therefore, it is a fairly indispensable attribute of teacher talk; whether questions are intended to elicit factual information and measure students' comprehension or to involve students in oral participation, their invaluable role in instruction remains unquestionable. Indeed, types of questions posed by the teacher received considerable interest by researchers most of which called attention to display and referential questions as well as open and closed questions.

1.1.2.3.1. Display versus referential questions

The notions of display and referential questions were evoked by Long and Sato (1983, cited in Wu, 1993). On the one hand, display questions are those questions for which the teacher forecasts a particular answer and which are chiefly intended to display knowledge that is learnt beforehand. Referential questions, on the other hand, are those questions for which the teacher does not know the answer. When compared to real life discourse, Long and Sato concluded that questions asked by ESL teachers as part of classroom discourse are

disparate, since most teachers largely lean towards asking display more than referential questions. When compared to NS, NNS were even found to ask more display questions when engaging in informal conversations with NNS.

It is also believed that display and referential questions generate different types of discourse. In an effort to scrutinise the impact of referential questions on classroom discourse, Brock (1986) came across conclusions which basically favoured referential questions to display questions. The essence of Brock's findings was that learners' responses following referential questions were longer and syntactically more complex when compared to responses following display questions, in the sense that more clarification requests and confirmation checks followed referential questions, and learners were more likely to use connectives in their speech. Moreover, it was found that teachers trained in the formation of referential questions had an increased tendency to use referential questions than teachers who received no training.

Tsui (1995) herself corroborated the view that referential questions elicit richer output and communication than display questions. She reckoned that display questions stimulate interactions, which are characteristic of classroom discourse, whereas referential questions prompt interactions which are "typical of social communication" (p. 28). Nunan (1988), likewise, seemed to favour referential questions to display questions so long as they promote genuine classroom interaction (cited in Seedhouse, 1996).

Contrariwise, the study conducted by Wu (1993) had different results with regards to the interaction generated by display and referential questions. Unlike Brock's (1986) findings, Wu found that referential questions are even less effective than display questions in eliciting learners' responses, and that they do not bring about longer and more complex responses. Rather, they are restrictive to learners' interactional turns. Besides, contrary to

what is mostly agreed upon in the literature, teachers do not rely more on display questions at the expense of referential questions and that there are times when none of them elicited a response at all. The reason behind that lies in students' reluctance to take part in participation or their fear of negative evaluation from the teacher's part. Instead, she suggested that such questioning strategy as probing and asking further questions would extend learners' turns.

On the basis of this overview of display and referential questions, one can recognise that they are part of teachers' turn-allocation behaviour. Above all, given that referential questions are principally used for the purpose of varying learners' responses -rather than restricting them- and open the door to opportunities to express themselves overtly, they have a tendency to trigger more interaction than display questions.

The next step will be an account of two other types of teacher questions, namely open and closed questions, which in turn have an effect on classroom discourse.

1.1.2.3.2. Open versus closed questions

Other types of questions asked by teachers are open and closed questions. Barnes (1969, cited in Tsui, 1995) referred to the question for which a limited number of answers are anticipated as a closed question and considered the question having a variety of acceptable answers as an open question. Accordingly, closed questions tend to have a confining nature in comparison with open questions, since they are primarily factual questions. Open questions, however, are reasoning questions.

According to Dulton-puffer (2006), closed questions are easier for learners to understand as well as to answer, whereas open questions are more demanding on the learner when it comes to encoding their linguistic skills. Her research sought to toss light on how teachers' questions would promote speaking in Content and Language Integrated Learning

(CLIL) classrooms. Her study underscored that open questions compared to factual, closed questions, encourage learners to enhance their speaking skills and urge them more to invest in interaction; besides, responses they supplied to open questions requiring information such as description, reasons, opinions, and explanation were more complex both linguistically and cognitively.

The perception that open questions yield more complex replies in terms of language and cognitive level was corroborated by Lee and Kinzie (2012), who investigated open and closed questions with regards to learners' cognitive levels and language use in science activities. The findings unveiled that open questions were used mostly in prediction and reasoning and they implied a higher level of cognition than closed questions. The latter, instead, have the function of recognition and recall of facts. So far as language use is concerned, it was found that open questions called for complex language use with variation in terms of lexis and complex language structures. The reverse is true for closed questions; answers were short and simple both in terms of lexis and structure.

Away from second language learning, Allerton (1993) conducted a study in the scope of first language acquisition. It examined closed and open-ended questioning behaviour of the teacher and their potential effect on interaction. She concluded that interaction following closed questions is chiefly lead by the teacher. Open interaction, nonetheless, permits the child to be more autonomous in responses: to hypothesise, to project, to reflect, and to question. Therefore, it paves the way for children's divergent thinking. Above all, she found that open questions make it possible for the teacher to have a good perception of children's thoughts.

Wasik et al. (2006) also validated the view that teachers' open-questioning fuels children's motivation to express themselves when taking part in conversation. Head start

teachers were trained to use conversational strategies during story book reading, among which are open ended questions. They were trained to maximise learning opportunities for young children to mature in terms of language and vocabulary. The findings proved that children in the intervention classrooms were communicating their ideas more freely and even expanding on them when engaged in interaction. At the end of the year, they outperformed the control classrooms in language tests. On the whole, open questions, as an element of teachers' turn-allocation behaviour, are predominantly deemed with superiority to closed questions in view of the fact that they are less restrictive to learners' oral productions and they tend to elicit more output from learners.

In short, teachers' questioning behaviour can be portrayed in their attempts to elicit information and to display previously learnt knowledge, or to boost learners' participation. The former function is achieved via display and closed questions, while the latter is attained by the use of referential and open ended questions. Evidently, teachers hold an assortment of responsibilities in the classroom; therefore, it is of merit to shift to an account of some of the roles teachers play in the language classroom.

1.1.3. Teacher's role in classroom interaction

It is an earnest necessity that the learning process be managed competently so that learning is ensued. To this end, teachers come into play to warrant a good learning environment for learners and to take an assortment of roles and responsibilities. The role of the teacher exceeds being a deliverer of knowledge, what most traditional approaches to language teaching have stressed extensively. The teacher can perform a variety of roles that can further maximise learning opportunities.

According to Voller (1997), the teachers' role when it comes to promoting learners' autonomy is providing guidance, being a facilitator, an organiser, and a resource person,

rather than solely being an imparter of knowledge (cited in Malcolm & Rindfleisch, 2003). This view is also shared by Marco (2002) who thought that the teacher's role goes beyond delivering knowledge to reach providing resources, guiding and supporting learners throughout the learning process, and assisting learners to develop learning strategies.

Over the years, the role of the teacher in the classroom has been described differently. In past years, the main role of the teacher was that of a whole time director of all activities. Nowadays, teachers are invited to adapt a more flexible organisation of the classroom (Stern, 1983). Kumaravadivelu (2002) almost deplored the metaphors used to describe the role of the teacher. Metaphors, such as being a manager, mentor, controller, counsellor, and many others give a partial rather than a full depiction of the teacher's role.

From a historical perspective, Kumaravadivelu (2002) assigned teachers the roles of: "(a) passive technicians, (b) teachers as reflective practitioners, and (c) teachers as transformative intellectuals" (p. 8). He demonstrated that so far as the traditional view to education is concerned, teachers' role is constrained to that of passive technicians. Their utmost role is to understand first and then to put into operation the prescribed body of professional knowledge laid down by professional experts. Content will then be imparted to learners without alterations from the teachers' part. Inversely, the role of teachers as reflective practitioners, "originally proposed by educational philosopher John Dewey" (p. 10), opens the sphere for them to reflect as well as to add their touch of creativity to their teaching practices based on the contexts and situations in which they find themselves.

On the other hand, teachers' role as transformative intellectuals extends their role afar the confines of the classroom. Apart from their quest for educational advancement, they are on the lookout for personal transformation. That is, teachers tend to create and implement the content to be imparted to learners in accordance with teaching contexts and situations,

and in a way that goes in harmony with learners' needs. Additionally, their role extends to that of transforming learners socially speaking.

To say it in brief words, whatever roles held by teachers in the classroom: being a manager, organiser, imparter of knowledge they are significant in managing the learning process and they are utterly supportive for learning to ensue.

1.1.4. IRF pattern of classroom interaction

Regardless of how student-centred classrooms may supposedly be, the traditional pattern of classroom interaction initiation-response-feedback (IRF) has continued to be pervasive and prevailing in classroom discourse. Undoubtedly, it has an overwhelming prominence in classroom interaction. IRF was counted as the default pattern of classroom interaction by many researchers, such as van Lier (1996) and Cazden (2001). Van Lier assumed that nothing can represent classroom discourse as IRF exchange. This was echoed by Cazden when affirming that the essence of classroom discourse and what constitutes its nature is the initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) pattern -another label to IRF with particular emphasis on its evaluative function- and that it is the unmarked pattern of classroom discourse.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) assumed that teachers and their students get engaged in a triple exchange communication IRF where the teacher initiates discourse, learners act to it, and eventually the teacher provides feedback to the student's response (cited in Jaroszek, 2008). As van Lier (1996) noted, IRF usually starts with a general unspecific elicitation or a specific personal elicitation. That is, the teacher will either select a student to speak or open the sphere for anyone who can volunteer. The student, next, provides a response that will have the function of repetition, recitation, cognition, or expression. Thus, IRF has either a display or participation orientation. The teacher, following the learner's response, "supplies

feedback (F), and the sequence continues” (Kumaravadivelu, 2002, p. 116). The following exchange provides a good example of IRF pattern:

- 1 A How many people are talking Elly? ... How many people?
- 2 B Tow people.
- 3 A Yes, that’s right, two people. And what are these two people talking about, Marcia.
- 4 C ((unintelligible)) people ask the way.
- 5 A Uhuh.

(van Lier, 1996, p. 148)

The sequence of IRF was met with large tribute. On average, IRF is recognised with a significant role in classroom interaction. It is significant in a sense that it endows learners, particularly beginners, with scaffolds stimulating them to take part in limited participation in the target language (Boyd & Maloof, 2000). Plus, it is useful for the teacher to test out students’ familiarity with a certain linguistic item as it can additionally provoke learners’ thinking, reasoning, and building connections (Candlin & Mercer, 2001).

Nevertheless, interaction stemmed from IRF pattern is restricted in nature. Van Lier (1996) made it quite evident that despite its effectiveness to maintain order in the classroom and organise participation, IRF pattern still hinders students’ contributions vis-à-vis creative thinking and conversational skills; learners scarcely initiate turns, negotiate, or stir up arguments. Besides, in the view of Candlin and Mercer (2001), IRF denies learners’ initiation and repair work, since the teacher occupies all the initiatives and closings and learners solely perform in the response move.

IRF was, further, rejected by the communicative orthodoxy which postulated that it is not representative of genuine communication. Nonetheless, Seedhouse (1996) opposed such

opposing attitude of communicative theorists. He claimed that since IRF cycle is present beyond the confines of the classroom, more precisely in parent-child communication, and because in either case IRF is meant to achieve the goal of learning and education, communicative theorists should promote rather than do away with this invasive pattern of classroom discourse.

In a nutshell, IRF pattern of classroom interaction serves well classroom discourse in a traditional teacher-fronted classroom, albeit it is deemed of less significance in a student-centred classroom. This can be attributed to the fact that learner centeredness implies less control over classroom discourse on the part of teachers. Plus, interaction is mostly contingent on a process of negotiation. Hence, teachers' turn-allocation behaviour should not be confined to IRF sequence so long as it hampers classroom discourse.

1.1.5. Negotiated classroom interaction

One way for learners to develop awareness about the TL is to be engaged in a process of negotiation of meaning with their teacher and their peers. Learners in this process will be actively involved in classroom discourse and they will have the opportunity to hear and to be heard. Negotiated interaction, as expressed by Kumaravadivelu (1994), refers to meaningful student-student and teacher-student communication. It entails that learners invest in classroom discourse via taking turns, reacting, requesting, performing repairs, and even initiating talk. The process, furthermore, implies the use of modification devices, such as clarification, confirmation, and comprehension checks. Indeed, when language modifications are involved for meaning sharing, negotiation has a social orientation and this is what Breen and Littlejohn (2000) referred to as interactive negotiation. They also marked involving mental processes to share or understand meaning as personal negotiation. Breen and Littlejohn, also, added procedural negotiation to refer to reaching agreements on decisions

and solving problems via negotiation. In spite of the form negotiation can take, it is pivotal for spurring communication in the TL.

Most researchers and scholars consented that negotiated interaction is critical in language learning. As it was previously mentioned, Long's interaction hypothesis claimed that negotiated interaction permits input comprehensibility, and thus, it is facilitative to language development. This view was additionally corroborated by Mackey (1999). So far as vocabulary comprehension is concerned, both Loschky (1994) and Ellis (1994) demonstrated that negotiated interaction is advantageous for a better comprehension of vocabulary items. Nonetheless, Ellis's conclusion turned counter to Loschky's findings –who revealed that negotiated interaction serves vocabulary acquisition or grammar forms in no way- in that modification of input in interaction also supports the acquisition of vocabulary (cited in Mackey, 1999).

Selinker and Gass (2008) added to negotiated interaction supporters by asserting that learning is promoted by negotiated interaction. It takes place in situations where a learner is assisted by a partner to express meaning, and where assistance is provided via conversational features as confirmation checks and clarification requests. Added to that, they thought that negotiated interaction develops metalinguistic awareness, a key aspect of language learning.

The teacher plays an essential role in rendering the classroom a convivial place for negotiated interaction to arise. Kumaravadivelu (1994) suggested that teachers can attain this end via designing group activities, giving learners the chance to opt for topics they would like to evoke, and asking more referential questions to obtain open-ended responses. Thereby, learners are more autonomous to initiate talk rather than merely to respond. More to the point, introducing grammar consciousness-raising tasks (Fotos, 1994) and encouraging creative project work (Ribé, 2000) further promotes L2 negotiated interaction.

In brief, negotiation is kernel in classroom interaction. In fact, it opens the door to opportunities where learners are freer to express themselves openly, to take turns, as well as to understand and convey meaning. The art of negotiation, indeed, makes it possible for the teacher and students to have good relationships in a more or less social environment contingent on problem solving and meaning making. Therefore, sustaining negotiation in the classroom would turn the classroom into a place where a lot of learning comes about.

In summary, the first section of this chapter was committed to the delineation of some key aspects of classroom interaction. It started first with a general definition of interaction and gave a clear hint about how the term is considered from the perspective of the current research. Then, it looked at various studies vis-à-vis classroom interaction and language growth and how they perceived input comprehensibility, production of output, sociocultural interaction, and uptake as decisive aspects of classroom discourse that can pave the way for developing language skills.

This section further took a closer look at teacher talk, more particularly, at teachers' paraphrasing and repetition, corrective feedback, as well as their questioning behaviour. Furthermore, it made an account of teachers' roles in classroom interaction as it also sought to toss light on one of the most pervasive patterns of classroom interaction, IRF. Last but not least, it took a view at the importance of negotiated interaction in classroom interaction. All in all, reviewing these aspects of CI made it clear that while some of them should be taken as part of teacher turn-allocation behaviour, there are aspects that should be discarded.

The section to follow consists of two subsections: the first subsection has to do with turn-taking as it appears in natural conversation and the second subsection is devoted to elaborate on teacher turn-allocation behaviour in classroom interaction.

1.2. Turn-taking and teacher turn-allocation behaviour

In order for talk to be communicative, participants in interaction ought to conform to the norms of conversation, they are to take turns. Even afar from natural settings in the classroom context, turn-taking is not a haphazard yet a systematic system managed by teachers to ensure a smooth communication between members of the classroom. Within this perspective, the present section, firstly, starts by turn-taking essentials in casual conversation and, then, moves to teacher turn-allocation behaviour in the classroom context.

1.2.1. Turn-taking

Given the centrality of turn-taking in the present research, the first subsection of this section is devoted to unfolding its key ingredients so that a clear picture of it may come to light.

