

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

UNIVERSITY MOHAMED SEDDIK BENYAHIA OF JIJEL
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE



Gender Differences in Classroom Participation:
The Case of Second and Third Year Foreign Languages Classes at
Kimouche Ferhat and Makhlouf Hasnaoui Ben Mokhtar Secondary
Schools in Jijel

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Master
Degree in Language Sciences

Submitted by:

Meryem BOUHARICHE
Manal BOUFLIGHA

Supervised by:

Redouane NAILI

Board of Examiners:

Chairperson	Ahcene KERDOUN	University M ^{ed} Seddik Benyahia of Jijel
Supervisor	Redouane NAILI	University M ^{ed} Seddik Benyahia of Jijel
Examiner	Slimane BOUKHENTACHE	University M ^{ed} Seddik Benyahia of Jijel

Academic Year 2016-2017

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work

*To my wonderful parents, without whose support this work would have never
been completed*

To my brother Bachar and my sister Rima

To all my friends Manal, Roumaisa, Hayet, Halima, Rokia and Nardjes

For their support and encouragement to pursue my interests.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to the dearest people to my heart

To my mother and father, source of my happiness and success in life, may

Allah bless them

To the cherished memory of my beloved sister Saida

To my sisters, Ghania, Chafia and Moufida

*To my brothers, Mohamed, Toufik, Hicham, Nabil, Salim, Adel and Djalal
for their unconditional support and encouragements to pursue my interests*

To all my nieces and nephews Maissa, Housseem, Yasser, Chahd, Jomana,

Firas, Razin, Hatem, Younes, Kholoud and Marwa

And to all those who believed in me and pried for my success.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like first to thank Allah for giving us strength and capacity to complete this work.

We would like to announce special thanks to our supervisor, Mr.Naili Redouane, for being kind enough to accept directing this work.We would also like to thank him for the accurate advice he puts forward and for his patience with us throughout the stages of the research.

We address our special thanks and gratitude to Mr.Kerdoun AHCEN and Mr.Boukhentache Slimane for having accepted to examine the present research.

We extend special thanks to Mr. Boufligha AHCEN, Mr. Charbel Raouf and Mrs. Aissaoui Roufia who helped us to collect much of the data. Without their help and participation this study could not have been done.

We gratefully thank all the students of foreign languages second and third year at Kimouche Ferhat and Makhlouf Hasnaoui Ben Mokhtar secondary schools for their help and seriousness in completing the questionnaire.

Finally, we humbly and gratefully acknowledge the continual and enduring love and emotional support given by our parents and our friends.

ABSTRACT

This research work seeks to discuss the specific issue related to gender and how it affects students' participation rates and patterns in the classroom. Several reasons can be advanced for differential participation of students, and gender can explain and show, even partly, those differences. Hence, this research examines to what extent gender affects students' willingness to participate. It also aims to grab teachers' attention to the factors that prevent or encourage students to participate so as to allow them to better understand students and suggest strategies to help enhance their students' oral participation. A descriptive exploratory study is carried out to investigate gender differences in English classes. For doing so, two main tools were used which allow for the investigation of students' participation. On the one hand, a questionnaire, which is used as the main research tool, has been delivered to a sample of 104 secondary school students, of the Foreign Languages stream, and belonging to two different schools added to another questionnaire for the 8 teachers of English at the said schools. On the other hand, a classroom observation, used as a second tool, has also been conducted with the sample of students. The results of the present study show that girls participate more in the classes of English, they are more active, more interested in the material presented and more motivated than boys who were observed to be less active and less cooperative. It is hoped that these results will call teachers attention to this issue, and help them contribute to allow equal turns between males and females in classroom participation.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ESL:	English as a Second Language
FL:	Foreign Language
FLCA:	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety
IQ:	Intelligence Quotient
L2:	Second Language
WAIS:	Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale
WHO:	World Health Organization

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3. 1. Students' Age.....	56
Table 3. 2. Students' Gender Distribution.	57
Table 3. 3. Teacher Gender.....	57
Table 3. 4. Students' Interest in Classes of English.....	58
Table 3. 5. Students' Perceptions of the Difficulty of Learning English.....	58
Table 3. 6. Students' Sitting Arrangement.....	59
Table 3. 7. Female and Male Quantity of Participation per Session.....	60
Table 3. 8. School Subjects for Most Participation.	61
Table 3. 9. School Subjects for Least Participation.	61
Table 3. 10. Frequency of Responding when Selected by the Teachers for Females and Males. ...	62
Table 3. 11. Frequency of Raising Hands to Answer Teachers' Questions for Females & Males..	63
Table 3. 12. Frequency of Responding without Raising Hands for Females and Males.	63
Table 3. 13. Frequency of Answering Peer-Directed Questions for Females and Males.....	64
Table 3. 14. Frequency of Choral Answers for Females and Males.....	64
Table 3. 15. Frequency of Asking Questions for Females and Males.	65
Table 3. 16. Frequency of Making Comments for Females and Males.	65
Table 3. 17. Average Frequency for Seven Categories of Participation.....	66
Table 3. 18. Females and Males Reasons for Participation.	67
Table 3. 19. Frequency of Preparation of English Homework for Females and Males.....	68
Table 3. 20. Hindrances to Participating in Discussion for Males and Females.	69
Table 3. 21. Attitudes toward Participation in English Classes for Females and Males.	69
Table 3. 22. Females' and Males' Self-Evaluation of their Active participation.	70
Table 3. 23. Females' and Males' Self-Satisfaction about their Participation.....	70
Table 3. 24. Females' & Males' Perceptions of the Effect Teacher Personality on Participation..	71
Table 3. 25. Most Active Participants between Females and Males.	71
Table 3. 26. Females' and Males' Opinions about Teacher Attention to them.	72
Table 3. 27. Females' and Males' Opinions about the Conditions for more Participation.....	73
Table 3. 28. Females' Suggestions for Increasing their Level of Participation.	74
Table 3. 29. Males' Suggestions for Increasing their Level of Participation.	74
Table 3. 30. Teachers' Gender.....	76
Table 3. 31. : Teachers' Degree.	77
Table 3. 32. : Teachers' Experience in Teaching.....	77

Table 3. 33. Teachers Perceptions about the Difficulty of Teaching English at Secondary Schools.	78
Table 3. 34. Number & Percentage of Female & Males Students in Two Secondary Schools.	79
Table 3. 35. Teachers' Perceptions about the Importance of Oral Participation in Learning English.	79
Table 3. 36. : Teachers' Satisfaction with the Level of Students' Oral Participation.	80
Table 3. 37. Frequency of Rewarding Students' Oral Participation.	81
Table 3. 38. Teachers' Comparisons of Male and Female Participation Behaviours.	81
Table 3. 39. The Effect of the Number of Females and Males on Oral Participation.	82
Table 3. 40. Drives for Females' and Males' Participation.	83
Table 3. 41. Reasons for Lack or Absence of Females' and Males' Participation.	84
Table 3. 42. Teachers' Amount of Interaction with Male and Female Pupils.	85
Table 3. 43. Factors Determining Teachers' Selection of Students to Participate.	86
Table 3. 44. Differential Treatment for Female & Male Pupils to Increase Participation.	86
Table 3. 45. The Observation Scheme.	90
Table 3. 46. Class 1, Observation One.	91
Table 3. 47. Class 1, Observation Two.	93
Table 3. 48. Class 1, Observation Three.	95
Table 3. 49. Class 2, Observation One.	97
Table 3. 50. Class 2, Observation Two.	98
Table 3. 51. Class 2, Observation Three.	100
Table 3. 52. Class 3, Observation One.	102

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Dedication.....	I
Dedication.....	II
Acknowledgements	III
Abstract.....	IV
List of Abbreviations	V
List of Tables	VI
Table of Contents	VIII
General Introduction.....	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Research Questions	1
Purpose of the Study	2
Hypothesis of the Study	2
Data Collection Procedures	3
Structure of the Study.....	4
Chapter One: Gender Concepts and Classroom Applications.....	5
Introduction	5
1. Defining Gender and Related Concepts	5
1.1. Definition of Gender, Sex	5
1.2. Gender vs. Sex.....	6
1.3. Gender Stereotypes	7
2. Perspectives on Gender Difference	9
2.1. Overview of Gender Difference Research	9
2.2. Psychological perspectives.....	11
2.3. Sociological Perspectives	14
3. Gender in Educational Settings	15
3.1. Schools as Sex Discriminating Settings	16
3.2. Academic Differentiation	17
3.3. Gender Equality in the Classroom	18

Conclusion.....	20
Chapter Two: Classroom Participation in Secondary School EFL	21
Introduction	21
1. Definition of Class Participation	21
2. Types of Class Participation.....	23
2.1 Graded and Oral Participation.....	23
2.2 Silent or non-Oral Participation	24
2.3 Classroom Embodied Action	24
2.4 Classroom Desk Talk	25
3. Benefits of Classroom Participation.....	25
4. Factors Influencing Class Participation.....	26
4.1. Learner Factors.....	27
4.2. Situational Factors.....	40
5. Enhancing Classroom Participation	49
5.1. Active Learning.....	50
5.2. Students' Silence	50
Conclusion.....	52
Chapter Three: Field Work.....	53
Introduction	53
1. Data Collection Procedures	53
2. Population and Sampling	54
3. The Pupils Questionnaire	55
3.1. Description and Administration of the Pupils Questionnaire.....	55
3.2. Analysis of students' questionnaire results	56
4. The Teacher Questionnaire	75
4.1. Description and Administration of the Teacher Questionnaire.....	75
4.2. Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaires.....	76
5. Classroom Observation	88
5.1. Description and Procedures of Class Observation	88
5.2. Analysis of the Observations.....	90

5.3. Summary of Observations Results	103
5.4. Comparative Analysis of Results	103
6. Overall Analysis of Results.....	106
6.1. The Relationship between Student Gender and Rate of Participation	106
6.2. The Relationship between Student Gender and Patterns of Participation.....	107
6.3. Relationship between the Teacher Gender and Gendered Rates and Patterns of Participation	107
6.4. Teacher Turn Distribution Behaviour	107
6.5. Factors that Control the Manner in which Boys and Girls Participate.....	108
Conclusion.....	108
General Conclusion	110
1. Putting it Altogether	110
2. Pedagogical Recommendations.....	115
3. Other Strategies for Engaging Students in the Discussion.....	116
4. Limitations of the study.....	117
Bibliography	119
Appendix A	130
Appendix B.....	133
Appendix C.....	137

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

General Introduction

Statement of the Problem

Throughout our educational path, we have been made part of classrooms which are constituted of both sexes, boys and girls. In most of these educational settings, the number of girls outdoes that of boys, as is the case of the two secondary schools covered by this study. This leads to blur the patterns and rate of participation of members of both genders and each pupil in the classroom. Thus, though one would lean towards saying that teenager girls are more active in classroom participation, this might only be the impact of them outnumbering boys, and the rate of participation for each gender is unknown to researchers and teachers alike. By rate is meant frequency of participation for each member or category of students -male or female-, and by patterns of participation is meant the type of contributions usually made by each member or class of students. Patterns of participation include solicited and unsolicited answers to teacher questions, questions, comments and initiations. In addition, teachers cannot claim to be aware of the drives or the factors that impact each pupil's attitudes towards participation and the way they participate. While general observations may be made by teachers, even though they may be true, other factors that explain the whole phenomenon related to gender-based participation are there to be investigated.

Research Questions

The above-mentioned considerations warrant to be researched in the context of two secondary schools: Kimouche Ferhat (Taher) and Makhlouf Hasnaoui Ben Mokhtar (Jijel), and as far as the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) for the 'Literature and Foreign Languages' stream is concerned, in order to find answers for the following questions:

- 1) Is there relationship between student gender and their rate of participation in these secondary school EFL classrooms?
- 2) Is there relationship between student gender and their patterns of participation in these secondary school EFL classrooms?
- 3) Is there relationship between the teacher gender and gendered rates and patterns of participation in these secondary school EFL classrooms?
- 4) Is the teacher turn distribution behaviour neutral to gender in these secondary school EFL classrooms?
- 5) What other factors control the manner in which boys and girls participate in these secondary school EFL classrooms?

Purpose of the Study

The general aims of our study are to investigate whether there are differences between girls and boys in the ways they participate in the secondary school EFL classrooms covered by this study. If so, the reasons that lead to the existence of these differences need to be explained so as to allow teachers and researchers to understand the drives that govern participation in the classroom. This will also allow teachers to be conscious to how their role is pivotal in making pupils decide to and how participate. Moreover, this study aims to identify the teachers' and the students' perceptions and attitudes on how boys and girls participate in the classroom. To suggest strategies for teachers to activate participation for both girls and boys and draw their attention to the way they motivate students to participate is the ultimate aim of this study.

Hypothesis of the Study

We hypothesise that students' genders affects their classroom participation, and that there are differences between male and female students in terms of the patterns and

rate of participation in secondary school EFL classrooms. This hypothesis that attributes differences in classroom participation to students' gender can be broken down into several sub-hypotheses as follows:

- The rate of participation of students is gender specific i.e., there is a relationship between students' genders and the frequency of their participation.
- The patterns of participation of students are gender specific i.e., there is relationship between students' genders and the manner in which they participate.
- Teacher turn distribution behaviour favours one gender over the other, and contributes to explaining differences in participation.
- Teacher gender is related to the frequency and rate of gendered participation.

Data Collection Procedures

The present paper uses a case study research approach. The population consists of teachers and students at two different secondary schools, Kimouche Ferhat (Taher) and Mekhlouf Hasnaoui Ben Mokhtar (Jijel). The sample consists of all teachers in the said secondary schools, and three classes, with a total number of 104 pupils pursuing the same stream or specialty, 'Literature and Foreign Languages'.

In this study, two questionnaires are administered to the participants, one to the teachers of the subject of English the aforementioned secondary schools, and the second questionnaire is directed to second and third year Literature and Foreign Languages students.

Classroom observation is used as the second research tool for observing gender and participation. The observation scheme distinguishes between males and females in participation, and includes categories or patterns as well as frequencies of participation.

Seven ordinary sessions have been attended by the two observers distributed between the sample three classes.

After collecting the required data obtained from the different research instruments, they are analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Structure of the Study

The dissertation is mainly composed of three chapters. The first two chapters are theoretical in nature, where the first deal with gender and the second tackles classroom participation, and the third is practical, devoted to the analysis and discussion of the field work.

The first chapter entitled ‘Gender Concepts and Classroom Applications’ is devoted to the literature review of the term gender and its related concepts. Furthermore, an overview of gender difference theories along with the perspectives on gender difference are discussed. Gender in school setting is another important point that took part in the first chapter. In addition to that, the issue of sex discrimination in schools as well as some studies which suggest gender equality in the classroom are another important elements.

The second chapter, entitled ‘Classroom Participation’ gives an overview of the term classroom participation, its types, its benefits and the factors that influence students’ participation in Algerian secondary schools. Moreover, some strategies to enhance and engage students in class discussions have also been suggested.

The third and last chapter includes a detailed description of the research instruments and population, the administration of questionnaires and the procedures followed in classroom observation. Next, the chapter provides analysis of the teachers and students’ questionnaire, followed by a description and interpretation of the observation based on the checklist. Study limitations and recommendations conclude the chapter.

Chapter One

Gender Concepts and Classroom Applications

Introduction

The present chapter offers a brief review of the literature related to gender in order to give a clear definition of what it means and to make a distinction of its similar terms. It also analyses theories surrounding gender differences in general, as in society, and in particular, as in school, settings in learners receive different treatments from the instructors. It also discusses the different academic paths that students follow that are often related to their favourite subjects.

1. Defining Gender and Related Concepts

1.1. Definition of Gender, Sex

In its simplest and most essential sense, “Gender is the division of people into two categories, men and women”, as pointed out by Borgatta and Montgomery (2000, p1057). People are born with a physical identity as a boy or a girl, and as they grow up they learn how to perform masculinity or femininity in a particular speech community and according to particular situations. Boys and girls learn to behave as boys and girls throughout childhood and adolescence, girls are supposed to fulfil certain roles identified with women and so are boys who get trained in masculine roles. As people grow, they learn how to behave from those around. In this socialization process, children are introduced to certain roles that are typically linked to their biological sex.

Gender, as defined above, is closely monitored and reinforced by society. Thus, the term gender here is taken in its socially constituted sense, to refer to the socially constructed characteristics of men and women. As such, gender has to do with social or

cultural distinctions associated with being male or female. The term received various definitions from sociologists. According to Desprez-Bouanchaud et al (1987:21), “the term gender refers to the economic, social, political and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being a male and a female. In most societies, men and women differ in activities they undertake, in access to and control of resources and in participation in decision making and in most societies women as a group have less access than men to resources, opportunities and decision making”. The quote above highlights the differences between sexes and stresses the fact that men are better off given that they are generally in control in most human societies.

1.2. Gender vs. Sex

The terms ‘sex’ and ‘gender’ have not always been differentiated in the English language. It was not until the 1950s that American and British psychologists and other professionals working with intersex and transsexual patients formally began distinguishing between sex and gender.

Gender, as defined in the previous section above, is a cultural construction, meaning that every culture has defined gender according to the way male and female are expected to behave, think and feel. Doob (1997:70) argues this very point saying, “Traditionally, most cultures have treated female and male children very differently, it guides how we think about ourselves, how we interact with others and what opportunities and constraints we face through our lives”. Similarly, Gollnick and Chinn (1990:119) indicate that “gender is a term that better describes the differences of masculinity and femininity, the thoughts, feelings and behaviour that are identified as being either male or female”; hence, the different attitudes, activities and responsibilities are sufficient to define gender roles in society, which links to each sex.

The term 'sex' refers to biological and psychological characteristics that define men and women (WHO, 2009); therefore, sex is biological because it develops prior to birth. Macionis (1998:239) defines sex as "biological distinction between female and male, it is determined at the moment of conception", we can simply conclude that sex refers to physical differences.

The distinction between sex as a physiological attribute and gender as social attribute has been used without controversy.

1.3. Gender Stereotypes

Society has specific expected characteristics that male and female members should have. At a very young age, exactly by the age of four children can have a clear ideas and understanding about their gender and strive to abide by these existing roles (Eddleston, Veiga & Powell, 2003). The characteristics or the norms assigned by society for differences between men and women in manners and behaviour are called gender stereotypes. These stereotypes are facilitated by one's surrounding environment: family, friends, school, and the media are all persuasive factors in influencing individuals to conform to their stereotype causing them to strive for consistency between their biological sex and what is expected of them (Eddleston, Veiga, & Powell, 2003). Hence, many aspects in society contribute to teaching gender stereotypes. Gender stereotypes, "are rigid ideas about how males and females 'typically' behave" (Ormrod, 1998:173). According to their society both genders are expected to behave in specific ways; for instance, men are expected to have great strength, to be aggressive, and by contrast, women are expected to have less physical strength and are unaggressive. If a man or a woman does not do what is imposed by society, he or she is considered to be doing something inappropriate. In other words, these gender stereotypes have attributed attitudes such as sensitivity and being emotional to women, assigning them to a "take care" behaviour, while portraying men as

aggressive and rational, prescribing them to more of a “take charge” style (Welbourne, 2005). These stereotypes are, of course, the result of societal education where male and female are taught that some behaviours are more appropriate for males and that others are more appropriate for females. Many stereotypical behaviours of gender come from parents, media, classmates, teachers, and schools where all have different expectations from girls and boys abound. These aspects are the main promoters of gender stereotypes in society, and have significant effects on gender roles in that society, as Claes (1999:430) pointed out:

According to the sex role theory, being a man or a women means enacting a general role as a function of one’s sex. But this theory also uses the words masculine and feminine, asserting that the feminine character in particular is produced by socialization onto the female role. According to this approach, women acquire a great deal of sex role learning early in their lives, and this can lead to an attitude of mind that creates difficulties later, during their working lives. It’s a form of “culture trap”.

The quote goes to illustrate that male and female roles in a given society can be determined by its gender stereotypes; “ the culture trap” which Claes mentioned is caused by the subconscious attitude that women have about what society expect from them according to their leadership styles and because the society gives each gender a specific characteristics and role which are not suitable for the opposite sex, the association of a status characteristic with gender as men are seen as superior to women which gives them more chances. In addition, men’s higher social status means they have more access to power and resources than women do thus giving them more opportunities to succeed in leadership or managerial positions than women. This puts women at a disadvantage because they are not exposed to these same opportunities due to the gender stereotype accorded to them.

2. Perspectives on Gender Difference

This section presents an historical account of the development of research into gender. It, then moves to consider psychological and sociological perspective.

2.1. Overview of Gender Difference Research

The late 1960s through the 1970s marked an important turning point in the field of gender research. The era was a time when the field of gender studies has evolved and research on the development of gender theory and gender-related behaviours and processes have grown considerably. For instance, Frieze et al (1978) in Zosuls, Kristina et al (2011), published one of the first textbooks on the psychology of women and gender roles which provided a thorough discussion of the complexities surrounding the relative contributions of biological and social factors in understanding the psychology of women.

As of the mid-twentieth century, functionalist theorists argued that men fill instrumental roles in society while women fill expressive roles, which works to the benefit of society. This perspective suggests that our socialization into prescribed roles drives gender inequality by encouraging men and women to make different choices about family and work. Chronologically, Maccoby's (1966) edited book in Zosuls, Kristina M. et al, *The Development of Sex Differences*, focused on theories of gender development and contained several chapters that remain to this day the foundation of research and theory on children's gender development, these theoretical contributions gave direction to the study of gender in children. In 1972, Money and Ehrhardt's book, *Man and Woman, Boy and Girl*, advanced an interesting theory about gender identity and gender differentiation that continues to trigger debate. Another important contribution was Maccoby and Jacklin's (1974) book, *The Psychology of Sex Differences*. This book presented immense findings on gender differences in development. Deborah Tannen's (1990) book *You Just Don't*

Understand: Women and Men in Conversation, in which the reasons of why it is difficult to talk to the opposite sex are explained, claim that women and men are different in their communication styles. Thomas & Wareing, (1999) claim that women and men are said to come from separate ‘subcultures’ and each group have their own ‘sub-cultural norms’, that is, rules for behaviour, in particular, talking.

A popular and recent approach within the sociology of gender is influenced by symbolic interactionist theory, which focuses on everyday interactions that produce and challenge gender as we know it. West and Zimmerman, the two sociologists who popularized this approach with their 1987 article on "doing gender," illustrated how gender is something that is produced through daily interaction between people.

Feminist theorists, however, focus on the structural forces, values, norms and everyday behaviours that create inequality and injustice on the basis of gender. Furthermore, they also focus on how these social forces can be changed to create an equal society in which no one is penalized for their gender.

