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Questioning Classroom Interaction from a Conversation Analysis Perspective: The Case of Third-Year Undergraduate EFL Learners of Jijel University

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Abstract

The present study aims to scrutinize classroom interaction as a jointly constructed process. It also aims to shed light on the mechanisms of classroom interaction generated through teacher talk and learners' language. The study assumes that the more Algerian EFL university teachers of speaking involve their learners verbally in the construction of classroom discourse through addressing a variety of questions and feedback, the more successful classroom interaction might be, and more turns and adjacency pair parts might be generated by learners. To fulfill this aim, the study adopts a descriptive research paradigm, employing Conversation Analysis to capture the dynamics of classroom interaction in speaking classes. To this end, two classes of speaking, each comprising 25 (i.e., 50 out of 210) third-year undergraduate students taught by two teachers, were involved. The study attempts to ponder the extent to which discourse produced in the two different classroom contexts is interactive. The results showed that classroom interaction was more prompted by the types of questions, directed feedback, and learners' turn-taking. The results demonstrated that the structure of classroom interactional mechanisms is characterized by the Initiation-Response-Follow-up pattern, making it a very rigid interactional process.

Keywords: Classroom interaction, Conversation Analysis, discourse, learners' language, teacher talk

ملخص

تهدف الدراسة الحالية إلى محاولة دراسة التفاعل في القسم كعملية مشتركة البناء، كما تهدف إلى تسليط الضوء على آليات التفاعل في الفصل التي تتولد من خلال حديث المعلم ولغة المتعلمين. تستند الدراسة إلى افتراض أنه كلما زاد انخراط معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في الجزائر في إشراك المتعلمين لفظيًا في بناء خطاب الفصل من خلال طرح مجموعة متنوعة من الأسئلة والتقييمات، زادت فرص نجاح التفاعل في الفصل، وزادت الأدوار وأجزاء التتابع التي يمكن أن يُنتجها المتعلمون. ولتحقيق هدف الدراسة، تم اعتماد نموذج بحث وصفي من خلال تنفيذ تحليل المحادثة لالتقاط ديناميكيات التفاعل في الفصل التي تميز دروس المحادثة. ولهذا الغرض، تم إشراك فصلين دراسيين للمحادثة، كل منهما يتألف من 25 طالبًا (أي 50 من أصل 210) من طلاب السنة الثالثة ليسانس، تم تدريسهم من طرف أستاذين مختلفين. تحاول الدراسة معرفة مدى تفاعل الخطاب المنتج في السياقات الدراسية المختلفة. أظهرت النتائج أن التفاعل في الفصل كان أكثر تحفيزًا وفقًا لأنواع الأسئلة، والتقييمات الموجهة، وتناوب المتعلمين في الحديث. علاوة على ذلك، أظهرت النتائج أن هيكل آليات التفاعل في الفصل يتميز بنمط المبادرة–الاستجابة–التعقيب، مما يجعله عملية تفاعلية مقيدة جدًا.

كلمات مفتاحية: التفاعل الصفي، تحليل المحادثة، الخطاب، لغة المتعلمين، خطاب الأستاذ.

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Introduction

Supposedly, classroom interaction can pave the way for enhancing language acquisition. Primarily and strategically aimed at boosting learners' speaking skills, classroom interaction is deemed crucial within the context of English language teaching. The dynamics that guide classroom practices form the foundation for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners to actively engage in discursive processes. These dynamics potentially contribute to improving both their linguistic proficiency and communicative competence.

Given the significance of classroom interaction, it is imperative to inspect structured classroom practices and determine how these can generate more spontaneous turn-taking and adjacency pairs in ways that trigger learners' willingness to embark on meaning negotiation. More importantly, as in other contexts in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), classroom discourse generated in the Algerian context is molded by sociocultural norms, revealing teacher authority and the fear of making mistakes. Ultimately, these factors foster learners' passivity and withdrawal from participation, leading to the dominance of more confident speakers.

Prioritizing classroom interaction not only enhances learners' communicative skills and linguistic competence but also lays the groundwork for establishing a positive pedagogical environment that is responsive, supportive, and conducive to language learning in general and speaking skills in particular.

At the English Department of Jijel University, speaking teachers voiced their dissatisfaction with the level and quality of verbal engagement exhibited by EFL Algerian third-year undergraduate learners in speaking classes. All the teachers in the department acknowledged the existence of challenges hindering them from meeting both their expectations and those of their learners regarding the promotion of classroom interaction. These claims, as reported by the teachers, arise from students' reluctance to speak and actively participate in the development of classroom interaction, resulting in the dominance of confident learners.

Such a situation undermines opportunities for reticent learners to engage in verbal interaction, which are often otherwise neglected in speaking classes. Consequently, this lack of participation can result in learners becoming less proficient in using the target language in the classroom. Likewise, the dominance of some learners over classroom interaction can be a serious warning sign of a less interactive environment that neither offers opportunities for less risk-taking learners to develop their speaking skills nor fosters learner-learner interaction, ultimately resulting in limited classroom engagement.

The present study, then, endeavors to reflect on the dynamics characterizing classroom interaction in third-year undergraduate speaking classes at the English Department of Jijel University. To unveil these pivotal dynamics, the study adopts a Conversation Analysis (CA) framework, considering classroom interaction as not being fully grounded in coding schemes like Interaction Analysis. While the latter adheres to predefined categories in describing the diverse mechanisms of classroom interaction, CA proposes an inductive analysis of turn-taking, turn allocation, and teacher-tailored questions and feedback. Thus, CA paves the way for capturing how meaning is co-constructed in the classroom, thanks to its ethnographic nature (Van Lier, 1996).

In this regard, classroom discourse analysis (DA) is crucial in disclosing how mechanisms of interaction can efficiently stimulate learners' participation. Accordingly, the more teachers use effective questioning techniques—such as asking open-ended questions—and provide appropriate feedback on learners' oral performance, the more learners take turns and construct meaningful adjacency pairs during interaction. Hence, this study is conducted to answer the following questions:

1. How do question types influence turn-taking patterns and adjacency pair construction?

2. How does teacher feedback stimulate turn-taking and the adjacency pairs system?

Literature Review

The literature review presents key definitions and major issues related to classroom interaction.

Discourse Analysis: Basic Concepts

Written and spoken discourse can be probed and analysed using DA. Discourse Analysis is essentially important to the understanding of language classroom interaction. As a field of investigation, DA emerged in the late 1960s and 1970s, originally known as 'text linguistics' and 'discourse analysis'. Halliday (1985)- a founding figure in Discourse Analysis- with his Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory, has contributed immensely to the field by associating linguistic discourse with social contexts and purposes. His contribution made classroom discourse analyzed from a communicative perspective. While the early focus was on written texts across various genres, DA incorporates spoken and written language, integrating social and cognitive perspectives on language use and communication (Bussmann, 1996). DA examines the structure and interpretation of discourse from psycholinguistic, cognitive, and social perspectives, making it a cross-disciplinary field drawing from anthropology, sociolinguistics, cognitive sciences, language philosophy, sociology of language, psycholinguistics, rhetoric, and text linguistics (Van Dijk, 1985).