1.2.1.1. Background to turn taking

Turn-taking emerged as a basic system through which natural conversation is structured in the 60's 70's within conversation analysis (CA) framework. The foundation of CA is largely attributed to the sociologist Harvey Sacks. Inspecting a corpus of recorded telephone calls to the Los Angeles Suicide Prevention Centre, Sacks laid the first stone to some of the prime recurrent aspects of everyday conversation, among which is the organisation of turns in conversation. In collaboration with his associates Schegloff and Jefferson, he proposed a model for how turns are organised within conversation, on the basis of naturally occurring data transcripts, presented in their paper in 1974.

Sacks et al.'s (1974) model, as stated by Selting (1996), proposed a solution to how turn-taking can be as smooth as possible with minimal gaps and overlaps. Their seminal work became a spotlight for a range of empirical researches and it was even craned to reach formal

talk in classroom settings (see McHoul 1978). This is not to say that turn-taking was not evoked prior to Sacks et al.'s Framework. In fact, turn-taking in conversation has been documented in earlier studies, such as that of Goffman (1955) and Duncan (1972); however, the systematics of the organisation of turn-taking in conversation was not accessible (cited in Sacks et al., 1974). Hence, Sacks et al.'s proposal of systematics for turn-taking organisation, that would presumably result in smooth communication and less gaps and overlap, reaped acclaim and acceptance in a grand manner more than other models to turn-taking.

1.2.1.2. Definition of turn-taking

Turn-taking is one of the most elemental aspects of conversation and one that forms its orderliness. Taking turns entails that speakers within conversation do not speak simultaneously; rather, each will speak exclusively in his/her turns. Stenstrom (2014) defined the turn as anything, either short or long, said by the current speaker before the next speaker dominates the floor. When taking a turn, a speaker is actually occupying the floor. The floor was described by Yule (1996) as the prerogative to talk in conversation, whereas turn-taking is any time when the turn is not yet controlled and the participants within the conversation still compete to get hold of it. Turn-taking for Sacks et al. (1974) is systematized in conversation in such a way that speakers speak one by one -each speaks at a time- with smooth transition maintenance between turns. Plus, neither the length, nor the order of turns is predetermined. Yule (1996) explained that any potential transition in turns at talk is called transition relevance place (TRP). In a few words, turn-taking is the process by which parties taking part in a conversation exchange turns recognised at a given TRP and, therefore, each speaks singly.

After this short definition of turn-taking, our focus, next, will be directed to its key components.

1.2.1.3. Turn-taking components

Sacks et al.'s (1974) seminal work presented two components on which turn-taking system in conversation is contingent, namely turn-constructive component and turn-allocation component. But what do they stand for?

1.2.1.3.1. The turn-constructive component

According to Sacks et al. (1974), a turn is, as a rule, constructed of turn-constructive units (TCUs) which can be of various syntactic forms: sentential, clausal, phrasal, and lexical. Once a turn constructive unit is uttered –taking the form of a sentence, a clause, or a phrase- The speaker has the claim to sustain it before it draws to an end (the turn can be composed of only one turn constructive unit or more). Sacks et al. noted that an utterance can be projected by means of its type, such as a clause. By the same token, participants recognise its completion when, for example, a final clause is uttered. The authors further mentioned that intonation also plays a part in the recognition of turn completion, and yet, without providing minute details about it. Once turn constructive unit(s) is/are completed, the turn comes to a transition relevance place wherein it is allocated to a next speaker. In short, turns are made up of TCUs initiated by a speaker and which will finally arrive at a TRP, whereby another speaker produces another TCU or TCUs. A transition relevance place is projected by other speakers via, for instance, the syntactic form used and intonation. But what happens once a TRP is reached?

1.2.1.3.2. Turn allocation component

The second component stressed for turn-taking system in Sacks et al.'s (1974) model is the turn-allocation component. It is worth reminding at this point that turn-allocation in natural conversation is not of concern to the present study; rather, our focal point is teacher

turn-allocation behaviour in the classroom, which will be evoked in the second subsection of the present section. Turn-allocation component in everyday talk appertain to those techniques by which the current speaker selects a next speaker and those by which a turn is allocated by virtue of self-selection at a given TRP. If no speaker is selected and no other party self-selects, then the current speaker keeps on speaking till the next TRP, and the process recurs.

What is following is a brief account of some central elements prevalent in turn-taking organisation in conversation: adjacency pairs, pre-sequences, and preference structure.

1.2.1.4. Sequence organisation in turn-taking

Sequence organisation is especially connected with how actions are organised in conversation. To Schegloff (2007), it is marked out in the enactment of actions by way of turns at talk, more particularly through sequences, which are, for the most part, orderly, coherent, and meaningful. Before moving any further, the term “sequence” must be clarified. A sequence, by definition, is an organised chain of turns which acts as a means for participants’ accomplishment and coordination of interactional activities (Mazeland, 2006). Among the pervasive elements in sequence organisation are adjacency pairs, preference structure, as well as pre-sequences.

1.2.1.4.1. Adjacency pairs

Among the regular and basic conversational sequences in interaction are adjacency pairs. They entail that there are turns having certain follow-up turns associated with them. They are automatic sequences (Yule, 1996), which are composed of two turns: first pair part (FPP) and second pair part (SPP) produced one after another by different speakers (Schegloff, 2007). They are, indeed, inherent structural units in conversation, which operate for both opening up and closing talk: greeting and degreeting (Coulthard, 1977). Schegloff made a point that once a FPP is enacted, the speaker who produced it lays aside the floor for the next

speaker who is already selected by the FPP, and who should ergo produce a SPP.

Correspondingly, a greeting is followed by a greeting in return, a question by an answer, and an offer by acceptance or denial. Liddicoat (2007) presented the following examples of adjacency pairs:

(1) question-answer

John: What time's it?

Betty: Three uh clock.

(2) greeting-greeting

Amy: Hello.

Jean: Hi.

(p. 107)

What can be concluded from the above examples is that each FPP is followed by a SPP. Plus, the second turn, SPP, apparently completes an action that first started in the first turn, FPP.

Nevertheless, it is not consistently the case that a FPP is pursued instantly by a SPP. In reality, the SPP can be delayed after a FPP. By way of explanation, another question-answer pair can intervene between two adjacency pairs, which is labelled "an insertion sequence". It is, thereupon, to be followed by the SPP (Yule, 1996). An insertion sequence is illustrated in the following example:

Jean: Could you mail this letter for me? (Q1= Request)

Fred: Does it have a stamp on it? (Q2)

Jean: Yeah. (A2)

Fred: Okay. (A1= Acceptance)

(p. 78)

In the above example, the insertion sequence is depicted in (Q2) and (A2). Before answering the question posed by Jean, which is the FPP, Fred first asks another question. Once Fred's question is answered, the SPP is introduced, the answer to the first question asked by Jean.

It is also possible that a sequence precedes a FPP, and it can play the role of a precursor to a particular action. This type of sequence is named a pre-sequence, to be discussed next.

1.2.1.4.2. Pre-sequences

Pre-sequences or pre-expansions, as they are also known, are curtain-raisers to a kind of action to take place. As a rule, they are inserted prior to a first pair part. Pre-sequences are of two types: type-specific and generic pre-sequences (Liddicoat 2007; Schegloff 2007). As reported by Schegloff, a type-specific pre-sequence is one that functions as a prelude to a base sequence, i.e. a base adjacency pair with its two pairs: first pair part and second pair part. This will include pre-invitations, pre-offers, pre-requests, and pre-announcements. A pre-invitation, as a way of example, has two functions. First, it makes it possible for one to project that a base first pair part (an invitation) is to follow. Second, it prepares the way for the production of a second pair part, a response to the pre-invitation. Then, the production of an invitation, a base FPP, and a response to it, a base SPP, hinges upon the very response to the pre-invitation, SPP.

The second type of pre-sequences is called the generic pre-sequence or, the summons-answer pre-sequence. This type of pre-sequences is employed to commence any kind of talk. Generic pre-sequences are, by and large, used as attention getters. It is the case when one desires to draw another's attention by saying "hey!" or, "excuse me!". As stated in Schegloff (2007), once the summons is produced, the summoned –the one for whom a summons is directed- demonstrates his/her attention by, for instance, saying "what" or "yeah". Otherwise,

directing gaze towards the summoner would indicate that the summoned is available as a recipient. Not the less, the summoned may not answer immediately to a summons. One way for the summoner to interpret such silence is by presuming a problem of hearing. Thus, the summoner will most probably repeat the summons till an answer is obtained. The answer to the summons can even aim to block conversation temporarily or largely, such as saying “I’m busy”, “leave me alone”, or “be right there”. All in all, pre-sequences, type-specific or generic, are tools for conversation management which typically announce that some sort of action is to follow.

Next, an attempt is made to toss light on how participants in interaction show their preference to some sorts of actions over others.

1.2.1.4.3. Preference structure

It has been previously noted that one of the basic structural units of conversational sequences are adjacency pairs. Among the structures constituting adjacency pairs is preference structure, which has to do with participants’ expectation of certain actions, or utterances, following their utterances at the expense of others. Yule (1996), accordingly, defined preference structure as “a pattern in which one type of utterance will be more typically found in response to another in a conversational sequence, e.g. an acceptance will more typically follow an invitation than a refusal” (p. 133) . That is, a speaker who produces a FPP foreshadows a particular answer in the recipient’s SPP. To elaborate, Yule explained that SPPs have been divided into preferred and dispreferred social acts. As in the example he gave in the quotation above, acceptance is the preferred action whilst refusal is the dispreferred one. This is not to say that such preference is related to personal desires and wishes, and yet, to a socially determined structural pattern that is recurring in everyday talk.

Liddicoat (2007) demonstrated that among the characteristics of preferred acts is that they are done quickly and instantly after a FPP has been produced. However, dispreferred actions are produced with extra time and extra language such as: well, uh, uhm. This is due to the fact that the speaker is anticipating something, a preferred action, while the recipient produces something else, a dispreferred action. In order for the relationship between the speaker and the recipient not to be threatened, a sort of mitigation is needed. A further example of a preferred action is an agreement, while a dispreferred action in this case is disagreement.

To put it in a nutshell, from a social perspective, speakers in a conversation forecast certain actions, preferred actions, in response to their utterances, and it is in the recipient's hands to provide these preferred actions in SPPs, or otherwise to answer with dispreferred actions but with mitigation.

Now, attention is directed to a glimpse of some elements participants in conversation usually encounter when exchanging turns: silence and overlaps.

1.2.1.5. Silence and overlaps

Inevitably, speakers run across silences in everyday conversation as well as situations where they speak simultaneously. As far as silences in conversation are concerned, Sacks et al. (1974) made a distinction between three types, namely, gaps, pauses, and lapses. The three types are significantly disparate so long as they differ in terms of length and their position in the conversation. While gaps are silences taking place at a given TRP between turns, pauses are those silences taking place in the course of a turn. Lapses, on the other hand, are even longer than both gaps and pauses; they are extended silences taking place between turns and may terminate in discontinuous talk. One way for a lapse to be avoided is that the current

speaker can self-select once a TCU has ended, thereby initiating another TCU; the gap will be, in this manner, turned into a pause.

Overlaps, from another side, are cases where more than one speaker talks at a time in a conversation, their talk overlaps. Jefferson (1984) proposed three types of overlap. First, transitional overlaps occur as a result of a recipient starting to talk at a given turn completion, TRP, while the current speaker pursues the talk. Second, terminal or recognitional overlap pertains to the situation when a next speaker makes an attempt to hold the floor at the final sound of the last word of an utterance that is possibly completed. Third, it happens when terminal overlap, which is regarded as minimal, is widened when the new utterance of the recipient overlaps with further talk of the current speaker, and this is known as progressional overlap. It can be deduced, then, that the current speaker's persistence on dominating the floor in both terminal and progressional overlaps is apparent.

Nonetheless, Schegloff (2000) asserted that there are forms of simultaneous talk not counting as problematic or competitive in conversation. These turns encompass choral talk, in view of the fact that speakers speak together on consensus and agreement. Further, it happens that the current speaker wants the recipient to remind them, for example, of a word they might have forgotten, and if ever their talk overlaps during that process, it is still unproblematic. Furthermore, he talked about continuers (such as uh-huh) which are, as a whole, used by recipients to display their understanding that the current speaker is producing a long turn and that these recipients are attending to them (these continuers are also called backchannels, which will be discussed in the next headline).

1.2.1.6. Repairs and backchannels

Participants in conversation handle breakdowns via repairs and show their attention to current speakers when being recipients via backchannels. Indeed, silence and overlap, as

indicated above, can be problematic in conversation, and yet, they can be mended via repairs. Repairs, generally speaking, are actions taken to handle and mend breakdowns in conversation or as Sidnell (2007) wrote, to address and solve problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding.

Sacks et al. (1974) declared that there are repair mechanisms to tackle problems and violations in the turn-taking system. As for repair of overlaps, all the overlapping utterances will be excluded apart from one utterance (Power & Dal Martello, 1986), and one way to resolve such overlap is that an overlapping utterance can be repeated another time from the start to make it clearer (Schegloff, 2000). For the repair of long silences in the conversation, say lapses, Sacks and his colleagues underlined self-selection of a speaker at a TRP so that a gap is turned into a pause rather than a lapse. Still, as already mentioned, repairs can also be performed in reaction to problems of hearing, speaking, or understanding.

Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) discriminated between self-initiated repairs and other-initiated repairs. Whereas the former are initiated by the speaker whom they called the trouble source, the latter are initiated only when another person prompts a speaker to perform a repair. In so doing, they depend on a number of devices to initiate repairs, such as: huh, what?. Accordingly, they talked about self-repair, which is performed by the participant behind the breakdown, and “other-repair”, which is performed by another participant, and which primarily assists the participant with the trouble source to locate the trouble in their utterances. In a few words, repair mechanisms are used to fix breakdowns in the conversation, such as resolving problems of silence and overlaps as well as tackling those pertinent to understanding, hearing, and speaking.

While repairs can be used to show misunderstanding between participants, backchannels, contrariwise, are used to mark their understanding as well as their attention to

a current speaker. Backchannels make it clear that even participants who are not holding the floor are not actually passive participants. Condon (2001) defined backchannels as the use of non-linguistic and minimal linguistic forms to claim one's understandings to a speaker. Such signals as uh huh, yeah, and mmm are all indicators to the current speaker that the message they are trying to convey has been delivered. Given the absence of these backchanneling signals in a face-to-face conversation, silence will be considered a signal of disagreement; hence, backchanneling signals conspicuously show one's understanding and agreement (Yule, 2006).

To summarise, both repairs and backchannels are substantial in conversation. The former will obviously communicate that there is a misunderstanding or inconsistency in the conversation, and thus, it is to be mended. Backchannels, on the other hand, indicate to the current speaker that the recipient is attending to their talk and understanding what is being imparted.

Now that key aspects of turn-taking mechanism are introduced, what follows concerns the strategies to which participants in conversation conform when exchanging turns at talk.

1.2.1.7. Turn-taking strategies

Most researchers agree on three strategies employed in the management of the floor, namely turn-yielding, turn-holding, and turn-taking. Taboada (2006) believed that these strategies are types of action frequent in any conversation.

1.2.1.7.1. Turn-yielding

Turn-yielding comes to pass when the current speaker relinquishes the floor to another participant in the conversation. It tells that one is done talking and that another person may start talking. Turn-yielding, as part of turn-taking mechanism, is accompanied with signals

revealing to another participant that it is about time to take over. Thus, as Duncan (1972) put it “the auditor may take his speaking turn when the speaker gives a turn yielding signal” (p.286).

Duncan (1972) identified six turn-yielding cues: intonation (the turn ends with a final clause that has a rising or falling pitch juncture); drawl (the turn ends with a remarkable lengthening in the stressed syllable or the final syllable in the terminal clause); body motion (such as halting hand gestures); sociocentric sequences (the use of stereotyped expressions like ‘you know!’); pitch/loudness (a decrease in pitch or loudness occurring in conjunction with a sociocentric sequence); and syntax (the completion of a grammatical clause). It is of merit to remind that Sacks et al. (1974) believed that syntax is the foremost projection cue for the end of a turn, or TCU/TCUs. Stephens and Beattie (1986) also deemed prosodic and paralinguistic forms associated with the end of turns as important turn-yielding signals. On the whole, there are cues signalling the end of a current speaker’s turn, and so, another speaker will take the turn once these cues come into play. These cues presumably allow for the smoothness of communication between participants in a conversation.