In many societies, men are believed to be competitive and woman to be collaborative. That is what Morgan argued (as quoted in Goddard and Patterson 2000: 32) in a more deeper way where he points out that “males are seen as logical, rational, aggressive, exploitative, strategic, independent and competitive, as females, on the other hand, are thought to be intuitive, emotional, submissive, empathic, spontaneous, nurturing and co-operative.” Morgan summarizes these by implying that a man is “a leader and decision-maker” and a woman is “a loyal supporter and follower”.

Biological factors also play an important part in determining and categorizing us as males or females. Our sex depends on whether we are born with distinct male or female genitals and a genetic program that released male or female hormones to stimulate the development of the reproductive system. Gender involves masculine and feminine feelings,

attitudes and behaviours identification with a particular sex-biologically, psychologically, and socially. When we behave according to widely shared expectations about how males or females are supposed to act, we adopt a gender role.

2.2. Psychological perspectives

There are fundamental psychological differences between male and females. These differences do imply the superiority of one sex over the other; rather, they mean that females and males have each unique views and distinct abilities which are rooted in their gender. Differences have been found on a variety of aspects such as, cognitive abilities (brain structure and function; intelligence, memory) and communication styles.

Male and female differ in cognitive abilities which refer to different mental processes including thought, reasoning, understanding, perception, memory, decision making and problem solving. A number of structural elements in the human brain, or the actual parts of the brain including the way they are built and their size, differ between men and women. Two areas of the brain that have been found to be of specific interest to memory researchers are the hippocampus and the frontal lobes (e.g., Nyberg & Cabeza, 2000).

These studies on brains has proven that females often have a larger hippocampus, our human memory centre. Females also often have a higher density of neural connections into the hippocampus, and as result of this, girls and women tend to get information with more sensitivity and emotions more than men do. In addition, in studies on human brain surgery, patients have shown that when the right hippocampus is removed, a decline in visual memory is found in women but not in men (Trenerry, Jack, Cascino, Sharbrough, & Ivnik, 1996). Furthermore, before boys or girls are born, their brains develop with different hemispheric divisions of labour: the right and left hemispheres of the male and female brains are not set up exactly the same way. This would mean that women, to a higher

extent than men, use both hemispheres whereas men more often use only one hemisphere of the brain in solving cognitive tasks. Women are better in communicating because the frontal lobe (which is responsible for problem solving) and the limbic cortex of the female brain tend to be larger than in male counterparts, which appears to provide women with an advantage (over men) in problem solving and emotionality and memory functioning. For example, males have less connectivity between their word centres and their memories or feelings, while females find it more interesting to discuss feelings and express emotions.

In the same subject of emotional processing, another important difference between male and female brains activity is controlled by blood flow. Concerning the female brain, Jantzargues in his article "*Brain Differences Between Gender*" that far more natural blood flows throughout the brain at any given moment (more white matter processing) than in the male brain. Because of a higher degree of blood flow in a concentration part of the brain called the *cingulate gyrus*, females will often ruminate on and revisit emotional memories; whereas, males would reflect more briefly on an emotive memory, then move to analyse it somewhat, then move onto the next task, and during this process they prefer to change subjects to avoid discussing their feelings.

Concerning sex differences in memory, not all the studies agreed that there are significant differences between male and females in terms of memory. The results from research by Herlitz, Nilsson and Bäckman (1997) reported no sex differences in working memory tasks in a large sample of adults. However, Duff and Hampson (2001), somewhat surprisingly, found sex differences showing a female advantage in three spatial working memory tasks, independent of overall ability, perceptual speed or speed of verbal access,

Duff and Hampson also found sex differences favouring women in a verbal working memory task. One working memory task that has shown sex differences favouring women (e.g., Majeres, 1983) is the digit Symbol subtest from the Wechsler Adult

Intelligence Scales (WAIS) battery (Wechsler, 1981). Besides assessing working memory, this task also taps on perceptual and motor speed. In addition to memory, it has long been argued that there are sex differences in intelligence.

The study of sex differences in intelligence is meaningful to psychologists because the existence of such differences can have applications in various aspects of the people's daily lives. The intelligence quotient (IQ), a general intelligence measure factor often referred to simply as *g* (Wechsler, 1981), has been shown to be an underlying component of mental ability. Most researchers agree that there are no significant sex differences in general intelligence and that, in fact, IQ should not show any significant difference across gender (Wechsler, 1981). Thus, although there are sex differences in *g*, men and women perform differently in specific areas of intelligence. For example, males usually outperform females in the areas of spatial ability and mechanical reasoning; females, on the other hand, typically have an advantage in verbal ability and perceptual speed (Feingold, 1988). He also found that males consistently had more variability in performance than females in areas such as general knowledge, mechanical reasoning, quantitative ability, spatial visualization and spelling; other male traditional advantages in the field of mathematics are less clear. These differences in intelligence areas are possible due to neurological differences between the sexes. Males and females differ psychologically in the way they act, from the style in which they communicate to the way they influence other.

There are two main bodies of research on gender differences in communication styles; these are academic research and popular literature. Academic research points out major differences in conversation characteristics and traits across gender, while popular research focuses on major stylistic differences in conversation styles between men and women. Men and women view the purpose of conversations differently and this is the biggest difference between men and women and their style of communication. Academic

research on gender psychological differences has shown that women are using communication as a tool to enhance social connections and create relationships, and men use language to exert dominance and achieve tangible outcomes (Leaper, 1991). Popular literature by John Gray and Deborah Tannen show that men view conversations as a way to establish and maintain status and dominance in relationships, while women see that the purpose of conversation is to create and foster an intimate bond with the other party by talking about topical problems and issues they are communally facing (Gray, 1992; Tannen, 1990).

The two bodies of research on gender differences in communication styles (academic research and popular literature) tend to agree on how men and women differ in the way they communicate. While academic research focuses more on the communication characteristics and traits that men and women exhibit, popular literature makes the connection between psychological gender traits and communication styles and gender differences in terms of basic goals of conversations. Popular literature also points out common mistakes men and women make when conversing with each other, specifically focusing on gender differences in crisis communication.

2.3. Sociological Perspectives

As one of the largest sub-fields within sociology, the sociology of gender studies how gender interacts with other social forces in society, and how gender relates to the social structure. Holmes (2007:4) said that “In the 1950s and early 1960s, functionalism was largely dominant within sociology, and contributed to sociological understandings of differences between women and men as socially constructed.”

The American sociologist Talcott Parsons in Holmes (2007:5) views of women and men’s ‘complementary roles’ that are taken as the key statement of functionalist ideas about gender. In his book *The Sociological Imagination* (1959), Charles Wright Mills

claims that understanding the life of a woman or man involves understanding the history of the society in which they live; by 'history', Mills means not just what happened in the past (although that is part of it), but the wider social context in which individuals live. Men and women as parts of the society in which gender-related discourse is constantly used, do not only learn and reproduce what is appropriate to their own sex; rather, they learn a much broader set of gendered meanings and produce their own behaviour in the light of these meanings.

The American sociologist Talcott Parsons *in* Holmes (2007:5) stated that knowing the life of individuals in relation to wider social circumstances, sociologists often use cultural comparisons because they help demonstrate that being born a woman or man can mean very different things depending on the social environment. Thus, having a female body does not necessarily make women behave in a particular way and that is the case for men (Giddens, 1987: 13). Cultural comparisons are usually drawn from anthropology. Information from different cultures helps sociologists question the importance of any physical or psychological differences between women and men and can be used to establish the extent to which those differences are socially constructed. A classic anthropological study of differences between women and men was that of *Male and Female*, undertaken by Margaret Mead's between 1949 and 1962. Mead concluded that whatever males do in a particular culture is always valued more than what females do. Her early work on sex and temperament in three primitive societies, she showed that there was a range of different meanings of femininity and masculinity in different cultures.

3. Gender in Educational Settings

This section will separate the study of gender from any perspectives or opinions and only focus on its value inside the classroom where female and male students behave and being treated differently.

3.1. Schools as Sex Discriminating Settings

Offering chances of academic success for learners is one goal of education, yet there is a clear evidence that the outcomes of education are not the same for all groups. Male and female students, for example, perform differently from each other in certain subject areas and each may pursue different careers once their schooling is completed.

Schools, according to many researches, encourage sex discrimination. Delamont (1990:2) supports this idea, stating, “Schools develop and reinforce sex segregations, stereotypes and even discriminations which exaggerate the negative aspects of sex roles in the outside world, when they could be trying to alleviate them”. She added (1990:3) “There are five main ways in which schools differentiate between boys and girls to the disadvantage of both sexes. These are: the organization of the school; the teacher’s strategies for controlling and motivating pupils; the organization and content of the lessons; the informal conversations between pupils and their teachers; and leaving unchallenged the pupils’ own stereotyping and self-segregating of activities.”

According to Swann (1992: 3), gender differences are reinforced every day in schools and classrooms. She continues to say that schools cannot be held responsible for producing gender inequalities but they will contribute to them. According to Graddol and Swann (1989: 3), sexual inequality is an appealing and popular area of study in the academic community, but also within the wider public. Their definition of gender is similar to Goddard and Patterson’s:

“Whether one is male or female is not just a biological fact, it assigns one to membership of one of two social groups. A great many consequences – social, economic and political – flow from this membership. Women and men, girls and boys, are treated in systematically different ways (by both men and women); they have different experiences at school, at work and at home; they do different things and different things are expected of them. In

other words, women and men have different life experiences to an extent that cannot be satisfactorily explained by simple biological differences between the sexes.” Graddol and Swann (1989:8)

3.2. Academic Differentiation

Girls and boys are similar in academic abilities, but most students do not have accurate information about occupational opportunities to help them make appropriate career choice; however, the existence of traditional orientations influences their career choices as students. The choice of subjects determines students' future career. Beliefs about what is appropriate for female or male in the occupational sphere form part of an interrelated system which includes, in the early years, interests, aspirations and opportunities in particular types of school subjects, which later on forms the basis for occupational decision (Archer and Lloyd, 2002). Girls and boys choose the subjects they believe they are appropriate for them, for example male tend to dominant in subjects perceived as masculine and avoid others that are seen to be feminine; Ormrod (1998:441) calls this “‘gender appropriate behaviour’, where students believe that there is appropriate models for their gender, for example ‘French is a girl thing’ or ‘mathematics is for men’”. Generally speaking, girls are discouraged from taking technical, mechanical or engineering courses since they believe that they are so difficult and appropriate only for boys, while they are expected to be more successful in art and the humanities subjects. The reason behind this situation could be determined by traditional beliefs within society.

Ormrod (1998:441) said that gender differences in career choices, traditional gender roles, lack of career information, gender stereotyping jobs, these negative social attitudes create a lack of self confidence among both girls and boys, so here the role of teacher as an instructor must help student to choose their career, explaining to them that there is no specific careers for girls or boys, and that these are the product of traditional

societal beliefs. Ormrod (1998:441) suggests to “expose students to successful models of both genders” because if the students are exposed to careers of both genders they will understand that there are no different specialty subjects areas for girls or boys, but all of them can have academic aptitudes for all the subject areas. In closing, it is worthwhile for teachers to follow the suggestions of psychologists Borich & Tambori (1995:617) in adopting ideas for teaching without communicating gender stereotypes of occupations and subjects.

3.3. Gender Equality in the Classroom

A considerable number studies have been conducted to promote gender equality in the classroom. In their study entitled “A Meta-Analytic Perspective on Sex-Equality in the Classroom”, Jones and Dindia examined whether teachers’ interactions with students such as praising or blaming vary on the students sex. Results pointed out that teachers interact more with male students than with female students, they claim that (2004:458) “we found that male students are the main recipients of total interactions and negative interactions”.

Moreover, the way teachers accomplished the task of creating a sex-equitable classroom environment has been the subject of extensive empirical research (Wilkinson & Marrett, 1985). How teachers and students communicate with one another is a fundamental component through which such a sex-equitable classroom environment is created and sustained (Sadker & Sadker, 2000). Thus, for instance, whether teachers respond to student questions or provide additional explanations contributes significantly to individual student performance. According to Ormrod (1998:179), male students receive more teachers’ attention than girls do because they have more discipline problems than girls.

Teachers influence the learning process in the sense that they have the full authority in managing the classroom, and students expect them to behave as leader and model for them. Every teacher has her or his method of teaching and specific style to treat their

students, but it is sometimes difficult to achieve equality in treatment with students because teachers are human beings, they have personalities and characteristics, as students do, and this may have a positive or negative influence on students' learning experiences in classroom. Ormrod (1998) and Borich & Tambori (1995) agree that teachers contribute (sometimes unconsciously) to differential treatment of female learners. Ormrod (1998:179) also contends that boys and girls are differently encouraged by the teachers, especially in respect of the choice of subject area. "Teacher and guidance counsellors more frequently encourage boys to pursue such subject as science and mathematics; they are more likely to give girls missed messages about this subject or even to discourage girls from pursuing them".

For students, the ideal teachers are the ones who create classroom in which they can work academically, and know how to set up classroom structure so that students can take responsibility for carrying out tasks. In addition, successful teachers encourage students to share their thoughts and opinions with them by making them feel that it is safe to express themselves. As a result, the teacher and students can establish good rapport. In other words, if teachers are aware of visible and invisible happenings in the classroom, they will be able to motivate their students to be more active. In this vein, Ehrman and Dörnyei (1980:4) claim that "...success depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom". Consequently, teachers should build a sense of trust in members of the class in order to create learning opportunities for all students (boys and girls) and to better accomplish their tasks and goals. However, it is not always easy for teachers to act this way because the class is composed of students with different demographic characteristics such as gender, personalities and attitudes. For these reasons, teachers should be sensitive

to their students' personal and emotional needs. Sometimes, students expect teachers or their peers to provide emotional support.

Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with the issue of gender starting by giving its definition along with its related concepts and moving to presenting a historical account of the development of research into gender, then it was necessary to consider psychological and sociological perspectives as two different viewpoints. In addition to that, gender in school setting, is another part being discussed in this chapter, in which we considered the issue of sex discrimination in the classroom in the sense that teachers manage students differently depending on their sex. The example is given by Sadker and Sadker (2000:442), in their book: *Teachers, Schools and Societies*, where they posit that "if asked whether they treat male and female equally, most teachers would probably respond: "of course, I do...if observed closely, however, many differences can be detected".Based on Sadker and Sadker findings (2000), one can deduce that teachers have different expectations of girls and boys; they expect girls to be cooperative, dependent and good in reading and the language art, and boys to be active, aggressive, and good in mathematics and science. Students are also expected to follow dissimilar careers which are usually determined by their favourite subjects.

We can conclude that because teacher treatment of their students affects their achievement in schools, teachers should receive training on these issues and have access to ample information on gender topics.

Chapter Two

Classroom Participation in Secondary School EFL

Introduction

Classroom participation has always been a critical factor in yielding positive learning outcomes for students and further developing their abilities. Participation allows students to build on their knowledge, demonstrate they have understood the curriculum, develop confidence, and apply theory.

This chapter deals with a general issues about class participation: definition of class participation types of class participation and the benefit of class participation. Then, the light will be showed on factors that affect class participations, these factors are divided into two types, learner factors and situational factors.

1. Definition of Class Participation

Teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) has its challenges in the classroom context. One of the greatest challenges for English teachers, for instance, is to stimulate the participation of all students in the classroom. Class participation is also referred to as classroom discussion (Burchfield, & Sappington 1999), talk, verbal load (Karp & Yoels 1976), comments, and responses to oral questions (Cross, Frary& Weber 1993).

According to Lee (2005), participation usually means a student speaking in class which consists of supplying answers, asking questions, making comments and joining in discussions. Class participation as an important element in every classroom is, for many instructors, a way to evaluate students' progress; for students, on the other hand, it represents opportunities to speak up, comment and be active in the learning process. Effective learning processes occur when both instructors and students interact and actively

participate in the learning activities. In this regard, Wade (1994:237) considers that the ‘ideal class discussion’ is one in which almost all students participate and are interested, learning, and listening to others’ comments and suggestions. Guthrie & Alverman *in* Craven & Hogan, (2001:37) posit that “meaningful language learning takes place when students are engaged, that is when students demonstrate interest, motivation and participation in this process of learning.” According to Wade (1994), most students can obtain benefits such as the enjoyment of sharing ideas with others and learning more about whether they are active or passive.

In terms of their way of participating, students may just sit placidly, take notes or listen to the instructor, these behaviours represent the passive type of students while active students tend to ask and answer questions, comment, give additional information they may have about the lesson or do something else. These acts of asking questions, giving opinions or simply answering questions posed by the instructor or fellow students are examples of the active type of classroom participation. For Beng (2003) student’s enthusiasm and willingness to participate in a classroom through these types of verbal engagement will create a classroom environment conducive to learning; whereas students who do not adhere to these ways of participation are often considered to be passive in classroom.

Other researchers, in the example of Beng (2003:1), extend the concept of class participation beyond the simple acts of being present or ‘saying something’ to equate it with the process being actively engaged. Thus, to be truly actively engaged means that “students should be able to ask questions, provide insights to support arguments, personal views, opinions, experiences, explore perspectives, clarify materials”. It follows that participation requires students to speak and interact in the classroom to indicate that they are actually learning and paying attention. In addition, O’Brien (2007) *in* Simanjalam (2008:16) stated that participation means completing the assigned readings, asking

questions about anything in the readings or discussion that needs clarification or expansion, offering ideas and responses, listening to the ideas and responses of others, and paying attention and showing respect in the classroom to the teacher and to other students. In other words, during the explanation of the lesson and class discussion, students should be attentive and respectful for both the teacher and the classmates.

As for the benefits of class participation, Zolten and Long (2006) *in* Simanjalam (2008:16) state that participation in classroom activities provides a critical opportunity for learning new skills. It helps students to make the necessary deep and meaningful connections in their minds. Active classroom participation plays an important role in the success of education and students' personal development in the future (Tatar, 2005). Tatar also pointed out that students who are actively involved reported higher satisfaction and higher persistence rates not participating in classroom activities, however, can engender low grades in examination and incomplete understanding.

2. Types of Class Participation

Although oral participation is considered the main basic indicator of student participation, the latter means more than speaking as it includes a variety of non-oral features (Fritschner, 2000:56). This means that classroom participation involves not only oral engagement, but also non-oral meaningful acts related to the ongoing activity. In what follows, four types of classroom participation are explained namely, the normal forms of graded and oral participation, silent participation, desk-talk and embodied action (Warayet, 2011:55-63).

2.1 Graded and Oral Participation

The type of participation that depends on oral participation for classroom activities is called oral participation. When adopted as a means for evaluation students, it is referred

to as graded oral participation. The latter usually means that students are involved in class discussion, answering and asking questions and making comments. Students who do not participate in these ways are often considered to be passive, and are not generally involved when participation is graded. Wood (1996) states that “a class participation requirement neither promotes participation nor does it effectively measure what a student learns in class”. She argues that the evaluation of student participation should not be limited to oral interaction. This is so because different factors may affect oral participation such as the unavailability of opportunities to speak for all students in large classes and time limits, making it impossible for all students to speak at the same time.

2.2 Silent or non-Oral Participation

Research on the role of silence in classroom participation has provided different perspectives. For example, Petress (2001) suggests that it is unethical for students to refuse to participate in their class. He claims that silence might negatively influence classroom learning by reducing the teacher’s effectiveness and students’ benefits. Silence can thus be interpreted by teachers as a criticism of their teaching.

Other research, however, indicates that silence in the classroom might be more effective in learning than oral participation since it provides students with good listening, thinking and reflecting skills (Jaworski and Sachdev, 1998).

2.3 Classroom Embodied Action

The term ‘embodied action’ refers to “a range of visible displays that contribute in some way to interaction, such as a hand or arm gesture, a head shake, a display of gaze direction” (Olsher, 2004, p. 223). According to Kendon (1990), these actions are very important in understanding how people’s interactions are organized. Analysis of speaker’s talk must include “where they look, when they speak or remain silent, how they move, how

they manage their faces, how they orient to one another, and how they position themselves spatially” (p. 3).

2.4 Classroom Desk Talk

Desk-talk is defined as turns in which students self-select and nominate themselves to participate beyond the classroom discussion, and when they try to understand ongoing classroom interaction. Therefore, students may resort to desk-talk, even though they do not have the right or obligation to speak. Instead, they utilize such talk as a self-selection mechanism to cope with the surrounding atmosphere. Sahlström (1999) has found that desk-talk in plenary interaction is organized in a similar way to everyday conversation in which “all present parties take turns, and there is no pre-set agenda for the talk” (p. 143).

To summarize the discussion about types of classroom participation, it should be pointed out that there is no agreement upon the importance of particular types of classroom participation, as pointed out by Dallimore et al. (2004). Students various ways of participating do not matter as long as they are able to achieve their learning goals and that no one is prevented from participating in the classroom.

3. Benefits of Classroom Participation

Classroom participation has become an increasingly important aspect of engaging students in higher education. For this reason, the benefits of participation have been researched quite extensively over the past years. For instance, Tatar (2005) pointed out that active classroom participation played an important role in the success of education and students’ personal development in the future. Smith (1977) identified several other benefits of participation for students including less memorization, as they are able to learn through discussion and synthesize the information more effectively. Add to that the fact that participation is a way to bring “students actively into the educational process” and to

assist in “enhancing our teaching and bringing life to the classroom” (Cohen, 1991:699). Class participation can improve the student’s communication skills (Dancer & Kamvounias, 2005) given that the very act of participating orally in an FL classroom presupposes that students have working knowledge of the language i.e., the required level that enables them to communicate in the FL. Class participation is, therefore, essential because of its relevance in allowing students to achieve higher levels of academic success, “Class participation is considered an essential element in almost any class including the ESL classroom” (Vandrick 2000:1).

Following the same line of research which describes the benefit of students’ participation, Fassinger (1995) noted that both students and professors can see the benefits of student participation, and Fritschner (2000) found that students thought participation was “essential” to their own learning. Researchers with theories in the field of second language acquisition point out that participation in the classroom is an essential part of language learning, and students must engage in classroom activities in order to learn the L2/FL.

4. Factors Influencing Class Participation

Although teachers, researchers and students all appear to acknowledge the importance of participation, and to seemingly want to increase it, the phenomenon of non-participation is still there. Many students do not participate for multiple reasons that can be divided into either learner factors, internal and specific to each learner, or situational factors, external and related to the context in which learning takes place.

4.1. Learner Factors

The first set of factors that will be covered in this chapter, are the learner factors which refer to individual differences such as age, aptitude, gender, personality, attitudes, anxiety, motivation, learning strategies.

4.1.1. Age

In the classroom, students might be more active or less active according to their ages; however, there were no significant findings pointing to a strong relationship between age and academic performance. Richardson (1994) reported that mature students performed well in most academic settings than younger students; he reasoned that mature students seek a deeper understanding of their academic work unlike younger students who may adopt a surface approach. According to Howard, James and Taylor (2002:220) “No matter their age, talkers perceived the classroom as a friendlier, safer, and more interactive environment, and saw their participation as welcomed, and an opportunity to actively contribute to the learning of the class. Non-talkers, on the other hand, were more likely to describe themselves as shy, or to be intimidated by the large class size. They lack confidence in their ability to contribute something valuable to the class, and perceive the classroom environment as less comfortable, less friendly, and possibly hostile.”