DA is a self-discipline focusing on describing and analysing language beyond the sentence level, considering the social and cultural contexts influencing its use. Discourse analysts are then expected to study the language used in diverse social contexts such as phone calls, commercials, transactions, job interviews, doctor-patient conversations, and classroom interactions. In so doing, researchers can analyze these verbal interactions to uncover the dynamics that govern them. It is worth mentioning that each context has its distinct patterns and norms, which participants typically follow. In a classroom context, for instance, individuals such as teachers and learners assume different roles and establish relationships to attain well-defined and specific goals. Hence, discourse analysts are expected to offer meticulous explanations of these diverse contexts (Gee, 2014).

Classroom Discourse Analysis Approaches

Before diving into a classroom DA, it is vital to review the most prominent methods adopted to scrutinize classroom discourse dynamics with its complex facets and interactive processes. Conducting classroom DA has, by and large, become central to any serious educational enterprise (Kumaravadivelu, 1999).

Interaction Analysis

Interaction Analysis (IA) is one of the most commonly used methods for Classroom Discourse (CD). It is defined by Richards and Schmidt (1992) as procedures for measuring and describing student and teacher behaviours in classrooms. IA's main aim is to closely examine and thoroughly describe classroom activities, as well as evaluate teaching and learning processes. Researchers start by discerning all the events occurring in the classroom and classifying activities accordingly by relying on coding systems. These are highly effective for capturing communication patterns that promote second or foreign language learning. Researchers such as McKay (2006) and Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) underscored the importance of using coding schemes in IA, as they allow observers to categorize and illustrate

classroom interactions. Kumaravadivelu (1999) described these schemes as sets of predetermined categories for recording verbal behaviours to support the scientific analysis of CD. There are over two hundred coding systems in education, with around twenty-six specifically for second-language classrooms (Chaudron, 1988). Similarly, McKay (2006) noted that coding schemes vary, with 'generic' schemes describing overall communication patterns and 'limited' schemes focusing on specific interactions like group work. Observers use standard features like ticking boxes and making marks to record events, facilitating comparison and generalization of findings. These instruments help teachers recognize unnoticed aspects of their teaching. Among the existing coding systems are COLT (1984) (as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 1999), Bellack' s Model (1966) (as cited in Walsh, 2006), Flanders (FIAC) (1970) (as cited in Tsui, 1995), Moskowitz (1971) FLINT Scheme (as cited in Walsh, 2006).

Alternatively, researchers can frame the IA of classroom discourse using limited coding systems or ad hoc approaches. Thus, discourse analysts adopting this method would focus on specific phenomena in classroom interaction. They generate categories and tailor them to fit specific activities. Opting for such defined categories paves the way for the researchers to dig deeper into the topic under investigation in a profound way that allows them to have a far-reaching and inclusive insight into it. Goldstein and Conrad's (1990) limited coding system, Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk: SETT (2001) (a cited in Walsh, 2006), is two of the most dominant limited coding systems used in interaction IA.

Discourse Analysis

Richards and Schmidt (1992) defined CD as a distinct type of language used within classroom contexts. That language type is essentially dissimilar in both form and function from any other type of language used in other settings. This discrepancy is primarily due to the exceptional social roles that both teachers and learners alike undertake to fulfil certain goals and to do a variety of activities in the classroom. Rymes (2008) further explained that the focal aim of CD analysis is to examine language in classroom contexts, which is affected by various social contexts inside and outside the classroom. Yet, this analysis aims primarily to improve the quality of classroom interactions and positively impact social outcomes beyond the classroom. Rymes (2008) also underscored the significance of context in discourse, suggesting that teachers and language researchers should strive to meticulously examine the features of classroom talk that might hinder students' participation. The primary method for analysing CD is the Sinclair and Coulthard model (1975) (as cited in Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). Furthermore, the Discourse Analysis Model (1975) is perceived to be the most well-known method used in CD analysis (as cited in McCarthy, 1991).

Halliday (1994), a prominent figure who made significant contributions to the development of discourse theory, emphasized the functional aspect of meaning-making as shaped by context and social purposes. Put otherwise, his model elucidated how linguistic choices serve specific social and textual functions, suggesting a deep understanding of discourse structures and their meanings in education (Halliday, 1994).

Conversation Analysis

Conversation Analysis (CA) stems from the ethnomethodology discipline and focuses on the social organization of natural conversation. Dissimilar to DA and IA, CA probes how meaning and its pragmatic functions are conveyed and embedded in interaction processes, particularly in turn-taking systems and sequencing. As a field, CA developed during the 1960s

and 1970s, and it lies at the intersection of sociology and linguistics (Tanaka& Choi, 2004, p. 5). As a method, CA adopts an ethnographic style that prioritizes context in disclosing facts related to the intricate nature of classroom interactions. As a technique, it leans towards the use of open-ended empirical data, stemming its categories from discernible data instead of using predetermined observation schemes. Although CA examines the interaction process with its complex nature, it principally disregards the social variables of the individuals reviewed during their interaction (Heath, 1983). As highlighted by Lazarton (2002), CA starts by implementing authentic recorded materials. A deep analysis of the turn-taking is introduced with no use of coding schemes or quantified data. It varies from the rest of the approaches as it primarily centers on qualitative data from real classroom interaction, viewing it as a jointly constructed process.

Merits of Classroom Discourse Analysis

Classroom Discourse Analysis (CDA) can provide analytical insights into classroom dynamics and interactions. Kumaravadivelu (1999) stressed that a classroom is a 'mini-society' with its own rules, and CDA can, by and large, facilitate the understanding of the teacher and learners' relationship and experience. Furthermore, CDA can fundamentally improve mutual understanding between teachers and learners (McKay, 2006). Rymes (2008) further asserted that CDA paves the way for teachers to reflect on their relationship with their learners by helping them analyze classroom interaction processes and the construction of social relationships. Put otherwise, in applying CDA, teachers have ample chances to comprehend the reasons behind learners' demotivation and silence. CDA can enable teachers to gain a deeper understanding of the factors that inhibit their learners from responding to questions. Likewise, it can offer substantial privilege to researchers to examine interaction mechanisms facilitating learning. Similarly, Cazden (2001) further asserted that teacher-learner interaction is essential in shaping learners' cognitive development. Furthermore, Mercer (1995) elucidated that conducting CDA could grant researchers chances to divulge how sociocultural factors of individuals affect the learning process.

In classroom practice, insights gained from CDA can promote the use of teaching methods that ensure fair learning opportunities for all individuals. Teachers can achieve this by examining the mechanisms of interaction between themselves and their learners, and by considering how these patterns influence learners' engagement and communication. In so doing, educators and practitioners can systematically devise techniques that can cater to different learning styles and learning needs. For instance, if CDA reveals that some techniques of questioning and addressing feedback are effective in boosting learners' participation, then teachers should reinforce the use of these devices to heighten their learners' involvement, establish a supportive environment in their classes, and ensure equitable opportunities for all their students (Mercer, 1995; Nystrand et al., 1997). Furthermore, Wells (1999) asserted that dialogic interaction marking classroom communication may enhance learners' use of higher-order thinking skills. Hence, conducting CDA facilitates teachers' tasks in boosting their learners' construction of knowledge.