1.2.1.7.2. Turn-holding

The second turn-taking strategy is turn-holding. The latter refers to the time when a speaker is currently in possession of the floor. As way of example, it can be reflected in the current speaker’s willingness to still occupy the floor despite the completion of a TCU, or in the interlocutor’s tendency to take a turn given to them by another speaker. Firstly, one of the techniques for a current speaker to sustain and pursue a turn is their use of what Coulthard (1977) named incompleteness markers such as “if” and such devices as “firstly”, which show that another clause is to follow. Nonetheless, interruption is still possible. Interruption is a case where speaker A is followed by speaker B, wherein B starts speaking before A had

completed a turn and B continues speaking after A has stopped speaking (Baxter, 1988). Interruption can be escaped when the current speaker speaks in a louder, quicker, and in a higher pitch.

Secondly, it happens when a speaker yields a turn to an interlocutor though the latter may not be all set for taking it. Taboada (2006) stated that in such case, the interlocutor accepts the turn and holds it even without providing a full answer. This can be attained via a number of devices, including filled pauses and discourse markers. Filled pauses are cases where the interlocutor holds the turn through silence fillers: eh, ah, mm, and uh. Moreover, the turn can be held via discourse markers as verbs, adverbs, and conjunctions, which per se can be clarification requests.

Finally, it is of merit to mention that the turn is not always taken by an interlocutor who is given a turn, the turn can be denied. The speaker who denies a turn may choose to remain silent until the speaker pursues the turn (Kendon, 1967; de Long, 1974, cited in Coulthard, 1977), or, as Coulthard explained, s/he can give a short response, or to produce a pre-closing to infer that they have no enthusiasm for the topic at hand.

All in all, what is deduced from the above discussion is that turn-holding occurs when a current speaker rejects relinquishing the floor for other participants and when an interlocutor who is given a turn persists on holding it even if they are not ready to answer.

1.2.1.7.3. Turn-taking

Turn-taking is the process by which a participant in the conversation takes a turn by self-selection, accepting a turn that is given to them, or by interruption. As stated in Sacks et al. (1974), an interlocutor self-selects once a TCU is completed, i.e. at a given TRP. Once the interlocutor self-selects to speak, s/he becomes the current speaker. Taboada (2006) claimed

that once a speaker yields the turn, the interlocutor takes it and this becomes a turn-holding situation. One can, further, take a turn in overlapping situations, only one speaker continues. Furthermore, an interlocutor may interrupt to take a turn. Put it another way, when interrupting a speaker who is still occupying the floor, the interlocutor soon becomes the current speaker. On the basis of this discussion, one can recognise that turn-taking strategy pertains to a speaker's occupation of the floor.

In the first subsection, consideration was given to the ABC's of the turn-taking system to have an overall picture of it. It represented a sort of preliminary to the coming subsection, in which one of the key components of turn-taking system "turn allocation" is tackled. The subsection to follow will be, more precisely, dealing with teacher turn-allocation behaviour in the classroom context and its possible impact on classroom interaction.

1.2.2. Teacher turn-allocation behaviour

Teacher turn-allocation behaviour in the classroom represents teachers' vein in regulating and managing classroom discourse and securing a smooth contact between the members of the classroom. However, the vexed question is the extent to which such management is thriving to uplift and fuel learners to take part and, in so doing, to smooth the path for furtherance of classroom interaction. On account of that, this subsection features some of the major strategies teachers exercise in selecting next speakers.

1.2.2.1. Teachers' prerogative to turn allocation

It is commonly believed that there is a difference between turn-allocation in natural conversation and that in the classroom context. In point of fact, selecting next speakers in natural talk can be undertaken by any current speaker selecting another to talk, any current speaker pursuing the talk, and, otherwise, by any other participant self-selecting. Contrarily,

classroom turn allocation is predominantly commanded by the teacher. This view was evidenced by many researchers. Perhaps one who heavily supported this claim was McHoul (1978). In essence, he was the first to adapt the Sacks et al.'s (1974) model to formal talk in the classroom and he found a sense of formality in the organisation of turn-taking in the classroom. McHoul, on the whole, was distinctly inspired by the idea that teachers in the classroom have more participation rights than students or as he more plainly wrote: "only teachers can direct speakership in any creative way" (p.188). Strictly speaking, only teachers have the privilege to self-select and to select next speakers at any TRP. Contrary to Sacks et al.'s findings, this organisation of turns breeds maximised pauses and gaps and minimised overlaps.

Another work acclaiming teacher dominance in classroom turn allocation is that conducted by Mehan (1979). His analysis of the different phases of a lesson (opening, instructional, and closing phases) brought him to a conclusion that the teacher holds a tight rein on turn allocation. To elaborate, teachers primarily set forth elicitation and learners responded to them; that is, his analysis acknowledged that interactional allocations are contingent on IRF sequences, which we have indicated earlier as restrictive to classroom interaction.

Tsui (1995) from her part wrote that the teacher has the authority to decide on whom to speak and whom to remain silent. She further clarified that their entitlement to turn allocation is exercised in accordance with their motivations. To put it plainly, their motivation for accurate responses –which will save them a great deal of time- orients them to allocate turns to more active students, though they also give turns to students who bid for them for fear of their discouragement. Nonetheless, uneven turn allocation will result in reticence of shy and less able student who will be more reluctant to take turns at all.

To cut it short, it is held that teachers are the sole authority in the classroom when it comes to turn allocation. However, it is worth pointing out that this view is primarily linked to traditional classrooms, teacher-fronted, more than it is related to learner-centred ones. What should be considered next are a number of turn-allocation strategies used by teachers in the management of classroom interaction.

1.2.2.2. Teacher turn-allocation strategies

Teachers take up a range of strategies when allocating turns to next speakers. The basic strategies found in the literature pertain to those in which the teacher addresses an individual student and those in which s/he opens the sphere for learners to bid for turns or to self-select. Accordingly, it is of merit to bring into view the basic strategies documented in the literature, namely individual nomination, non-verbal turn allocation, invitations to bid, general nomination, and learner self-selection.

1.2.2.2.1. Personal versus general solicit

Generally speaking, turn-allocation strategies used by teachers fall into personal and general solicits (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Day, 1984). So, before plunging into teacher turn-allocation strategies, explaining these notions seems convenient. First of all, personal solicits touch upon the teacher's selection of a sole student to answer and this is settled via, for instance, individual nomination, gazes, and gestures. General solicits, inversely, are instances wherein the teacher opens the floor for any learner to act. This type of turns can be further seen in what Jones and Thornborrow (2004) called a whole class floor, where the teacher addresses the whole class as one in instruction. On average, teachers first try out a general solicit and when no response is foreshadowed, they shift to a personal solicit (Tsui, 1995).

Among the ways in which a personal solicit is accomplished is individual nomination, which is our next centre of attention.

1.2.2.2. Individual nomination

Individual nomination is a strategy that most instructors use to invite a student to take a turn. This includes calling a student by name or an address term. It has been found that this strategy is employed for the sake of even turn distribution amongst students and so securing equal speaking chances for each (Griffin & Humphrey 1978, cited in Shepherd, 2013).

According to Shepherd (2013), individual nominations embody two turns subsumed in a single adjacency pair. The FPP involves a cue produced by the teacher, which opens the door for a SPP, the nominated student's contribution. This goes in harmony with what Lemke (1990) marked: nomination precedes rather than follows an answer. Lemke added that nomination follows an invitation to bid (a further strategy to be discussed later). Put it more concretely, the teacher invites students to bid for turns, students bid, the teacher gives a turn by nominating a student, and the student answers, what he summarised as bid-nomination-answer sequence. Given that the answer is unknown to the nominated student, Mehan (1979) claimed that another student will be nominated without repetition of the elicitation. Liddicoat (2007) asserted that nomination by itself is fruitless, since the name or the address term of the recipient must be adjoined to a certain form of talk, such as questions.

Nomination may stir learners to make their voices heard. Xie (2011) explained that a number of students, he interviewed, informed that their silence is not due to their reluctance to take part; rather, the reason lies in their inclination to being nominated singly to take turns. This is also the case for shy student who need to be pushed to talk. To say it in plain words, individual nomination can be a good strategy to prompt brighter and less able students alike

to take turns, in view of the fact that the student will be more motivated to take over, even if contributing with a short answer.

1.2.2.2.3. Non-verbal turn allocation

Another turn-allocation strategy is non-verbal turn allocation. Unsurprisingly, teacher nomination to students is not at all times carried out in linguistic forms. Non-verbal forms, in reality, avail teachers in turn distribution. Teachers bank on gestures, gazes, and nods as cues for students to take a turn. This technique was documented in various researches in the literature. Mehan (1979) speculated that in addition to verbal nomination, the teacher nominates students by pointing gestures, head nods, and maintaining eye contact with the next speaker. These same non-verbal forms were manifestly persistent in Kääntä's (2010) study, what she called embodied allocations or semiotic resources. She accentuated the requirement of mutual gaze to be established between the teacher and the student when these semiotic resources are used independently, whereas mutual gaze is needless when they are used along with the student's name.

The study conducted by Waring (2013) also yielded significant results regarding teachers' recourse to non-verbal resources. In fact, her analysis revealed that teachers resort to a range of non-verbal forms when urging students to talk or temporarily halting their participation: gazes, gestures, and body movement involving the head, the face, the arms, and the fingers. As for the case of nomination, the selected student is prioritised meanwhile other students are attended to through smiles and nods. Succinctly, non-verbal forms, in the vein of pointing gestures, gazes, facial expressions, and body movement, are all common aspects of teacher turn-allocation behaviour, which are predominantly used as pointers to get learner's to speak and to manage participation in the classroom.

1.2.2.2.4. Invitations to bid for turns

Teachers do not invariably accept their students' self-initiated turns, they additionally signal for their students to bid for turns by, for instance, putting up the hands. Ergo bidding for turns manifests learners' readiness to take them. Mehan (1979) stated that invitations to bid are noticeably expressed by the teacher by asking students to raise their hands following an elicitation. Besides to hand raising, he ticked off other bidding techniques, such as calling the teacher (teacher, teacher!) or simply saying me, all are of assistance for gaining access to the floor. After students bid for turns, the teacher nominates one to speak before evaluating their responses. In short, this behaviour of inviting learners to gain permission before making a contribution plainly demonstrates teachers' dominance over classroom turn-taking.

1.2.2.2.5. General nomination

General nomination is the same as what was previously referred to as general solicit. Teachers tend to use general nomination to address the whole class as one. This is mostly done via asking a question to the whole class and waiting for learners to cope through, for instance, raising the hand or self-selecting (which is to be discussed in the next headline).

It happens that the teacher performs a general solicit inviting anyone to make a contribution to see no response forthcoming. In this case, Xie (2011) suggested that the teacher performs a manoeuvre from a general solicit to individual nomination. Thus, a vain turn-allocation technique in a given situation requires alteration. Waring (2014) argued that teachers can widen the participation framework in the classroom through, for example, first giving turns to talkative students bidding for them, and, hitherto, bypassing the latter and selecting other reluctant students. On the whole, teacher's initiate with a general solicit to which learners respond by bidding or self-selecting, before someone is nominated to take over.

Next, a shift is made to learners' attempts to self-select without being allocated a turn and how teachers would presumably react to such behaviour.

1.2.2.2.6. Learner self-selection

Learners occasionally self-select without being bestowed approval to talk and without bidding for a turn. When learners self-select they take unsolicited turns (Tsui, 1995) and these unsolicited turns can be either welcomed or rejected by teachers. Self-selection in pedagogical discourse is, by and large, deemed as a violation to turn-taking norms, for only teachers have authority to self-select and decide on whom to select (McHoul, 1978). Likewise, Mehan (1979) acknowledged that teachers often reject learners' self-selection, albeit it is often accepted when the unselected provides a good contribution.

Contrary to McHoul's (1978) analysis, Ingram et al. (2011), in their analysis of mathematic lessons, unveiled that learners self-select to ask questions, to initiate and to perform repairs, and to respond to undirected teacher questions. Self-selection for repair purposes was also corroborated by Kääntä (2010). More to the point, according to Jones and Thornborrow (2004), the teacher does not reject self-selection except when control over the floor becomes too loose, i.e. when students' voices start to overlap. Only then, the teacher will attempt to tighten control over it by selecting only one student to speak. Thus, teachers are encouraged to allow students' self-selection as long as it does not result in chaos.

Stimulated by Sacks et al.'s (1974) model, Carroll (2011) encouraged the application of conversational turn-taking norms in classroom activities. More precisely, he supported learner self-selection in classroom interaction. His argument was that self-selection teaches the required skills for speaking naturally as in natural conversations. Above all, self-selection is largely abolished in teacher fronted classrooms. On the whole, self-selection is generally suppressed in classrooms where teachers seem to invoke their authority, whereas it will not

be declined in situations where learners are likely to supply accurate responses, perform repairs and ask questions, and where natural conversational skills are sought.

In light of what has been discussed above, teachers' turn-allocation strategies should not be restricted to only one sort. To ensure that all learners will get their share of turns, teachers ought to vary their turn-allocation techniques in accordance with teaching situations. For instance, if no student responds to a general solicit, the teacher can shift to a personal solicit, by for instance imposing on a student to speak. Plus, they should be mindful of learners' preferences for turn-taking; for example, some prefer to be nominated while others prefer self-selection. For this, mingling turn-allocation strategies presumably ensures a larger number of students to take part.

In sum, the present section was divided into two main subsections. The first subsection invoked a vision of the basic elements making up the turn-taking system in natural conversation. Reference was made to its core components: the turn constructional component and the turn-allocation component. Further, it highlighted how sequences are organised within conversation, namely in the form of adjacency pairs and further demonstrated how these can be preceded by sequences labelled pre-sequences and how preference is organised in conversation. Light was also tossed on some issues with regards to the system, overlapping talk and silences in conversation. Subsequently, we have seen how conversationists tackle the breakdowns in conversation and how they show their presence in conversation even when they are not dominating the floor via backchannels. Last but not least, the basic strategies for turn-taking were explained; more particularly turn yielding, turn holding, and turn-taking.

The second subsection was devoted to teachers' turn-allocation behaviour in the classroom context. First, it was demonstrated that that teachers' prerogative to distributing turns in the classroom is an inevitable reality found in most classrooms and supported by a

great majority of scholars. Moreover, attention was directed to the chief turn-allocation strategies used by teachers and which are the most documented in the literature. Individual nomination was estimated as a leading technique for assigning next turns to students. Next, instances of non-verbal turn allocation were highlighted. Additionally, an account of how teachers invite their students to bid for turns was made. Finally, a transition was made from the aforementioned strategies to teachers' allowance for learners' self-selection.

Conclusion

By way of conclusion, this chapter started with an overview about classroom interaction and how the latter contributes to language development. Light was casted on some aspects of teacher talk in the classroom along with their roles as teachers in the classroom. Additionally, we looked at IRF pattern of classroom interaction along with negotiated interaction as part of classroom interaction. As a second step, we moved towards an explanation of the elemental aspects for the organisation of turn-taking in conversation, which served as a prelude for understanding turn-allocation component. Lastly, focus was tightened up on how turn-taking is managed in classroom interaction and the major teacher turn-allocation strategies.

The next chapter will be devoted to presenting the methodology to be employed for the investigation of the topic at hand, data presentation and analysis, as well as data interpretation.

CHAPTER TWO

Chapter two: Methodology data analysis and discussion

Introduction

In the previous chapter, an attempt was made to throw light on major concepts in classroom interaction, to describe turn-taking system in natural conversation, and to review the major works vis-à-vis teacher turn-allocation strategies. This chapter includes three major sections. The first section discusses the research methodology employed to inquire about the research issue at hand, and it includes: The research paradigm, the setting, the population, the research tools, the procedure, and the research limitations. The second section presents the findings obtained from the teacher and the learner questionnaires, the observation scheme, as well as the follow-up interview. The third section discusses the most significant findings and relates them to teacher turn-allocation behaviours highlighted in the literature.