4.1.2. Aptitude

Language learning aptitude refers to the different cognitive abilities or mental characteristics that affect the individual's potential to learn or to perform. To learn language, students need cognitive abilities, or aptitude; Skehan (1989) believes that aptitude has consistently been linked with L2 success, and divided it into three components: phonemic coding ability, language analytic ability and memory. The phonemic coding ability is important at beginning levels of language learning refers to

converting acoustic input into what might be termed processable input; failure in this area may mean no input to deal with because the more this ability succeeded with the acoustic stimulus that the learner is presented with, the richer the corpus of material that will be available for subsequent analysis. The second ability is language analytic ability, which refers to the capacity to infer rules of language and make linguistic generalizations or extrapolations. Here, it is where rules develop and restructuring occurs. The last one is 'memory' which is concerned with acquisition of new information, with retrieval, and with the way the elements are stored, probably redundantly and formulaically. This component correlates strongly with language learning success.

MacLaughlin (1990) argues that with experience, even a novice can become an expert, or that aptitude increases with experience. In other words, the language learning aptitude can be developed by a formal training in order to reach different degrees of language proficiency depending on the specific features of the learner, the environment and the learning process. This means that there are significant differences between male and female students language learning aptitude. Many researchers, however, have attributed academic achievement to personal aptitude and effort put in school work (Carbonaro, 2005; Eskew1988).

Neurophysiological studies have proved the existence of gender differences concerning the functioning of the brain, so that females outperform males in those tasks involving verbal skills; whereas males excel females on tasks involving visual and spatial skills. In addition to that, Wilberg and Lynn (1999) concluded that females outperformed males in history because they tend to work more conscientiously, have a stronger work ethic than males and tend to have better language abilities including essay writing skills vocabulary and word fluency. For instance, gender differences as regards the development of cognitive abilities might account for females' superiority in colour-naming tests in both

native and FLs (as noted by Yang, 2001). In the case of boys' and girls' verbal abilities (listening, reading, speaking and writing), Powell (1979) notices that girls are superior to boys in all aspects of the linguistic process, therefore showing a greater aptitude for language learning. Other researchers attributed superior performance of females to better study skills, working harder and a more frequent class attendance than male students (Leonard & Jiang, 1999; Wainer & Steinberg, 1992).

With respect to the relationship between aptitude and success in language learning, researchers see that it is evident that aptitude alone (in the same way as other factors) cannot determine achievement.

4.1.3. Gender

Another important factor which is likely to have an impact on classroom participation is gender. Although English language classrooms actually create an opportunity for students to participate in the lesson to learn the language, boys and girls participate differently. Studies tackling the issue of gender yielded mixed results, as shown in Chapter One of this research paper. Some studies have found that males participate more frequently than females, suggesting that males are more orally active in the classroom. The amount of talk also stands in favour of boys, not only for the turns they take, but also for the number of words they utter or the time they hold the floor. Research shows that boys' dominance in the classroom is co-constructed by all participants, including the teachers (Coates, 2004:190). In addition, according to Sadker and Sadker (1994) research, one out of every two women remains silent during an individual college class, and men are twice as likely to dominate class discussions. As for the participation strategies boy students and girl students adopt in classroom talk, some evidence indicates that boys are more competitive than girls to speak up and express themselves. They tend to interrupt others more often than the girls to direct a question, not only for information, but in most cases, to

challenge the statement of the speaker, or to grab the floor. Holmes' (1995:200) findings confirm previous results in that males dominated classroom interaction and gave few or no chances for females to talk and participate, "female language learners are not getting their fair share of the talking time and the equal opportunities for monitored practice to male learners".

On the other hand, others studies have found the opposite pattern –that females participate more frequently than males Dewitt (2000:6) compared between male and female participation; results indicated that girls were better at holding the floor and elaborating their statement, "when the students were asked to rate their daily participation in class the girls indicated that they contributed more.44% of female students felt they participated between three and five times per class compared with just 22% of males". Participation was positively linked to at a higher level "There were twice as many girls with A averages than boys (8 to 4) and seven out of the top ten students were girls" (Dewitt, 2000:8).

4.1.4. Personality

Students' personality is considered one of the most influential factors that affect class participation. Personality, as defined in David Hodgson book *Personality in the Classroom* (2012), refers to the underlying characteristics that make us who we are; these characteristics are pretty stable over time. Hence, individual differences can be found in students learning styles and introversion vs. extroversion.

4.1.4.1. Learning Styles

The style of learning an FL differs from one learner to another. According to James and Gardner (1995:13-32) "A learning style or preference is the complex manner in which, and conditions under which, learners most efficiently and most effectively perceive,

process, store, and recall what they are attempting to learn ”. For Vermunt, the terms ‘approach to learning’ and ‘learning style’ are synonymous. He defines learning style (1996:29) as “a coherent whole of learning activities that students usually employ, their learning orientation and their mental model of learning”. Vermunt (1996:25) said that “Learning style is not conceived of as an unchangeable personality attribute, but as the result of the temporal interplay between personal and contextual influences.”

The field of learning style is quite complex. More than 70 different learning styles models have been identified in literature (Coffield F, Moseley D, Hall E, Ecclestone K, 2004 *in* Ehrman and Oxford (1990). Gender is among a number of factors that affects students learning style. (Others include age, academic achievement, brain processing, culture and creative thinking).

Ehrman and Oxford (1990) cited nine (09) major style dimensions relevant to L2 learning, four (4) of them are likely to be among those most strongly associated with L2 learning: sensory preferences, personality types, desired degree of generality, and biological differences. Sensory preferences refer to the physical, perceptual learning channels with which the student is most comfortable, and can be broken down into four main areas: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic (movement-oriented), and tactile (touch-oriented). Second, personality type is the second style aspect; it consists of four strands: extraverted vs introverted; intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential; thinking vs feeling; and closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving. Personality type (often called psychological type) is a construct based on the work of psychologist Carl Jung.

Ehrman and Oxford (1990) argues that there are a number of significant relationships between personality type and L2 proficiency in native-English-speaking learners of FLs. Desired degree of generality is the third aspect; it contrast global or holistic students, who focus on the main idea or big picture without concentrating on the details, to

analytic students, who tend to concentrate on grammatical details and often avoid more free-flowing communicative activities. The global student and the analytic student have much to learn from each other; balance between generality and specificity is very useful for L2/FL learning.

Last but not least, biological differences is another style aspect. It was claimed that differences in L2/FL learning style can also be related to biological factors, such as biorhythms, sustenance, and location. Biorhythms reveal the times of day when students feel good and perform their best. Some students are morning people, while others do not want to start learning until the afternoon, and still others are creatures of the evening. Sustenance refers to the need for food or drink while learning whereas location involves the nature of the environment: temperature, lighting, sound, and even the firmness of the chairs.

4.1.4.2. Introversion vs. Extroversion

The personality of students in the classroom is a variable that teachers have to deal with. In her 2005 study, Lee identified two major personality types, introversion and extroversion: “While extroversion is associated with risk-taking, introversion is subsumed under the concept of self-esteem” (Lee, 2005, p.1). Extroversion refers to the learners’ tendency to cope with stress and emotions; extroverted learners are less anxious, they feel active and confident, and like the idea of working in groups. According to Myer (1962) in Lee (2005), the introverts’ main focus, is in the internal world of ideas and acts, whereas the extroverts’ primary focus is in the external world of people and activities. For her part, Myer (1962:77) defined extroverts as:

“The after thinkers, they cannot understand life until they have lived it. Their attitude is relaxed and confident, they expect the waters to prove shallow, and plunge readily into new and untried experiences.

Minds outwardly directed, interest and attention following objective happenings, primarily those of the immediate environment. Their real world therefore is the outer world of people and things”.

To the contrary, introversion refers to the state of a person being private and inward upon himself or herself. Introverted learners are most of the time anxious, shy and afraid of others' judgment. Introverts according to Eysenck and Chan (1982) are quiet, prefer reading rather than meeting people and talking to others, have few but close friends and usually avoid excitement. Eysenck and Chan (1982) identified that an extrovert learner does not learn in the same way an introvert learner does because each one of them adopts a different approach to learning, which suits his/her personality type.

Brown (2000:174) claims that “extroversion may be a factor in the development of general oral communicative competence, which require face to face interaction, but not in listening, reading, and writing”. The same author, Brown (2000), distinguished between extroverted and introverted learners on several aspects: extroverted learners are more proficient and active than the introverted, they behave in an extroverted manner and can engage easily with other learners and participate freely during a classroom discussion; introverted learners, however, tend to be less active and less sociable.

Hjelle and Ziegler (1976) found some significant differences between extroverted and introverted learners:

- Introverts prefer theoretical and scientific vocations (e.g., engineering and chemistry), whereas extroverts tend to prefer people oriented jobs (e.g., sales and social work);
- Introverts attain higher grades in college than extroverts;
- Students who withdraw from college for psychiatric reasons tend to be extroverts;

- Introverts show higher arousal levels in the mornings, whereas extroverts show higher arousal levels in the evening which means that introverts work better in the morning, and extroverts work better in the afternoon (p. 284).

According to Pajares (1996) students with high self-efficacy showed better academic achievement and participated more in the classroom, self-efficacy refers to the beliefs about one's capabilities to learn or perform behaviours at designated levels. Thus, if students have a high self-efficacy, their confident level will be reinforced and they will become more active and speak more in the classroom. Their interest in learning more will increase as well; however, students with low self-efficacy face a lack of self-confidence which is an issue for most passive students, who can become passive in classroom discussion due to the self-limitations, such as the inability to focus during the lecture or learning time, fear of inaccuracy, fear of failing to show their abilities and fear that their answers will be criticized.

These factors lead them to become less engaged in classroom discussions. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), a number of personality traits may affect the acquisition of an L2/FL, and this can decrease the progress of learning and discourage risk-taking which is necessary for the continuity of students' performance.

4.1.5. Attitudes

Attitudes toward learning can play a primary motivating role in student's success, it has also a crucial importance in motivating EFL learners. Spolsky (1990:49) suggests that "attitudes do not have direct influence on learning, but they lead to motivation, which does". Therefore, attitude relates to the student's success in learning through motivation; in other words, the learner's positive attitude leads to the development of high motivation, which correlates with proficiency, as it is expected that students who have more positive attitude toward language learning tend to perform well in FL classes. Ellis (1994:197-201)

claims that learners' attitudes have been identified as one set of variables of major importance by a number of researchers who maintain that a positive attitude facilitates EFL learning while a negative attitude hinders it.

The learning attitudes of male and female students, as a motivating factor in studying EFL, are remarkably different; Dörnyei and Clément's (2001) report confirmed the existence of marked sex differences, with girls tending to score higher on most attitudinal and motivational measures. Similarly, Kissau (2006) reported that 9th grade Canadian males were less motivated to enrol in French classes and considered themselves less capable than females, and in another research conducted with Kolano, and Wang, Kissau (2010) reported that U.S. high school males were less motivated to study Spanish than their female peers. The findings of Clark and Trafford (1996) supported the same idea of the previous research; they concluded that public school boys in the United Kingdom pay less attention to learning an FL than girls and are less interested in their schoolwork.

Depending on the definition of attitude as "...a person's inclination to respond favourably or unfavourably with respect to an object", the findings of a group of researchers show that, in contrast with boys, girls are more favourably inclined not only to the language, but also to the speakers and the culture (Pritchard, 1987, Powell and Littlewood, 1983; and Powell and Batters, 1985). Students' attitudes can change. They may have negative attitudes at the beginning of learning a language but then they realize what a good advantage it is to know this language and their attitudes change.

4.1.6. Anxiety

Anxiety is defined by Spielberger (1983:1) as "... the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system." As for second language-related anxiety, it has been defined as "the feeling of

tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (Gardner1985:284). However, Horwitz et al. (1986) suggest that foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) is different from other anxieties and they state FL classroom anxiety is “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process”; in addition, they Horwitz et al think anxiety is an important barrier for FL learners.

In Şimşek (2015), it has been proven that FL classroom anxiety has effect on different kinds of skills, the skill in which most students feel anxious is found to be speaking (Young, 1990; Ammara, 2011; Keramida, 2009). According to young (1994) FL students find speaking the most anxiety creating situation, Zhang(2004) found that there is a reverse relationship between language anxiety and oral performance; the higher the anxiety level, the lower the oral performance.

In the study of Mesri (2012), found that there is a strong relationship between FLCA and female students and a weaker one in males. In that study, fear of negative evaluation is shown as a very important cause of anxiety in the class. He also noted that females have higher anxiety and higher grades, males have lower anxiety and lower grades. This suggestion is conflicting with other research which has found a negative relationship between anxiety and achievement in different languages.

On the other hand, Matsuda & Gobel (2004) also have concluded that gender does not have an important effect on general anxiety. The study of Week & Ferraro (2011) also does not support the hypothesis that males have a more negative view and lower aptitude towards language than females. Phillips (1992), for instance, examined the potential effect of anxiety on performance variables related to the quantity and quality of the oral output.

According to these research studies, gender has an important role in FL classes.

Even if female students are generally found more anxious, they are found to be more motivated and successful than male students in FL classes.

4.1.7. Motivation

L2/FL acquisition theory leaves no doubt about the crucial importance of a further affective variable, motivation. First, the term motivation is derived from the Latin word ‘movere’ which means ‘to move’. The idea of movement in relation to motivation is understandable if we look at some of the definitions of motivation. For example, Ryan and Deco (2000:54) say:

“To be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated.”

Motivation involves the learner’s reasons for attempting to acquire L2/FL, because the more motivated students are, the easier they will learn new language. Chomsky (1988:181) in Arnold (1999:13) points out the importance of activating learners’ motivation: “The truth of the matter is that about 99 percent of teaching is making the students feel interested in the material.” Motivation in second language learning came from social psychology and Gardner positing a language cannot be separated from the learners’ attitudes towards the community, “students’ attitudes towards the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language” (Gardner, 1985:6).

Motivation was seen to be divided into two very general orientations; one of them is instrumental motivation which is desire to learn a language because it would fulfil certain utilitarian goals, such as getting a job, passing an examination. Instrumental motivation refers to language learning as a type of motivation for pragmatic gains and

practical purposes. The other type is integrative motivation which represents a student's desire to learn a language in order to communicate with people of another culture who speak it; the desire is also there to identify closely with the target language group.

Studies regarding differences in gender are also abundant in the motivation literature. Xiong (2010) found in her study that girls were more interested in English and their motivations in learning English were stronger than the boys'. Many of the girls stated that they liked English or were interested in the language while most of the boys were not interested in English, which shows that the schoolgirls' internal motivation is stronger than the schoolboys' when studying an L2/FL. In addition to that, and although gender was not the focus of their studies, both Dörnyei and Clement (2001) reported possible gender differences in motivation. According to Dörnyei and Clement (2001), female students scored significantly higher than male students on the scales of all of the seven motivational dimensions in most of the target languages. Dörnyei & Csizér (2005) found that in many countries, learning an L2/FL is seen by the boys as a "girly" subject. The role of motivation in learning an L2/FL has been investigated by a lot of researchers, but the impact of gender is quite new in the field. Ellis (1994) conducted a study with 6000 students in English primary schools, who learned French as an L2. The result of this study showed that girls had higher scores than boys in all tests where they measured achievement in French; there was another difference too between the sexes when measuring their attitudes towards French: the girls' attitudes were more positive than the boys'.

For teachers it is important and interesting to know that there might be differences in gender when it comes to motivation in learning an L2/FL and information about this issue could be helpful for motivating their students.

4.1.8. Learning Strategies

‘Strategy’, from the ancient Greek term *strategia*, refers to generalship or the art of war. In a more specific sense, strategy entails the optimal management of troops, ships or aircraft in a planned campaign, learning strategies are ways for learners to store and process information. (Oxford, 1990:1) stated that strategies are particularly important for language learning “because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence”.

In defining the language learning strategy, “different researchers use different terms and different concepts” (Oxford & Crookall, 1989:414). For a variety of reasons, language learning strategies are of a great importance to language learning and a great number of researchers dealt with this concept differently. Rubin (1981:23) proposed, “language learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly”. Rubin (1981:19) also suggested that language learning strategies include “any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information”. Learners employ strategies intentionally with the aim of making learning more effective. They consciously choose the strategies that suit them most; for that reason, male and female students learning strategies are different in many aspect of education.

A great number of empirical researches have shown that gender has a significant effect on the extent of strategy use, many studies across different cultures show more frequent strategy use by females than males. The study of Dongyue (2004) carried out quite an interesting research on the correlation between language proficiency, gender and strategy use. The research findings indicate that there are statistically significant gender differences in memory, affective and overall strategy use in favour of females. The results indicate that females are better at managing and controlling their emotions than their male

counterparts. The author also points out that the difference in the frequency of strategy use between men and women may be affected by other variables such as ethnic background, cultural background and language learning environment.

The result of Green and Oxford's (1995) study on 374 ESL/EFL learners showed that female learners used memory, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies more frequently than male learners.

Chang (2003) investigated the use of language learning strategies by a group of high school learners in Taiwan who were learning English. The study found that females significantly surpassed males in the use the strategies as a whole. The results also showed that females significantly used cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies more frequently than males.

4.2. Situational Factors

The second set of factors that affect students' participation are the situational factors such as cultural background, sitting arrangement, teacher gender, teacher's behaviour and classroom environment.

4.2.1. Cultural Background

"Culture is specific to a social group and is something shared within that group that often reflects their historical circumstances" (Kasper & Omori, 2010). Erickson (2004: 31-32) indicates that everything in education has to do with culture because:

"Culture shapes and is shaped by the learning and teaching that happen during practical conduct of daily life within all the educational settings we encounter as learning environments throughout the human life span – in families, in school classrooms, in community settings ..."

Students' cultural background influences their participation especially in an EFL classroom where students find it challenging to learn to appreciate another culture. Difference in cultural background has an effect on perceptions about classroom participation. Different cultural backgrounds can also lead to different perceptions of what is appropriate classroom behaviour. For example, Winbush (1995) *in* Nataatmadja et al (2006), notes that with Japanese students the respect for hierarchy, long silences in interpersonal dealings and protection of face are reflected in their behaviour in class. Chu & Kim (1999) found that Vietnamese students prefer to be right than to initiate the discussion. According to Chu & Kim (1999), the concept of classroom participation among Asian students is different from that held by students from elsewhere. The former believe that class participation signifies answering the questions, and that it is not appropriate to interact actively with other students or to pose questions. They always prefer one-sided feedback from the teacher rather than from the whole class. Dunphy (1998) *in* Nataatmadja (2007) found that western universities have their own social conventions too, and that they are not familiar to overseas students. Those social conventions include rules for classroom participation which may be unclear or unknown to overseas students.

Teachers, additionally, need to know the culture of the language they are teaching. According to Lessard-Clouston (1997), language teaching is culture teaching, and in Peck (1984:2) *in* Kantaoui (2015) "Language learning should be more than the manipulation of syntax and lexicon", according to him, foreign language instruction is inaccurate and incomplete without the study of culture. Moreover, McLeod says in this respect that "by teaching a language... one is inevitably already teaching culture implicitly" (1976: 212).

Thus, educators should teach the culture of the FL whether it is included in the official syllabus or not. A fact also stressed by Byram (1997) that language is regarded as a cultural phenomenon, embodying the values and meanings particular to a specific society,

referring to the traditions and artefacts of that society and signalling its people as sense of themselves their cultural identity.

4.2.2. Sitting Arrangement

Classroom arrangement significantly impacts on students' behaviour, and there is evidence to suggest that it impacts on achievement as well (Pace and Price, 2005). Seating arrangements are important classroom setting events because they have the potential to help prevent problem behaviours that decrease student attention and diminish available instructional time. According to Wannarka and Ruhl (2008), "students behave more appropriately when they sit individually". They added that the role of student choice on seat selection has not been investigated. Offering students choices seems to be ethically responsible and may be an important component of a comprehensive classroom management system. However, allowing students to choose their seats might occasion more or less disruptive behaviour, depending on where the students are seated. *In* Wannarka and Ruhl (2008), Moore and Glynn (1984), for example, found that a student's location in the classroom is related to the number of questions received from the teacher; this may influence the student's opportunity to respond and thus to learn. Granstrom (1996) found also that students at the back of the classroom tend to interact with each other more frequently than those seated at the front, potentially adversely impacting their attention to the task at hand.

4.2.3. Teacher Gender

Teacher gender was also mentioned by several studies as very important factor that has an effect on student's participation, this involves analysing the impact of having a teacher of the same sex as opposed to one of a different sex. Several studies in recent years have sought to explain the gender gaps in class performance: Dee (2007) elaborates more

on this point by suggesting three explanations as to why teacher's gender influences the educational experiences of male and female students ; the preference explanation, the stereotype explanation and lastly the role model explanation. The preference explanation is based on the idea that male and female teachers have unique biases with respect to how they engage boys and girls in the classroom; for example, cognitive process theories suggest that teachers may subtly communicate that they have different academic expectations of boys and girls.

The biased expectations of teachers may then become self-fulfilling when students respond to them. The other class of explanations for the educational relevance of teacher gender involves how students respond to their teacher's sex and not how the teacher actually behaves. For example, having a same sex teacher could influence student engagement or behaviour through role model effects, where students view teachers as role models, and through stereotype threat, where student performance suffers when students fear being reviewed through the lens of a negative stereotype, and because participation is important where learning environment should be a two-way communication between students and teachers, it can be an indication of how well the teaching lesson is being carried out by a teacher. Based on questions asked to students, their answers showed that they are slightly afraid to ask questions during the learning period when the teacher is the opposite gender, they are shy, and afraid of being scolded and embarrassed by the teacher; in contrast students are able to participate and engage in class discussion easily in the classroom when the teacher is of the same gender as them. Some of the reasons stated are because of the level of understanding, comfortable talk, and easiness of communication. According to Holmlund and Sund (2005), teachers are the role models for the students; if students identify themselves more with same-sex role models, it is possible that performance will be enhanced when students have a teacher of their own gender.