Recent studies, such as the one by Mardiah et al. (2020), postulated that teacher talk can significantly limit learners' participation. The findings confirmed that teacher-led interaction maintains control over the class, yet it downgrades learners' engagement. Similarly, Zaki (2021) investigated English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom discourse in a university context. He concluded that teacher talk, which is essentially featured by the dominance of

closed-ended questions, largely dominated classroom interaction. Hence, this fact resulted in the limitation of learners' elaboration. In the same vein, Sivaci (2020) confirmed that classroom interaction is highly dominated by teacher talk due to the overuse of display questions, suggesting using more referential questions to establish a more interactive classroom. Collectively, these studies underscore the necessity of conducting CDA to unveil the dynamics guiding interaction, for optimising both the quality and the quantity of the latter.

Classroom Interaction and Second/Foreign Language Acquisition

Hedge (2000) highlighted that there are four primary scopes of investigation in second/foreign language acquisition: the nature of input, how learners process input, the role of interaction in the classroom, and the role of error in language learning. In particular, interaction, as a realm of research, has been substantially investigated in ESL/EFL classroom contexts. It involves the negotiation of meaning in classroom communication to avoid communication breakdowns (Ellis, 1999). Given the importance of classroom interactions, teachers and learners assume distinct roles and establish relationships to achieve well-defined and specific goals. SLA studies aim to unveil how classroom interaction occurs, what enhances it, and what is likely to impede it. Hall and Verplaetse (2000) elucidated that researchers have explored classroom interaction in SLA from various perspectives over the past two decades. It initially focused on Teacher Talk (TT) and Non-Native Speaker (NNS) interactions. However, in the current body of literature, holistic language teaching for communicative purposes has been emphasized more. Walsh (2006) argued that teachers' awareness of the relationship between TT, interaction, and learning opportunities enhances the SLA process. Ellis (1990) and Johnson (1995) underscored the focal role of teachers in fostering interaction as the latter aligns with SLA/FLA. Accordingly, teachers-as field practitioners-need to understand interaction mechanisms such as input, peer interaction, negotiation of meaning, and turn-taking to enhance their learners' communication and speaking. Effective interaction, indeed, occurs when both teachers and learners understand their roles. Put differently, communication in the classroom hinges significantly on verbal interaction and participants' engagement in discourse construction.

Classroom interaction can promote SLA in four ways: it can develop social, communicative, and academic skills; it facilitates knowledge co-construction; it fosters a sense of group membership; it reduces language anxiety; and it enhances verbal communication competence (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). Similarly, Ellis (1990) explained that classroom interaction can bring about SLA, as it helps learners understand target language structures and integrate them into their speech. Gass (2003) (as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008) and Mackey (1999) (as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008) corroborate that interaction is central to SLA as it assists learners in decoding messages and developing their language learning strategies. Tsui (1995) asserted that interaction is crucially significant in the SL/FL classroom as learners are expected to develop skills through communicative tasks. Likewise, Van Lier (1988) put classroom interactions at the heart of language learning. Similarly, Ellis (2008) argued that both interaction and input can largely influence the route and rate of SLA, helping learners internalize chunks of speech and enhance their conversational skills. More importantly, classroom interaction paves the way for them to practise the language and to make errors- a step that, in the main, is recognized to be conducive to successful language acquisition.

Teacher Talk

Allwright and Bailey (1991) confirmed that most teachers do dominate classroom talk, conducting up to three-quarters of the discourse. Correspondingly, Ellis (1990) concluded that teachers control interaction unintentionally due to their power and the basic role they play in managing discourse through questioning. Chaudron (1988) asserted that excessive TT unfortunately minimizes student interaction. Hence, TT is acknowledged to be crucial as it significantly impacts students' engagement.

According to Walsh (2006), teacher talk functions can significantly vary depending on the classroom situation, suggesting a four-category framework known as the Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT). This framework is practical as it helps teachers reflect upon their implemented feedback strategies to better reinforce their learners' engagement and language performance. It comprises four modes: managerial, materials, skills and systems, and classroom context. Each of the four modes targets specific pedagogical goals aimed at assisting teachers to optimize learning. To illustrate, the managerial mode targets classroom patterns and transitions, while the materials mode focuses on resources deemed valuable in enhancing and evaluating learner responses. The third mode-skills and systems-however, centers around developing language accuracy and feedback. The last mode-classroom context stimulates learners' fluency. The subsequent section is devoted to reviewing the basic components of TT, namely questions and feedback.

Questions

Questions are significant devices that are widely implemented in SLA/FLA classrooms by teachers to involve their learners in interactive processes and to check their comprehension (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). The significance of questions lies in the fact that they help make input comprehensible. Given that, teachers' attention should be geared towards varying the types of questions addressed, as they significantly influence their learners' language production (Nassaji & Wells, 2000). The most dominant types include display questions, whose answers are known by the teacher, and referential questions, which prompt unknown responses, calling for longer answers. Hence, to ask good questions, teachers should rely more on inclusive ones to consider learners' diverse cognitive differences (Byram, 2000). Furthermore, open questions are those that can yield multiple answers, while closed ones are those that can have one possible correct answer.

It is worth mentioning that classroom interaction dynamics can vary across cultures, as found by Hadjeris and Merrouche (2019). The extent to which teachers dominate classroom interaction is influenced by cultural norms. Non-native English-speaking teachers (NNEST) rely more on display questions, while native English-speaking teachers (NEST) often employ referential questions to maximise authentic communication.

Feedback

Feedback in SLA encompasses responses from teachers after their learners' answers, and it is classified as positive or corrective. Positive feedback is addressed following successful responses, and it can predominantly enhance motivation and engagement (Lyster, 2007). Other common strategies of positive feedback include repetition and rephrasing. However, corrective feedback forwards learners' erroneous answers by highlighting inconsistencies between the learners' output and the target language (Dekeyser, 2007). The latter can be explicit (e.g., correction after error), implicit (e.g., recasts or repetition), or it can alternatively involve

techniques like clarification requests and metalinguistic clues (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Corrective feedback may lead learners to adjust their interlanguage and thereby avoid being trapped in fossilization (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Conclusively, teachers should cautiously consider when and how to provide feedback, paying attention to their learners' cognitive processes and their different language proficiency.

Learners' Language

Interaction in learners' language classrooms is important; it is characterized by mechanisms that reveal a lot about language acquisition. Classroom interaction, as a structured process, is jointly constructed, involving both teachers' talk and learners' language. The latter chiefly encompasses turn-taking and adjacency pairs.

Turn-taking System

Turn-taking, as highlighted by Bruthiaux et al. (2005), is a fundamental process in which participants and learners, in particular, alternately take turns speaking. Wong and Waring (2010) underscored the role of the turn-taking pattern in enhancing learners' interactional competence and thereby language acquisition. This mechanism is largely affected by cultural norms, silence length, and language proficiency (Sacks et al., 1974). Different from natural conversations, classroom discourse is often characterized by teacher dominance in allocating turns, with fewer learners' self-initiation (Lŏrscher, 1986) (as cited in Ellis, 1990). Tsui (1995) and Seedhouse (2004) corroborated that the turn-taking system is highly aligned with the pedagogically set aims. Yet, effective turn allocation calls for considering learner engagement and minimizing teachers' excessive control of turn allocation (Tsui, 1996).