2.1. Research Methodology

The research methodology section is intended to present and defend the research design employed to inquire about the research problem. First, it opens up by a justification of the research paradigms employed, namely qualitative and quantitative research methods; next, the participants who informed the study (i.e., teachers and learners) are presented; then, the choice of research tools used for data collection is justified; after that, the procedure through which the study proceeded is carefully mapped out; finally, the research limitations relative to the research context and design are highlighted.

2.1.1. Research paradigm

Regarding the significant value and the rationale for adopting a mixed approach in data collection, the present research, in essence, resorted to both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Therefore, a methodological triangulation is sought. Quantitative data, on

the one hand, stemmed from both the questionnaires and the observation scheme. Qualitative data, on the other hand, emanated from the follow-up interview.

Both qualitative and quantitative data obtained in this research are vital for answering the research problems posed. First of all, quantitative data generated from both the questionnaires and classroom observation assisted mapping out the turn-allocation strategies employed by teachers as part of the organisation of classroom interaction. Indeed, counting the frequency of the different turn-allocation strategies used by teachers in the form of numerical figures (on the basis of the questionnaires and the observation schedules) paved the way for drawing conclusions about the major turn-allocation strategies that are, principally, more frequent than others.

Besides, audio recordings from classroom observation seemed proper to gauge the timing of student talk, teacher talk, and silence and, thus, to answer the second research problem, which concerned the extent to which teacher turn-allocation strategies generate richer classroom discourse. Such procedure, according to Bailey and Allwright (1991), is more objective and satisfactory than merely judging the amount of, for instance, teacher talk on the basis of an observer's subjective opinion away from time calculation.

Second, qualitative data is basically derived from the follow-up interview with Speaking teachers. The major purpose behind such quest was to probe deeper into the problem by posing open-ended questions on the basis of the data obtained from quantitative research methods. For instance, teachers were asked about reasons behind their inclination towards certain turn-allocation strategies over others. Therefore, the integration of both quantitative and qualitative research paradigms seemed crucial to investigate the research problem at hand and to attain the purpose of the research. In addition, the two paradigms appeared to be reinforcing each other.

The combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods received enthusiasm from many researchers and scholars. According to Nunan (2005), classroom researchers do not seem to be enthusiastic for employing solely one data collection technique or one single research paradigm; rather, they are more oriented towards data triangulation. Bailey and Allwright (1991) asserted that there is room for the combination of quantitative and qualitative data and there is a clear connection between these two approaches. Their integration in research is called mixed method approach, which evolved for the first time during the 1980's (Creswell, 2013). Such integration, according to Creswell, yields a more complete grasp of a research problem than qualitative and quantitative approaches do when standing each alone in research.

Similarly, Lund (2012) supported mixed methods approach by advancing many advantages. First, a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches secures good answers to complex research questions and gives a more complete picture of the issue under investigation than when these approaches are used in isolation. Further, it provides more valid inferences, particularly if the results obtained from both approaches converge. Furthermore, if ever results established from quantitative and qualitative approaches emerge to be divergent, then such condition will open doors for opportunities to reflect more about the issue and serve as a lens for extra research and theoretical insights. Thereby, it can be deduced that employing both quantitative and qualitative research to answer a research problem seems advantageous.

2.1.2. Conceptual design

The current headline is intended to present the core design of the current research. It mainly addresses the setting and participants chosen to inform the study, the research

instruments implemented, the procedure through which the study was carried out, as well as its limitations.

2.1.2.1. Setting and participants

The present research was conducted within the Algerian EFL context, more particularly at the University of Mohammed Saddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. It addressed both Licence EFL learners and their Speaking teachers in the Department of the English Language.

2.1.2.1.2. Teachers

So long as the study is interested in teachers' behaviour when it comes to turn distribution, teachers naturally constituted the target population; as a matter of fact that, most research tools were directly submitted to them.

Four teachers teaching Speaking module to four corresponding third-year groups were chosen as key subjects of the study. However, during the research process, it appeared impossible to get sufficient data from classroom observation, mainly because of time constraints and teachers' scheduling of sessions that was not suitable for the purpose of the study. Indeed, during two consecutive observational sessions, the researcher was faced up with paucity of teacher turn-allocation behaviours due to the nature of the lessons themselves. These circumstances lead to observing two further sessions with other levels, namely first year and second year. Then, the number of teachers concerned with classroom observation amounted to a total of six teachers: four teaching third year, one teaching first year, and another second year.

Likewise, in order to get a reasonable number of subjects for the survey questionnaire, the researcher again resorted to include more teachers teaching the same module in the same

department. This is not deemed as a potential threat to the validity of the conceptual research plan because those teachers operating in the same department usually swap levels each year. These research contingencies extended the number of teacher-participants to a final total of ten and led to extend the scope of the study to include nearly most Licence grades, though the focus was mainly on third year students for the reasons that are discussed below.

The choice of the third year grade can be justified by the fact that these students normally have more experience and fluidity in conversational English skills, thereby triggering richer interactional patterns and creating more possibilities for implementing a large repertoire of teacher turn-allocation strategies.

Had it been possible to aim higher in terms of student level, the researcher would have opted for first-year Master students. Unfortunately, those particular classes have a limited number of groups, with one teacher instructing them. The gains in terms of student level would have jeopardized seriously the validity of the sampled population.

2.1.2.1.2. Students

Although the study is mainly concerned with teacher turn-allocation behaviour, students were nevertheless included in order get an overview of teachers' use of turn-taking techniques from the students' perspectives, and, consequently, crosscheck the reliability of responses of surveyed teachers.

As already mentioned, the focus on third-year students rather than lower grades is due to the fact that these students could display more communicative abilities; which, in turn, could permit teachers to enjoy the use of varied turn-allocation strategies. Assumably, a communicative-driven class where students speak more or less fluently and at ease from both

linguistic and communicative perspectives would yield significant opportunities for the teacher to practise all possible types of invitations to take the floor.

Students' ages, as a whole, are relatively homogeneous, ranging between 18 and 24. Nevertheless, this age group might result in the application of different turn-allocation strategies in comparison to younger middle or secondary school students since these students are young adult learners.

Sixty one students were chosen to respond to questionnaires administered in an attempt to probe into the problem under study. These students were distributed over four third-year pedagogical groups, which were also subject to classroom observation.

2.1.3. Research instruments

The current research combined three research instruments. It used questionnaires and classroom observation (observation schedules), mainly as a source for quantitative data, and at the same time, it carried out a follow-up interview to collect qualitative data.

2.1.3.1. Questionnaires (Appendices A & B)

The present research used two questionnaires, firstly to crosscheck results from both questionnaires, and secondly, to compare the data obtained from these questionnaires to results from classroom observation. One questionnaire was administered for teachers and another for students, each of which targeted to unveil turn-allocation strategies being used by teachers.

Questionnaires are very popular research tools that can be used to investigate a limited number of research items by a relatively large number of subjects (Nunan, 1992). As the current study seeks to test the use of a set of turn-allocation behaviours by a group of higher education teachers, the questionnaire seems the most relevant research tools. A set of turn-

allocation strategies revealed from both the preliminary work and the review of literature were submitted to ten teachers and sixty one students to unveil the most employed and preferred allocation techniques by Speaking teachers.

Besides, questionnaires can yield precise data amenable to statistical calculations and easy for analysis. This feature makes it easier for a first-time researcher to collect accurate data and analyse it without big difficulties, rather than venturing in any qualitative research instrument that can yield a huge amount of data that would be hardly exploitable and useful for a novice researcher. Following this logic, both questionnaires implemented in this study incorporated mainly close-ended questions and only a very limited number of necessary open-ended questions.

The questionnaires were primarily addressed to Speaking teachers (a total of 10 teachers) at the Department of English language, University of Jijel, as well as to third-year Licence EFL students (61 students). Eleven questions were asked in students' questionnaire and seven in teachers' questionnaire.

The items used in both questionnaires were, for the most part, closed items, among which is the Likert scale. The use of closed questions is due to the fact that respondents presumably show preference to these types of questions over open questions. Besides, employing open questions would not allow the researcher to test the use of the target turn distribution techniques as they are mostly unfamiliar to most teachers, let alone students. Consequently, each of the questionnaires encompassed few open questions. Also, some closed items required respondents to first tick the box corresponding to the appropriate answer in addition to a blank space left for any potential further suggestions. Such option allowed gathering further information regarding the topic.

2.1.3.2. Classroom observation (Appendices C, D, & E)

As an attempt to probe into the various strategies teachers are actually adhering to when distributing turns, classroom observation seemed a convenient means to attain that end. Classroom observation carried out in the current research is a systematic one. McIntyre and Macleod (1986) defined systematic observation as one in which the researcher analyses the different aspects of classroom activities drawing good reliance on predetermined categories (such as observation schedules), and which can also be based on audio/video recorded data or classroom discourse transcripts (cited in Tsui, 1995).

In this study, classroom observation involved observing six Speaking sessions and documenting turn-allocation strategies, which were already categorized in an observation scheme. At the same time, each lesson was audio recorded for the sake of detecting any other turn-allocation strategies that might be missed during classroom observation; and gauging the time for teacher talk, student talk, and silence. What is more, the researcher resorted to a co-observer to assist coding the observation scheme each time a lesson was observed. That is, what Mackey and Gass (2005) called investigator triangulation was used. Investigator triangulation typically means that not merely one observer contributes to the findings, but also an extra observer. This procedure might upgrade the credibility of the results obtained from the observation scheme.

So far as the observation scheme (see Appendix C) for classroom observation is concerned, the researcher designed one that would presumably accord with the underlying research topic. For the most part, it was made up of pre-determined categories, which primarily represent the most frequent turn-allocation strategies documented in the literature. One of the drawbacks of observation schemes as noted by Nunan (1992) is that an observation scheme calls attention solely to the categories chosen in advance for observation.

Yet, the observation scheme for the present research was designed in such a way that allowed for other novel strategies to be counted. More precisely, it was left open that it included the category of “Others” allowing the observers to note down other strategies which were not included in the literature and in the pre-specified categories of the schedule.

Finally, it is worthy of note that classroom observation has also been devised and conducted for the purpose of checking out the reliability of the results obtained from the questionnaires. As Nunan (1992) pointed out what people say is not always what they actually do in practice. Hence, it was methodologically advisable to test the extent to which the results attained through the survey questionnaire were analogous to the data obtained by virtue of the observation scheme.

Apart from these key research tools (i.e. the questionnaire and classroom observation scheme), another research device - follow-up interview- which will be presented next, was equally included in the research design to complete any partial and inconclusive data.

2.1.3.3. Follow-up interviews (Appendix F)

Another technique for collecting data is conducting interviews, which are primarily qualitative in nature. They are very crucial in research so long as they allow for the investigation of unobservable phenomena (Mackey & Gass, 2005). However, since the current study is mainly descriptive, a semi-structured interview seems to serve better the research aim at hand, because the study seeks to investigate pre-specified issues arising from classroom observation and questionnaires. Hence, results from this research technique allow comparability between one interview and another. On this particular point Kothari (2004) points out that the looseness of unstructured interviews engender different interviews that hinder secure generalizations.

Besides, although unstructured interviews yield deeper understanding of phenomena under investigation, their analysis and implementation is very challenging particularly for a first-time researcher shackled by time constraints. Indeed, according to Kothari (2004), this type of research method requires more skills on the part of the interviewer and analysis of unstructured answers is more difficult and time-consuming. Therefore, in order to look for further understanding of given issues relating to the core of the present study and avoid running into the risk of amassing huge daunting data and unrelated interviews, a semi-structured interview was selected.

According to Mackey and Gass (2005), semi-structured interviews are basically surveys through which the researcher prepares a set of questions in advance, which will be asked to all respondents alike, and which will enable for the comparison between the various responses obtained. However, during the course of the interview, the researcher is allowed to diverge from these questions to seek further information. Contrariwise, unstructured interviews require no pre-set questions at all. The interviewer just goes in the flow with respondents, helping them to express themselves freely and on their own pace.

The current research made use of a semi-structured interview implemented with Speaking teachers. That is to say, a set of questions was pre-specified and asked with possibility to ask further questions (probes) when answers were not clearly described. The interviews were conducted with four Speaking teachers and they were all audio-taped.

After presenting and justifying the research methods incorporated into this study, attention will now be directed to the preparatory work that preceded their design and implementation.

2.1.4. Preliminary work and pilot study

As a starting point, the study resorted to a preliminary observation as well as a pilot study regarding the design of the questionnaires and the observation instruments. In informal observation, a Speaking session was attended with second year EFL students. The main purpose behind such procedure was to have an overview about the major turn-allocation strategies Speaking teachers are employing and also to make any necessary modifications regarding the design of the observation scheme.

In addition, teachers' and learners' questionnaires have been administered first as part of a pilot study. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), testing and revising materials and methods as part of a pilot study before finalising them is important to assess their feasibility and usefulness in data collection. Hence, ten copies of the student questionnaire and one copy of the teacher questionnaire were distributed and filled out to test the survey questionnaires for potential weaknesses, if any. The necessary alterations have been performed as an attempt to make the questionnaire more effective and yielding desired results. So far as the student questionnaire is concerned, some questions were found ambiguous and, hence, they had to be modified and simplified. Nonetheless, all the items in the teacher questionnaire appeared to be intelligible and needed no modifications.

In short, carrying out informal observation and a pilot survey aided the finalisation and of the two key research instruments used to investigate the core research problem, namely the observation schedule and the questionnaires. Unquestionably, this initial work optimized the operationalization and the usability of these fundamental pillars in the research design.

Next, an account of the procedure used to implement the research tools and collect data will be given.

2.1.5. Data collection

After conducting both the preliminary work and the pilot study, the researcher came to an important phase, data collection. Following the administration and the finalisation of the questionnaires and the observation scheme, these research tools were immediately put into practice.

The distribution and collection of the whole number of the learner questionnaire was completed in two days' time. Four third-year groups have been addressed as respondents; yet, only 61 students from these groups responded (the groups were very small). Two groups were addressed per day. Besides, students had to fill out the questionnaires in class and any encountered difficulties were clarified on the spot. This resulted in a high level of responsiveness.

On the other hand, the teacher questionnaires were distributed and collected during two weeks; each teacher had to take the questionnaire for a reasonable period of time, according to the time that best suited him/her, before returning them. However, it should be noted that two teachers never returned them despite the insistence of the researcher.

After administering the survey questionnaires, classroom observation followed. Six sessions were attended and observed during a period of two weeks. Initially and as planned, four sessions were attended with the four third year target groups. However, as two observational sessions were primarily built around role plays and presentations that impeded documenting a satisfactory sum of teacher turn-allocation strategies, two extra observation sessions were supplemented: one session was carried out with first year students and another with their second year counterparts.

As a final step in data collection, a follow-up interview was conducted with four Speaking teachers in the English Language Department. After the analysis of the findings from the questionnaires and the observation scheme, it appeared that certain patterns needed further explanation in order to get a better grasp and understanding of the most significant issues arising from preceding research tools. For example, it was deemed of high research significance to elaborate more on the 'why' the teachers were focusing on the use of certain turn-allocation behaviours. By doing so, it was aspired that this supplementary quest would either determine the existence of a sound rationale for their frequent use by the teacher-participants or declare them as being a salvage, for instance, for the poverty of teachers' inventory of turn distribution strategies. In other words, it seemed crucial and worthy to extend the boundaries of research and the flat nature of quantitative data a step further in order to support or refute the most prominent turn-allocation techniques practised in target classes by probing into the tacit knowledge underlying the teachers' professional classroom practices.

On the whole, data collection depended mainly on two major research tools, i.e., survey questionnaires and systematic classroom observation. The follow-up interview constituted a supplementary step to sharpen the findings and account safely for any addition to the general body of research.

2.1.6. Data analysis

After raw data have been collected by virtue of the questionnaires and the observation schedule, it was high time to work out ways in which results could be analysed and presented. Summary sheets were prepared in advance to record returns from both questionnaires and schedules. Once the summary sheets had been completed, it appeared that it was more suitable to present data in simple tables followed by prose commentaries, highlighting

emerging patterns and ignoring insignificant data. Then, summaries of data from the research tools were visually presented in pie charts in a further attempt to sift and boil down meaningful data.