Male teachers were often felt to be more serious and strict, whereas female teachers were said to be more caring and friendly; for this reason some studies have found that students from both sexes participate better in a female taught class, “Observations of classroom behaviour reveal that students participate more frequently in courses with female instructors” (Brooks, 2006:16). To emphasize that the gender of the teachers matters in the students’ participation, more examples can be given. Lam et al.’s (2009) research took place in Hong Kong and 34 other countries and regions, results of these studies remained similar over time and space. Other results of the Lam et al. (2009) study showed girls had greater reading performances over boys on all reading tests, regardless of the sex of the teacher. Moreover, all students had more positive attitudes towards reading and understanding that reading abilities are vital to the future when taught by female teachers over those taught by male teachers (Lam et al., 2009). Generally speaking, female teachers are praised for being caring, empathetic, and approachable which creates a helpful climate for learning; however, other researchers found that male teachers create a positive atmosphere for boys to participate and engage more in learning process; male teachers are more likely to believe that boys are superior visual learners while girls are more helpful in the classroom.

4.2.4. Teacher Behaviour

Teachers’ behaviour is another variable that influences students’ participation. According to Nunn (1996:16), instructors do play an important role in student participation; “It is clear that instructor behaviours can influence student traits like comprehension and interest and can influence class traits such as emotional climate and interaction norms”. The way the teacher behaves may affect students negatively or positively; for instance, Myers, Edwards, and Wahl (2007) found that instructors whose students perceived them to be verbally aggressive generated less student motivation to

communicate in class or interact through participation. The authors also posited that students confuse instructors' argumentativeness with verbal aggression. They suggested that instructors who use verbally aggressive communication strategies may stifle student participation and involvement. Similarly, Rocca (2001) found that students reported being more likely to participate in class if their instructor was not verbally aggressive. However, students also reported being less likely to participate if their instructor was verbally aggressive. According to Nunn, (1996), the most important indicators of student participation are teachers' almost unconscious behaviours that convey faith in the students' smiles, positive comments, extra attention, praise added to calling on students by names, and creating a supportive atmosphere which emphasizes the importance of students' questions (Auster & MacRone, 1994). On the other hand, emotional connection between teacher and students creates positive attitudes among students and encourages them to be active and participate more.

4.2.5. Classroom Environment

Factors that encourage or discourage student participation may be directly related to the setting in which learning takes place. The learning environment is determined by the nature of the classmates, confidence among students, classroom climate, class size, type of course and preparation for class.

4.2.5.1. Classmate's Traits

Students noted that respect from their peers directly influenced their willingness to participate in class. Communication apprehension increased if students felt as though their peers would criticize them for their opinions, the ways some students behave in class affect the participation of other students; sometime the noise made by other classmates disturbs the rest of the class and hampers their concentration to the extent that it made contributing

to the class discussion difficult for them. In addition to that, students felt uncomfortable when their peers would make fun of them or make negative comments on their opinions which made them not want to participate in class. On the other hand, having classmates who they know well and have the traits of being supportive influences students positively and encourages them to be more active in class. Neer and Kircher (1989) added that students dealing with classroom apprehension felt more comfortable participating only when they became familiar with their peers and therefore felt more comfortable in expressing themselves. They felt that they did not need to fear negative evaluation from their classmates which creates a relaxed atmosphere that helped them lose their inhibition about being active in class. Students would participate more when their peers were respectful and did not criticize them but rather added to the conversation or said nothing at all.

4.2.5.2. Confidence among Students

Students may not participate in class because of their own personal fears of feeling inadequate in front of others. Lack of confidence among the students has a negative effect on their engagement in the class, student would not participate if they feel as though they are going to be made fun of for their opinion or if they feel inadequate in front of other students. This idea also shared by Weaver and Qi (2005) who pointed out that confidence is a key trait that students struggle with and has a direct effect on participation. Students deal with fears of not being smart enough to address their class so they would not want to participate if they have the feeling that their peers or professor would deem their answer as inadequate and therefore would avoid to be perceived as having inferior knowledge. Wade (1994) noted that students will only engage in class if they feel that what they have to say is important and interesting. More importantly, students reported confidence as the most

motivating factor for their participation in several studies (Fassinger, 1995; Wade, 1994; Weaver & Qi, 2005).

4.2.5.3. Classroom Climate

Creating a supportive climate has repeatedly been shown to increase participation, and it is strongly recommended that teachers work to create such an environment. Teachers should engage in immediacy behaviours, especially eye contact and smiling, to show interest and support. The classroom climate can be a motivating or non-motivating factor for the students; none motivating climate prevents students' participation and hinder their development of speaking skill. Thus, teachers are responsible for creating relaxed and friendly atmosphere for their students. In this regard, Davies and Pearse (2000:82) suggest the following implications for teaching:

“Try to create a relaxed atmosphere in your classes so that most learners are not frightened of speaking in front of the class. And do as many speaking activities as possible in pairs and groups, so that the learners can speak English without the rest of the class listening.”

Alternatively, a supportive climate where students and the teacher respect each other, where the students respect one another, and where the instructor cares about the students, is conducive to class participation (Crombie et al., 2003; Dallimore et al., 2004; Fassinger, 1995; Wade, 1994), as it is this type of classroom climate that works to increase student confidence and comfort in participation. Littlewood (1981) asserted that the real progress for speaking and developing communicative skills can only take place if the learners have motivation and opportunity to express their own identity and to relate with people around them (classmates and teachers). In other words, students really need to study in supportive environments that encourage them to engage more in the learning activities.

4.2.5.4. Class Size

Class size impacts the levels of participation when the session takes place in larger course sections, with more than thirty students; there is not a sufficient amount of time to have the opportunity to participate. Karp and Yoels (1976) found that while the number of students who participate in any given classroom is often the same, courses which have more than 40 students have fewer overall interactions per class period. The teachers in their courses with larger sections allocate less time to discussion in general and more lecturing occurs, which, in turn, means fewer participatory opportunities for students.

In the same line of research, Weaver & Qi (2005) added that larger classrooms promote anonymity among students and raise the level of fear as they now have to contribute in front of a larger crowd which could result in a larger amount of disapproval from peers; however, the things become different when the courses take place in smaller classes; higher levels of participation have been recorded due to the student being more comfortable in an intimate classroom setting and therefore having less anxiety (Myers et al., 2009). In other words, students may participate more in smaller course sections with less than thirty students, where they know their classmates and more time will be allocated to discussion Auster and MacRone (1994). The advantage of smaller classes is that students feel more comfortable when they see the classroom has around twenty people: they can listen to everyone, there is nobody behind their back talking or distracting because the teacher sees everyone and controls the class easily.

4.2.5.5. Type of Course

The type of course can have an impact on students' participation. Uninteresting and difficult course content can discourage the students to participate; for example, if the class content is boring and difficult, they will keep silent during the session or make (Crombie et

al., 2003). Conversely, classes that involved discussions where students challenged opinions are the most fun, and the majority get involved in the debate. Students also participate more when they were familiar with the topics and the topics were controversial (Bowers, 1986).

4.2.5.6. Preparation for Class

Students who prepared for class by completing readings and reviewing material being discussed were more likely to participate in class, because they feel more comfortable providing answers and opinions, and have the opportunity to familiarize themselves with course content as they are more confident in what they are talking about. The lack of preparation for the classes may inhibit students to participate, and is considered as the first reason for fears that students face because they may not have sufficient knowledge and may be dealing with insecurities in the classroom (Weaver & Qi, 2005). Class preparation ties in with confidence and therefore students who do prepare for class tend to be more confident and, as a result, participate in discussions (Reinsch & Wambsgness, 1994). Because most students fear that they would be criticized by both their peers and professors, for not being well informed on the subject matter, advanced class preparation not only gives students more confidence in the subject matter resulting in higher participation levels, but also helped them retain information.

5. Enhancing Classroom Participation

Since participating in the classroom is considered an extremely important tool by which students engage themselves in the ongoing activity which happens in the classroom, it means that students do not only talk but employ other types of engagements. For example, students that are sitting in the classroom are participating when they are following what is going on. However, many students are not engaged with the material

which is a result of not understanding the material or simply not interested in the material, this category of students needs special treatment which can help them learn and participate effectively.

5.1. Active Learning

Active learning involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing, according to Chickering and Gamson (1987) *in* Bonwell (1980), active learning is not a spectator sport, students do not learn much just by sitting in class listening to teachers, memorizing pre-packaged assignments, and spitting out answers. They must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences and apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves. They also added that active learning is encouraged in classes that use structured exercises, challenging discussions, team projects, and peer critiques. Active learning can also occur outside the classroom.

5.2. Students' Silence

Silence is merely viewed as the “absence of talk”, however, many linguists claim that silence is a complex and diverse phenomenon, “more important and widespread in communication than may be commonly admitted” (Jaworski 1993:167). According to Sifiano.M (1997:215) “Through silence, a variety of meanings are expressed and a range of communicative functions are performed.”. Reda (2009) *in* Foster (2012) “Silence, then, can be a process of active engagement with the ideas of others. Silence can punctuate what has been said, allow us space to absorb it, and allow us to move beyond it. Silence can welcome the silenced to speak. Silence can help us realize the limits and proper uses of language. Silence can cut through the constructs that we are fed and that we feed ourselves.”

Silence in the classroom, according to Reda, is not a problem. Instead, she suggests that the notion of silence is an “internal dialogue” that is a zone between speaking and silence where students develop a form of participation in the academic conversation. For this, Reda (2009:173) calls silence “the space of engagement.” She believes that student reflections on their experiences in the classroom depend upon a “sense of what is safe and comfortable in the classroom”, as well as depending upon topics, number of students in groups, and teachers. She suggests several practical solutions to address the issue of silent students in classrooms, such as creating a range of speaking situations (including small groups, lower-stake real conversations), focusing on the development of the classroom community, and providing more opportunities for reflective silence within classes. According to Reda(2009:5) “quiet students constitute a central classroom tension for many teachers those who have a theoretical grounding in dialogic and collaborative learning; those who value it on a practical or an experiential level; and those who construct themselves as simply wanting to hear the voice of their students.” , a lot quieter and not able to communicate as well – it could be because English isn’t their first language; that’s obviously going to inhibit them – but there is also the cultural part where they don’t think it is appropriate to question the lecturer.

Belanoff (2001) addresses the idea of silence as a positive and negative aspect in the classroom. She introduces ways of getting students to write and overcome their “silences” through writing, particularly in first drafts. She further shows that teachers can get over silences by understanding their causes.

Spender’s (1980:149) work contributed to an understanding of some pupils’ silence classroom participation. She said that “both sexes bring to the classroom the understanding that it is males who should 'have the floor ' and females who should be dutiful and attentive

listeners...within educational institutions girls are quickly made aware that their talk is evaluated differently from the boys”.

Conclusion

In chapter two the definition, the benefits and the types of classroom participation have been discussed. In addition to that, the investigation into the factors that influence students’ participation which helped to provide insight into their perception of what is actually keeping them active or non-active in the classroom were covered, these factors were mainly divided into two types, learner factors such as age and gender, and situational factors such as cultural background and classroom environment.

Chapter Three

Field Work

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the description of the methodological procedures and the research design adopted to collect data. The aim is to explore, describe, predict and explain data related to the level and quality and differential classroom participation of girls and boys in English as a foreign language at sample Algerian secondary schools.

The chapter starts by describing the population and sample of the study, then proceeds to offering a description of research tools and how they were implemented; next, it moves to the analysis, interpretation and, last, discussion of the results.

1. Data Collection Procedures

The present research tackles gender differences in class participation in secondary school English as a foreign language classes. To find out about these, the students' and teachers' views and opinions are very important, and are investigated using questionnaires. According to Murray (2005), "The survey questionnaire is considered one of the most appropriate and common methods for collecting data in second language research" (p. 51). Some of the reasons for the use of the survey questionnaires are that they are "easy to construct, extremely versatile and, uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily processable" (Murray, 2005, p.52). In addition to questionnaires, a class observation has been used as a second research tool to collect data about the students' behaviours and attitudes in the classroom. A non-participant observation was part of our observation strategy in which the two observers did not take part of any classroom activity, "nonparticipant observation is a method of observation in

which an investigator examines a group process without taking part in the group activities” (Doob, 1997, p. 38).

By attending seven sessions with second and third year classes of English at two different secondary schools, foreign languages classes, the two observers attempted to observe how both teachers and students behave in the classroom, to get the answer to how girls and boys participate in classrooms and how teachers engage them or expect them to behave. The two observers used an observation scheme as a guide and the obtained results of class participation in all classes were later will analysed.

2. Population and Sampling

The population of the study consists in secondary school teachers of English and pupils following the Foreign Languages stream. The sample for the study was chosen from two secondary schools in the Wilaya of Jijel, namely Kimouche Ferhat and Makhlouf Hasnaoui Ben Mokhtar in order to make sure that the results be representative of the secondary schools context. The stream of Foreign Languages was selected for the reason that English and other languages are the subjects that receive most focus by pupils and they are expected to be dedicated and willing to study it. The population of pupils following the Foreign Languages stream in both schools is exactly 134 (N=134) from which a large sample, consisting of 72 girls and 32 boys, was randomly selected (n=104). As for teachers of English at these two secondary schools, all the eight teachers were surveyed by the questionnaires (N=8), and for classroom observation.

3. The Pupils Questionnaire

3.1. Description and Administration of the Pupils Questionnaire

The students' questionnaire used in this research was submitted to 104 students from both second year and third year students of Foreign Languages classes. The pupils are selected from Kimouche Ferhat and MakhloufHasnaouiBen Mokhtar secondary schools. The questionnaire were distributed in the presence of the teachers, and the researchers made sure that all pupils understood the instructions and answered the questions.

Students' questionnaire is made up of three sections with a total number of 22 questions, each section investigating a different but a relevant issue, and are organised as follows:

The first section, 'General Information', contains seven questions and aims to obtain personal information about participants. The first and second questions deal with student's age and gender. The third question is about their teachers' gender. Next, questions 04 and 05 aim to discover how interesting and difficult students find the learning English. Question 06 asks pupils to specify their sitting position in the classroom and state, in the next question, whether they are satisfied with the way they are seated.

The second section, 'Actual Classroom Participation', stretching from question 8 to question 14, has the primary objective to give students an opportunity to express their opinions and attitudes about their participation in the class. In question 8, students were asked how often they participate in the English class per day. The next two questions, 9 and 10, are about the subjects in which they participate the most and the least. In question 11, students were asked how often they show different types of responses in the English class. Moving to the next question, 12, students were asked about the reasons that lead them to participate. Question 13 is about knowing how often students prepare their English homework and question 14 aims to know what factors stop students from participating.

The third section is ‘Opinions & Suggestions on Classroom Participation’ aims, by means of eight questions, from question 15 to question 22, to provide a free space for pupils’ personal evaluation and suggestions concerning their participation in English classes. In addition, it gives students the chance to express their opinions about the way they behave and participate in English classes. The first question in this section aims to discover if students like participating in the classes of English. The next question aims to know whether students think that they participate enough in the classes of English. In the third question, students were asked if their teachers’ personality plays a role in their decision to participate. Questions 19 and 20 ask pupils about who participates more between boys and girls and if the teacher plays a role in that by giving more attention to one group. Question 21 asks students about the factors that would help them participate more. In the last question, pupils were given the freedom to give their suggestions of what should be done to increase their participation in English classes.

3.2. Analysis of students’ questionnaire results

Section One: General information

1. Age: ... years old.

Age Class	N	%
17-18	70	67.31
19-20	24	23.08
21-23	10	09.61
Total	104	100

Table 3. 1.Students’ Age.

The table above represents the ages of the students, which are shown to vary from 17 to 23 years old. However, the majority (67.31%) is 17 to 18 years old; these are generally the category of pupils who have never failed in their learning career. The second

category, 23.08%, represents the students who might have failed once or twice. In general, the groups are more or less homogeneous by age.

2. Gender:

a. Male

b. Female

Option	N	%
a.	32	30.77
b.	72	69.23
Total	104	100

Table 3. 2.Students' Gender Distribution.

The table shows that the majority of the pupils are female (69.23%) and only 30.77% are males, which shows that females are probably more likely to be interested in learning foreign languages.

3. What is your teacher's gender?

a. Male

b. Female

Option	N	%
a.	44	42
b.	60	58
Total	104	100

Table 3. 3.Teacher Gender.

The table above presents the gender of pupils' teachers, and shows that 42% of the students are being taught by a male teacher, while 58% of students said that their teacher is a female.

4. How do you find English classes?

a. Very interesting

b. Interesting

- c. Not interesting
- d. Not interesting at all

Options	N	%
a.	41	39.42
b.	53	50.96
c.	05	04.81
d.	05	04.81
Total	104	100%

Table 3. 4.Students' Interest in Classes of English.

Concerning question four, more than half the respondents (50.96%) replied that the English classes are interesting for them, while 39.42% of the participants consider the English classes very interesting, and a minimal proportion of students consider the not interesting or not interesting at all.

5. How do you find learning English?

- a. Very difficult
- b. Difficult
- c. Easy
- d. Very easy

Options	N	%
a.	07	06.73
b.	28	26.92
c.	54	51.92
d.	15	14.42
Total	104	100

Table 3. 5.Students' Perceptions of the Difficulty of Learning English.

The table above shows that more than half of the students (51.92%) considered learning English an easy task, while (26.92%) who said that it is difficult to learn. Therefore, pupils seem to take the middle ground in approaching the learning of English because the least percentages went for extreme difficulty and extreme easiness.

6. Where do you sit in the classroom?

- a. Near to the teacher's desk
- b. Farther away from the teacher's desk
- c. Towards the front rows
- d. Towards the middle rows
- e. Towards the back rows

Options	N	%
a.	21	20.19
b.	12	11.54
c.	17	16.35
d.	36	34.61
e.	18	17.31
Total	104	100

Table 3. 6.Students' Sitting Arrangement.

This question is designed to detect students' sitting arrangement in the classroom. The table above reveals that the biggest portion of students (34.61%) sit or perceive themselves as sitting towards the middle rows, while 20.19% said that they prefer to sit near to teacher's desk, 16% of students reported that they have a seat toward the front rows, other respondents 13% said that they are sitting far away from teacher's desk and the rest of students, 17% reported that they are sitting towards the back rows.

7. Considering your answer to question 6 above, are you happy with the way you are seated?

- a. Yes
- b. No

All students asked reported feeling satisfied with the way they are seated. This reveals that even those pupils sitting at the rear of the class or farther away from the teacher have chosen the place where to sit or that it suits them very well.

Section Two: Actual Classroom Participation

8. On average, how often do you participate in the English classes per day?

- a. Never
- b. Once
- c. Twice
- d. Three times
- e. More than three times

Options	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	05	06.94	10	31.25
b.	12	16.67	05	15.62
c.	16	22.22	04	12.50
d.	15	20.83	04	12.50
e.	24	33.33	09	28.13
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 7. Female and Male Quantity of Participation per Session.

This question aims at knowing how often female students participate during the English classes per day in comparison to male students. The number of girls who said that they participate more than three times in the classroom is slightly higher than the number of boys since most of them (33.33% vs. 28.13). In terms of non-participation, it is the behaviour that is shown by a significant proportion of male students (31.25%) in comparison to only 06.94% of female students. There are also more girls participating once and twice per session, but almost the same number of boys as girls in participating three times in one lesson (16.67 vs 15.62).

9. In which school subject, if any, do you participate the most? ...

Subjects	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%

English	27	37.50	07	21.87
German	06	08.33	02	06.25
Spanish	14	19.44	07	21.87
Arabic	07	09.72	06	18.75
French	08	11.11	04	12.50
Mathematics	10	13.89	06	18.75
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 8.School Subjects for Most Participation.

Both female and male students reported that is the subject of English that receives most participation, though the percentage of girls is higher than boys in doing so (37.50 vs. 21.87). To the exception of mathematics, which seems to be somehow a preferred subject, all other student preferences for participation are related to language subjects, native and foreign, and at almost the same percentage between male and female students.

10. In which school subject, if any, do you participate the least? ...

Subjects	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
English	06	08.33	05	15.62
Philosophy	14	19.44	03	09.38
Mathematics	36	50	16	50
History	10	13.89	03	09.38
French	06	08.33	05	15.62
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 9.School Subjects for Least Participation.

The tables above reveals that half of female and male students agree on the fact that they participate the least in Mathematics sessions. Among other subjects, English and French appear to be the least attractive for participation, but with more avoidance from males (15.62% for males vs. 08.33% for females).

11. How often do you do the following things in the English class?

	a. Always	b. Often	c. Sometimes	d. Rarely	e. Never
(1) I answer teacher's questions directed to me					
(2) Raise my hand to answer teacher's questions posed to the whole class					
(3) I answer teacher's questions posed to the whole class without raising my hand					
(4) I answer teacher's questions posed to someone else					
(5) I answer at the same time together with other pupils					
(6) I ask questions					
(7) I make comments					

(1) I answer teacher's questions directed to me

(1)	Females		Males	
	N	%	N	%
a.	15	20.83	04	12.50
b.	15	20.83	07	21.87
c.	32	44.44	12	37.50
d.	05	06.94	05	15.63
e.	05	06.94	04	12.50
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 10. Frequency of Responding when Selected by the Teachers for Females and Males.

Both females and male students responded more often than not to the teachers questions directed specifically at particular students with a slight advantage for females overs males in doing so 'always' (20.83% vs12.50%) and 'sometimes' (44.44% vs 37.50%), and for boys over girls in 'often' (21.87% vs20.83%)

(2) Raise my hand to answer teacher's questions posed to the whole class

(2)	Female	Male		
	N	%	N	%
a.	08	11.11	07	21.87
b.	22	30.56	04	12.50
c.	26	36.11	10	31.25
d.	03	04.17	05	15.63
e.	13	18.06	06	18.75
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 11. Frequency of Raising Hands to Answer Teachers' Questions for Females and Males.

When teachers pose a question to the whole class, the act of volunteering seems to be the same for both girls and boys participation. However, boys outdo girls in 'always do this (21.87% vs. 11.11%), and girls outperform boys in the frequencies of 'often' (30.56% vs 12.50%) and 'sometimes' (36.11% vs. 31.25%), which lead to say that even though the differences are not very noticeable, girls showed that they volunteer more than boys.

(3) I answer teacher's questions posed to the whole class without raising my hand

(3)	Female	Male		
	N	%	N	%
a.	16	22.22	10	31.25
b.	04	05.56	03	09.37
c.	29	40.27	06	18.75
d.	14	19.44	04	12.50
e.	09	12.50	09	28.13
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 12. Frequency of Responding without Raising Hands for Females and Males.

This question tests the amounts of ease students exercise in classroom interaction, though answering this way may create chaos in the classroom. More boys than girls identify themselves doing this always (31.25% vs. 22.22%) and often (09.37% vs. 05.56%), but girls take the lead at particular occasions (40.27% vs 18.75%)

(4) I answer teacher's questions posed to someone else

(4)	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	03	04.17	01	03.12
b.	06	08.33	04	12.50
c.	24	33.33	09	28.13
d.	15	20.83	05	15.63
e.	24	33.33	13	40.62
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 13. Frequency of Answering Peer-Directed Questions for Females and Males.