Adhering to very structured turn allocation and turn-taking systems ultimately results in framing classroom interaction into the traditional model of IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback). The latter was criticized for limiting learners' natural communicative engagement. Seedhouse (2004), for example, elucidated that establishing a rich and healthy environment for language learning in the classroom hinges on fostering dispreferred responses, such as disagreement and hesitation. These, as explained by Seedhouse (2004), are deemed positive for reinforcing meaning negotiation and learners' engagement. In contrast, relying on IRF, in which the teacher initiates interaction, waits for an immediate preferred response, and typically follows up with feedback, limits the natural flow of interaction-including repairs and meaning negotiation-which are prerequisites for enhancing Second-Language Acquisition (L2).

Adjacency Pairs Mechanism

Adjacency pairs, as a central mechanism characterizing learners' language, are indispensable in both casual and classroom conversations. It basically involves dependent utterance pairs, like a question and its answer. In language classrooms, comprehending these pairs is fundamental for learners to engage successfully in classroom discourse. Thus, constructing second-pair parts can be either preferred (e.g., acceptance) or dispreferred (e.g., refusal), with the former being shorter and more straightforward and the latter more complex and hesitant (Koester, 2010). Hence, to eloquently respond to teacher-addressed questions or other learners' first adjacency parts, ESL/EFL learners are expected to respond by generating an appropriate second pair.

Scrutinizing in-depth classroom interaction entails the analysis of all four interaction dynamics characterizing both teachers' talk and learners' language through CA. In doing so, the process of language acquisition can be better captured as the analysis of these discourse aspects can disclose how language is constructed, learnt and produced, as suggested by

Seedhouse (2004) and Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), who underscored the magnitude of analysing these features of discourse as they divulge issues on both the language use and the learning process.

Methods and Materials

Probing the nature of classroom interaction that is perceived as a jointly constructed process necessitated the implementation of the CA method to DA. Seedhouse (2004) advocated the use of CA as it is deemed significantly crucial for scrutinizing in-depth classroom discourse. Unlike the other existing approaches to classroom discourse, CA provides a detailed and systematic framework for the analysis of the natural and spontaneous interaction occurring in classroom settings (Seedhouse, 2004). On the one hand, CA embarks upon the study of the turn-by-turn organization of participants' talk, and it unveils the structure of the adjacency pairs system. It undertakes the analysis of teachers' questioning and feedback addressing techniques on the other. Hence, CA attempts to interpret the findings as naturally yielding; thereby, it seems to be valuable to be used as it offers deep insights into the mechanisms shaping classroom interaction. Yet, it is noteworthy that CA, which is fully grounded in the descriptive research paradigm, does neither attempt to prescribe nor manipulate the variables under investigation. Given that, CA is adopted in the present study to analyse chunks of discourse as produced in a foreign language classroom context.

Participants

To rigorously achieve the aim of the present study and to appropriately answer the forwarded research questions, two classroom contexts were targeted, comprising 50 learners (each involving 25 students), taught by two different teachers. These were chosen for conducting classroom observation in the period between April 19th and May 3rd 2010. Five speaking classes were attended with these two different teachers. The rationale behind attending speaking classes with two different teachers was to gain more insight into classroom interaction processes and to gather as much data about the variables under investigation, namely, teachers' talk (questioning and feedback) and learners' language (turn-taking and adjacency pairs). All the sessions attended were entirely devoted to the instruction of idiomatic expressions, which were the targeted content in the speaking classes. According to Van Lier (1988), different types of tasks, chiefly set for enhancing learners' vocabulary, such as idioms, shape classroom discourse and determine language learning opportunities. That is, to ponder on how interaction patterns (question types, turn-taking dynamics, etc.) and how meaning is jointly constructed, researchers should resort to the use of different vocabulary tasks, among which are phrasal verb ones.

Research Instruments

As CA is a purely qualitative data analysis, no numerical data were gathered. Hence, to collect qualitative data, all five classroom observation sessions were recorded using a simple camcorder to capture all classroom events. Four sessions were initially attended before filming to avoid unsettling participants and to make them acquainted with the researchers' presence in the classroom. The researcher was a passive observer as no intervention was attempted. Attending some sessions before recording was indispensable to familiarize the participants with the researcher and to minimize any undesirable feelings that could arise among learners. Conclusively, this issue led the participants to feel more natural while interacting in the classroom. The use of the camcorder was mandatory to principally transcribe speech before

embarking upon the CA and to retrieve data whenever necessary. As for the speech transcription, speech transcription conventions that are proposed by Seedhouse (1994) were used in the present study. Concerning speech transcription, only some extracts pertaining to the two classroom contexts are selected and inserted in the following section.

Results

Findings of Teacher Talk

In the subsequent section, some extracts generated by the two teachers in the five sessions attended are analysed to probe the features of their talk, namely questioning and feedback.

Teachers Questions

The analysis of classroom discourse generated during the five sessions of the speaking class provided a comprehensive understanding of teachers' questioning techniques. Notably, both teachers frequently used 'display' and 'closed' questions, which typically resulted in producing brief and simple learners 'responses. This technique of questions, by and large, significantly influenced the quality and quantity of learners' output. When opting for closed and display questions, learners were prompted to produce short, straightforward answers. Contrariwise, in instances where they were asked referential and open questions, they were stimulated to generate more elaborate and complex responses. The following are two selected excerpts from the two different classroom contexts illustrating the addressed types of questions.

Excerpt 1

1. T: mention other cases or other yes please ((giving the floor for students who asked for the turn to speak))
2. L1: eh I'm in the edge of my sit when I watch the action's movies hh (.) because—
3. T: no no no we are speaking about a case a real case °now look any one has had an experience. It's an experience (.) of being on the edge of that sit(.) at some kind of show. movie or type „(guess) describe now. this case
4. L1: yes. eh I was in the edge of my sit when—
5. T: ON.
6. L1: on the edge of my si::t when I was watching a movi:::e an action[
7. T: what was that movie exactly.]
8. L1: an action movie
9. T: what was that.
10. L: „(guess) (3.5)
11. L1: [temInato:r] ((the student pronounces it in a French pronunciation))
12. T: [t3:.mI.neItə] ((implicit repair through which he corrected for her the pronunciation))
13. L1: yes
(3) hh [
14. T: you were scared maybe?]
15. L1: yes.

16. T: scared?
17. L1: yes
18. T: scared or on the edge interested?
19. L1: both
20. T: both?
21. L1: yes
22.L1:it's very (.) it's an amazing movie and I liked it so much.
23. T: how how how did you realize that it was interesting you? that you were really interested (.) in it.(5.0)
24. L1: because I liked action. They make me feel excited to achieve the end
25. T: yes but were you able to go to sleep before the end of the film?
26. L1: yes yes
27. T: ok so you were not interested in this case?
28. L: because of the end of the film.
29. T: so if you were able to go to sleep meaning you have left the movie.[
30. L2: you are not on the edge of spark.]
31. T: you were not you are not on the edge (.) >maybe you have not understood the question< you have answered before finishing the question. You were interested right?
32. L1: yes
33. T: you were on the edge of you sit right? so then my question now (.) have you slept or did you sleep before the end of the film? (3.0) before the end?
34. L1: no maybe after in hours or (.) until[
35. T: did you wait until the film finish?
36. L1: yes. I waited.