Prose data yielded from open questions and items generated from the extra category of 'Other' were collated and categorized or paraphrased and equally presented in spreadsheets. Responses from verbal questions in both questionnaires were written out on separate sheets; then, they were scanned for recurring themes. All the verbal responses were either categorized or reported succinctly in display tables. Useful text responses served as quotations to illustrate certain points in the discussions. Hence, nearly all the data obtained from the questionnaires and the schedules were interpreted quantitatively.

Results from inside classroom coding of observation schemes revealed significant differences between those reported by the researcher and those entered by the co-observer (Please, refer to Appendices D and E). This discrepancy can be accounted for by the fact that the co-observer was not actually well familiar with the target turn-allocation strategies. In order to come to terms with this shortcoming, the researcher resorted to carry out a second coding using script from the audio-recordings.

Nevertheless, this unhappy incident was not without its negative consequences; as a matter of fact that, it was impossible to distinguish between some visual turn-allocation strategies such as nods and pointing gestures, and gazes in the absence of a video recording. Consequently, the researcher relied on her first initial inside classroom coding, intuition, and the audio-recordings to work out the final coding and presentation of observation schemes (see Appendix E for the initial results from classroom coding).

Additionally, this problem seemed more acute in timing the amount of interaction generated by physical turn-allocation techniques (such as nods and gazes). As it was

impossible to time the amount of interaction generated by each strategy during the observation sessions and as it was impossible to distinguish the bodily turn-allocation strategies from the recordings, the researcher combined all the physical turn-allocation techniques as a single strategy and opposed it to other strategies (such as individual nomination, and invitations to bid), which were easily discernable even from audio-recordings.

On a positive note, it can be stated that all these unfortunate research incidents did not affect the core aim of research. Still, the researcher can establish the optimality of any physical or any other verbal turn-allocation strategy by using the global timing of the sessions. By establishing the frequency of any turn-allocation strategy in a given observation session, its usefulness can be either supported or refuted just by checking the amount of student talk generated during that particular session.

2.1.7. Limitations of the study

As any other research, the present study was constrained by a number of limitations. Firstly, there are some limitations inherent to the research context. Most students are not used to responding to questionnaires, ignoring their due significance; hence, they sometimes answered carelessly. The researcher had each time to focus on this point insisting on taking things seriously.

Secondly, teacher-participants in the study were not all cooperative either in filling out questionnaires or allowing two observers to attend their Speaking lessons. Actually, the researcher had hard times getting the permission from the Speaking course teachers to carry out the observation work. This fact was exacerbated by the fact that many other Master 2 students were equally working with these particular classes. It happened that in certain sessions up to six observers attended for research purposes. Because of time constraints it

was impossible for any of the researchers to postpone observation work. Hence, the least that can be said is that the observation work intervened really during a less favourable period.

Also, teachers seemed reluctant to fill out questionnaires or take part in interviews. Actually they appeared flooded by questionnaires they received daily from many other Master 2 researchers and equally busy with their workload (teaching, correction work, and supervision) during that hectic period. Two teacher questionnaires were never returned back despite the insistence of the researcher. Above all, teachers did not consent to have their sessions video-taped, which hindered gauging the amount of student talk generated by nonverbal turn-allocation strategies.

Last but not least, there was a lack of sophisticated or professional equipment when it came to audio recording data during classroom observation. The six sessions were recorded using a mobile phone recorder programme. The poor quality of the audio tapes, then, made it difficult for data to be transcribed. Unfortunately, one of the observed sessions was unintelligible that the researcher did not manage to time the amount of time generated by the classroom turn-allocation strategies.

To sum up the whole, the first section of this chapter was devoted to an account of the methodology followed in the current research. It presented the research paradigms adhered to, the setting and the research population, and described instrumentation employed in the study. Furthermore, it outlined the procedure through which the study progressed, including the different phases of research, i.e., preliminary work and pilot study along with data collection and analysis. Finally, it indicated the limitations of the research.

The next section is to describe and analyse the data gathered from the main research devices (i.e., the questionnaires, the observation scheme).

2.2. Data analysis

The present section concerns the presentation of data collected by virtue of two research instruments employed to investigate the topic under study -teacher turn-allocation strategies and their effects on classroom interaction. These research tools represent teachers' and learners' questionnaires, and the observation scheme.

2.2.1. Analysis of questionnaires

The first research instruments to be described are learner and teacher questionnaires, which were primarily administered to explore turn-taking strategies employed by EFL higher education teachers, and consequently, triangulate their results with classroom observation.

2.2.1.1. The student questionnaire

Students' questionnaire is principally designed to look at how teachers distribute turns in third-year Speaking classes from the students' point of view.

Students answer to Q 1 (*how good are you at English?*)

Table 01

Students' level in oral proficiency

Good	Average	Below average
21%	77%	2%

The above table clearly indicates that the great majority of the sampled population (47 out of 61) estimated their level in English as an average level while the least number of students (2%) pointed out that they have a poor level. Hence, members of the sample tend to have an average level in English oral proficiency.

Students' answer to Qs 2-4; 6; and 8**Table 02***Learner interaction and turn-taking behaviour*

<i>How often...</i>	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Q2. Do you participate in speaking classes?	11	14	34	2
Q3. Are you given opportunities to speak in Speaking classes?	6	27	26	2
Q4. Are you given opportunities to guide classroom talk?	5	22	28	6
Q6. Do you speak without asking permission?	5	13	37	6
Q8. Are you given opportunities to select peers as next speakers?	4	20	34	3

In table 2 above, students' answers to Q2 show that 56% of student-participants do not always take part in classroom interaction, whereas 3% reckoned that they never participate in Speaking classes. So, it can be deduced that students, on average, do participate in this course.

So far as answers to Q3 are concerned, teachers seem to give opportunities to their students to speak since 87% of students indicated that they are often/sometimes given opportunities to talk; only (3%) stated that they are not granted any occasion to speak at all. Thus, teachers seem to give the chance for learner participation.

Surprisingly enough, 82% of students thought that they often/sometimes manage classroom discourse, and only six students (10%) indicated that they never control classroom

talk. Results from this question, then, seem to contradict our initial supposition and what is shown in the review of literature.

In Q6, students were asked whether they often self-select to speak without obtaining the green light from their teacher. On the whole, the majority of informants (61%) pointed out that they sometimes self-select. Besides, the next important figure in the table equally indicates that students do self-select. Hence, results from this question when taken as a whole tend to show that students are allowed to self-select.

As for students' selection of peers as next speakers in Q8, students (89%), again, mostly opted for the categories of 'often' and 'sometimes' in the Likert scale, just insignificant numbers were reported for the other extreme categories of 'always' and 'never'. Therefore, if these results genuinely reflect students' view, it can be construed that teachers are using efficient turn-taking strategies that can enrich classroom discourse.

In sum, students' responses to Likert scale questions seem to display almost a positive attitude towards their teachers' turn-allocation behaviour, indicating that their teachers tend to use optimal turn-taking strategies. However, it is to be highlighted that students answering this type of questions tend to avoid extremes, while opting mostly for middle ground. This issue is to be taken up in the section regarding discussions and interpretations of results.

Students' answer to Q5 (*do you have to raise your hand before speaking?*)

Table 3

Student hand raising behaviour

Yes	No
40	21

Table 3 above shows that the majority of students, 66% of them, reported that they have to raise their hands before making a contribution to classroom discourse. Nevertheless, this question seems to contradict results to question 6 in Table 2, where respondents stated that it is tolerable to speak in class without asking for permission.

Students' answer to Q7 (*what is your teacher's reaction if you ever volunteer to speak without raising your hand?*)

Table 4

Teachers' reaction to students' answers without hand raising behaviour

Teachers' acceptance	Teachers' rejection	Acceptance with warning	No response
21	27	7	6

Students' responses to Q7 seem to show that teachers usually accept students answers without putting up the hand either with or without a warning; nevertheless, a significant number of respondents claimed that their teachers reject this classroom behaviour, which violates participation protocols. Hence, it can be said that students' reaction to this question is wavering between rejection and acceptance.

When providing further explanations, one student, for instance said: "He feels angry and asks me to raise my hand". Another one said: "The teacher does not mind if I speak without raising my hand, especially if I provide a good contribution". Two answers, on the other hand, assumed that the teacher accepts self-selection and when learners' participation becomes chaotic, the teacher will ultimately ask students to raise their hands (these answers have been counted as part of acceptance with warning).

Students' answer to Q 9 (*when are you given opportunities to select peers as next speakers?**–You can tick more than one–)***Table 5***Best class time for students' selection of peers as next speakers*

During group work	During discussions	During presentations	Others
37	24	30	Interviews
			1

Table 5 above shows the occasions in which learners are given consent to select any of their classmates as next speakers. The results show that learners are more likely to select their peers to speak during group work more than presentations and classroom discussions. Additionally, only one student suggested a further classroom activity during which learners are permitted to select peers, namely during interviews.

Students' answer to Q10 (*how does your teacher usually nominate you to speak? –You can tick more than one–)***Table 6***Teachers' nomination strategies*

Students' names	Gestures	Gazes	Head nods	Others
55	20	12	11	Checking from the list
				5

According to the above results, the most used strategy to nominate students for turns is calling a student by name. The least number of students, eleven, answered that teachers

recourse to head nods to nominate their learners for turns. In addition, five students added another strategy, namely using a list comprising all students' names and calling any student to speak.

Students' answer to Q11 (*what are the best strategies your oral expression teacher can use to encourage you to participate? –You can tick more than one-*)

Table 7

Teacher turn-allocation strategies encouraging learner participation

Individual nomination (name/surname)	35
Inviting other peers to select a student	13
Permission for learners' self-selection	34
Others	
Not imposing turns on students	1
Relinquishing the floor to a student for presentation	1
Resorting to sense of humour when allocating turns	1

As far as table 7 is concerned, most students (35) show preference to individual nomination when turns are allocated to them and they almost equally favour self-selection. Naturally enough, only thirteen students seem to prefer being selected by peers to make a contribution.

Four students suggested some other strategies that can stimulate them more to participate. As way of example, one student said: "The teacher sometimes asks me to answer in a funny way and this is encouraging". Another student stated that the teacher should not oblige someone to speak, but the student should speak out of their free will. Lastly, a student showed his/her inclination to have the floor for oral presentation.

2.2.1.1.1. Summary of the findings from the student questionnaire

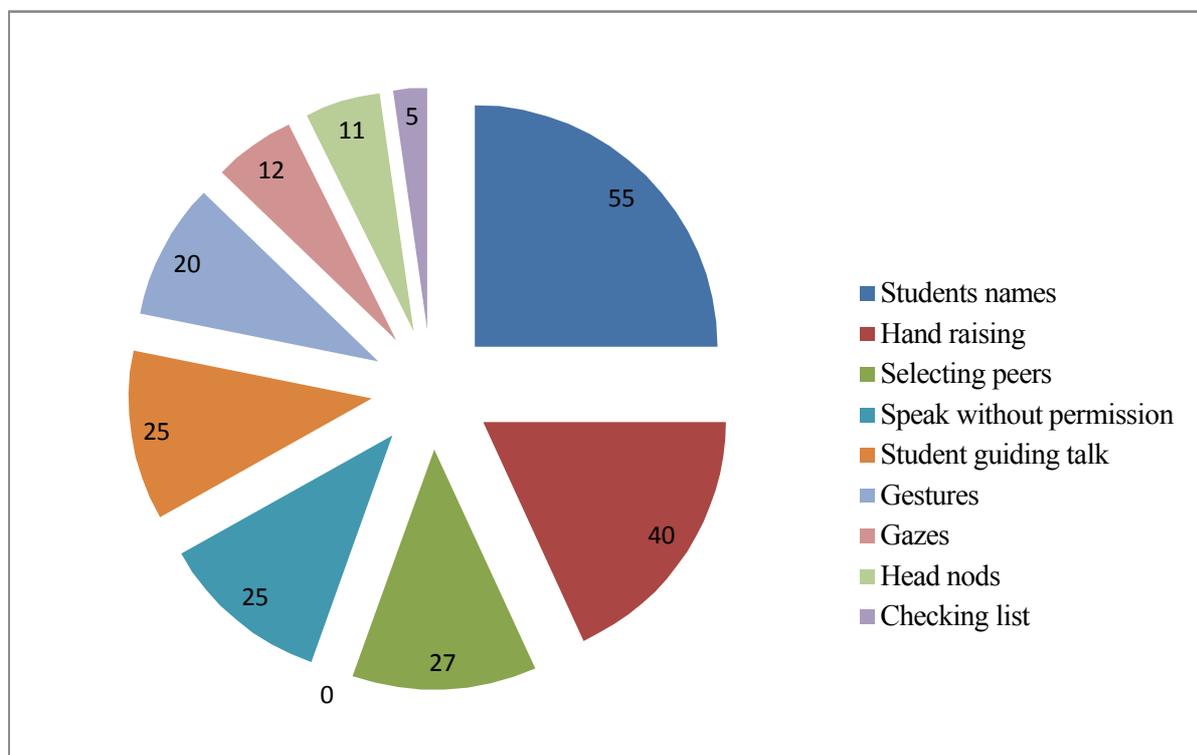
In what follows, a brief summary of the most significant findings from the student questionnaire will be presented. It is divided into two main categories on the basis of the core research questions. The first category concerns the use of turn-allocation categories in target classes and the second is about the amount of interaction supposedly generated by those strategies.

2.2.1.1.1.1. Sum up of students' evaluation of teacher turn allocation behaviour

This summary outlines the turn-allocation strategies in use in the target classes from the student viewpoint. They are graded according to their frequency and represented visually in a pie chart. The summary also includes a brief comment on the findings.

Figure: 1

Students' evaluation of turn-allocation strategy distribution



As can be seen in the pie chart above, the three top strategies used by the teachers to distribute turns in the classroom are “Students’ names”, “Hand raising”, and “Selecting peers”. These results seem to obey the logic of EFL classes and concur the findings shown in the literature review, except that ranking “Selecting peers” as a third top strategy ahead of more teacher-cantered techniques like nominating students calls for doubts. Indeed, the data yielded from this question which was part of a Likert scale seems dubious. As already noted, students seem to have opted for the middle ground when responding to all questions incorporated into the Likert scale. This might be due either to carelessness engendered by the complexity of the question or unfamiliarity with and newness of this type of survey questioning. Therefore, for now, these findings will be set aside until they are compared to the teacher questionnaire and classroom observation.

2.2.1.1.1.2. Recap of students’ evaluation of their involvement in classroom interaction

The findings from the student questionnaire tend to show that most student-participants are happy with their level of involvement in classroom oral talk and with the participatory opportunities granted to them. Consequently, teacher turn-allocation behaviour can be said to be favourable for generating satisfactory levels of interaction.

After analysing and summing up the data/findings from the student questionnaire, the next step in data analysis procedure will be concerned with examination and making sense of returns from the teacher questionnaire.

2.2.1.2. The teacher questionnaire

Much like the student questionnaire, the teacher questionnaire aims at investigating how teachers manage turn distribution in their teaching practices and how much, by so doing, they involve learners in interaction.

Teachers' answer to Q1 (*do you encourage all your students to take part in classroom oral interaction?*)

Table 8

Teachers' encouragement of classroom oral interaction

Yes	No
10	-
Justification	Frequency
- Giving equal speaking chances to all students.	4
- Motivating students and stirring their interest.	4
- Giving turns to those who do not bid for them.	1
- Creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom.	2
- Using pair and group work and asking referential questions.	1

All informants specified that they do encourage all students to take part in classroom interaction. When asked to justify their answers, most of their justifications are represented in the continuum along which they strive to involve all students, active or reticent, in interaction through giving equal speaking opportunities to all students. The latter is achieved by evoking students' interest and motivation, creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom, giving turns to those who do not bid for them, asking referential questions, and furthering turn-taking and adjacency pairs via pair and group work. Thus, according to teachers' views, they tend to kindle enthusiasm for learner participation via a variety of techniques.