This behaviour signals willingness to communicate, but shows whether students' interaction is organised or not. No significant differences can be noticed in the table above for female or male students to be more speaking 'out of turn' than each other, but the biggest percentage in both groups (33.33% females vs. 40.62% males) prefer 'never' to answer questions directed to peers, which suggests that students are organised in their participation.

(5) I answer at the same time together with other pupils

(5)	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	13	18.05	11	34.38
b.	05	06.94	02	06.25
c.	27	37.50	09	28.13
d.	11	15.28	03	09.37
e.	16	22.22	07	21.87
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 14. Frequency of Choral Answers for Females and Males.

This question tackles answering together in chorus. More boys than girls seem to be inclined to 'always' answer together (34.38% vs. 18.05%), but the remaining students seem to show the same behaviour on other occasions.

(6) I ask questions

(6)	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	09	12.50	01	03.12
b.	09	12.50	06	18.75
c.	22	30.56	05	15.63
d.	17	23.61	04	12.50
e.	15	20.83	16	50
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 15. Frequency of Asking Questions for Females and Males.

In asking questions, the results are mixed: boys are less likely to ask questions; half of them never do this against only 20.83% of girls. The option ‘sometimes’ is also dominated by 30.56% of girls against 15.63% of boys, but the latter are better in the option ‘often’ (18.75% vs. 12.50%).

(7) I make comments

(7)	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	05	06.94	12	37.50
b.	07	09.72	02	06.25
c.	18	25	06	18.75
d.	15	20.83	01	03.12
e.	27	37.50	11	34.38
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 16. Frequency of Making Comments for Females and Males.

In making comments, boys are more outspoken than girls because more of them ‘always’ do that than girls do (37.50% vs. 06.94%). Girls mostly report that they seldom or never make comments.

The recapitulative table below summarises the frequency of participation of boys (M) and girls (F), and deals only with percentages in order not to be confused by the differences in their numbers.

Questions	Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
(1)	12.5	20.83	21.87	20.83	37.50	44.44	15.63	06.94	12.50	06.94
(2)	21.87	11.11	12.50	30.56	31.25	36.11	15.63	04.17	18.75	18.06
(3)	31.25	22.22	09.37	05.56	18.75	40.27	12.50	19.44	28.13	12.50
(4)	03.12	04.17	12.50	08.33	28.13	33.33	15.63	20.83	40.62	33.33
(5)	34.38	18.05	06.25	06.94	15.63	37.50	09.37	15.28	21.87	22.22
(6)	03.12	12.50	18.75	12.50	15.63	30.56	12.50	23.61	50	20.83
(7)	37.50	06.94	06.25	09.72	18.75	25	03.12	20.83	34.38	37.50
Total	143.74	95.82	87.49	94.44	165.64	247.21	84.38	111.1	206.2	151.38
Average	20.53	13.69	12.50	13.49	23.66	35.32	12.05	15.87	29.46	21.63

Table 3. 17. Average Frequency for Seven Categories of Participation.

The seven categories of participation enumerated above appeal almost the same for both boys and girls. The table above shows that boys are relatively better in always demonstrating those participation behaviours and better because they would do so less in the category ‘rarely’. Girls, on the other hand do better in the rest of occasions. Referring to question 11, then, it can be seen that the girls’ and boys’ answers are slightly different for all the options given.

12. **Choose the statements that describe the way you participate. (You can choose more than one answer).**
 - a. **I participate when I have the exact correct answer**
 - b. **I participate when I want to know if my answer is correct**

c. I participate because I like to practise and talk in English

d. Participation gets me a better mark in evaluation

Options	Yes		No					
	Female	Male	Female	Male				
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
a.	40	55.56	18	56.25	32	44.44	14	43.75
b.	56	77.78	23	71.87	16	22.22	09	28.13
c.	54	75	23	71.87	18	25	09	28.13
d.	62	86.11	24	75	10	13.89	08	25

Table 3. 18. Females and Males Reasons for Participation.

The question is about knowing the way students participate in English classes as the table above indicate, the largest part of the female (86.11%) and the great number of boys (75%) participate the reason that participation gets them a better mark in evaluation. The second percentage (77.78%) represents the answers of the female students who participate when they want to know if their answer is correct while (71.87%) of boys reported that they participate in order to know if their answer is correct. Furthermore, just above more than half students, males and females said that they participate only when they have the exact correct answer. Girls are also showing that they participate more than boys when they want to check their answer and even they do not have the correct answers (77.78% against 71.87%); they also have a greater percentage (75% vs. 71.87%) representing that they like to participate just because they like to practice and talk in English. Overall, it can be said that the drives for participation are almost the same for both boys and girls.

13. How often do you prepare your English homework?

a. Always

b. Often

c. Sometimes

- d. Rarely
- e. Never

Options	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	29	40.28	07	21.87
b.	09	12.50	04	12.50
c.	20	27.78	13	40.62
d.	05	06.94	0	0
e.	09	12.50	08	25
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 19. Frequency of Preparation of English Homework for Females and Males.

This question aims at knowing how frequently the female and male students prepare their English homework. It leads to detect which group of students are active in class participation. As indicated in the table above, 40.28% of girls prepare their homework every time they have to do it, and that represents almost twice as many boys (21.87%). In addition, those students admitting 'never' to have prepared homework are dominated by male students (25% vs. 12.50%). It can be concluded that the preparation homework by girls gives them more advantage for being active in the class participation more than boys.

14. What stops you from participating in classroom discussions?

- a. I am shy
- b. I am afraid that my friends would laugh at me
- c. I am afraid of my teacher's judgments
- d. It is not necessary to participate to understand the lesson

Options	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	16	22.22	05	15.63

b.	13	18.06	06	18.75
c.	17	23.61	06	18.75
d.	26	36.11	15	46.87
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 20.Hindrances to Participating in Discussion for Males and Females.

While the previous question examined drives for participation, this question explores the factors that lead to non-participation. Students were presented with four reasons of which the most selected was the fourth, i.e., it is not necessary to participate to understand the lesson, by more boys (46.87%) than girls (36.11%). Being shy and afraid of teacher judgement, on the other hand, were reasons chosen by more girls than boys. The last reason was chosen by the same portions of girls and boys.

Section Three: Opinions and suggestions about Classroom Participation

15. Do you like to participate in the classes of English?

a. Yes

b. No

Options	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	48	66.67	18	56.25
b.	24	33.33	14	43.75
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 21.Attitudes toward Participation in English Classes for Females and Males.

The table above shows that most students who like to participate are girls (66.67%), but that also more than half the boys like to do so.

16. Do you consider yourself an active student?

a. Yes

b. No

Options	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	48	66.67	18	56.25
b.	24	33.33	14	43.75
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 22. Females' and Males' Self-Evaluation of their Active participation.

Similar to the findings of the previous questions, both girls and boys were consistent in their answers with more girls (66.67%) evaluating themselves active than boys (56.25%). Hence, girl students contribute relatively more to classroom participation.

17. Do you think you are participating enough in the classes of English?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Options	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	31	43.06	10	31.25
b.	41	56.94	22	68.75
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 23. Females' and Males' Self-Satisfaction about their Participation.

Students were asked whether they are satisfied with their level of participation in the classes of English. More boys (68.75%) than girls (56.94%) feel dissatisfied about their participation.

18. Does the teacher's personality play a role in your decision to participate?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Options	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%

a.	55	76.39	23	71.87
b.	17	23.61	09	28.13
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 24. Females' and Males' Perceptions of the Effect Teacher Personality on Participation.

Most boys and girls agree that the teacher's character affects their decision to participate, with 76.39% for girls and 71.87% for boys.

19. Who participates more in the classes of English?

a. Girls

b. Boys

Options	Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%
a.	72	100	21	65.62
b.	0	0	11	34.38
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 25. Most Active Participants between Females and Males.

The aim of this question is to get both boys and girls to evaluate which group participate more. Whereas girls unanimously think that they are dominant in class participation, boys are divided on the matter, but more than half of them (65.62%) think that girls are more active than themselves in English classes.

20. In your opinion, the teacher pays more attention to:

a. Boys

b. Girls

c. No difference

Options	Female	Male
---------	--------	------

	N	%	N	%
a.	06	08.33	10	31.25
b.	02	27.78	01	03.12
c.	64	88.89	21	65.63
Total	72	100	32	100

Table 3. 26.Females’ and Males’ Opinions about Teacher Attention to them.

This question is designed with the aim to discover whether students think that their teachers are fair to them in giving them enough attention. Most girls and boys think that the teacher does not discriminate between them, but girls think that the teacher is even more so, with a percentage of 88.89% against 65.63% for boys. The boys do not show a disadvantage, however, because 31.25% of them think that the teacher favours them over girls.

21. Would you participate more if?

	Yes	No
(1) You sat nearer to the teacher?		
(2) You sat farther from the teacher?		
(3) The teacher gave me more chances to speak?		
(4) Prepared the lesson beforehand?		
(5) Other students participated too?		
(6) Other pupils didn’t interrupt you when you speak?		
(7) You were a boy/ a girl?		
(8) The teacher were a man/ woman?		

Options	Yes				No			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
(1)	39	54.17	21	65.63	33	45.83	11	34.37
(2)	19	26.39	06	18.75	53	73.61	26	81.25
(3)	64	88.89	30	93.75	08	11.11	02	06.25
(4)	61	84.72	29	90.62	11	15.28	03	09.38
(5)	50	69.44	25	78.12	22	30.56	07	21.88
(6)	58	80.56	27	84.37	14	19.44	05	15.63
(7)	19	26.39	15	46.87	53	73.61	17	53.13
(8)	37	51.39	16	50	35	48.61	16	50

Table 3. 27. Females' and Males' Opinions about the Conditions for more Participation.

The results in this questions show that boys and girls hold very similar opinions about the conditions that can lead them to participate more. In fact, males and females agreed on most conditions; they highly appreciate conditions (3), (4) and (6) which say that students would participate more if the teacher gave them more chances to speak, if they prepared the lesson beforehand and if other pupils did not interrupt them when they speak, respectively, by percentages exceeding 80%.

Half or more than half agree on conditions (8), (1) and (5) suggesting that students would participate if the teacher gender is different (51.39% for girls and 48.61% for boys), and if they sat nearer to the teacher (54.17 % for girls and 45.83% for boys) and if other students participated too (69.44% for girls and 78.12 for boys%).

The remaining conditions (2) and (7) were not considered as important or relevant in deciding on more participation, given that sitting farther from the teacher was chosen by 26.39 % of girls and 18.75% of boys, and if the students were different by gender, chosen by 26.39% females and 46.87% males. The last statistic, however, suggests that boys think that participation is for girls.

22. What, do you think, should be done to increase your participation in English classes?

In response to this open-ended question, students provided the following suggestions:

Suggestions of Females	N	%
1. Be more attentive to the teacher	08	11.11
2. Teacher' personality should be less serious	06	08.33
3. Class size should be limited	08	08.33
4. Prepare lessons at home	22	30.56
5. Use of media	15	20.83
6. Reading books	08	08.33
7. Use of game in class	05	06.94
Total	72	100

Table 3. 28.Females' Suggestions for Increasing their Level of Participation.

Suggestions of Males	N	%
1. Use of media	09	28.12
2. Change the sitting	06	18.75
3. Class should include less girls	07	21.87
4. Prepare lessons at home	06	18.75
5. Teacher gender should be changed	04	05.56
Total	32	100

Table 3. 29.Males' Suggestions for Increasing their Level of Participation.

The last question of the questionnaire, question 22, was asked to get students' ideas about what should be done to increase their participation. Here students felt free to give multiple and different answers. First of all, 30.56% of girls claimed that the preparation of the lessons at home is the most appropriate way to increase their level of participation, while the biggest proportion of boys, 28.12% wanted more use of media. Next while 21.87% of boys wanted fewer girls in the classroom, almost the same quantity of girls, 20.83%, wanted the use of media. Other significant demands by boys includes changing the sitting and preparing lessons at home, while girls suggested more attention to the teacher, reading books, reducing class size and introducing games.

4. The Teacher Questionnaire

4.1. Description and Administration of the Teacher Questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire is used as a means to explore gender differences in classroom participation from the perspective of teachers of English in the two secondary schools where the study was conducted. Eight teachers is the number of teachers at these institutions; they were all handed the questionnaire and instructed to take as much time as they felt necessary to complete it. Teachers were also encouraged to ask questions, discuss the research topic and enrich it. All teachers were cooperative and turned in the questionnaires filled within a week.

The teacher questionnaire contains 16 questions divided on four sections as follows:

Section One, General Information, contains 8 questions. Questions 1, 2 and 3 ask for the teachers' genders, their academic degree and the length of their teaching experience, respectively. Question 4 asks to teachers to assess the degree of difficulty of teaching English at the secondary school level. The fifth question is about how many girls and boys they have in each class they teach. The following question gets the teachers' opinions about the importance of oral participation in learning. In the seventh question, teachers were asked if they are satisfied with their students' level of oral participation, and in question 8, how often they reward students' for participating.

Section Two, entitled 'Gender and Classroom Participation', contains 6 questions investigating students' behaviours as well as differences between female and male students in participation. Question 8 is about knowing what behaviours male and female students tend to manifest in participation. Question 9 investigates if teachers prefer classes with a lesser number of boys or a lesser number of girls.

Question 10 aims to find out if students' sitting arrangement has an effect on their participation. Question 11 is related to the previous in that it seeks to find out if students participate according to their particular sitting place. Question 12 asks about the factors that drive students to participate, while question 12 is devoted to know the reasons for the lack of students' participation.

Section Three, Teacher Participation Management, contains 3 questions, two of them are open ended. Question 13 aims at discovering the pupils with whom the teacher interacts more, if any. The following question, question 14 investigates the criteria that the teacher uses to select students to participate. Last, question 15 investigates teachers' beliefs about the necessity of offering differential treatment to pupils according to their gender in order to maximize participation.

Section Four, Further Suggestions, contains one question, question 16, in which teachers are free to give their comments about the topic.

4.2. Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaires

Section one: General Information

1. Gender

a. Male

b. Female

Gender	
a.	()
b.	()
Total	()

Table 3. 30. Teachers' Gender.

The table above shows that the majority of teachers are females (05) and three (03) are males.

2. Degree :

- a. License
- b. Master
- c. Magister

Degree	N	%
a.	05	62.50
b.	03	37.50
Total	08	100

Table 3. 31.: Teachers' Degree.

The aim of this was question is to know what degrees are held by the teachers. Most teachers, five of them, have a license degree and three have master degree while.

3. Teaching Experience:..... years.

Experience in Years	N	%
1 – 10	04	50
11 – 20	01	12.50
21 – 30	03	37.50
Total	08	100

Table 3. 32.: Teachers' Experience in Teaching.

As the table above shows, half the sample of teachers have an experience ranging from 1 to 10 years, one teacher been teaching for a period ranging from 11 to 20 years, while three have very long experiences between 21 to 30 years.

4. How do you find teaching English at the secondary school level?

- a. Very hard
- b. Hard
- c. Medium
- d. Easy
- e. Very easy

Options	N	%
b.	0 1	12.50
c.	0 5	62.50
d.	0 2	25
Total	0 8	100

Table 3. 33. Teachers' Perceptions about the Difficulty of Teaching English at Secondary Schools.

In answer to question 4, the majority of teachers, five out of eight, perceived the teaching of English at secondary schools to be of medium difficulty, two teacher said it is easy and only one teacher answered that it is hard.

5. How many boys and girls do you teach in each of your classes?

- Class 1: boys Girls
- Class 2: boys Girls
- Class 3: boys Girls
- Class 4: boys Girls
- Class 5: boys Girls
- Class 6: boys Girls

Teachers	Number of Males (M) and Females (F)													
	Class 1		Class 2		Class 3		Class 4		Class 5		Total			
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	%	F	%
1	07	14	07	12	07	13	08	27	/	/	29	27.62	76	62.38
2	08	22	20	19	12	28	13	16	09	07	62	43.36	81	56.64
3	17	16	18	15	14	20	16	17	22	10	88	53.01	78	46.99
4	12	24	20	10	06	17	09	14	/	/	47	41.96	65	58.04
5	18	15	15	19	04	25	12	27	/	/	49	36.30	86	63.70

6	15	17	07	20	10	19	12	18	/	/	44	37.29	74	62.71
7	05	20	07	15	06	16	08	22	05	20	31	25	93	75
8	12	13	05	22	05	19	04	27	/	/	26	24.30	81	75.70
Total											350	288.84	634	501.16
Average per Teacher											43.75	36.56	79.25	63.44
Average per Class											10	35.58	18.11	64.42

Table 3. 34. Number and Percentage of Female and Males Students in Two Secondary Schools.

Teachers have to deal in average with a total number of approximately 44 male students and 63 female students in all classes. Only teacher 3 has more boys than girls in his/her classes, the remaining 07 classes are dominated by girls. Every teacher has to teach 4 or 5 classes with an average of (4.375) classes per teacher.

The average number of pupils per class $(350+634)/35=28.11$. The average number of male students 10 constituting 35.58% of the students and that of females is 18.11 constituting 64.42%. This means that there are twice as many girls as boys in the secondary schools.

6. Do you think that oral participation in English classes is important in learning?

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. Neutral
- d. disagree
- e. strongly disagree

Options	N	%
a.	04	50
b.	02	25
c.	02	25
Total	08	100

Table 3. 35. Teachers' Perceptions about the Importance of Oral Participation in Learning English.

Half the teachers emphasize the importance of participation saying that they strongly agree; two teachers agree and two others are neutral. Thus, the importance of oral participation in learning English is strongly agreed on by the majority of teachers.

7. How do you evaluate your students' level of oral participation?

- a. Very satisfactory
- b. Satisfactory
- c. Average
- d. Below average
- e. Unsatisfactory

Options	N	%
b.	01	12.50
c.	06	75
d.	01	12.50
Total	08	100

Table 3. 36.: Teachers' Satisfaction with the Level of Students' Oral Participation.

Question 7 is addressed to investigate the teachers' evaluation of their students' level of oral participation: 75% said that the students' level is average, one teacher reported that their level is satisfactory and another said that it is below average. Hence teachers are neither satisfied nor satisfied with their students' levels of participation.

8.How often do you reward oral participation in the classroom?

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

Options	N	%
b.	04	50
c.	02	25
d.	02	25
Total	08	100

Table 3. 37.Frequency of Rewarding Students’ Oral Participation.

Question 8 aims to know whether teachers reward their students’ oral participation, half of them often reward their students and 04 teachers are divided between those who do that sometimes or rarely.

Section Two: Gender and Classroom Participation

9.Based on your own experience in teaching English, which group of students, if any, demonstrates the following behaviours in English classes?

- a. **General oral participation**
- b. **Answer questions directed to them**
- c. **Volunteer answers without the teacher asking questions**
- d. **Take more time to think about answers**
- e. **Take more time to think about answers**
- f. **Dominate classroom discussion**

Options	More boys	More girls	Boys only	Girls Only	No difference
a.	01	06	0	01	0
b.	0	05	0	02	01
c.	0	03	0	04	01
d.	04	01	02	0	01
e.	03	03	0	0	02
f.	0	06	0	02	0

Table 3. 38.Teachers’ Comparisons of Male and Female Participation Behaviours.

This question investigated the most repeated behaviours done by students. Regarding the first three behaviours, ‘general oral participation’, ‘answering questions directed to them’ and ‘taking more time to think’ ‘volunteering answers without the teacher asking questions’, 07 teachers out of 08 think girls are more active. Concerning the fourth behaviour, ‘taking more time to think about answers’, 6 teachers agree that boys tend to take a longer time showing hesitate when giving their answers. The fifth behaviour, ‘making comments and asking questions’, both girls and boys, according to teachers’ answers, tend to do this behaviour in the classroom equally. The last behaviour, ‘dominating classroom discussion’, is completely dominated by girls who are believed to be taking control over classroom talk.

10.Oral participation in English classes improves in classes containing:

- a. Fewer boys
- b. Fewer girls
- c. Same or converging number of boys and girls
- d. No difference

Options	N	%
a.	04	50
b.	01	12.50
c.	02	25
d.	01	12.50
Total	08	100

Table 3. 39.The Effect of the Number of Females and Males on Oral Participation.

Question 10 investigated what teachers think about the ideal number of boys if their classes contained fewer boys or fewer girls and how it will affect the level of oral participation.50% said that if there were fewer boys in the classroom, oral

participation will improve, while 25% think that an equivalent number of both genders will help to improve class participation.

11. Do you think that gender differences in participation are partially due to the students' sitting arrangements?

- a. Yes
- b. No

All the teachers agree that the sitting arrangement of students has no effects on their participation.

12. If you answered "Yes", who participates more in oral activities:

Every teacher answered with 'No', thus making this question irrelevant.

13. Choose the statements that describe the reasons or drives for students' participation.

- a. They have the exact answer.
- b. They want to check if the answer is correct
- c. They like to practice and talk in English
- d. They want to get good marks in evaluation
- e. They are resolved to improve through practice
- f. They want to impress the teacher
- g. They want to impress their classmates
- h. others, please specify:

.....

	More Boys	More Girls	Boys Only	Girls Only	No Difference
a.	01	05	0	02	0
b.	0	05	0	03	0
c.	0	05	0	03	0
d.	0	04	0	02	02
e.	0	07	0	01	0
f.	0	07	0	01	0
g.	01	05	0	02	0

Table 3. 40. Drives for Females' and Males' Participation.

The above table shows the reasons which drive male and female students to participate. The reasons b., c., e. and f. are identified with girls, which means girls are believed to participate because they want to check if the answer is correct, they like to practice and talk in English, want to improve through practice and they want to impress the teacher. Additionally, the majority of girls are identified with the remaining reasons a., g. (selected by seven teachers) and e. (selected by six teachers). These drives represent having the exact answer, wanting to impress classmates and aiming to get good marks.

14. Choose the statements that describe the reasons or drives for lack of or absence of students' participation.

- a. They are shy.
- b. They are afraid that other students would laugh at them.
- c. They are afraid of teacher's judgment.
- d. They don't feel participation is necessary in order to understand the lesson.
- e. They think oral participation is not suitable for their gender.

	More boys	More Girls	No difference
a.	5	1	2
b.	4	2	2
c.	2	2	4
d.	5	2	1
e.	4	3	1

Table 3. 41. Reasons for Lack or Absence of Females' and Males' Participation.

While in the previous question, girls were linked to participation, in this question, boys are linked with reason of lack or absence of participation. More boys (selected by 05 teachers) than girls are believed to be shy and feel that participation is not necessary in order to understand the lesson. Half the teachers also think that reasons b. and e. (fear to be laughed at and oral participation is not suitable for their

gender) are more related to boys. Being afraid of teacher's judgment' is shared equally by both girls and boys.

Section Three: Teacher Participation Management

15. Which group, if any, do you think you interact more with?

- a. Boys
- b. Girls
- c. Both

Options	N	%
a.	02	25
b.	05	62.5 0
c.	01	12.5 0
Total	08	100

Table 3. 42. Teachers' Amount of Interaction with Male and Female Pupils.