In lines 1, 3, 7, 23, 33, in which the teacher addressed referential/open questions, responses were long utterances. However, when the teachers addressed display/closed questions, as shown in lines 14, 16, 18, 25, 27, 31, 33, 35, learners produced output was considerably limited and restricted to only one word as in line, 15, 17, 19, 21, 26, 32, 36.

Excerpt 2

1.T: right. what we want you to do is to give us three things at the same time they would be three cases that really happened (4.5)
2.L1: really happened
3.T: YES please ((nominating a student to speak))
4.L2: what bores me to death i:::s watching the Algerian series and spending the weekend[
5.T: ok now you are using the present ( )
Let's now change the question now maybe it is not free ( ) it is well for you (.) so what are the two or the three things that (3.0) that bored you to death?
so use it in the present form.
6.L2: yes, and also to spend the weekend by myself in the campus –
7.T. sorry ?
8.L2: .hh spend the weekend in the CAMPUS (guess) university campus by myself
9.T: yeah
10.L2: It's boring.
11.T: so this is a good case SPENDING weekend alone in the campus so that's boring? why? can you tell me.
12. L2: (.) you know there is ( ) nothing to do I mean no TV(.) no no no [
13.Ls: no space[
14.L2:] I just (.) spend weekend sleeping
15.T: Lazy student.

In excerpt 2, the teacher competently implemented referential and open-ended questions (as in lines 1&5) to encourage the learner to elucidate her views. The teacher's questions, such as "Can you tell me?" in line 11, prompted the student to speak further despite recurrent interruptions. The exchange involved seven students' turns (line 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14) and six teacher turns (in lines 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11). Hence, this reflects that the teacher's questioning strategy could successfully extend students' participation and negotiation of

meaning. The piece of talk exhibited in extract 2 discloses that the teachers' use of referential questions was proficient at engaging the learner in the conversation.

The findings from the excerpts selected above illustrate the influence of teachers' question types on learners' response patterns are summarised below to offer a clearer quantitative visualisation.

Table 1. *Question types and learner response patterns*

Question Type	Avg. Words per Response	Turn Frequency
Display	2–4	10
Referential	10–18	5

Note. Data derived from analysis of classroom discourse excerpts 1 and 2.

Table One quantitatively summarizes how the different types of questions influence learners' response patterns. Display questions, which seek predetermined answers and have a simple, short structure, elicit brief responses averaging 2 to 4 words. These questions are frequently addressed (turn frequency of 10), likely because they are easier and quicker for learners to answer. In contrast, referential questions evoked more elaborate answers, averaging 10 to 18 words, but appear less frequently (turn frequency of 5). This lower frequency may be due to the cognitive demands required to process and formulate responses to these open-ended questions. To visualize the findings, the following figure is inserted.

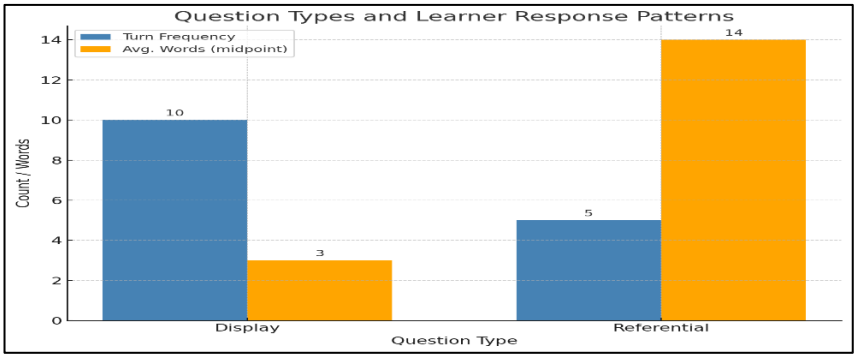

Figure 1. Teachers' question types and learners' response patterns

As the figure shows, referential questions are more effective than display questions in encouraging learners to produce long responses. While display questions support teachers' control over the flow of communication, referential questions are more effective in fostering learners' deep engagement, extended talk, and opportunities for meaning negotiation. Ultimately, this leads to the enhancement of learners' oral production quality.

Teacher's Feedback

Positive Feedback

Both teachers consistently showed acknowledgment, approval, and acceptance of their learners' given answers, often by repeating their utterances. In the five classes, it was evident that the teachers' implementation of positive feedback stimulated their learners to take turns to speak and generate longer utterances. In instances where the two teachers nodded, smiled, and showed appreciation of their learners' responses, especially to their shy or reticent ones, it

prompted them to speak further and to take turns to express their ideas as highlighted in the following excerpt.

Excerpt 3

1. T: let' s begin. Ok. who wants to tell me what IS the first idiomatic expression? and then the meaning ok. so number one yes please?
2. L1: The neck of the woods.
3. T: ah what kind of say meaning would you give to such an expression?
4. L1: I understand it as a miserable area.
5. T: ok, the others?
6. T: yes
7. L2: this place.
8. T: this place.
9. L3: an unpleasant place.
10. T: an unpleasant place.
11. L4: empty place.
12. T: empty place.
13. L5: an isolated area.
14. T: an isolated area.
15. L5: the area where he lives.
16. T: the area where he lives.
17. L6: we are not expected to be here.
18. T: we are not expected to be here. someone else? are there any other explanations?

In lines 8, 10, 12, and 14 of excerpt 3, the teacher addressed positive feedback, demonstrated in the form of repetition of learners' responses. In doing so, he intended to support his learners and attempted to drag as many students as possible into interactive discourse. The teacher used positive feedback that was embodied in the form of repetition of the given responses (lines 8, 10, 12, and 14). Thus, this technique of positive feedback (repetition) could noticeably reinforce his learners' turn-taking and prompted them to participate. By echoing their answers, the teacher not only validated their input but also prompted further engagement from other students. This technique can only reflect the teacher's effort to establish a supportive classroom environment and foster a more interactive discourse. The teacher's use of repetition as positive feedback is beneficial in engaging more students in the conversation and sustaining their involvement in the discussion.

Excerpt 4

1. T: the other one is.
2. LL: moving up the lather
3. LL: moving up the lather
4. T: move up the la ((hesitation)) lather ok do you () first ?
6. LL: yes
7. T: ok. (5.0)
8. T: hh just ok you ((gives the turn to the student who asked for it))
9. L1: mo:::ving up the lather? may mean progressing or improving
10. T: ok.[
11. L2: sir ((asking for turn to speak))]
12. T: why why did you get the idea of (2) progressing for example
13. L1: because ((hesitation)) in a lather people move up[
14. L2: ( ) go to the top
15. LL: (guess) ((talking together)) 16 L1: level () from to a higher one
17. T: yeah from something which is low to something which is high progressing yes.