Teachers' answer to QQs 2-5**Table 9***Teachers' control over turn distribution*

<i>How often...</i>	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Q2. Do you control classroom discourse?	1	6	3	-
Q3. Do you allow students to speak without asking for permission?	-	5	5	-
Q4. Do you permit students to select peers as next speakers during classroom discussions?	1	3	5	1
Q5. Do you invite learners to raise their hands when making a contribution?	2	2	4	2

According to Q2 in the above table, most of teachers (90%) often/sometimes control classroom talk. Therefore, scores from this question appear to go in harmony with the literature, that classroom discourse is mostly regulated by instructors.

In Q3, teachers seem to contradict what they actually stated in Q2, where they indicated that they do control classroom discourse. This is because their responses to Q3 tell that they permit learners to speak without seeking permission, i.e. without bidding for a turn.

So far as answers to Q4 are concerned, most teachers (80%) opted for often/sometimes, that is, for middle ground. Therefore, in light of their choice, they do allow students to select peers as next speakers, and this suggests that they are not tightly controlling turn distribution.

As for Q5, the highest percentage (40%) goes for informants' belief that they do sometimes ask learners to raise their hands before making a contribution. Hence, it can be

construed that teachers do not constantly impose on learners to raise their hands before speaking.

On the whole, contrary to what most views in the literature have settled, teachers' answers to the Likert scale indicate that they do not persistently hold a tight rein on classroom discourse.

Teachers' answer to Q6 (*when nominating students to talk, what do you make use of? –You can tick more than one-*)

Table 10

Teacher nomination

Students' names	Pointing gestures	Eye contact	Head nods	Others
8	5	4	1	Calling students by nicknames created by the teacher.
				1

Table 10 shows that what teachers mostly use to nominate students for turns are students' names and pointing gestures, while eye contact and head nods seem to be used less. These findings will be crosschecked with results from the observation schemes used in classroom observation.

Teachers' answer to Q7 (*based on your teaching experience, what are the best strategies/techniques that can encourage students to talk more in a language classroom?*)

Table 11

Strategies/techniques encouraging learner involvement

Answers	Frequency
Promoting turn taking activities.	4
Opting for topics of interest to learners.	4
Calling students using their first names.	1
Giving equal participation opportunities.	1
Avoiding interruption of students' talk.	1
Giving less negative feedback.	2
Elaborating on students' responses.	1
Asking clear questions.	1
Asking referential questions.	3
Asking questions implicitly.	1

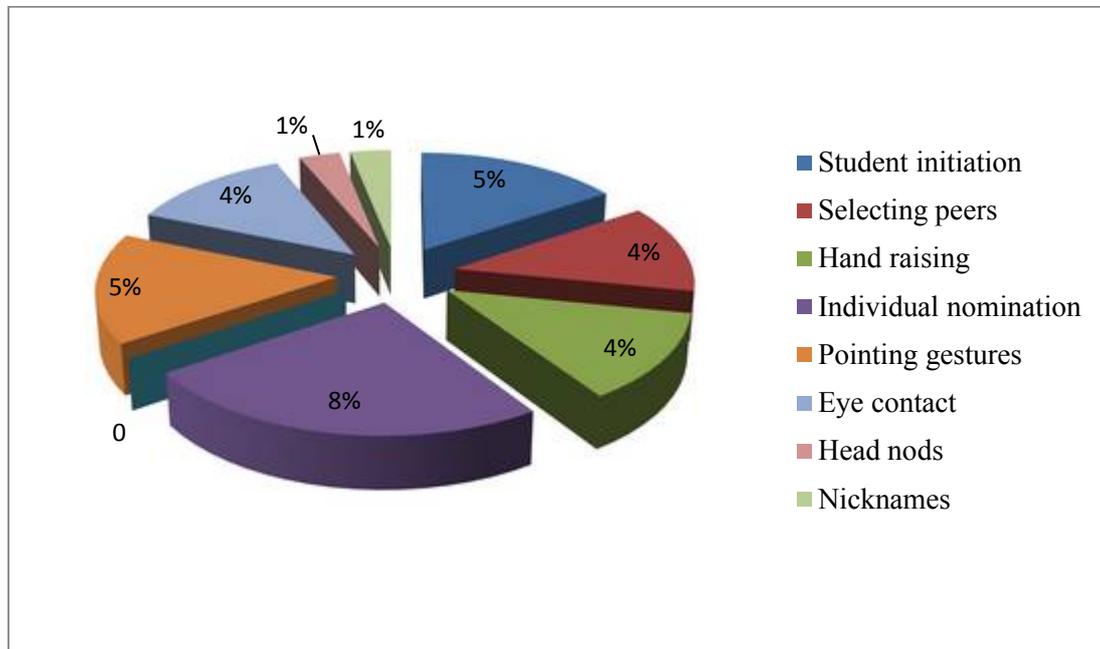
Table 11 summarises teachers' answers to Q7. It is mainly about the teachers' viewpoints concerning the strategies and questions that are helpful for learner investment in classroom interaction. Four teachers suggested a set of activities promoting turn-taking, including games, role plays, debates and conversations, pyramid discussion, and story construction. According to some teachers, determining topics of interest to learners is equally significant to uplift students' interest. Other strategies that the teachers suggested are as follow: calling students by their first names; giving the chance for each student to participate; avoiding interrupting students when they are taking turns (such as when providing feedback); reducing negative feedback so that learners are not discouraged; expanding on learners' responses; maximising the use of referential questions and making sure they are clear enough

to learners; and, finally, introducing questions implicitly as to do away with students' pressure. All these strategies are thought to be beneficial for boosting turn-taking and classroom interaction.

In sum, based on their responses, teachers do not seem to control classroom talk very tightly. In fact, they do allow for learner self-selection, i.e. they permit their learners to take the initiative to speak. Besides, their answers reveal that they do not often ask their students to bid for turns by putting up the hands, only occasionally. Moreover, the main turn-allocation strategy used by teachers is individual nomination, viz. selecting students for turns using their names, address terms, and even nicknames. Furthermore, they seem to rely significantly on pointing gestures. All these turn-allocation behaviours supposedly encourage the flow of classroom interaction.

2.2.1.2.1. Sum up of teachers' evaluation of classroom turn-allocation strategies

This subsection, in the process of boiling down the meaningful data produced by the survey questionnaires, will attempt to highlight the most noteworthy patterns deserving attention in the teacher questionnaire. Again, the turn-allocation strategies are presented and ranked according to their frequency of use from the most important to the least important. They are graphically represented in a pie chart for ease readability; then, they are followed by the researcher's informed reading in prose format.

*Figure 2**Teachers' evaluation of allocation strategy use*

It is plainly shown in the display figure above that the teacher-participants more or less have a firm hold on classroom talk, as a matter of fact that, the most employed turn-allocation strategies are teacher nominating a student to talk using a student's name to allow him/her a legitimate turn. Nevertheless, teachers seem to leave some room for student initiation without receiving the teacher's consent. This is supported by the fact that hand raising is ranked as the least used technique. Furthermore, when combining bodily gestures (e.g. eye contact and head nods), they seem to constitute a big share of turn giving techniques. Such strategies undoubtedly facilitate the flow of classroom interaction and allow a loose management of classroom talk heading towards free democratic and participatory give-and-take exchanges.

All in all, when considering the unavoidable implications of these teacher turn-allocation strategies, it can be said that the target classes are halfway between traditional and communicative driven classes.

It is noteworthy that this inquiry reveals a new potentially optimal turn distribution strategy, namely, using friendly nicknames, this innovative strategy might create a vivid atmosphere and have positive affective impact on students' investment in oral interaction.

Finally, teachers are naturally well aware of the most optimal classroom turn-taking allotment techniques; consequently, the question that imposes itself is whether their responses mirror their daily classroom practices or simply reflect their knowledge of the subject matter. This methodologically compelling question takes the researcher to further compare these results to those yielded from both the student questionnaire and classroom observation schedules.

2.2.1.2.2. Summary of teachers' evaluation of classroom interactivity

On the whole, the teacher participants do believe that their students interact actively with the turn-allocation behaviours they utilize. By way of example, the overwhelming majority of teachers stated that nearly all students respond when they are nominated to take a turn. Besides, teachers seem to be quite aware and mindful of classroom techniques that can maximise students' involvement. They mostly stated that they choose interesting topics, care for an even distribution of turns, avoid interruptions, and use referential questions. All these strategies can increase classroom liveliness and upgrade life durations of students' interventions.

2.2.1.3. A brief comparison of teachers' and students' questionnaires

A comparison between the teacher and the learner questionnaire indicates a relative consistency, with an emerging pattern showing that teachers are more inclined towards the use of optimal interactional turn distribution strategies and students objecting to a certain absence of more suitable strategies for getting involved in classroom exchanges. But, on the whole, their responses are neighbouring closely within the continuum of class tightness and class openness. For instance, a perfect match is shown in that both teachers and students reported the frequent use of students' names; also, but to a lesser level of agreement, both respondents stated that hand raising classroom protocol is still there. However, teachers pointed out to its uncommonness and students designated its frequency. Likewise, while teachers reported the student freedom to initiate talk without teacher's constraints, learners seem comparably unhappy with the extent to which they are allowed to initiate interventions on their own.

The striking dissimilarity between the students' and teachers' reaction to their respective questionnaires culminates in the question concerning students' monitor of classroom talk. Contrary to the line of argument developed above, students stated that they most often monitor classroom interaction, while their teachers forcibly denied this behaviour. It seems that the students have misunderstood the question as they are probably unfamiliar with this technique of peer monitoring and chairing of classroom discourse.

After the analysis of raw data from both the learner and teacher questionnaires, attention is now turned to the analysis of results from another key research tool used in the study, classroom observation.

2.2.2. Analysis of classroom observation

In addition to the questionnaires, the study also implemented systematic classroom observation in an attempt to identify teacher turn-allocation strategies and learners' reaction to them via an observation scheme executed in each of the observed sessions. Results from the four observation schedules coded on the basis of actual classroom observation and audio recordings are presented below in a form of tables, which are paired to their corresponding comments.

2.2.2.1. Analysis of the observation scheme for the 1st session

The first observation scheme to be presented here relates to the session attended with the first third-year group. The results obtained from the first observation scheme are meshed and presented in one table, displaying both the frequency of turn-allocation strategies used by teachers and the time of interaction generated by these strategies.

Table 12

Teacher turn-allocation strategies in session one (third-year group)

Strategies	Frequencies	Time average per strategy	Time average per single frequency	
Individual nomination	6	12.43	2.07	
General nomination	6	-		
Gazes	3	0.798	0.266	
Pointing gestures	20	5.32		
Head nods	1	0.266		
Invitations to bid	1	-		
Others:				
- Standing next to a student to give a turn	7	1.862		
Learner self-selection	30	3.51	0.117	
General amount of talk				
	Teacher talk	Student talk	Silence	Total
	12 min 40 sec	24 min 59 sec	20 min 37 sec	58 min 16 sec

The results displayed in the table above mostly show that the observed teacher does not incline towards tightness in orchestrating classroom talk. The most used turn-allocation strategy (i.e., learner self-selection) signals students' freedom to initiate talk without any constraints. Still, only once the teacher summoned the students to order by asking them to bid for turns. Nevertheless, this Speaking session revealed that classroom discourse is still regulated by the teacher, with pointing gestures occupying the second position in the continuum of the most used turn distribution strategies.

It is noteworthy, that the first observed session unravelled an innovative turn-allocation strategy employed by the observed teacher, namely, standing next a student to give him/her a turn.

With regards to the amount of student talk generated by each turn-allocation strategy, the above table indicates that the category of individual nomination tends to generate more interaction from learners, as the average amount of student talk produced by this strategy per one single use amounts to 2.07 minutes. Surprisingly, learner self-selection, which is praised as part and parcel of interactive classes, produced the least amount of student verbal contributions to classroom talk. Actually, they dwell below physical invitations to turns such as head nods and pointing gestures.

Finally, what can also be gathered from the above figures is that although student talk represents the leading voice during the entire classroom time as it goes beyond teacher talk and silence, the most frequent turn distributing strategies used are the least productive of student talk. It follows then, to assume that if the teacher had favoured individual nominations, he/she would produce even a higher percentage of overall student talk.

2.2.2.2. Analysis of the observation scheme for the 2nd session

The second observation schedule to be analysed is that employed in the additional classroom observation for the first-year group.

Table 13

Teacher turn-allocation strategies in session two (first-year group)

Strategies	Frequencies	Time average per strategy	Time average per single frequency
Individual nomination	31	3.53	0.113
General nomination	63	-	
Gazes	7	0.931	0.133
Pointing gestures	24	3.192	
Head nods	10	1.33	
Invitations to bid	2	-	
Others:	-	-	
Learner self-selection	79	3.26	0.041

General amount of talk			
Teacher talk	Student talk	Silence	Total
28 min 38 sec	13 min 6 sec	16 min 28 sec	1 h 11 min 18 sec

In light of the patterns presented above, learner self-selection and general nomination, respectively, scored the highest frequencies of all the turn-allocation strategies. The least occurrence goes for invitations to bid; thereby, teachers rarely invite their students to raise their hands before speaking, and this is further indicated through learners' tendency to self-select for turns.

As concerns the time generated by each turn distribution strategy, the table above illustrates once again, as seen in the previous table, that the most frequent turn-allocation techniques produce less time in comparison to the least applied strategies. As a way of example, learner self-selection which had the highest frequency tends to yield the least amount of student talk. The highest amount of interaction time generated by turn-allocation

strategies was that of gestures (gazes, head nods, and pointing gestures). In this first-year group, it can be seen that student talk is the least amount of talk generated of the total amount of classroom talk; thus, first-year students do not appear to invest much in classroom interaction.

All in all, it can be deduced that over reliance on student self-selections is detrimental to the amount of student talk. Alternatively, teachers should favour individual nominations to increase relatively the amount of student participation.

2.2.2.3. Analysis of the observation scheme for the 3rd session

The table below reports results from the third classroom observation session carried out with a second-year group.

Table 14

Teacher turn-allocation strategies in session three (second-year group)

Strategies	Frequencies	Time average per strategy	Time average per single frequency
Individual nomination	19	3.266	0.172
General nomination	11	-	
Gazes	1	0.108	0.108
Pointing gestures	22	2.76	
Head nods	1	0.108	
Invitations to bid	0	-	
Others:	-	-	
Learner self-selection	34	2.3	0.067

General amount of talk			
Teacher talk	Student talk	Silence	Total
21 min 38 sec	8 min 29 sec	34 min 44 sec	1 h 4 min 51 sec

Again and again, learner self-selection category scored the highest number in terms of frequency of use. After this learner-centred turn-allocation behaviour, two teacher-centred turn-allocation behaviours followed, namely pointing gestures and individual nomination

respectively. It is noteworthy that invitations to bid were totally inexistent in this observed session. This means that the teacher-participant furnishes a free interactive environment for his/her learners with no urging need to regulate the flow of verbal interaction.

As far as time creation through commitment to a given turn-allocation strategy, the results displayed in the table above seem to reinforce strongly the unceasingly emerging and pervasive pattern marking this process of analysis. Indeed, once again the strategy of individual nomination shows its capacity to generate more time pertaining to student talk. Likewise, the classroom technique of self-selection generates the least amount of student talk as opposed to its high frequency. So far, these results tend to converge harmoniously and the pattern of individual nomination as the most productive strategy/ learner self-selection as the least productive strategy of student talk is established as indisputable.

With regard the overall time generated in the course of this session, the parsimoniousness of student talk as compared to teacher talk can be attributable or extraneous variables (such as students' reticence/shyness), since this session equally displays the same pattern like the preceding generous sessions. This can be supported by the fact that the time reported for silence is the highest percentage (34.44 Minutes) in all observation sessions.

2.2.2.4. Analysis of the observation scheme for the 4th session

The fourth, and the last, results to be presented are those gained from classroom observation of the other third-year group.