The majority of teachers, five of them, state that they interact more with girls, while two teachers interact more with boys, and only one teachers expressed no bias. This leads to conclude that girls are better in class discussions and that they are active and have the willingness to talk and interact.

16. Which other factors determine your choice of students to participate: (you can choose more than one answer).

- a. Student sitting
- b. Student ability
- c. Distributing turns equally
- d. Time constraints
- e. Student willingness to participate
- f. Student insistence to participate

g. Others, please specify:

.....

Options	N	%
c.	01	12.5%
d.	01	12.5%
b+c	04	50%
e+f	02	25%
Total	8	100%

Table 3. 43.Factors Determining Teachers’ Selection of Students to Participate.

There are different views for the factors that determine teachers’ selection for students to participate. Almost all teachers picked up one option. First in rank c. or distributing turns equally, is the one chosen by teachers as a factor with 50% of teachers choices [(c:01)+(b+c:04)=5 teachers]. Teachers also depend on the other factors, but none of them have chosen sitting arrangement, this leads to conclude that students’ sitting arrangement is not a factor of teachers’ choice for students’ to participate.

17. Do you think that students require differential treatment according to their gender in order to maximize participation or bring them to participate?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Options	N	%
a.	04	50
b.	04	50
Total	08	100

Table 3. 44.Differential Treatment for Female and Male Pupils to Increase Participation.

- If “Yes”, please explain.

All the four teachers who answered positively offered explanations as follows:

- **Teacher1:** “Most classes consist of more girls than boys. Boys are usually shy because they are minorities. Thus, boys should be encouraged to participate.”
- **Teacher 2:** “We should bring them (boys and girls) topics they are interested in order to encourage them to participate. Front rows should be available for both genders so as all the students feel they are equal and concerned with participation. Make students (either boys or girls) leaders for groups to do specific tasks.”
- **Teacher 3:** “Yes, according to my humble experience, boys participate less than girls in class. That can be due to different reasons such as being shy or afraid of being criticized or that the others would laugh at them. Therefore, the teacher should work on that and try to motivate them and encourage both to participate.
- **Teacher 4:** “Yes, we had better divide the class into two groups especially in oral section; this will make it easy for the teacher to solve students ‘defects’.”

Section Four: Further Suggestions

18. If you have other comments, please feel free to add them.

Four teachers gave the following suggestions:

Teacher 1: “Classes must (should) include few students so as teachers become able to deal with all of them (weak or excellent, male or female)”

Teacher 2: “The fact that the number of girls in class is superior to that of boys can be another factor that affects their participation.”

Teacher 3: “Participation in our classes is linked to marks for the pupils, so it does not always indicate that the learning process is achieved. It’s just a way to get a good mark (in general, it’s not a fixed criterion).”

Teacher 4: “Teaching English in secondary schools is easy with foreign languages and scientific classes and hard with literature and philosophy classes”

5. Classroom Observation

5.1. Description and Procedures of Class Observation

In our study we implemented systematic classroom observation, which helped us to observe and see what actually happens in the classroom and to have authentic results.

The first three observations took place at "KiamochFarhat" secondary school, the class which was observed was the class of second year foreign languages, it was chosen because presents less disciplinary problems. The second four observations took place at "Mekhlof Hasnawi Ben Mokhtar" secondary school, two classes were observed the first one was foreign languages second year which contained 22 boys and 13 girls, and the other one was third year foreign languages that contained 12 boys and 28 girls .

To help collect data in the three classes, a checklist was made to be used during the observations and to give directions as to what to look for when observing the different aspects of participation, i.e. the types and patterns of participation used, and their frequencies in students’ responses. This made it easier to review and compare the differences in participation between girls and boys in the classroom. During the observation period for the research, seven observations were conducted,

divided between the two schools. To ensure inter-rater reliability of results, the two observers attended each session together and compared their results after every session and the results were surprisingly almost matching.

Observation scheme:

Type of Participation	Description	Categories for Observation	Description
1. Response	Pupil answers a teacher question	a. selected	- The teacher asked the pupil to answer
		b. unselected	- The pupil answered a question directed to another pupil
		c. correct	- The pupil answer is correct
2. Hesitation	Pupil takes time to reply, hesitates (err; em), provides an incomplete response or expresses doubt.	d. wrong	- The pupil answer is wrong
		e. oral	- verbal responses -uncertainty of answers
		f. written	-written answers by using letters, words.
		g. choral response	-answering all at the same time.
3. Initiation	Pupils open door for discussion	h. Comment	Expressing an opinion on teacher or others contributions
		i Question for confirmation	Pupils ask questions to affirm if their answers are correct
		j. Add new information	Pupils give additional data about topics discussed
		k. Ask for clarification	Pupils demand an explanation.
4 . I	Pupils make an	l. Overlap	pupils speak all at the same time

	intrusion when their mates or their teachers speak.	m. Interrupt other students	pupils disturb their mates when they speak
		n. Interrupt the teacher	Pupils disturb their teacher when s/he speaks
6. No response	Pupils with no answers remain silent.	/	/

Table 3. 45.The Observation Scheme.

5.2. Analysis of the Observations

5.2.1. Class 1 (Year Two, Foreign languages)

Overall, the classroom seemed to be an environment that did not promote learning for the students. It consisted of the teacher’s desk, a whiteboard, and three rows which were arranged according to the traditional arrangement, each row contains 4 tables, and in each table 2 students sit together. The classroom contains 29 students, 25 girls and 4 boys. The number of girls was superior to that of boys. The lessons which were presented by the teacher are from the coursebook **GETTING THROUGH**; it complies with the curriculum designed and issued by the Ministry of National Education in December 2005, which relies on the competency-based approach which is both learner-centred and project-oriented.

5.2.1.1. Class 1, Observation One

Topic of the Lesson: The process of photosynthesis (listening and reading)

Duration: 1 hour

Number of students: 29 (25 girls and 4 boys)

Type of Participation	G		B		Categories for Observation	N	
	N	%	N	%		G	B
1. Response	11	37%	5	17%	a. selected	9	4
					b.unselected	2	1
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	10	5
					e. wrong	1	0
					f. oral	9	5
					g. written	2	0
2. Hesitation	0	0%	4	13%	a. selected	0	2
					b.unselected	0	2
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	0	2
					e. wrong	0	2
					f. oral	0	4
					g. written	0	0
3. Initiation	4	13%	4	13%	h. Comment	2	3
					i Question for confirmation	1	0
					j Add new information	0	1
					k. Ask for clarification	2	0
4. Interruption	5	17%	3	10%	a. Overlap	2	2
					b. Interrupt other students	2	1
					c. Interrupt the teacher	1	0
5.no response	6	20%	1	3%			

Table 3. 46. Class 1, Observation One.

Students did not discuss or interact as it was expected it was observed that they found the lesson difficult and the vocabulary hard to grasp, however, after the explanation that the teacher did, many students started to have a clear idea about the lesson, most of them were girls. The teacher tried to engage male students by asking about their opinions, it was observed that boys use low voice which expresses

hesitation. By contrast, girls were speaking up, giving their opinions, engaging themselves in class discussions and they posed many questions.

As shown in the table above, girls participated more as they occupy 37% of total responses; 13% represents their initiation rate in the sense that they comment and ask questions. 17% represents was the interruption rate which was done mostly by girls. Girls tend to talk together and interrupt each other. The girls' confidence is high because there is no hesitation.

For boys, 17% represents their responses rate, 13 % represents their hesitation because it was observed that male students seemed afraid to give wrong answers which is for them an underestimation of their abilities. 13% is their initiation rate it is the same as that of girls because boys also tend to comment. Their interruption rate is 10%, they also tend to interrupt their mates .3% represents the rate of students with no responses.

5.2.1.2. Class 1, Observation Two

Topic: Practicing vowel and consonant sounds (listening and speaking)

Duration: 1 hour

Students' number: 26 (2 girls and a 1 boy were absent).

Type of Participation	G		B		Categories for Observation	N	
	N	%	N	%		G	B
1. Response	10	34%	3	10%	a. selected	8	3
					b.unselected	2	0
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	9	3
					e. wrong	1	0
					f. oral	7	3

					g. written	3	0
2. Hesitation	1	3%	0	0%	a. selected	1	0
					b.unselected	0	0
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	1	0
					e. wrong	0	0
					f. oral	1	0
					g. written	0	0
3. Initiation	4	13%	1	3%	h. Comment	3	1
					i. Question for confirmation	1	0
					j Add new information	0	0
					k. Ask for clarification	0	0
4. Interruption	3	10%	4	13%	a. Overlap	2	2
					b. Interrupt other students	1	2
					c. Interrupt the teacher	0	0
5.no response	5	17%	0	0%			

Table 3. 47.Class 1, Observation Two.

It was observed that most of the students were interested in practicing the pronunciation of each sound, after the oral practice, the teacher gave them an exercise in which they should correct the transcriptions of some mispronounced letters in which boys took a longer time than girls who were quick and not afraid of giving incorrect answers.

As noticed above girl's participation rate (34%) is higher than that of boys (10%), regarding the hesitation level which was 3% for girls and 0% for boys. Initiation rate was 13% for girls and 3% for boys, regarding the interruption level which was 10% for girls and 13% for boys.No response rate was 17% for girls and 0% for boys.

5.2.1.3. Class 1, Observation Three

Topic: Types of pollution, practicing passive voice (speaking and writing)

Duration: 1 hour

Number of students: 29

Type of Participation	G		B		Categories for Observation	N	
	N	%	N	%		G	B
1. Response	15	51%	9	31%	a. selected	9	5
					b.unselected	3	2
					c. choral	3	2
					d correct	12	8
					e. wrong	3	1
					f. oral	7	7
					g. written	8	2
2. Hesitation	4	13%	1	3%	a. selected	1	1
					b.unselected	2	0
					c. choral	1	0
					d correct	4	0
					e. wrong	0	1
					f. oral	4	1
					g. written	0	0
3. Initiation	7	24%	7	24%	h. Comment	3	3
					i. Question for confirmation	1	0
					j Add new information	1	1
					k. Ask for clarification	2	3
4. Interruption	5	17%	4	13%	a. Overlap	2	2
					b. Interrupt other students	2	2
					c. Interrupt the teacher	1	

5.no response	3	10 %	1	3%			
----------------------	----------	-------------	----------	-----------	--	--	--

Table 3. 48.Class 1, Observation Three.

This session recorded the highest number of responses, it could be due to the topic in which students were interested and had an idea about it thus they have the vocabulary to use, they were also asked to practice using passive voice which was a challenge for some students. Girls participation was as usual the highest one with 51% of total responses while boys with 31%. The hesitation level was 13% for girls and 3% for boys. Concerning the initiation rate, it was the same for both girls and boys with 24%. Interruption rate on the other hand was 17% for girls and 13% for boys. 10% accounts for the rate of no responses of girls and 3% for that of boys.

5.2.1.4. Summary of the first class observation

Based on what has been observed and analysed after three observation sessions in the first classroom, male and female students do not participate in the same rate, girls participate more than boys it was also noticed that girls are more attentive, ask more questions and more interested in the material than boys, this can be due to many reasons such as the superiority of girls in the classroom which can threaten boys willingness to participate.

5.2.2. Class 2 (Year Three, Foreign languages)

The class in which the observation took place was better than the previous one since it was decorated with posters, images and motivating quotes which were made by the students themselves. Overall, the classroom seemed to be an environment that promotes learning for the students. It consisted of the teacher’s desk, a whiteboard, and four rows which were arranged according to the traditional arrangement, each row

contained 6 tables in each table 2 students sit together. In this class there were 28 girls and 12 boys.

The book that the teacher used is "**New Prospects**" which complies with the new English syllabus for SE3 as laid out by the National Curriculum Committee of the Ministry of National Education in March 2006.

5.2.2.1. Class 2, Observation One

Topic: Unethical practices in the world (listening and reading)

Duration: 1 hour

Number of students: 40(28 girls and 12 boys)

Students' participation analysis:

Type of Participation	G		B		Categories for Observation	N	
	N	%	N	%		G	B
1. Response	31	77%	9	23%	a. selected	31	9
					b.unselected	0	0
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	26	9
					e. wrong	5	0
					f. oral	26	4
					g. written	5	5
2. Hesitation	0	0%	0	0%	a. selected	0	0
					b.unselected	0	0
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	0	0
					e. wrong	0	0
					f. oral	0	0
					g. written	0	0
3. Initiation	3	7%	4	9%	h. Comment	1	2
					i Question for confirmation	1	0

					j Add new information	0	2
					k. Ask for clarification	1	0
4. Interruption	0	0%	0	0%	a. Overlap	0	0
					b. Interrupt other students	0	0
					c. Interrupt the teacher	0	0
5.no response	3	7%	10	25%			

Table 3. 49. Class 2, Observation One.

Most students in this session responded positively to the teacher's instructions to solve the activities given to them, it was noticed that girls are faster and more excited than boys who spent a longer time which indicates hesitation and carelessness.

The table above shows an obvious inequality in classroom participation between the girls and boys in this class. Girls seem to be dominate the class participation , in terms of the amount of responses girls are more active than boys since they have 31 responses or 77%, they also take the initiation in the class through making comments 7% and adding new information , however the boys have 23% of the responses which means that they have only 9 responses and they also account for 9% of total number of their initiation in the classroom ,the great number in boys participation was for their silence since 25% of no response is counted in the first session , as the table showed ,the classroom observations in Class 2 point to a fact that girls relatively dominate the classroom participation .

5.2.2.2. Class 2, Observation Two

Topic: Piracy, phonetics and pronunciation (reading and writing)

Duration: 1hour

Number of students: 28 (8 girls and 4 boys are absent)

Type of Participation	G		B		Categories for Observation	N	
	N	%	N	%		G	B
1. Response	20	50%	3	7%	a. selected	17	3
					b.unselected	2	0
					c. choral	1	0
					d correct	15	3
					e. wrong	5	0
					f. oral	18	3
					g. written	2	0
2. Hesitation	0	0%	0	0%	a. selected	0	0
					b.unselected	0	0
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	0	0
					e. wrong	0	0
					f. oral	0	0
					g. written	0	0
3. Initiation	1	3%	1	3%	h. Comment	1	1
					i. Question for confirmation	0	0
					j Add new information	0	0
					k. Ask for clarification	0	0
4. Interruption	0	0%	0	0%	a. Overlap	0	0
					b. Interrupt other students	0	0
					c. Interrupt the teacher	0	0
5.no response	5	13%	15	38%			

Table 3. 50.Class 2, Observation Two.

During this session it was noticed that students were interested in the topic and in pronouncing new vocabulary in which the teacher provided a chance for each student and that was encouraging for students since they felt equal. However, the number of boys is less than girls, and this gave them more advantages.

The statistics shown in Table reflect the inequality in the participation since girls once more enjoy an advantage in classroom participation they have taken the majority number of responses 20 responses (50%), all of them are correct, the girls still gain upper hand in the classroom initiations classroom through asking for clarifications and only five 13% girls had no responses , however the boys still no dominant in class engagements their participation is represented by 3 responses (7%), and as the table reveals they have some initiations by making one comments , in contrast to girls they have a great number of them do not enjoy speaking and participating in the session so the majority of boys keep silent and have no responses (38%).

5.2.2.3. Class 2, Observation Three

Topic: Baccalaureate exam, discussing students' projects (listening & writing)

Duration: 2 hours

Students Number: 39 (one boy is absent)

Students' responses:

Type of Participation	G		B		Categories for Observation	N	
	N	%	N	%		G	B
1. Response	35	87%	30	75%	a. selected	31	25
					b. unselected	4	5
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	29	27
					e. wrong	6	3
					f. oral	33	30
					g. written	2	0
2. Hesitation	0	0%	0	0%	a. selected	0	0
					b. unselected	0	0
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	0	0
					e. wrong	0	0
					f. oral	0	0

					g. written	0	0
3. Initiation	3	8%	4	10%	h. Comment	1	2
					i. Question for confirmation	1	0
					j Add new information	0	2
					k. Ask for clarification	1	0
4. Interruption	5	13%	1	3%	a. Overlap	3	0
					b. Interrupt other students	2	1
					c. Interrupt the teacher	0	0
5.no response	0	0%	0	0%			

Table 3. 51.Class 2, Observation Three.

This time it was clearly noticed that all boys participated and engaged in class discussion because they found that subject matter being discussed very interesting since they were given the freedom to speak about their future ambitions and plans.

The table above reports results from the third classroom observation session ,this time things getting different since the results obtained in this session seem to be different from the previous sessions, boys in this session became active in their participation and all of them involved in class discussions , so compared with the percentage of the number of the boys (42%) in this class, the percentages of the boys' responses(75%) are higher than the previous sessions ,which reinforces the conclusion that the boys still enjoy participating in class discussions if they feel that course content interested .Girls as usual benefit a lot from an advantageous speaking environment characterized by support and co-operation from each other they have the large part of responses (87%) and initiations (8%) through asking questions and

asking the teacher for clarifications in addition no one of the girls keep silent since the 0% no responses .

5.2.3. Class 3 (Year Two, Foreign languages)

5.2.3.1. Class 3, Observation One

Topic: Presenting students' projects (listening and speaking)

Duration: 1 hour

Number of students: 35 (13 boys and 22 girls)

Type of Participation	G		B		Categories for Observation	N	
	N	%	N	%		G	B
1. Response	12	34%	4	11%	a. selected	11	4
					b.unselected	1	0
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	12	4
					e. wrong	0	0
					f. oral	12	4
					g. written	0	0
2. Hesitation	0	0%	0	0%	a. selected	0	0
					b.unselected	0	0
					c. choral	0	0
					d correct	0	0
					e. wrong	0	0
					f. oral	0	0
					g. written	0	0
3. Initiation	6	17%	0	0%	h. Comment	1	0
					i. Question for confirmation	1	0
					j Add new information	3	0
					k. Ask for clarification	1	0
4.	5	14%	1	4%	a. Overlap	3	0

Interruption					b. Interrupt other students	2	1
					c. Interrupt the teacher	0	0
5.no response	2	6%	7	20%			

Table 3. 52. Class 3, Observation One.

The statistics in the table above show an obvious inequality in classroom participation between the girls and boys in this class. Girls again seem to dominate the class, in terms of the amount responses since 34% of the responses were given by girls, and that prove that girls enjoy an advantage to participate and speak in the classroom more than boys, as it is shown in the table only 4 responses or 11%, however 20% of them keep silent during the sessions. In additions, girls always take the initiative to such as making comments and add new information as shown in the table 17% of the initiation were counted for girls ,however no initiation was taken by boys .

5.3. Summary of Observations Results

The findings of the seven observations in the three classes turned out to be approximately similar. Female students in general contribute a large part to classroom participation. It is obvious that girls have an advantage in the total amount of classroom responses, in terms of both the number of answers and the amount of taking initiations. Two main factors may explain it. Firstly, the fact that girls outnumber boys helps to establish an advantageous environment for the girls to participate and engage more in the class discussions, because girls will gain more confidence in more cooperative and supportive circumstances. Secondly, the class activities and course content influence the level of participation from students as they were more willing to participate if they were interested in the subject matter being discussed.

5.4. Comparative Analysis of Results

All three instruments used in this study, pupil questionnaire, teacher questionnaire and classroom observation reveal that each of the boys and girls participate differently in the classroom, with an apparent advantage for girls who participate more. Concerning the girls' and boys' behaviour, it was found that girls are calmer, they are more attentive in the classroom, and they cooperate more than boys; however boys are less active and sometimes totally passive because they have the idea that participation is not suitable for their gender. Both girls and boys should have a high rate of participation in the class, feel free to participate and make mistakes.

In the teachers' analysis it was found that girls and boys are greatly different in the classroom. It was found that teachers treat students differently by expecting more girls than boys to participate in class; mainly it was found that girls participate more than boys who are more disruptive in class, tend to be less active, less cooperative and most teachers

prefer less number of boys in their classrooms. Boys are shy; hesitant and afraid of others' judgments.

5.4.1. Frequency of Student's Participation

The data obtained from the learner and teacher questionnaires indicate that the number of girls who said they participated on average three or more than three times per day is more than boys. Although girls seemed to be shyer than boys to participate, but they are more interested in the English subject, and this is one of the reasons that girls participate more in the language classroom. From the teachers' perspectives, it was found that teachers treat students differently by expecting more girls than boys to participate in class mainly it was found that they observe that girls participate more than boys.

5.4.2. Students' Participation Behaviour

In the classroom, male and female students behave differently, in terms of participation, girls are spontaneous since they voluntarily answer teacher's questions whether they are directed to them or to the whole class: they are also calmer, more attentive, and they more cooperative than boys.

Boys, however, disturb more in the sense that almost all teachers prefer classes with fewer boys since boys give irrelevant comments and most of them are not interested in learning English.

Girls, boys and teachers all agree that female students participate more for many reasons such as getting a better mark in evaluation, practicing English or just because they have the correct answer whereas boys believe that it is not necessary to participate in order to understand the lesson.

5.4.3. Students' Participation Patterns

The analysis found out that girls always answer the teacher's questions, and they volunteer more because they know the answers; because they are sure about their answers, they are more attentive, and not afraid of sharing them with the class. Girls are also they also organized in their way of participation since they never answer teacher's questions posed to someone else or make comments; however, when girls ask questions, they just want to clarify things instead of asking more weighty questions about material. In contrast, teachers agree that the way boys participate is slightly different since they always take more time to think about answers; and when they have the chance to speak, they make comments and ask questions without raising their hands, and that disturbs the class. This freedom makes boys face more indiscipline, gives them more chances to disrespect teachers and students and disturb the class. Teachers should get all students involved in the class participation; for example, when boys are disturbing, keep asking them questions, and it will make them pay attention and not disturb.

5.4.4. Factors that Preventing Participation

There are many factors preventing students from participating, girls, for instance, do not participate when they do not have an answer to the questions or because they are afraid of teachers' judgment; boys do not participate for many reasons among them, being shy, afraid of judgment and because they think participation is not suitable for their gender. Another reason may be that the superiority of the number of girls in the classroom affects boys' participation since they do not want their abilities to be underestimated.

5.4.5. Reasons for Participation

Concerning the reasons that drive students to participate, girls and boys answers were nearly the same in which they agree that they participate when they have the exact answer, and when they want to check if their answer is correct or not. Another reason for

participating is that both of them enjoy and like to practise and talk in English. The last reason which takes a great part of answers is that they participate because it gets them a better mark in evaluation; however, for teachers, girls are more likely to have these reasons to participate more than boys, and this explains why girls are always relatively dominant in class discussions.