In the excerpt, the learner explained the idiom 'moving up the ladder' in line 9. The teacher responded with an acknowledgment ("yes") in line 10 and then provided positive feedback by rephrasing the learner's explanation in line 17. Hence, using both acceptance and rephrasing, as two main types of positive feedback, evidently aims at boosting learners' interaction.

Negative Feedback

Excerpt 5

1. T: YES someone else .
2. L1: sir ((asking for the turn to speak))
3. T: yeah
4. L1: .hh if Hasni hears you singing his song [
5. LL: ((laughter))]
6. L1: ((laughter)) he would turn over in his grieve
7. T: OK laughter
8. L2: Sir ? could you PLEASE repeat?
9. T: If Hasni listened to me OK say ((hesitation)) singing his songs (1.0) he would turn over in his grieve you know (lengthened) that I sing very well ?

As highlighted in extract 5, the teacher provided two types of corrective feedback in a single move (line 9). The learner's output in line 4 contained two errors: using the present simple instead of the past simple tense and using 'hear' instead of 'listen.' The teacher's corrective feedback in line 9 was in the form of a recast- a type of implicit corrective feedback (Lyster, 2007), where the teacher implicitly corrected the errors without directly addressing them or prompting the student to self-correct. Hence, using this technique of feedback did not hinder the learner's interaction.

Excerpt 6

1. T: finally the (2.0) last item (5.5) yes please ((allocating the turn to a student to speak))
2. L1: your kids hh you [u] kids are fooling around[
3. T: no no noLL: your [u:r]L1: ah your [u:r] kids are fooling around since you ( )
4. T: no[
5. L2: you have been
6. T: we have since here.and with since we use which tense?
7. LL: past perfect
8. T: no no it's not the past perfect here.
9. LL: Present perfect Present perfect
10. T: Present?perfect.
11. L1: Have been home now it's time to sit down to do your homework.
12. T: repeat please because it's not clear your hh you kids.you
13. L1: you kids are fooling around since have been home now it's time to sit down and do your homework.

In line 2, the learner mistakenly used the possessive pronoun "our" instead of the subject pronoun "you." The teacher immediately interrupted with a "no" (line 3), stimulating the student to correct the committed error. Of the thirteen moves displayed in excerpt 6, the teacher provided corrective feedback on four occasions (lines 3, 6, and 10), all of which were direct. The teacher's overuse of explicit corrective feedback with abrupt and recurrent interruptions disrupted the conversation flow as the learners abstained from taking engaging further in other turns of speech. The constant use of 'no' and overcorrections shifted focus from communication to error correction. Hence, this fact potentially weakened students' self-confidence and ended up limiting their engagement.

Table 2. *Feedback type, learner engagement, turn-taking, and adjacency pairs*

Feedback Type	Avg. Turns per Episode	Learner Engagement Level	Adjacency Pair Pattern	Interactional Impact
Recasts	6–8	Moderate	Rigid question–response	Low self-repair,
Explicit Correction	4–5	Low to Moderate	Broken or delayed pairs due to interruptions	Disrupted flow, hesitations, decreased participation
Positive Feedback via Repetition and Rephrasing	8–10	High	Well-formed, expanded sequences are encouraged by the teacher echoing	Encourages turn-taking, boosts learner confidence
Peer-Assisted Correction and Co-constructed Repair	6–9	High	Compound adjacency pairs are jointly constructed	Encourages shared meaning negotiation and co-constructed discourse

Note: Avg. Turns per Episode refers to the average number of speaker changes during a single classroom exchange or discussion sequence involving feedback.

Table Two displays that recasts, as an implicit corrective feedback type with an average of 6 to 8 turns per episode, resulted in low self-repair and rigid question-responses, making learners' engagement moderate but limited in terms of interactive development. Similarly, explicit correction, which averaged 4 to 5 turns per episode, disrupted pairing and caused broken or delayed adjacency pairs due to recurrent teacher interruptions. This disruption lowered learners' participation and interrupted the flow of interaction.

As for positive feedback tailored to repetition and rephrasing, an average of 8 to 10 turns per episode, learner engagement was high. This type of feedback resulted in forming extended sequences, resulting in intensifying learners' turn-taking and enhancing their confidence. Conclusively, peer-targeted feedback and co-construction repair, averaging 6 to 9 turns per episode, resulted in compound adjacency pairs that are jointly constructed, largely fostering learners' meaning negotiation and co-constructed discourse. The following figure visualizes the findings displayed in Table Two.

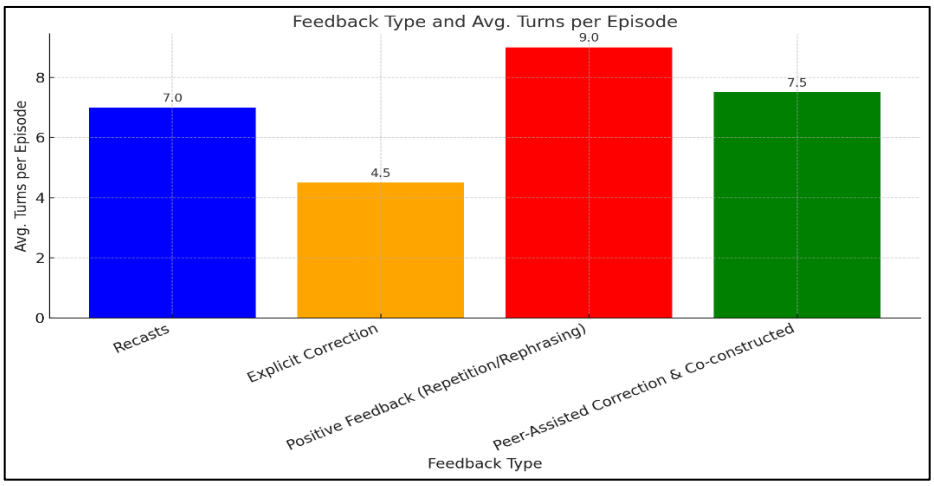

Figure 2. Feedback types and average turns per episode.

Figure Two demonstrates the average number of turns per episode across the four different types of feedback addressed by the teachers. Positive feedback through repetition rephrasing promoted the highest number of turns (9), followed by peer-assisted correction and co-

constructed repair (7.5), and recasts (7). Explicit correction, however, elicited the lowest turn average (4.5), suggesting that it may limit interaction. Hence, the results underscore the influence of feedback type in developing learners' engagement and interaction flow maintenance.

Learners' Language

Subsequently, follow some selected extracts from the produced learner's language. Both the turn-taking system and the adjacency pairs components are analysed.

Turn-taking System

Excerpt 7

1. T: someone else, let's go to expression number three ((a student asks for the floor))
2. T: yes please. ((the teacher allocates the turn to the L1 to speak))
3. L1: hh dead wrong. may mean totally wrong.
4. L: totally wrong
5. L: yes
6. T: TOTALLY wrong.(.) do you all agree on ((a student asks for the turn)
7. LL: yes
8. T: yes yes please? ((giving the turn to her))
9. L2: completely mistaken.
10. T: completely mistaken
11. L3: totally wrong
12. T: totally wrong
13. L4: Completely wrong.
14. T: Completely wrong (.) you all agree that completely or totally mistaken or wrong.