Table 15*Frequency of teacher turn-allocation strategies in session four (third-year)*

Teacher turn allocation behaviour	Frequencies
Individual nomination	8
General nomination	27
Gazes	6
Pointing gestures	30
Head nods	5
Invitations to bid	0
Others:	-
Learner self-selection	21

Results from this fourth session tend to show that the observed teacher was using more traditional turn-allocation behaviours. Most of turns were taken through gestures. Nevertheless, student initiation of talk was significantly and unshakably present; thereby, this strategy was always present in all the observed classes. Rareness of individual nominations can be accounted for by the fact that the teacher was unfamiliar with students' names.

Unfortunately, as already reported earlier, the defective audio recording of this session made it impossible to count its time distribution. Consequently, the researcher was not able to gauge the effect of turn-allocation strategies on time generation. However, basing on the researcher's observation, silence seemed to exceed both student and teacher talk, since students were immersed in a listening task. Also, students' interactional turns appeared to be short in time, so long as the questions set for the listening task were, for the most part, closed questions. Nevertheless, the teacher appeared to be involving all students by inviting them all to respond to general solicits, even by practicing saying the same answer differently. On the whole, student talk was moulded by the nature of the lesson that their responses to turn-allocation strategies were constrained by the nature of the questions asked.

2.2.2.5. Summary of results from classroom observation

To sum up, findings from classroom observation pointed out to a difference in terms of the frequency of turn-allocation strategies and the time engendered by each strategy. The fact of the matter is that teachers seem to permit learner initiated turns more than they do allocate turns to them through other teacher-centred turn-allocation strategies, albeit learner self-selection seemed to yield the least amount of time when it came to learner interaction. Further, gestures (pointing gestures, gazes, and head nods), when counted together, represent the second most employed turn-allocation strategy. They are, also, ranked second in terms of the amount of interaction they trigger after individual nomination, which comes after pointing gestures in frequency. The least frequent turn-allocation strategy is teachers' requests for students to raise their hands before a contribution.

The forthcoming section will attempt to discuss the most important issues highlighted, make sense of the data, relate important findings to the literature review, and ultimately answer the research questions set up in the conceptual research plan.

2.3. Data discussion

The research instruments chosen for the present study were implemented as an attempt to answer three research problems. The first relates to unveiling the main turn-allocation strategies on which teachers rely to distribute turns to their students in Speaking sessions and manage classroom interaction. The second concerns the degree to which teacher turn-allocation behaviour impacts the level of learner involvement in classroom interaction. The third research chunk seeks to uncover the optimal turn-allocation strategies that can best enrich classroom discourse. After the presentation of the findings from teachers' and learners' questionnaires as well as classroom observation, the present section will attempt to interpret the results unveiled in the previous section.

2.3.1. Classroom turn-allocation behaviour

The results reaped from learners' and teachers' questionnaires are almost analogous when it comes to the frequency of turn-allocation strategies, particularly verbal and nonverbal nomination. Teachers were found to rely, as a first degree, on students' names to select next speakers, and as a second degree on gestures –pointing gestures, head nods, and gazes- from both teachers' and learners' perspectives. However, students' viewpoints have shown mismatch and confliction with what teachers reported; with teachers claiming that they do allow for learner initiation and responding that they occasionally request for students' hand raising behaviour, and learners, on the other hand, reporting rather the contrary.

As these above findings are attached to the informants' subjective views, results from the analysis of classroom observation appear to be more reliable, particularly after inspection of the tapes from the recorded sessions and calculation of the frequency of the turn-allocation strategies along with the time of interaction they engender in seconds. It follows then that the turn-allocation strategies are to be interpreted and discussed in accordance with their order of frequency established from classroom observation with due reference to the data gathered from all the research instruments, namely the questionnaires, classroom observation, and the follow-up interviews.

2.3.1.1. Learner self-selection

Teachers' permission for learner initiated talk emerged as the most frequent turn-allocation strategy. EFL learners from all the observed groups had a tendency to take unsolicited turns to answer a question, to add a comment, or to ask a question. In either case, the student makes an attempt to talk without hand raising behaviour. This finding goes against many views in the literature, expressly those of McHoul (1978), Mehan (1979), and Cazden (2001), that the classroom protocol is built around teachers' extensive authority with

students being denied any right to initiate talk at all. And yet, the findings concur with those revealed by Kääntä (2010), Carroll (2011), and Ingram, et al. (2011), who also found that learner self-selection is part and parcel of the classroom routine. That is, the classrooms observed in the study are mostly communicative-driven classrooms.

Learner self-selection can be linked to a set of factors. First, according to students' questionnaires, the majority of learners tend to have an average level in English; hence, lack of fluency and fear of erring is inevitable. By initiating talk without bidding, such pressure of being the centre of attention is more or less lessened. In fact, what teacher A informed in the follow up interview when asked about the reason behind self-selection is that most students tend to be shy and afraid of sharing their views in front of the whole class; accordingly, they attempt to hide behind others by speaking without declaring their willingness to take a turn via their hand raising behaviour.

In addition, learners are presumably having in mind two open possibilities when initiating turns: the teacher will either accept the contribution or discard it. On the basis of our observation, teachers tend to accept student self-initiated turns whenever they are accurate, and in this case make these turns public by repeating the students' answer or simply showing attention to the student (by saying 'yes') to pursue the talk. Yet, most of the times students' self-initiated contributions are ignored when they are inaccurate. This echoes Mehan's (1979) findings. To illustrate, one of the observed teachers (teacher B) when interviewed said:

I do welcome students' self-selection provided that what they say is lesson related.

For that reason, students are likely to take unsolicited turns knowing that inaccurate contributions will be overlooked, which supposedly comforts them that if ever they err, there is less threat for their errors to be given due attention.

There must be also various reasons behind teachers' acceptance of learners' unsolicited turns. Most Speaking teachers would approve that the most important goal behind the Speaking session is that learners would develop their Speaking abilities. Therefore, teachers will be delighted to involve all their students including reticent ones in classroom talk even if the talk is initiated without teachers' consent. This view is also supported by the response provided by teacher C, in the follow-up interview, who declared:

For students majoring in English, and in an oral classroom, I think that taking the initiative is good for learners.

Also, from the sessions observed, learner self-selection depends on the nature of the lesson. If the lesson calls for a debatable discussion between learners and their teacher or between learners themselves, the teacher is more likely to accept learner self-selection. Contrariwise, if the kinds of questions directed to the learners are display questions targeting previously learnt knowledge –such as asking for the meaning of idiomatic expressions-, then the teacher can ask learners to bid for turns instead of self-selecting (this point will be further discussed as part of 'invitations to bid' turn allocation).

Unlike the findings established from classroom observation, it was indicated earlier that most of students responding to the questionnaire agreed that student self-selection is not a rather strong behaviour, whilst most of teachers' opinions settled on one agreement: that they tend to give opportunities for their students to self-select though not really to a great extent as was found in the groups observed. The most logical reason, perhaps, behind teachers' being economic when permitting self-selection is their inclination towards

sustaining authority in the classroom. Loosing authority will end up in the class being chaotic and ill-managed. So, as an attempt to control students' overlapping talk, as an example, the teacher will have to assign a turn to only one student at a time. Two of the interviewed teachers (A & D) proposed that the teacher should impose authority once students' voices become noisy. This goes in harmony with what Jones and Thornborrow (2004) suggested that when classroom talk becomes chaotic, the teacher should cope by tightening up the floor.

To say it in brief terms, the dominance of learner self-selection in the observed classrooms can be linked to some factors, such as students' poor level of proficiency and their fear of making mistakes, which will be decreased by self-selection, and, on the other hand, to teachers' willingness to involve all students by accepting whatsoever contribution they make, even if it is made without their permission.

2.3.1.2. Nonverbal turn allocation

Gestures, as part of teacher turn-allocation behaviour, are ranked second in terms of their frequencies. By gestures, we refer to pointing gestures, head nods, and eye contact. It is noteworthy that pointing gestures constitute the most frequent turn-allocation strategy of the other gestures. Yet, it seemed preferable to count gestures all together in terms of their frequencies, so long as they fall under the same rubric, namely nonverbal turn allocation. Surprisingly enough, teachers were drawing extensively on gestures to nominate students for turns. Gestures highlighted in the current study (pointing gestures, gazes, and head nods) were the same as those shown in the study of Mehan (1979) and Kääntä (2010); nevertheless, classroom observation unravelled another turn-allocation strategy classified in the category of nonverbal turn allocation, namely approaching students and standing next to them to give them a turn.

Teachers' tendency to cling to nonverbal turn allocation can be explained through a number of reasons. To begin with, it seems unmistakable that whenever a student's name is unknown to the teacher, the teacher will find it suitable to resort to gestures for nomination, which were more likely found to occur escorted by "yes". Moreover, gestures can be used in cases wherein the teacher is racing against time to cover all the aspects of a lesson and wants to save time by only referring to the student via nonverbal nomination. This is what teacher A, when speaking about the major reason behind the use of gestures in the follow up interview, claimed. The teacher put it:

Sometimes, even the few seconds spent to remember a student's name is important; so, sometimes, I start naming students, and then because of time constraints, when I come to the third or the fourth one, I just point at him or her to speak.

Using gestures to distribute turns can be, further, connected to cultural factors. Indeed, the extent to which one uses gestures in everyday communication varies from one person to another. It happens that some people are inclined to use gestures extensively just because it is part of their habit. Then, teachers who tend to widely draw on nonverbal turn allocation may have this as an everyday habit that is taken into the classroom. More to the point, Teacher C explained that the use of such paralinguistic forms as gazes and head nods is very particular to people of the Mediterranean more than it is to any other people in the world. Thereby, a potential explanation for teachers' reliance on gestures as a turn-allocation strategy is that they are Mediterranean people.

After the interpretation of nonverbal turn-allocation strategies, attention will now be turned to the third turn-allocation strategy, general nomination.

2.3.1.3. General nomination

General nomination, or general solicit, is also frequent in classroom turn-allocation behaviour. In fact, its significant frequency is justifiable. Any teacher, usually, starts with a general solicit that is directed to the whole class, before learners respond to it via bidding or self-selecting, and before the teacher, in turn, selects one to speak via verbal or nonverbal nomination, and otherwise allowing for students' self-initiated turns. Consequently, it can be proposed that the turn-allocation behaviour of teachers is mostly contingent on general nomination insofar as this strategy is the starting point for other turn-allocation strategies to ensue. This point corroborates the view that the most common pattern found in classrooms is that the teacher first starts with a general solicit before moving to a personal one (Tsui, 1995). For instance, teacher D in the follow up interview maintained that whenever a question is asked and no answer is forthcoming, they make use of a list to nominate students for imposed turns.

It is worthy of note that despite the importance of this strategy it did not take the first rank as the most frequent turn-allocation strategy. This can be due to the fact that the teacher presumably performs a general nomination, such as asking a question, and sticks to it for a significant period of time until s/he secures a significant amount of interaction from learners and, then, moves forth to perform another general solicit.

2.3.1.4. Individual nomination

The fourth turn-allocation strategy is individual nomination, or addressing students by name. It appeared to be the top used turn-allocation strategy from teachers' and learners' views gathered from the questionnaires, and yet, it was less frequent in the findings from classroom observation. Students have actually revealed enthusiasm for being called by their own names in the questionnaire, what Xie (2011) also found when interviewing some

students. Likewise, all the interviewed teachers in this study seemed to appreciate calling students by names for the positive trace this turn-allocation strategy may leave on learners' motivation. One of the observed teachers (teacher B), when interviewed, suggested that creating nicknames for students will, in turn, create a sense of intimacy in the classroom and this has good effects on learner involvement. Calling students by name will supposedly create a friendly atmosphere in the class and build good relations between students and teachers. Therefore, this turn-allocation strategy is used by teachers as an attempt to create a convivial place for learners to invest more in the language classroom.

2.3.1.5. Invitations to bid

Teachers' invitations for learners to bid, or to raise hands before speaking, is the least frequent of the turn-allocation strategies observed. It is, more or less, related to learner self-selection so long as it is principally used to halt learner self-initiated contributions in an attempt to orchestrate classroom interaction. As already noted, teachers may intervene to invoke authority when students' self-selection becomes messy asking students to put up the hands. In addition to that, teachers may ask for hand raising as an attempt to focus on a student's answer. If learners are self-selecting, it will be hard to hear all what they want to convey, particularly if their talk overlaps when initiating talk. Teacher C in the follow-up interview explained that despite the importance of self-selection, learners' hand raising behaviour is crucial when it comes to distinguishing students who are confident to speak and those who are not. Besides, putting up the hand will further discriminate between those students who are just trying their luck via self-selection and those who really know an answer.

Despite the fact that invitations to bid seemed to be endorsed according to the questionnaires and the follow up interviews, it seemed to be scarce in classroom observation.

The paucity of this turn-allocation behaviour in the classrooms observed can be explained in terms of teachers' belief that at university level, students are deemed as adults who can take the initiative in an organised manner. For this, teachers do not have to remind learners to raise their hands each time before they speak. Besides, as noted earlier, most Speaking teachers would consent that taking the initiative is important in Speaking sessions, and hence, they do not resort to ask learners to raise their hands only when it is necessary.

2.3.1.6. Other turn-allocation strategies

Other turn-allocation strategies covered in the research tools are teachers' permission for learners to select peers as next speakers, the teacher nominating students using a list of names, the teacher standing next to a student to give a turn, and the teacher nominating students via nicknames. First, selecting peers as next speakers, from our observation, took place mostly when the teacher entirely relinquished the floor for a student. This is the case for presentations, role plays, and learner-learner discussions, where the teacher merely takes the role of an organiser of the flow of discourse while students guide the talk. The wisdom behind such behaviour may lie in teachers' desire to develop learners' debate and discussion skills. Second, it was found in both students' questionnaire and the interview that the teacher resorts to a list of students' names to nominate a student for a turn. These turns are, thus, imposed on learners. Such individual nomination can be done for the sake of moving interaction forward, particularly, if no one is volunteering to take a turn. Third, both standing next to a student to give a turn and creating nicknames for students seem to aid reducing students' anxiety and creating intimacy in the classroom. Accordingly, students would be more motivated to dare investing in classroom discourse.

After discussing the frequency of the turn-allocation strategies, the next move will involve the discussion of the level of interaction produced by each turn-allocation strategy.

2.3.2. Teacher turn-allocation and length of student contribution/level of participation

Calculating the time of student interaction in reaction to each strategy revealed that individual nomination resides on the top of the turn-allocation strategies followed by gestures and self-selection, respectively. Students' reaction time to general nomination was counted with other turn-allocation strategies (so long as this strategy will end up with using other turn-allocation strategies), whilst each invitation to bid was estimated as part of verbal or nonverbal nomination.

2.3.2.1. Individual nomination

Despite the fact that individual nomination did not attain the highest frequency, it yielded the richest interaction of all the strategies. This can be attributed, as mentioned earlier, to the motivating effects this strategy may have on learners. Calling students by their name -first names, surnames, and even nicknames- presumably stimulates learners to take part and even to learn the language. All teachers interviewed stressed the importance of this strategy. Some of their views can be portrayed in the following quotes:

Nowadays, it's the hay day of learner centeredness. And one way of making the student feel that he is the centre of the world is to call him by his name. Calling students by names will add a humanistic touch to teaching and render it psychologically more student-oriented.

Calling students by names will indirectly motivate them to talk...it is like telling the student indirectly you are here in my class and I recognise you as you.

It can be advocated, then, that individual nomination creates affinity and friendly relations between the teacher and the learners and this supposedly serves as a source of motivation for students to get involved in classroom interaction.

2.3.2.2. Gestures

Gestures are classified second in terms of interaction they elicit from learners. It seems appropriate to argue that gestures do not yield equally a significant amount of interaction as individual nomination, because addressing learners via gestures only without calling them by name, from time to time, can be intimidating and might make them feel that they are anonymous. For this, it seems inappropriate to use solely gestures when allocating turns to students. According to what teacher A argued in the interview, if teachers are ever constrained by time and have to use gestures, they need to bear in mind that next time, they should refer to those students selected earlier for turns via gestures by their own names in order not to discourage them, and to make it evident that they are not nameless. Strictly speaking, excessive use of gestures over students' names might affect students' motivation to take part in interaction.