5.4.6. Rewarding and Participation

Boys and girls both agree that teachers treat them equally and not based on their gender and this creates a feeling of satisfaction for students. When teachers were asked if they reward their students' oral participation, half said they often do; they believe that rewarding students will encourage them to better develop their learning. When students were asked about why they participate, most of them said that they participate because they want to be rewarded with extra marks in evaluation.

6. Overall Analysis of Results

The current study has described how gender can have an impact on students' participation in EFL classrooms. This section aims to provide answers for the questions posed at the outset of the study on the basis of the results of the three research instruments.

6.1. The Relationship between Student Gender and Rate of Participation

We found that gender actually has an influence on students' participation rate, in the sense that girls tend to participate more than boys in that they participate more than three times per day. On the other hand, some boys never participate in English classes. These results clearly show that students' gender affects the participation rate.

6.2. The Relationship between Student Gender and Patterns of Participation

Gender also has an influence on students' participation patterns, that is to say that they participate in different ways not only by raising their hands and giving answers to the questions asked by the teacher, but through posing questions, giving comments and even adding new information. These acts are usually related to male students since men are known to be dominant; however, in our study we observed that female students tend to act in participate in various ways, from general oral participation and answering questions directed to them to giving voluntary answers and making comments. Girls are then seen as the most active in English classes.

6.3. Relationship between the Teacher Gender and Gendered Rates and Patterns of Participation

Speaking about gender, teachers' gender should also be considered as another reason that affects students' participation. When we asked students whether they would participate more and in different ways if their teachers' gender were the opposite, we found an equal number of responses between opponents and supporters of this idea; thus, teachers' gender has an impact of students' participation. Girls may feel comfortable with a female teacher and the same for boys with a male teacher.

6.4. Teacher Turn Distribution Behaviour

Students in the classroom may feel uncomfortable if they receive different treatments from their teachers. When asked if they receive equal attention, almost all girls and about 66% of boys said that teachers treat them with no discrimination. Teachers on the other hand were asked on what basis they select students to participate, a significant number of them representing 32% answered that they distribute turns equally and try to give each student the chance to participate. Students' willingness and insistence to

participate also determines teachers' choice of students to participate. In this regard, the results obtained indicate that students' gender has nothing to do with their decision to select students to participate.

6.5. Factors that Control the Manner in which Boys and Girls Participate

Students' gender and teachers' gender are not the only determiners of how students' participate. From the options we gave to the students to choose from, the majority of boys and girls said that they participate to get a better mark in evaluation, in addition to that 75% of girls and 71% of boys like to practice their English through participation.

Conclusion

To this end teachers are suggested some strategies for active and equal participation for both girls and boys. In the classroom, teachers have to control the students' ways of behaving, and help them to behave in a way that does not disrespect either teachers or classmates; it is important also to encourage students not to disturb one another when participating in addition teachers should never treat students differently or expect them to act differently.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

1. Putting it Altogether

The present research work deals with gender as a concept and as a factor that controls, somehow, students' oral participation in EFL classrooms, specifically those taken as the case study in this research. The study unfolds in three chapters; the first chapter of this thesis started by defining the term gender from different angles. In society, which is considered the environment in which most of this term's definitions have been given by sociologists, the term gender refers to the economic, social, political and cultural constructed characteristics of men and women, or attributes associated with being a male and a female. Since the beginning of our life, we learn to behave as boys and girls, and we continue doing that throughout childhood and adolescence and adulthood. Gender, therefore, is then monitored and reinforced by society. Moreover, the distinction between sex as a physiological attribute and gender as social attribute has been used without controversy.

In society, men and women are expected to have certain characteristics for differences between them in manners and behaviour; they are called gender stereotypes because society determines how men and women are supposed to act and how to behave and what jobs to do. The difference between men and women have been studied from different viewpoints. The psychological viewpoint claims that the differences have been found on a variety of aspects such as cognitive abilities (brain structure and function, intelligence, memory) and communication styles. Sociological viewpoints, however, believe that men and women are identified in different ways in every culture, in most of them, however, men are more valued than women since they occupy powerful positions in

society. Other theories such as functionalist theory, feminist theory and interactionist theory also have different opinions about gender differences.

Gender can affect students' achievements in schools especially in terms of classroom participation. Boys and girls behave differently in classrooms in the sense that they participate in different rates and patterns and prefer certain subjects which usually determine what academic path they will pursue. They also receive different treatments from their teachers reflecting and reinforcing stereotypes and even discriminations even when they try not to do so. Promoting gender equality, then, in the classroom should be achieved and students given equivalent opportunities.

The second chapter of this research work tackles classroom participation by defining it as a way to measure the student's progress since it shows how well students are doing in the learning process. Despite the importance often assigned to participation in classroom, it has been repeatedly reported that most students remain passive in class, and this led to searching for the reasons and factors that discourage participation.

First, learner's factors presented are age (which is not strongly related academic performance), aptitude (a factor impacting on performance in the classroom and is also linked with the success in language learning), learner's gender (though mixed results were obtained here), attitudes (with studies proving that female students score higher on most attitudinal and motivational measures in the language ,which makes them more successful in language learning) anxiety (with female students considered as more anxious) in addition to learner's personality (considered as the most influential factor that affects students participation). There are two types of personality: extroversion and introversion. The former refers to the learners' tendency to cope with stress and emotions, while the latter refers to the state of a person being private and inward upon himself or herself; extroverted learners are less anxious, they feel active and confident, and like the idea of

working in groups, whereas introverted learners are most of the time anxious, shy and always afraid of others' judgment. It follows that extroverts are the most active learners in the classroom and easily engage in class discussions. Motivation is another area where girls are found to be more motivated and successful than male students in FL classes, in terms of motivation female and male students are motivated differently since the majority of studies claimed that girls always show more interest in English. Furthermore, the use of different learning strategies also affects the students' performance in the classroom, with male and female students found not to be using the same strategies, and females showing more frequent strategy use than males, which gives them more advantages in academic achievements.

The second type of factors that have an influence on student's participation in the classroom are the situational factors. These include the cultural background affecting the way and different behaviours of learners in the classroom. Second, the sitting arrangement may influence the student's opportunity to participate. Third, teacher gender is also very important factor with male teachers often felt to be more serious and strict, whereas female teachers were seen as more caring and friendly. Teacher behaviour is another variable that influences students' participation since the teacher who creates a friendly learning environment of sharing and fun will make students feel more comfortable in the classroom, and consequently they engage better in the learning environment. Classroom environment motivates students to participate; the presence of classmate's traits of being supportive, for instance, influences students positively and propels them to be more active in class, students would participate more when their peers are respectful and do not criticize. This lead to the factor of the lack of confidence among students, which affects negatively the students' engagement. A student wouldn't participate if he/she feels as though he/she is going to be made fun of for their opinion or if they feel inadequate in front of other

students. Confidence among students is considered as the most motivating factor for students' participation, being in a comfortable and trustworthy environment helps the students to feel relaxed and more participative. The supportive and motivating climate increases more confidence among students and engages them in the learning activities, In addition, classroom size has been shown to have a direct and indirect impact on participation. In small classrooms, higher levels of participation have been recorded due to the student being more comfortable in an intimate classroom. Besides, the type of course can have an impact on students' participation in the sense that if the content of the course is interesting for the students, they will interact and be engaged in the class discussions with their teacher. Preparing for class makes one more likely to participate, because they feel more comfortable providing answers and opinions and they retain information.

The third chapter was devoted to the empirical part, to investigate research problem posed two key quantitative research tools were employed, namely students' and teachers' questionnaires and class observation. These two research instruments were implemented with a sample of 104 of students selected in a random way from 4 classes in which we have done our class observations. For the teachers, they are 8 in total and from different secondary schools. The result obtained from the teacher's and students' questionnaire show that boys and girls do not have the same rate of participation; the students' class participation depends on many factors and one of these factors is teachers' expectations and teachers attention to students and the way they engage and motivate their students to participate. From the students answers teachers give more attention to girls because girls are more interested and sincere when they work in the classroom and that girls participate more. When they participate they are more detailed and complete in their answers. In contrast, boys participate less, they joke more than girls, and they normally are shorter and more concise and think that participation is no necessary for understanding the lessons and

not suitable for their gender. The results reveal that girls volunteer more because they know the answers; because they are sure about their answers, they are more attentive and they are not afraid of sharing them with the class. Students, at the end, gave a set of suggestions in order to improve their participations, including use of media, changing the sitting arrangement to sit nearer to the teacher and designing classes containing equal numbers of boys and girls, prepare lessons at home. In teacher questionnaire analysis students' gender is seen by teachers as having a strong effect on their participation, with girls, participating more, engaging themselves in class discussions, asking questions and making comments. In addition to that, the majority of teachers said that they tend to interact more with girls, and that girls do not participate to get good marks but to practice English and have fun.

Teachers gave some suggestions by saying that class size affects class participation and that the number of girls should be less because approximately all classes contain more girls than boys.

Based on the findings of the observations in three classes, a conclusion that boys no more dominate in the class might be formulated. Girls enjoy more respective advantages and make great contribution in classroom participation, taking the initiation through asking questions and making comments and even adding new information during the sessions. Boys, on the other hand, prefer to sit at the back, far away from the teacher and discuss with other classmates, and sometimes add comments or participate if the subject being discussed is interesting for them. A new trend should not be neglected that girl students are being more competent, even to dominate the class, as the girls in the four times of observations dominate the amount of time talked at the total responses level, the girls like to be leaders in the group interactions. It was found that both girls and boys have the same

rate in terms of feeling comfortable to participate in class. However, the results did not show that they have the same rate of participation.

2. Pedagogical Recommendations

To conclude this study which highlights gender differences in class participation, we state some suggestions and recommendations that will be helpful for the English teachers in specific and for all teachers in general:

- Teachers are advised to have the same expectations for girls and boys, because their expectations influence students' participation.
- Teachers should give all students an opportunity to participate in the classroom, independently of whether the student is exceptionally good or not, girl or boy, disruptive or not.
- To increase the participation of boys in class, teachers should have high expectations from them too.
- It is wrong giving only one gender attention in the classroom or praising only one gender. It is a stereotypical gesture that brings inequality into the classroom and into schools.
- Differences between the boys and girls in participation include aspects such as being comfortable to participate in class, shyness, volunteering to participate in class and the aspect of being afraid to participate in class
- Boys need to be encouraged to raise their participation in a non-disruptive way. They need to be encouraged to speak when they know the correct answers. Even when they are not called upon, teachers need to keep them volunteering in class, encouraging them to speak in class
- Lim (2003) gave a helpful suggestion about making mistakes; "Teachers, first, should emphasize that making mistakes is an inevitable process

in learning a foreign language and second, helps relieve the face saving concerns by making every students speak English in class and at school” p.3.

3. Other Strategies for Engaging Students in the Discussion

Engaging students in classroom discussion is one task that teachers should try to achieve. Regardless of whether the student is male or female, teachers should have the same expectations for both of them. To engage their students in the classroom discussions, we suggest teachers learn students’ names because students will be more likely to participate if they feel recognized as individuals. They may start the lesson with some easy questions or questions that don’t have a wrong answer. For example, start by asking students what they noticed in a text. They also can encourage participation with positive and specific feedback: be affirmative without saying “great point” to everyone as it saps students’ motivation to participate, helping students to clarify unclear comments or ask others in the class to help out.

Students who are not interested in the material, English in this case, should be taken into consideration. Teachers may use some strategies to motivate them such as bringing interesting topics into the discussion, using games at the end of every session and integrating multi-media: use YouTube videos and podcasts.

Some students are just shy, teachers can deal with those students by dividing them into small groups: shy students usually participate in smaller groups. Teachers can also use written feedback: if you have a shy student who does well on a test or writes a successful paper, respond with encouragement to share his/her ideas.

All the previous strategies should be applied equally with females and males because it is wrong giving only one gender attention in the classroom or praising only one gender and it will be considered as a stereotypical gesture and it brings inequality into the classroom and into schools.

4. Limitations of the study

The current study has a number of limitations. First of all, it was limited in time and population. Limitations of this study included the sample not being sufficiently diverse. If the sample were more diverse and included multiple schools it could have resulted in the findings being more applicable to a broader group of students. In addition to that, it was just based on students and teachers opinion and their opinions are not a scientific fact although they do provide evidence of experienced reality. Another factor is that students may not tell everything that happens in the classroom. They may lie when answering the questionnaires, or tell half-truths they think are true. Furthermore, the results were not analysed by student's level and school, they were analysed together in order to get an overall idea of students of both schools. It is advised for a future study to analyse the results per level and possibly per school. There were also a limited number of teachers surveyed and their answers were not analysed by school, since all the teachers' answers were analysed together. In the future, it is advised to analyse the teacher's answers per school. The last element that could be mentioned here is related to classroom observations. These were only carried out in two schools involving two levels divided on four classes of second and third year foreign language streams. The problem was with the third year classes in which most students were absent in the last session. It is suggested for a future study to observe more classrooms, more schools and more levels, and to start doing field work earlier in the academic or school year.

Bibliography

Bibliography

- Archer, J., & Lloyd, J. (2002). *Sex and Gender* (2nd ed.). London. Cambridge University Press.
- Arnold, J. (1999). *Affect in Language Learning*. Cambridge, U.K: Cambridge University Press.
- Auster, C. J., & MacRone, M. (1994). *The Classroom as a Negotiated Social Setting: An Empirical Study of the Effects of Faculty Members' Behavior on Students' Participation*. *Teaching Sociology*, 22,289-300. Retrieved on 15 January, 2017 from: <http://tso.sagepub.com>.
- Bacon, S. M. (1992). *The Relationship between Genders, Comprehension, Processing Strategies, Cognitive, and Affective Response in Foreign Language Listening*. *The Modern Language Journal* 76, pp. 160-178
- Belanoff, P. (2001). *Silence: Reflection, Literacy, Learning, and Teaching*. *College Composition and Communication*, 52(3), 399-428. doi:10.2307/358625.
- Beng, C.S. (2003). *Class Participation: What if I Have no Questions?* Retrieved on January 30, 2017 from <http://lerc.educ.ubc.ca/fac>. Blackwell.
- Bonwell. C.C. (1980). *Active Learning: Creating Excitement in the Classroom*. *Active Learning Workshops*. Ph.D. PO Box 407 Green Mountain Falls, CO 80819 (719) 684-9261
- Borgatta and Montgomery (2000). *A Research Report On Gender And Classroom Interaction*. Retrieved on June, 4 2017 from <https://www.ukessays.com/essays/education/a-research-report-on-gender-and-classroom-interaction-education-essay.php?cref=1>.
- Borgatta, E.F. & Montgomery, R.J.V. (2000). *Encyclopedia of Sociology* (2nd ed., Vol. 2). New York: Macmillan Reference, USA.
- Borich, G. D. & Tambori, M. L. (1995). *Educational Psychology: A Contemporary Approach*. N.Y: Harper Collins College Publishers.
- Brown, D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. White Plains, NY: Longman
- Byram M. (1997b). "Cultural studies and foreign language teaching". In Bassnett, S. (ed.). *Studying British Cultures. An Introduction*. London: Routledge. 53-65.
- Carbonaro, W. (2005). *Tracking, Students' Effort, and Academic Achievement*. *Sociology of Education*, 78(1), 27-49. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/003804070507800102>
- Chang, S. (1990). *A study of language learning behaviors of Chinese learners at the University of Georgia and the relation of those behaviors to oral proficiency and other factors*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation Athens, University of Georgia

- Chang, Y.P. (2003). *Factors affecting language learning strategy choice: a study of EFL senior high school learners in Taiwan*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Texas A&M University.
- Chou, Y. (2002). *An exploratory study of language learning strategies and the relationship of these strategies to motivation and language proficiency among EFL Taiwanese technological and vocational college learners*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation University of Iowa.
- Chu, S., & Kim, J.H. (1999). *Comparison of the perceptions of classroom participation among Asian and non-Asian design students*. *Multicultural Education*, 7(2), 21–24.
- Claes, M.T. (1999), *Women, men and management styles*, *International Labour Review*, Vol. 138 No. 4, 431-46.
- Claes, M-T. (1999), *Women, men and management styles*, *International Labour Review*, Vol. 138 No. 4, pp. 431-46.
- Clark, A., & Trafford, J. (1996). *Return to gender: Boys' and girls' attitudes and achievements*. *Language Learning Journal*, 14, 40-49
- Coates, J. (2004). *Women, Men and Language*. (3rd Ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Cohen, M. (1991). *Making class participation a reality*. *PS: Political Science & Politics*, 24, 699703. (IT)
- Craven J. A. & Hogan T. (2001). *Assessing Students Participation in the Classroom*. Retrieved on November 15th, 2017, from: <http://www.gatesscience.info/teams-science>.
- Crombie, G., Pyke, S. W., Silverthorn, N., Jones, A., & Piccinin, S. (2003). *Students' Perceptions of Their Classroom Participation and Instructor as a Function of Gender and Context*. *Journal of Higher Education*, 74, 51 -76. (ES)
- Dallimore, E. J., Hertenstein, J. H. & Platt, M. B. (2004). *Classroom Participation and discussion effectiveness: Student-Generated Strategies', Communication Education*, 53, (1), pp. 103-115.
- Dancer, D., & Kamvounias, P. (2005). *Student Involvement in Assessment: A Project Designed to Assess Class Participation Fairly and Reliably*. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 30(4), 445-454. doi: 10.1080/02602930500099235
- Davies, P and Pearse, E.(2000). *Success in English Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dee, T. (2007). *Teachers and The Gender Gaps in Student Achievement*, *Journal of Human Resources*, vol. XLII, no. 3, pp.528–554. doi: 10.3368/jhr.xlii.3.528.
- Delamont, S. (1990). *Sex Roles and the School*. London: Routledge.

- Desprez, B. A., Doolaeghe, J. & Ruprecht, L., (1987). *Guidelines on Gender-Neutral Language*. Paris: UNESCO.
- DeWitt, G. (2000). *Exploring Inequalities in the Classroom: A Personal Case Study on Gender and Class Participation*. Retrieved on February, 2017 from: <http://www.linguist.org.cn/doc/su200607/su20060711.pdf>.
- Dörnyei, Z. & Clement, R. (2001). *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*. University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center, Honolulu, HI, pp. 399–432
- Doe, J. (2000). *Gender Differences in Participation in Two Elementary School Classroom*. Dissertation. University of California.
- Dongyue, L. (2004), *EFL Proficiency, Gender and Language Learning Strategy Use Among a Group of Chinese Technological Institute English Majors*. *Arecls E-Journal*, 1 (A5).
- Doob, C. (1997). *Sociology: An Introduction*. Fort Worth, TX: The Harcourt Press.
- Dörnyei, Z & Csizér, K (2005). *The Internal Structure of Language Learning Motivation and Its Relationship with Language Choice and Learning Effort*. *The Modern Language Journal*,
- Dranove, D. (2008). *Fixed Effects Models*, Available at: <http://www.jblumenstock.com/files/courses/econ174/FEModels.pdf> [Accessed 7 May, 2017.]
- Duff, S. J., & Hampson, E. (2001). *A Sex Difference on a Novel Spatial Working Memory Task in Humans*. *Brain and Cognition*, 47(3), 470-493.
- Eddleston, K., Veiga, J.F. & Powell, G. (2006). *Expanding the Traditional View of Managerial Career Satisfiers: Beyond Sex Differences*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 2,437-44
- Ehrman, M., & R. Oxford. 1990. *Adult Language Learning Styles and Strategies in an Intensive Training Setting.*” *The Modern Language Journal*, 74: 311-327
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Erickson, F. 2004, *Culture in Society and in Educational practices*, in J Banks and C. Banks (eds), *Multicultural Education: issues and perspectives*, 5th ed, John Wiley & Sons, USA, pp.31-60 .
- Eskew, R. K., & Faley, R. H. (1988). *Some determinants of student performance in the first college-level of the financial accounting course*. *The Accounting Review*, 63(1), 137-147.
- Fassinger, P. A. (1995). *Professors' and students' perceptions of why students participate in class*. *Teaching Sociology*, 24,2533. (ES)

- Feingold, A. (1988). *Cognitive gender differences are disappearing*. *American Psychologist*, 43(2), 95-103.
- Fritschner, L. M. (2000). *Inside the undergraduate college classroom: Faculty and students differ on the meaning of student participation*. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 71, 342362. (LR)
- Gardner, R.C (1985) *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning*. Great Britain: Edward Arnold Publications.
- Giddens, A. (1987). *Sociology: A Brief but Critical Introduction*, 2nd ed. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Goddard, A.& M. Patterson (2000). *Language and gender*. London: Routledge.
- Gollnick, D. M. & Chinn, P. C. (1990). *Multicultural Education in a pluralistic society*. N.Y: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Graddol, D. & J. Swann (1989). *Gender voices*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Granstrom, K. (1996) *Private communication between students in the classroom in relation to different classroom features*. *Educational Psychology*, 16, 4, 349–364.
- Gray, J. (1992). *Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus: a Practical Guide for Improving Communication and Getting What You Want in a Relationship*. HarperCollins, New York
- Green, J.M. & Oxford, R.L. (1995). *A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiency, and gender*. *TESOL Quarterly* 29 (2), pp. 261-297.
- Herlitz, A., Nilsson, L.-G., & Bäckman, L. (1997). *Gender differences in episodic memory*. *Memory and Cognition*, 25(6), 801-811.
- Hjelle, L. A., & Ziegler, D. J. (1976). *Personality theories: Basic assumptions, research, and applications*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hodgson. D. (2012). *Personality in the Classroom. Motivating and Inspiring Every Teacher and Student*. UK: Crown House Publishing Ltd.
- Holmes, J. (1995). *Women, Men and Politeness*. New York: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.
- Holmes, M. (2007). *What Is Gender? Sociological Approach*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Holmlund, Helena and Krister Sund, *Is the Gender Gap in School Performance Affected by the Sex of the Teacher?* *Labour Economics*, 2008, 15, 37-53.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B. & Cope, J. (1986), *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety*. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70: 125–132. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05256.x.