Excerpt 7 shows an exceedingly organized turn-taking system as learners used simple and limited utterances to explain an idiomatic expression, as evident in lines 3, 9, 11, and 13. The minimal amount of talk observed can only demonstrate the task the teacher selected in the speaking class and which was basically about the explanation of idiomatic expressions, which barred the learners from providing an output of higher quality and quantity. The structure of the turns varies from lexical (e.g., "yes" in line 5) to clausal (e.g., line 3) and phrasal (e.g., line 11). The speech exchange is marked by smooth transitions between speakers, with pauses that prevent any overlap. Hence, this indicates a rigid and strictly organized turn-taking system. Learners waited for the teacher's turn the permission to start speaking. Accordingly, CA revealed that classroom interaction in this instance restricted opportunities for meaning negotiation and rigidly framed the learners' utterances to be simple.

Excerpt 8

1. T: silence is mortal (.) it's deadly (6.0)
2. L1: someone (guess) ((inaudible words for the low pitch the student was speaking)) a show ( ) ((inaudible words))
3. T: a show?
4. L1: yeah
5. T: have you ever been, in party that's boring?((addressing the question to all students))
6. L2: in a wedding.
7. T: wedding? Ok (guess) this is explain express yourself.
8. L2: once we [
9. T: it was Boring? it wasn't
10. L2:] yeah very boring.
11. T: ok. tell tell us why?
12. L2: mom ,,was discussing with other women, and me I was alone I[
13. T: what what haven't you left then?
14. L2:] I can°°
t leave mom there.
15. T: ok. so then you were obliged to stick it as ,,(guess) you cannot you could not leave your MOM °so this is one case?°(.) are there other cases

In Excerpt 8, the learner (L2) engaged with the teacher, who consistently addressed her questions. Primarily, L2 self-selected to answer her teacher's question, offering a phrasal response ("in a wedding") in line 6. She attempted to continue on line 8. Nevertheless, she was interrupted by the teacher in line 7, who encouraged her to elaborate. Although she took the floor again in line 8, she was interrupted once more before completing her sentence in line 12. These interruptions can be understood as transition-relevance place violations (Sacks et al., 1974), where the speaker's turn was not properly completed before the next speaker entered. Thus, the switch of turns was initially abrupt due to the teacher's interjection, but it became softer in line 14 as synchronization between the interlocutors recovered. Remarkably, in each instance when the learner attempted to extend her response, the teacher interfered to interrupt her, resulting in five out of nine turns being taken by L2 (in lines 6, 8, 10, 12, 14). Thus, interaction was predominantly dyadic, involving primarily the student and the teacher.

The patterns of classroom interaction, with more particular reference to Excerpt 8, clearly show teachers' predominance of teacher-learner interaction, as the teacher deploys entirely interaction. Thus, framing the latter dyadically reduces learners-learners' interaction, downplays the mutual construction of meaning, and reduces peer collaboration, as highlighted by Walsh (2006). The recurrent teacher-monopolised changes, as unveiled in the excerpts, restrict learners' peer interaction, thereby restraining meaning negotiation.

Adjacency Pairs

Excerpt 9

1.T: yes? sentence number one (.) try to give me a completion (.) appropriate completion. (.)yes aicha please ((allocating the turn for the student to talk for she asked for the floor))
→ 2. L1: some people think that people in my native ,,(guess) native country are jobless.↑ but they are dead wrong.
3. L2: Jobless!
4. T: so >some people think that people in my native country are jobless< but they are dead wrong. what do you think of her first (1.5) she has said most people think (.) most people think that in my country in my native country people are jobless. (2) are they really dead wrong?
5. L 3: sir ((raising his hand to be given the floor))
6. LL: ()
→ 7. L3: (guess) jobless.they are not dead wrong.
8. T: hh so
9. LL: not all people
not all some not all some
10. T: not all most most of. anyway thank you yes.

In extract 9, the primary pattern of adjacency pairs falls in the sequence of question-and-answer, as seen in lines 2 and 7, and each move exchange follows this pattern. In line 1, the teacher commenced the first pair by asking learners to complete a sentence. In line 2, a learner responded by fulfilling this request. Then, the teacher repeated his example and started another adjacency pair with a closed question in line 4, to which the learner responded in line 7. This response is perceived as a dispreferred pair, as the learner disagreed with a peer's earlier statement.

Excerpt 10

1.T: hh another or the last example is someone who talked (.)
2.LL: too much ((students talk together))
3.T: too much too much. ↑ so this someone who is ((waiting for the student to say the adjective))
4.LL: talkative
5.T: talkative is it interesting? (.)
6.LL: no.
7.T: to to be friend (.) to be friend of someone who is talkative
8.LL: no.
9.T: no. so it's boring?(.)
10.LL: yes
11.T: have you ever been bored by someone °who talks too much°
12.LL: yes
13.T: express yourself.
14.L1: sir ((asking for the turn to speak))
(4) ((then the teacher gives her the floor))
15.L1: hh when someone beside me starts talking too much I bored to death—
16.T: I?(.) was.
17: L1: ah yes I was bored to death especially when I want to study in peace °for example° (.)
and he is beside me talking too much.

In this extract, the teacher regularly initiated the first parts of the adjacency pairs by asking questions, as seen in lines 5, 9, and 11. Learners responded with brief, preferred answers, typically "yes" or "no" (lines 6, 8, 10). These second parts were often produced collectively, except in line 15, where a student provided a longer response. In line 20, the teacher asked another question, prompting a student in line 21 to respond spontaneously, leading to a dyadic exchange that extended until line 27. Most interactions followed a "question/answer" pattern, which limited the interactive conversational discourse.

Discussion

The analysis of data generated from the five classroom observation sessions revealed that the two teachers largely relied on display and closed questions. These strategies ultimately resulted in producing very succinct and simple utterances, mostly embodied in "yes" and "no" answers. Nevertheless, when learners were asked open and referential questions, learners could produce more complex and longer utterances. More importantly, supplementary turns and pairs were successfully generated by the learners. Remarkably, when teachers stimulated their learners to speak about personal experiences and incited them to express their opinions, learners could extend their speech, making it more complex and compelling. Hence, these findings corroborate that the selection of open/referential questions can significantly influence the quality of adjacency pairs and the quantity of turn-taking. Hence, the results demonstrate the positive effect of addressing open/referential questions on interaction, though many other factors, such as motivation and interest in topics of discussion and learners' attitudes towards

the subject and teacher, may influence outcomes. Furthermore, Well (1999) confirmed that the dominance of IRF puts dialogic enquiry into question, as it renders teaching typically monologic and teacher-centred. In attempts to reduce such constraints, Wong and Waring (2010) recommended opting for CA-based strategies, in which learners are explicitly taught turn-taking signals, such as 'I'd like to add… ', etc., to help reticent learners take more initiative to take turns.

It is noteworthy to state that while the selection of open/referential questions plays a significant role in generating more output in interacting, other factors such as learners' motivation for the discussed topic, along with their attitudes towards the speaking classes, their personal interests and, more importantly, their relationship with their teachers may affect their involvement and engagement in classroom interaction.