2.3.2.3. Learner self-selection

The least interaction time generated by the strategies corresponded to learner self-selection. By and large, learners were observed to take the initiative to provide responses they are not certain about and so abscond the potential threats of erring. Hence, their contributions were relatively short in time. This can be due to many reasons. Among the reasons to be anticipated is that when initiating turns, students feel insecure with regards to occupying the floor, which is, for the most part, under the teacher's authority. Their control over the floor following this strategy is not as secure as when they are, indeed, bestowed the entitlement from their teacher to hold it, the case for verbal and nonverbal nomination. And, perhaps, this

is the reason why verbal and nonverbal strategies are superior in terms of the amount of interaction they generate from learners.

More to the point, when students initiate talk, they bear the risk of their turns being taken away by other students if ever their voices overlap. At that point, overlapping talk will be eliminated by only one speaker pursuing the talk, and the current speaker may give up the floor for the other learner. Taking all these points together, it can be concluded that student self-selection does not always grant a good investment of students in classroom interaction.

2.3.3. Potentially interaction-provoking strategies

In light of the above discussions, it can be recognized that the most outstanding turn-allocation strategy that can elicit more interaction from learners during Speaking sessions is individual nomination. Despite its considerably low level of frequency, it yielded the highest level of interaction of all the turn-allocation strategies investigated. Students, then, seem to display a great zeal for being recognised and called by their names. In this regard, individual nomination is highly recommended for Speaking teachers.

Likewise, based on the results that stemmed from this current study, the innovative strategy of ‘Standing next to the Speaker’ seems equally an optimal strategy for increasing the student talk.

Finally, while gestural signs are acceptable and provoke satisfactory levels of interaction, they should be used moderately and eliminated gradually as they create a sense of anonymity in students and might inhibit them emotionally in the long run.

2.3.4. Pedagogical implications for turn allocation and classroom interaction

Basing on the findings that stemmed from this study, the following recommendations can be made:

- ❖ Speaking teachers should better nominate students using their names (first names, surnames, or nicknames) when selecting them for turns during classroom interaction.
- ❖ Gestures, such as pointing gestures, gazes, and head nods, should be used moderately so as not to intimidate students and give them a sense of anonymity.
- ❖ Students' self-initiated turns are better to be reduced. Teachers should, then, resort to either, and preferably, individual nomination or, if necessary, to bodily turn giving strategies.
- ❖ Invitations to bid are to be used to manage classroom discourse when the class becomes chaotic.
- ❖ Standing next to a student can be used to increase student talk since apparently students feel more secure when the teacher is at their feet.

Conclusion

In summary, the content of this second chapter was unfolded within three sections. The first section corresponded to the presentation and defence of the methodology used to investigate the topic under discussion; it presented the research paradigms, the tools, the population, and the procedure of the research. In the second section, a shift was made to the presentation and the description of the findings obtained from the research instruments employed in the study. The results were presented in the form of quantitative figures in tables or visual figures as deemed appropriate. Data analysis section was followed by data discussion section. The latter interpreted the most significant results that stemmed from the study, answered the core research questions, and ultimately, closed up with a set of pedagogical recommendations that were derived from the whole research process.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General conclusion

EFL Speaking teachers tend to allocate turns hazardously mindless of the time of interaction the turn-allocation strategies to which they adhere can produce from learners. In order to delve into this problem, an attempt was made, first, to explore the turn-allocation strategies exercised by EFL Speaking teachers, then, to sift those that can best generate rich interaction from EFL learners, and ultimately poke to the most advantageous ones.

To investigate the research problems posed, two key quantitative research tools were employed, namely student and teacher questionnaires and classroom observation. These two research instruments were substantially implemented to, first, reveal the cover on the turn-allocation strategies used by EFL Speaking teachers to distribute turns in six License target classes; second, to identify the amount of time of student talk these strategies may generate; and eventually, to establish the most optimal ones. Implementing two questionnaires was methodologically aimed at triangulation. Results from quantitative research tools assisted the design of a qualitative research tool, a follow-up interview, which was addressed to four Speaking teachers to follow and expand on student and teacher findings and, so, probe for further explanations.

The data obtained from the research tools indicated that teachers mostly tend to permit learner self-selection and adopt bodily gestures in distributing classroom turns. Although the results from the questionnaires showed an endorsement to individual nomination by both teachers and learners, it was found that this strategy was comparably less frequent in actual practice. This fact was confirmed through the data obtained by means of classroom observation.

Notwithstanding its prevalence, self-selection did not appear to be the optimal strategy, for it prompted the least amount of student talk. Correspondingly, bodily gestures

scored high frequencies, ranking second, and induced relatively a significant amount of interaction; yet again, their excessive use was found to be sometimes unfavourable to students' involvement. This is due to learners' sense of intimidation and namelessness when they are invariably selected for turns via gestures without being recognized by name.

Individual nomination, on the other hand, settled on the top of all strategies in terms of learners' investment, in spite of its comparably low frequency. Other turn-allocation strategies, including general nomination and invitations to bid were graded differently, with general nomination being the third most used and invitations to bid being the least frequent turn-allocation strategy.

The study has also revealed the cover on two other turn-allocation strategies, which are presumably supportive to learners' involvement. Both calling students by nicknames, which are part of individual nomination, and standing next to speakers to nominate them for turns appeared to be valuable for comforting learners to invest more in interaction.

Then, it is worthy of note that the results obtained by virtue of the quantitative and qualitative research instruments have supported the research hypothesis set for the current research study. Teacher turn-allocation behaviour does have an impact on learner investment in classroom interaction.

On the whole, this research points out that while teachers lean on certain turn-allocation strategies to manage the floor in Speaking classes, the most optimal strategies for turn distribution are individual nomination and standing next to speakers when giving turns. These strategies are, for the most part, motivating and comforting to learners, and hence, they involve learners more in classroom interaction. Still, it should be acknowledged that further research is needful using video recordings in order to detect non-verbal turn-allocation strategies as well as the time of interaction they engender.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Students' questionnaire

Dear Students

The questionnaire at hand aims at investigating teachers' turn-allocation behaviour in speaking classes and its possible effects on learners' involvement and level of participation.

Your answers and personal opinions will be of great assistance in gathering data and they will be treated anonymously and confidentially. So, would you, please, tick in the boxes that best correspond to your answer or write down your response when a blank space is provided.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

1. How good are you at English?

Good

Average

Below average

2. How often do you participate in speaking classes?

Always Often Sometimes Never

3. How often are you given opportunities to speak in speaking classes?

Always Often Sometimes Never

4. How often are you, students, given opportunities to guide classroom talk?

Always Often Sometimes Never

5. Do you have to raise your hand before speaking?

Yes No

6. How often do you speak without asking permission from your teacher?

Always Often Sometimes Never

7. What is your teacher's reaction if you ever volunteer to speak without raising your hand?

.....

8. How often are you given opportunities to select one of your peers to speak after your contribution?

Always Often Sometimes Never

9. When are you given opportunities to select peers as next speakers? (You can tick more than one)

During group work

During discussions

During presentations

Other (s):

.....

10. How does your teacher usually nominate you to speak? (You can tick more than one)

Calling you by name

Using gestures

Gazing at you

Nodding the head

Other(s):.....

.....

11. What are the best strategies your oral expression teacher can use to encourage you to participate? (You can tick more than one)

Calling you by surname/first name individually

Inviting other peers to ask you a question

Allowing you to self-select (speaking without raising your hand)

Other(s):.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you, again, for the thought, time, and effort you have put into completing this questionnaire.

Appendix B

Teachers' questionnaire

Dear Teachers

The questionnaire at hand aims at investigating teachers' turn-allocation behaviour in speaking classes and its possible effects on learners' involvement and level of participation. Your answers and personal opinions will be of great assistance in gathering data and they will be treated anonymously and confidentially. So, would you, please, tick in the boxes that best correspond to your answer or write down your response when a blank space is provided.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

1. Do you encourage all your students to take part in classroom oral interaction?

Yes

No

Please, explain:

.....

.....

.....

2. How often do you control classroom talk?

Always Often Sometimes Never

3. How often do you allow students to speak without asking for permission?

Always Often Sometimes Never

4. How often do you permit your students to select peers as next speakers during the process of classroom discussion ?

Always Often Sometimes Never

5. How often do you invite students to raise their hands when making a contribution?

Always Often Sometimes Never

6. When nominating students to speak, you make use of: (You can tick more than one)

Their names

Gestures

Eye contact

Head nods

Other(s):.....
.....

7. Based on your teaching experience, what are the best strategies/techniques that can encourage students to talk more in a language classroom?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you, again, for the thought, time, and effort you have put into completing this questionnaire.

Appendix C

Observation scheme

Teacher turn allocation behaviour		Student turn-taking behaviour			
Turn allocation strategies	Frequencies	Time for students' reaction to turn allocation strategies	Learner self-selection		
			Time	Frequency	
	1/ Verbal nomination				
a-	Individual nomination				
b-	General nomination				
	2/ Nonverbal nomination				
a-	Gazes				
b-	Pointing gestures				
c-	Head nods				
	3/ Invitations to bid				
	4/ Others				
		General amount of talk	Teacher talk	Student talk	Silence

Appendix D**Findings from the two excluded third-year sessions****Sessions one**

Teacher turn allocation strategies	Frequencies	
	1st observer	Co-observer
• Individual nomination	5	6
• General nomination	1	1
• Gazes	0	0
• Pointing gestures	1	0
• Head nods	1	1
• Invitations to bid	0	0
Others:	-	-
Learner self-selection	2	2

Session two

Teacher turn allocation strategies	Frequencies	
	1st observer	Co-observer
• Individual nomination	4	5
• General nomination	4	2
• Gazes	1	0
• Pointing gestures	1	0
• Head nods	2	0
• Invitations to bid	0	0
Others:	-	-
Learner self-selection	2	0

Appendix E

Initial classroom observation findings for the two observers

Session one (first third-year group):

Teacher turn allocation strategies	Frequencies	
	1 st observer	2 nd observer
• Individual nomination	5	6
• General nomination	6	3
• Gazes	3	2
• Pointing gestures	20	18
• Head nods	1	1
• Invitations to bid	1	1
Others:		
• Standing next to a student to give a turn	7	6
Learner self-selection	28	25

Session two (first-year group):

Teacher turn allocation strategies	Frequencies	
	1 st observer	2 nd observer
• Individual nomination	29	25
• General nomination	27	20
• Gazes	7	3
• Pointing gestures	24	21
• Head nods	10	8
• Invitations to bid	2	1
Others:	-	-
Learner self-selection	28	0

Session three (second-year group):

Teacher turn allocation strategies	Frequencies	
	1 st observer	2 nd observer
• Individual nomination	18	22
• General nomination	6	8
• Gazes	1	0
• Pointing gestures	22	15
• Head nods	1	1
• Invitations to bid	0	0
Others:	-	-
Learner self-selection	23	7

Session four (second third-year group):

Teacher turn allocation strategies	Frequencies	
	1st observer	2nd observer
• Individual nomination	8	9
• General nomination	27	19
• Gazes	6	3
• Pointing gestures	30	28
• Head nods	5	3
• Invitations to bid	0	0
Others:		
Learner self-selection	21	19

Appendix F**Teachers' follow-up interview**

- 1- Do you think that calling students by their names when giving a turn really motivates them to speak more in the language classroom?
- 2- Do you think that allowing students to initiate talk is important when teaching at university level? We have noticed that it does not produce rich interaction, what do you think about that?
- 3- When do you think that students should raise their hands to speak?
- 4- Why do you think most university teachers are disposed to use gestures to allocate turns to their students?
- 5- What do you do when you ask a question to the whole class and you see no answer forthcoming?

Résumé

Il a été constaté que certains enseignants ignorent l'importance que constitue l'allocation des tours dans l'enrichissement et l'augmentation de la production orale de l'élève. S'appuyant sur cette remarque, la présente recherche tente d'explorer les stratégies d'allocation des tours de rôles employées par les enseignants universitaires, examiner leurs potentiels impacts sur l'engagement de l'élève dans l'action interactive et, enfin, suggérer les stratégies optimales pour l'amélioration de la production orale de l'élève. Deux instruments de recherches clés, à savoir le questionnaire et l'observation en classe, ont été retenues et exécutés avec les enseignants et les élèves de l'expression orale en Licence d'Anglais à l'Université de Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. De plus, un autre outil de recherche, c'est-à-dire, une interview complémentaire a été également exploitée pour étendre la portée de recherche des instruments cités précédemment. Les résultats obtenus démontrent que les stratégies d'allocation des tours en classe les plus utilisées sont respectivement comme suit : le libre choix des élèves, les gestes corporels, la nomination individuelle, et l'invitation pour un appel. Cependant, il semble qu'il y a un hiatus entre les fréquences des stratégies et le taux et la longueur des interventions des élèves. Par exemple : le libre choix enregistre moins de temps consommé par l'élève lors d'une intervention, alors que la nomination individuelle semble produire le plus haut pourcentage de temps. Enfin, cette étude indique que la nomination individuelle, se mettre devant l'élève, et relativement les gestes corporels sont les stratégies les plus favorables pour l'augmentation de la durée des interventions faites par les élèves. Enfin, cette recherche indique la nécessité d'examiner individuellement les stratégies de distribution des tours en classe relatives aux gestes corporels à travers des enregistrements vidéo. Ainsi, il sera possible d'établir les fréquences de chacune d'entre eux, et leur capacité de produire plus de temps de la part de l'élève.

ملخص

نظراً لوجود استراتيجيات ناجحة لتوزيع الأدوار بين طلبة المؤسسات التعليمية لتنظيم النشاط التفاعلي و التبادل المعرفي، فإن هذه الدراسة العلمية تسعى لاكتشاف الطرق المتبعة من طرف أساتذة التعليم العالي، قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، لتوزيع الأدوار و بالتالي ضبط النشاط التفاعلي للطلبة. و إضافة إلى ذلك، يهدف هذا البحث إلى معرفة مدى أهمية هذه الاستراتيجيات في الرفع من مستوى النشاط التفاعلي للطلبة في حصص التعبير الشفهي الخاصة باللغة الإنجليزية، و كذا اقتراح أهمها و أنجعها. و من الطرق التي تم اتباعها لتحقيق هذا المطلب نذكر: القيام بزيارات استطلاعية لبعض الأقسام، و توزيع الاستمارات البيانية على أساتذة التعليم العالي المتخصصين في مجال التعبير الشفهي، وكذا طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية - درجة ليسانس- على مستوى جامعة "محمد الصديق بن يحيى" الكائن مقرها بولاية جيجل. و من أجل تبيين هذه الجهودات 1 و توسيع نطاق البحث، تم إجراء مقابلة إضافية مع بعض الأساتذة. و قد سجلت وسائل البحث مجموعة من النتائج المتعلقة بالاستراتيجيات الأكثر شيوعاً لتوزيع الأدوار بين الطلبة، و تتمثل على التوالي في: تفاعل الطالب مع الأستاذ دون طلب إذنه، فتح مجال المشاركة أمام الطالب عن طريق حركات و إيماءات جسدية يصدرها الأستاذ، التعامل مع الأفراد المعنيين بالمشاركة بأسمائهم الخاصة، و كذا تنبيه الطلاب إلى ضرورة طلب الإذن للكلام. لقد تركت هذه الاستراتيجيات بصمتها في مجال النشاط التفاعلي للطلبة، على الرغم من أنّ بعضها لم يعط نتائج إيجابية: مثلاً تفاعل الطالب مع الأستاذ دون طلب إذنه. و تشير تلك الدراسات الميدانية إلى أن منادات الطلاب بأسمائهم الخاصة أو المستعارة، و الوقوف أمام الطالب لإعطائه الدور، و نسبياً، الاعتماد على الإيماءات الجسدية، هي السبل الأمثل للرفع من مستوى تفاعل الطلاب في التعبير الشفهي. و في الأخير فإنّ هذه الدراسة تشير إلى ضرورة فتح مجال للبحث في استراتيجيات توزيع الأدوار عن طريق الإيماءات الجسدية اعتماداً على تسجيلات الفيديو، وذلك لمعرفة مدى شيوعها و النظر في تلك التي من شأنها أن ترفع من مستوى النشاط التفاعلي للطلاب.