- Howard, J. R. (2002). *Do College Students Participate More in Discussion in Traditional Delivery Courses or in Interactive Telecourses?* A preliminary comparison. *Journal of Higher Education*, 73(6), 764-780. Retrieved on 7 May, 2017 from: <https://ohiostatepress.org>.
- Howard, J., James, G., & Taylor, D. (2002). *The Consolidation of Responsibility in the Mixed-Age College Classroom*. *Teaching Sociology*, 30(2), 214-234. Retrieved on 7 May, 2017 from: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3211384>.
- James, W. & Gardner, D. (1995). Learning styles: implications for distance learning, *New Direction for Adult Continuing Education*, 67, pp. 19–32.
- Jantz.G.L. (2014, February 27). *Brain Differences between Genders, Do You Ever Wonder Why Men and Women Think Differently?* Retrieved on 7 June, 2017 from: http://I:/%C2%A0/Brain Differences Between Genders _ Psychology Today.htm
- Jaworski, A. & Sachdev, I. (1998). *Beliefs about Silence in the Classroom, Language and Education* 12, (4), pp. 237-292.
- Jones, S. & Dindia, K. (2004). *A Meta- Analytic Perspective on Sex Equity in the Classroom*. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(4), 443-471.
- Kantaoui, M (2015). *EFL Cultural And Linguistic Challenges In Holding Proper Conversations*. (Magister Dissertation, University of KasdiMerbah, Ouargla). Retrieved on 15 March from: <https://dspace.univ-ouargla.dz/jspui/bitstream/123456789/10993/1/Mohammed-KANTAOUI.pdf>.
- Karp, D. A. & Yoels, W. C. (1976). *The College Classroom: Some Observations on the Meanings of Student Participation*. *Sociology and Social Research*, 60, 421-439. (ES)
- Kasper, G. & Omori, M. (2010). *Language and Culture*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters
- Kendon, A. (1990) *Conducting interaction Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press*.
- Kissau, S. (2006). *Gender differences in motivation to learn French*. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 62(3), 401-422.
- Kissau, S., Kolano, L.Q., & Wang, C. (2010). *Perceptions of gender differences in high school students' motivation to learn Spanish*. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(4), 703-721.
- Krieg, J.M. (2005). *Student gender and teacher gender: What is the impact on high stakes test scores?* *Current Issues in Education*, 8(9), 1-16.
- Lam, Y.H.R., Tse, S.K., Lam, J.W.I., Loh, E.K.Y. (2009). *Does the gender of the teacher matter in the teaching of reading literacy? Teacher gender and pupil attainment in reading literacy in Hong Kong*. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, (26), 754-759.

- Leaper, C. (1991). *Influence and involvement in children's discourse: Age, gender, and partner effects*. *Child Development*, 62,797-811.
- Leonard, D. K., & Jiang, J. (1999). *Gender Bias and the College Predictors of the SATs: A cry of Despair*. *Research in Higher education*, 40,375-407. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1018759308259>.
- Lessard, C.M (1997). *Language Learning Strategies: An Overview for L2 Teachers*. KwansaiGakuin University .The Internet TESL Journal
- Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages Are Learned*, 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Macionis, J.J. (1997).*Society :The Basics* .Upper Saddle River, NJ :Prentice Hall.
- Maltz, D. N, &Borker, R. (1982). *A cultural approach to male-female miscommunication*. In J. J. Gumpertz (Ed.), *Language and social identity*. Cambridge; Cambridge University Press.
- Mason, E. S. (1994). *Gender differences in job satisfaction*. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 135, 143-151.
- Matsuda, S., Gobel, P., 2004. *Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom*. *System* 32, 21e36
- McLaughlin, B. (1990). *Restructuring*. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 113-128.
- McLeod, B. (1976) *The relevance of anthropology to language teaching*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10 (2), 211-220.
- Mead, M. (1949). *Male and female: A study of the sexes in a changing world*. New York: W. Morrow.
- Mesri F., (2012). *The relationship between gender and Iranian EFL learners' foreign language classroom anxiety*. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2, (6), 147-156.
- Mills, C. W. (1959). *The sociological imagination*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Myers, I. (1962). *The Myers-Briggs type indicator*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Myers, S. A., Edwards, C., & Wahl, S. T. (2007, November). *The effects of perceived instructor aggressive communication on college student involvement*. Paper presented at the meeting of the National Communication Association, Chicago, IL.
- Myers, S. A., Horan, S. M., Kennedy-Lightsey, C. D., Madlock, P. E., Sidelinger, R. J., Byrnes, K., . . . Mansson, D. H. (2009). *The relationship between college*

- students' self-reports of class participation and perceived instructor impressions.* Communication Research Reports, 26(2), 123-133. doi: 10.1080/08824090902861580
- Nataatmadja, I Sixsmith, & AJ Dyson, LE (2007.January).Improving Class Participation by Asian Students. *Managing Worldwide Operations and Communications with Information Technology*, pp. 74 – 77.Retrieved on :<http://www.irma-international.org/viewtitle/33025/>.
- Neer, M. R., & Kircher, W. F. (1989). *Apprehensives' perception of classroom factors influencing their class participation.* Communication Research Reports, 6(1), 70-77. Retrieved on June 2017 from <http://www.tandfonline.com> No. 89.
- Nunn, C. E. (1996). *Discussion in the college classroom: Triangulating observational and survey results.* The Journal of Higher Education, 67,243-266.
- Nyberg, L, &Cabeza, R. (2000). *Brain imaging of memory.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Olsher, D. (2004) *Talk and gesture: the embodied completion of sequential action in spoken interaction.* London: Continuum International Publishing Group Ltd.
- Ormrod, J. E. (1998). *Educational Psychology: Developing Learners.* N. J: Prentice Hall.
- Oxford, R. L, & Crookall, D. (1989). *Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings, and instructional issues.* Modern Language Journal, 73, 404-19.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know.* Boston, MA: Heinle&Heinle Publishers.
- Pace, D. & Price, M. (2005) *Instructional techniques to facilitate inclusive education., Including Children with Special Needs .*Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Pajares, F. (1996). *Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Academic Settings.* Review of Educational Research, 66(4), 543-578. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00346543066004543>.
- Paoli, L. (2005). *Students' Personality Type and Attitudes toward Classroom Participation.* California State University, Los Angeles. Proceedings of the CATESOL State Conference.
- Petress, K. (2001) *The ethics of student classroom silence,* *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 28, (104-107).
- Phillips, E. M. (1992). *The effects of language anxiety on students' oral test performance and attitudes.* The Modern Language Journal, 76, 14-26.
- Powell, R.C. (1979). *Sex differences in language learning: a review of the evidence,* in *Audio-Visual Language Journal*, 17, 1: 19-24.
- Powell, R.C. & Batters, J.D. (1985). *Pupils perceptions of foreign language learning at 12+ some gender differences,* in *Educational Studies*, 11, 1: 12-23.

- Powell, R.C. & Littlewood, P. (1983). *Why choose French? boys' and girls' attitudes at the option stage*, in *The British Journal of Language Teaching*, 21, 1: 36-9.
- Pritchard, R. (1987). *Boys' and girls' attitudes towards French and German*, in *Educational Research*, 29, 1: 12-23.
- Reda, M (2009). *Between Speaking and Silence: A Study of Quiet Students.*: SUNY Press. Western Missouri State University.
- Reinsch, R., & Wambsganss, J. R. (1994). *Class participation: How it affects results on examinations*. *Journal of Education for Business*, 70(1), 33. Retrieved on February 2017 from: <http://www.tandfonline.com>.
- Richardson, J. T. E. (1994). *Mature students in higher education: Academic performance and intellectual ability*. *Higher Education*, 28(3), 373 – 386.
- Rocca, K. A. (2001, November). *Participation in the college classroom: The impact of instructor immediacy and verbal aggression*. Paper presented at the meeting of the National Communication Association, Atlanta, GA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED461899)
- Rubin, J. (1981). *Study of cognitive processes in second language learning*. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 117-31.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deco, E. L. (2000). *Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions*. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54–67.
- Sadker, D. M. & Sadker, M. P. (2000). *Teachers, Schools & Society*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- Sadker, Myra and David Sadker. 1994. *Failing at Fairness: How America's Schools Cheat Girls*. Toronto, ON: Simon & Schuster Inc.
- Sahlström, F. (1999) *Up the Hill Backwards*. Uppsala: Uppsala Studies in Education.
- Sifianou, M. 1997, *Silence and Politeness*, in A. Jaworski (ed.), *Silence: Interdisciplinary perspective*, Mouton de Gruyter, Germany.
- Sime, D. (2006) What do learners make of teachers' gestures in the language classroom?, *IRAL-Interactional Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* 44, (2), pp. 211.
- Şimşek, T (2015). *The Role of Anxiety In Foreign Language Classes: A Focus On Gender*. 3/4 p. 70/83 Retrieved on 15 Mai, 2017 from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.18033/ijla.332>.
- Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual differences in second language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Smith, D. G. (1977). *College classroom interactions and critical thinking*. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 69(2), 180-190. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.69.2.180

- Spender, D. (1980) *Man Made Language*. Harper Collins Publishers. London: Pandora Press
- Spielberger, C. D. (1983). *Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory*, STAI (form Y) ("self-evaluation questionnaire").
- Spolsky, B. (1990). *Conditions for Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Swann, J. (1992) *Language in Education: Girls, Boys & Language*. Oxford:
- Tannen, D. (1990). *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation*. Ballantine Books, New York.
- Tatar, S. (2005). *Why keep silent? The classroom participation experiences of non-native-English-speaking students*. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 5, 284-293.
- Trener, M. R, Jack, C. R, Cascino, G. D, Sharbrough, F. W., & Ivnik, R. J. (1996). *Sex differences in the relationship between visual memory and MRI hippocampal volumes*. *Neuropsychology*, 10(3), 343-351.
- Turula, A. 2002. *Language Anxiety and Classroom Dynamics: The Teacher, Peer Students and the Classroom as Inhibiting Factors: A Study of the Adult Beginner*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. Katowice, Poland: University of Silesia.
- Vandick, S. (2000). *Language, Culture, Class, Gender and Class Participation*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of Teachers of ESL. Retrieved Mai 15, 2017, from [http:// www.eric.ed.gov/ ERIC docs2sql content- storage.html](http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERIC/docs2sql/content-storage.html).
- Vermunt, J.D. (1996). *Metacognitive, cognitive and affective aspects of learning*. *Higher Education*, 31(1), 25.
- Wade, R. (1994). *Teacher education students' views on class discussion: implications for fostering critical thinking*. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. Vol. 10(2): 231-243.
- Wainer, H, & Steinberg, L. S. (1992). *Sex Differences in Performance on the Mathematics Section of the Scholastic Aptitude Test: A Bidirectional Validity Study*. *Harvard Educational Review*, 62,323-336.
- Wannarka. R & Ruhl. K (2008). *Seating Arrangements that Promote Positive Academic and Behavioural Outcomes: A Review of Empirical Research* Vol. 23 Issue 2, p89-93
- Warayet. A. (2011). *Participation as a Complex Phenomenon in the EFL Classroom*. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Newcastle, United Kingdom).Retrieved from <https://theses.ncl.ac.uk/dspace/bitstream/10443/1322/1/Warayet11.pdf>
- Weaver, R. R., & Qi, J. (2005). *Classroom organization and participation: College students' perceptions*. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 76, 570601. (ES)

- Wechsler, D. (1981). *Manual for the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale -Revised*. New York: Psychological Corporation
- Week, M., & Ferraro, R., 2011. *Correlation between foreign language anxiety and gender*. Psychology Journal, 2011, Vol. 8,1, pp. 40-4
- Welbourne, T. (2005). *Women "Take Care," Men "Take Charge:" Stereotyping of U.S. Business Leaders Exposed*, Catalyst, 7, 10, 22.
- WHO (World Health Organization), 2009. *What do we mean by "sex" and "gender"?* [Online] Available at: <http://www.who.int/gender/whatisgender/en/index.html> [Accessed 28 October 2009].
- Wilberg, S., & Lynn, R. (1999). *Sex Differences in Historical Knowledge and School Grades: A 26 Nation Study. Personality and Individual Differences*, 27,1221-1229 [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(99\)00066-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(99)00066-5)
- Wood, J. (1996) *Should class participation be required in the basic communication course?*, Basic Communication Course Annual 8, pp. 108-124.
- Wood, J. T (1996). *Gendered lives: Communication, gender and culture (2nd ed)*. Belmont, CA; Wadsworth.
- Xiong, X (2010) *A Comparative Study of Boys' and Girls' English Study Differences*. Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 1, No. 3.
- Yang, Y.L. (2001). *Sex and language proficiency level in color-naming performance: an ESL/EFL perspective*", in International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 11, 2: 238-56.
- Young, D. J. (1994). *New directions in language anxiety research: The individual learner in multisection courses*. Boston: Heinle&Heinle Publishers.
- Zamri, M. (2004). *Strategy pembelajaran bahasa Melayu di kalangan pelajar sekolah menengah*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Zhang, X. (2004). *Language anxiety and its effect on oral performance in classroom* [sic]. Retrieved on June 2017 from: <http://www.celea.org.cn/pastversion/lw/pdf/ZhangXianping.pdf>
- Zosuls, K. M. et al. *Gender Development Research in Sex Roles: Historical Trends and Future Directions*. *Sex roles* 64.11-12 (2011): 826–842.
Retrieved on 5 Mai 2017 from:
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3131694/>

Appendices

b) No

Section Two: Actual Classroom Participation

8. On average, how often do you participate in the English class per day?

Never Once Twice Three times More than three times

9. In which school subject, if any, do you participate the most?

10. In which school subject, if any, do you participate the least?

11. How often do you do the following things in the English class?

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
a) I answer teacher's questions directed to me					
b) Raise my hand to answer teacher's questions posed to the whole class					
c) I answer teacher's questions posed to the whole class without raising my hand					
d) I answer teacher's questions posed to someone else					
e) I answer at the same time together with other pupils					
f) I ask questions					
g) I make comments					

12. Choose the statements that describe the way you participate. (You can choose more than one answer)

	Yes	No
a) I participate when I have the exact correct answer.		
b) I participate when I want to know if my answer is correct		
c) I participate because I like to practise and talk in English		
d) Participation gets me a better mark in evaluation		

13. How often do you prepare your English homework?

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

14. What stops you from participating in classroom discussions?

- a) I am shy
- b) I am afraid that my friends would laugh at me
- c) I am afraid of my teacher's judgments
- d) It is not necessary to participate to understand the lesson

Section Three: Opinions and suggestions about Classroom Participation

- 15. Do you like to participate in the classes of English?
Yes No
- 16. Do you consider yourself an active student?
Yes No
- 17. Do you think you are participating enough in the classes of English?
Yes No
- 18. Does the teacher's personality play a role in your decision to participate?
Yes No
- 19. Who participates more in the classes of English?
Girls Boys
- 20. In your opinion, the teacher pays more attention to :
Boys Girls No difference

21. Would you participate more if

	Yes	No
a) You sat nearer to the teacher?		
b) You sat farther from the teacher?		
c) The teacher gave me more chances to speak?		
d) Prepared the lesson beforehand?		
e) Other students participated too?		
f) Other pupils didn't interrupt you when you speak?		
g) You were a boy/ a girl?		
h) The teacher were a man/ woman?		

22. What, do you think, should be done to increase your participation in English classes?

.....

Appendix B

Teacher Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

We would be very thankful if you accept to fill out the following questionnaire. Your answers are extremely important because they will serve as precious background information for our research.

Please, take as much time as you see necessary to answer the questions, crossing the box in front of each statement when the answer truly represents you.

Section One: General Information

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Degree:
 - License
 - Master
 - Magister
3. Teaching Experience: years
4. How do you find teaching English at the secondary school level?
 - Very hard Hard Medium Easy Very easy
5. How many boys and girls do you teach in each of your classes?
 - Class 1: boys Girls
 - Class 2: boys Girls
 - Class 3: boys Girls
 - Class 4: boys Girls
 - Class 5: boys Girls
 - Class 6: boys Girls
6. Do you think that oral participation in English classes is important in learning?
 - Strongly agree Agree Neutral disagree Strongly disagree
7. How do you evaluate your students' level of oral participation?
 - Very satisfactory
 - Satisfactory
 - Average
 - Below average
 - Unsatisfactory
8. How often do your reward oral participation in the classroom?
 - Always Often Sometimes Rarely Never

Section Two: Gender and Classroom Participation

9. Based on your own experience in teaching English, which group of students, if any, demonstrates the following behaviours in English classes?

Behaviour	Student Group				
	More boys	More Girls	Boys Only	Girls Only	No difference
a- General oral participation					
b- Answer questions directed to them					
c- Raise their hands in participation bids					
d- Volunteer answers without the teacher asking questions					
e- Volunteer to answer the question posed to the whole class					
f- Answer at the same time together					
g- Take more time to think about answers					
h- Ask questions					
i- Make comments					
j- Correct others' mistakes					
k- Do individual written tasks					
l- Collaborate in pair work					
m- Collaborate in group work					
n- Dominate classroom discussion					
o- Act as leaders in group and pair work					
p- Participate using the English language					
q- Participate using other languages such as the mother tongue					

10. Oral participation in English classes improves in classes containing:

- Fewer boys
- Fewer girls
- Same or converging number of boys and girls
- No difference

11. Do you think that gender differences in participation are partially due to the students' sitting arrangements?

- Yes No

12. If you answered "Yes", who participates more in oral activities:

- Students sitting at the front rows
- Students sitting at the middle rows
- Students sitting at the rear rows

13. Choose the statements that describe the reasons or drives for students' participation.

Reason	Student Group				
	More boys	More Girls	Boys Only	Girls Only	No difference

a) They have the exact answer.					
b) They want to check if the answer is correct					
c) They like to practise and talk in English					
d) They want to get good marks in evaluation					
e) They are resolved to improve through practice					
f) they want to impress the teacher					
g) they want to impress their classmates					
h) others, please specify: - -					

14. Choose the statements that describe the reasons or drives for lack of or absence of students' participation.

Reason	Student Group				
	More boys	More Girls	Boys Only	Girls Only	No difference
a) They are shy					
b) They are afraid that other students would laugh at them					
c) They are afraid of teacher's judgment					
d) They don't feel participation is necessary in order to understand the lesson					
e) They think oral participation is not suitable for their gender					
h) others, please specify: -					

Section Three: Teacher Participation Management

15. Which group, if any, do you think you interact more with:

- Boys
 Girls
 Both

16. Which other factors determine your choice of students to participate:

- Student sitting
 Student ability

- Distributing turns equally
- Time constraints
- Student willingness to participate
- Student insistence to participate
- Others, please specify:

.....
.....

17. Do you think that students require differential treatment according to their gender in order to maximize participation or bring them to participate?

If “Yes”, please explain

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

Section Four: Further Suggestions

18. If you have other comments, please feel free to add them.

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

Appendix C

Observation Scheme

Type of Participation	Description	Categories for Observation	Description
1. Response	Pupil answers a teacher question	a. selected	- The teacher asked the pupil to answer
		b. unselected	- The pupil answered a question directed to another pupil
		c. correct	- The pupil answer is correct
2. Hesitation	Pupil takes time to reply, hesitates (err; em), provides an incomplete response or expresses doubt.	d. wrong	- The pupil answer is wrong
		e. oral	- verbal responses -uncertainty of answers
		f. written	-written answers by using letters, words.
		g. choral response	-answering all at the same time.
3. Initiation	Pupils open door for discussion	h. Comment	Expressing an opinion on teacher or others contributions
		i. Question for confirmation	Pupils ask questions to affirm if their answers are correct
		j. Add new information	Pupils give additional data about topics discussed
		k. Ask for clarification	Pupils demand an explanation.
4. Interruption	Pupils make an intrusion when their mates or their teachers speak.	l. Overlap	pupils speak all at the same time
		m. Interrupt other students	pupils disturb their mates when they speak
		n. Interrupt the teacher	Pupils disturb their teacher when s/he speaks
5. No response	Pupils with no answers remain silent.	/	/

Résumé

Cette recherche tente de résoudre un problème spécifique lié au genre et à la façon dont il affecte le taux de participation des élèves dans les classes. C'est-à-dire que les filles et les garçons participent de différentes façons pour de nombreuses raisons, dont l'une est le genre. En outre, cette recherche examine dans quelle mesure le genre affecte la volonté des élèves de participer en classe. Elle vise également à éclaircir ce qui empêche ou conduit les élèves à participer, et à suggérer quelques stratégies pour améliorer leur participation. Une étude exploratoire descriptive a été effectuée pour étudier les différences entre les genres dans les classes d'EFL. Aux fins de cette étude, deux méthodes de recherche principales ont été utilisées pour évaluer la participation des élèves dans les classes d'EFL algériennes. D'une part, et comme le principal outil de collecte de données, un questionnaire a été structuré et distribué à un échantillon de 104 apprenants en langues étrangères dans deux écoles secondaires différentes. De plus, 8 enseignants ont participé à cette étude et ont également été interrogés. D'autre part, une série d'observations en classe, qui est le deuxième outil, a également été menée. Les résultats de l'étude montrent que les filles participent davantage dans les classes d'EFL. Il a été constaté que les filles sont plus actives, plus intéressées par la matière et plus motivées que les garçons qui ont été observés à être moins actifs et moins coopératifs. On espère que ces résultats finiront par attirer l'attention des enseignants sur cette question et, par conséquent, pour les aider à mieux contribuer afin de réduire le biais de genre et d'assurer l'égalité dans leurs classes en matière de participation.

المخلص

تهدف هذه الأطروحة إلى معالجة قضية محددة تتعلق بنوع الجنس وكيفية تأثيره على نسبة مشاركة التلاميذ داخل الفصول الدراسية. معنى ذلك أن الفتيات والفتيان يختلفون من حيث طريقة المشاركة وذلك لأسباب عديدة منها نوع الجنس. وعلاوة على ذلك، يتناول هذا البحث إلى أي مدى يؤثر نوع الجنس على استعداد ورغبة التلاميذ للمشاركة في الصف، كما يهدف إلى تسليط الضوء على ما قد يمنهم أو يدفعهم للمشاركة، وكذا اقتراح مجموعة من الاستراتيجيات للمساعدة في تعزيز المشاركة الشفهية لدى التلاميذ. لهذا فقد أجريت دراسة استكشافية وصفية للتحقيق في الفروقات بين الجنسين داخل أقسام اللغة الإنجليزية، حيث استخدمت لأغراض هذه الدراسة طريقتين رئيسيتين للبحث من أجل تقييم مشاركة التلاميذ داخل أقسام اللغة الإنجليزية في الجزائر. فمن ناحية، وباعتباره الأداة الرئيسية لجمع البيانات، تم تنظيم استبيان وتوزيعه على عينة من 104 متعلما للغات الأجنبية في مدرستين ثانويتين مختلفتين، كما شارك 8 أساتذة في هذه الدراسة وتم استبيانهم أيضا. ومن ناحية أخرى، أجريت بالتوازي سلسلة من ملاحظات الفصول الدراسية بهدف جمع المزيد من البيانات. وتظهر نتائج الدراسة أن الفتيات يشاركن بمعدل أعلى في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية، حيث تبين أنهن أكثر نشاطا وأكثر اهتماما بالمادة وأكثر اندفاعا للمشاركة من الفتيان الذين لوحظ أنهم أقل نشاطا وأقل تعاونا. ومن المؤمل أن توجه هذه النتائج في نهاية المطاف انتباه المعلمين والأساتذة إلى هذه المسألة، وبالتالي لمساعدتهم على الإسهام بشكل أفضل من أجل الحد من التحيز القائم على نوع الجنس وتحقيق المساواة فيما يخص المشاركة داخل الأقسام.