As revealed in the CA of speech chunks in the present study, hinging on positive feedback in both classroom contexts made the learners more engaged and well-disposed to take turns to speak. Instances where the two teachers consistently repeated their learners' responses- a form of positive feedback- made their learners more enthused to use appropriate adjacency pairs and take more turns to speak. It is worth mentioning that one of the teachers extensively offered recasts to correct his learners 'produced errors, and this encouraged them to speak. However, his reliance on recasts often led to errors in repetition, as learners could neither recognize their mistakes nor correct them. In contrast, the other teacher preferred the use of more explicit feedback by directly pointing out the committed errors and simultaneously asking the learners to reformulate their output. However, this strategy of addressing feedback ensured error correction but caused, in many instances, communication breakdowns and inhibited learners from taking more turns to speak, particularly when corrective/negative feedback was recurrent. Although the second teacher tended to use more explicit/negative feedback in the hope of preventing error fossilization, it occasionally led to students' reluctance to participate, as evidenced by prolonged pauses following intensive corrective feedback. Hence, the findings call for a balanced method of addressing feedback. Put otherwise, teachers should correct their learners 'errors; meanwhile, they should make sure to foster an environment which is more conducive to learning. They should strive to establish a more communicative environment instead of impeding their learners' turn-taking through intermittent addressed corrective feedback, which resulted in long pauses of communication breakdown. Moreover, to more align classroom interaction with dialogic learning, teachers should incorporate some practices, such as storytelling, that provide their learners with opportunities to extend adjacency pairs and increase turn-taking (Wong& Waring, 2010)

CA revealed that classroom interaction was highly teacher-controlled. Very few chances to self-initiate discussions were granted to the learners, who were not even given opportunities to engage in interactive discourse. Moreover, classroom discourse was confined to teacher-learner interaction. Surprisingly, no instances of learner-learner interaction were noted during classroom observation. This structured teacher-learner dyadic mode neither granted opportunities for learner-learner interaction nor allowed peer meaning negotiation. Walsh (2006) suggested that classroom talk should be primarily designed to promote a 'collaborative mode', where learners negotiate meaning and are active participants in the construction of knowledge. Not striving to achieve such aims restricts their participation and autonomy.

Therefore, one can assuredly confirm that classroom interaction in both classroom settings typically followed a rigid IRF/IRE structure, where teachers initiated the discussion by asking

questions, then collecting answers, and ultimately providing feedback. Because of its typical IRF/IRE structure, classroom interaction became less naturally produced and took on a more mechanical form. Furthermore, the frequent interventions of teachers to correct their learners' errors often disrupted them from continuing further in conversations, ultimately resulting in the loss of the flow of communication.

Peer interaction is worth discussing, as it was rarely detected in CA, confirming teachers' dominance of classroom discourse. Such limited interaction is primarily attributed to the fact that turn allocation was chiefly guided by the two teachers. Concerning the Algerian classroom context, the cultural expectations regarding the status of teachers to hold complete authority may explain the students 'limited self-initiated turns, a concept voiced in Hadjeris and Merrouche's (2019) study. The findings confirmed that traditional norms essentially discourage the learners from self-initiating turn-taking or disrupting their teachers while speaking.

Regarding adjacency pairs, CA revealed that the "question/answer" format was the most prevalent in both classroom contexts. Put otherwise, as teachers consistently launched pairs of interactions by asking questions, learners produced pairs embodied in the form of answer pairs (yes/no). Following these very structured and rigid patterns reflects a formal classroom structure in which the teacher controls the turn-taking system, with limited instances of students initiating adjacency pairs. Adhering to these patterns of pairs (question/answer) prompted learners to produce very concise and predefined responses. Consequently, learners were rarely perceived to engage in different conversational functions such as agreeing and disagreeing. Hence, this calls teachers' selected tasks into question, as the more learners were requested to overtly state their opinions, the more turns and pairs they could take and produce. In contrast, the more teachers asked for predetermined answers, the less interactive the learners were.

Pedagogical Implications

To maximize EFL learners' opportunities for language practice in the classroom, teachers should balance their talk with their learners' language use. Furthermore, teachers should encourage well-timed, positive feedback that equally targets accuracy and fluency. Teachers should also strive to establish interactive classroom contexts by designing activities that primarily aim to promote interaction, such as group discussions and role plays, as these can largely enhance EFL learners' communicative competence. Given the significance of feedback in learning a target language, teachers should diversify the types of feedback provided to their learners. Thus, narrowing the focus on one aspect risks enhancing one language skill aspect (accuracy, fluency) over the other. Furthermore, incorporating activities such as think-pair-share, relying on more open-ended tasks, varying group discussions, and encouraging peer feedback are practical strategies that teachers may implement in their classes to engage learners in genuine and spontaneous discursive processes. Such strategies may empower EFL learners to take ownership of classroom interaction, to maximize their turn-taking frequency, and to enrich their adjacency pair sequences to establish a healthier and more interactive environment for EFL learning to take place. More broadly, adopting a CA approach that prioritizes contextually relevant communicative practices-emphasizing local interaction norms over rigid, Western-derived models such as IRF-is strongly advocated as a means to decolonize teaching practices.

Conclusion

The present study aimed to explore the dynamics of EFL classroom interaction in two different speaking classes by bringing to light the mechanisms of teachers' talk and learners'

language through the use of the CA method. The findings revealed that engaging learners successfully in discursive interaction processes hinges on teachers' careful selection of different types of questioning. Put differently, the more teachers espouse referential or open questions, the longer the output and the more turns and complex adjacency pairs their learners can produce. Similarly, enhancing classroom interaction entails a very cautious putting into practice of teacher feedback. Hence, teachers' use of positive feedback can contribute to boosting learners' self–initiation of turns and can thereby enhance both the quality and quantity of classroom interaction. Conversely, teachers' overuse of negative feedback may lead to communication breakdown; therefore, teachers have to appropriately know when and how to intervene to adjust their learners' speech and correct their errors. Moreover, offering corrective feedback is a thorny process that requires more attention from teachers to avoid fossilization in their learners' speech. Likewise, prioritizing and fostering learner-learner interaction is predominantly a prerequisite. It explicitly offers insights into meaning negotiation dynamics, unveils the strategies learners implement to take turns while interacting, and also portrays the mechanics characterizing their adjacency pairs system. Furthermore, to ensure a healthy environment that promotes speaking, teachers should reduce their control over turn allocation to pave the way for learners to take more turns. Finally, embracing more flexible interaction patterns instead of adhering to a rigid IRF sequence may positively foster learners' autonomy and generate a more genuine discourse flow. Future studies that are longitudinally CA-based are necessary to investigate the development of classroom interaction patterns over time across different levels and content-based classes.

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Declaration of AI Refined

This document has benefited from the application of AI-driven tools. These tools were utilised to correct grammar and spelling and improve the overall writing style. It is acknowledged that the use of these technologies may introduce certain AI-generated linguistic patterns. However, the core intellectual content, data interpretation, and conclusions presented remain the sole work of the authors.

Statement of Absence of Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest related to the research, findings, or recommendations presented in this paper. All conclusions drawn are independent and unbiased.

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