



University of Bahrain
College of Arts
Faculty of English Language and Literature

The Impact of Question Types on Student Engagement: A Case Study of English Language University Lecturers in the Kingdom of Bahrain

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree
of MA in Applied English Language Studies

Submitted by: Salwa Hasan Ali

ID Number: 20150593

Supervised by: Dr. Nuri Ageli

Associate Professor

September 2024

Defense Committee's Approval Page

University of Bahrain

College of Arts

Department of English Language and Literature

Master's Degree in Applied English Language Studies

Student Salwa Hasan Ali, ID number: 20150593 defended her thesis by which she fulfilled the requirements for the degree of M.A. in Applied English Language Studies entitled '**The Impact of Question Types on Student Engagement: A Case Study of English Language University Lecturers in the Kingdom of Bahrain**' on this day of 14th of November 2024.

The committee recommends awarding of M.A. with a passing grade.

Thesis Defense Committee:

Name:		Signature
Dr. Nuri Ageli	Supervisor	
Dr. Madani Othman	Internal Examiner	
Dr. Abdulrahman Abdualлах	External Examiner	

Academic Department Stamp

Abstract

This study explores the correlation between Teacher Talk (TT) and gender. The objective of the study is to identify the types and frequency of questions asked by each gender in EFL classrooms in relation to students' engagement. The study employed a mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative instruments through observations, recordings and a questionnaire. The sample consisted of three male and three female EFL university lecturers alongside their EFL students. The results showed that regardless of gender, the six lecturers exhibited similar types of questions, including procedural, convergent, and divergent questions. Additionally, the frequency of these questions was found to be very close between both genders. Therefore, it was concluded that gender did not significantly influence the type and frequency of questions posed in EFL classrooms. However, the gender of the lecturer was found to have a significant impact on student engagement, with students engaging more with female lecturers than with male lecturers. Upon examining students' perceptions of the type of questions and the gender of the lecturers posing these questions, it was determined that while the majority of students had no gender preferences, there were differences among those who did. Additionally, the majority of students expressed a preference for being asked divergent questions, which aligned with the findings of the observations. This study concluded that the types and frequency of questions asked by lecturers are not influenced by gender. However, student engagement level is influenced by the gender of the lecturer due to their different communication styles. Accordingly, it is recommended for teachers to increase the frequency of questions posed in the class, especially divergent questions. Also, it is recommended for teachers to be more approachable and easier to talk to, which the students prefer.

Key words: Teacher Talk (TT), questioning, EFL, procedural, convergent, divergent

Declaration

I declare that this thesis, which I submitted to the university of Bahrain, was conducted by me through the collection of authentic data. This research has not been previously accepted for any degree and is not currently considered for any other degree at any other university.

Name: Salwa Hasan Ali

ID Number: 20150593

Signature:..*Salwa Ali*.....

Date: 14/11/2024

The thesis defense committee considered the thesis title:

The Impact of Question Types on Student Engagement: A Case Study of English Language University Lecturers in the Kingdom of Bahrain

Submitted to the Department of English Language and Literature for the degree of Master in Applied English Language Studies.

Thesis Defense Committee:

Name:

Signature

Dr. Nuri Ageli

Supervisor

.....

Dr. Madani Othman

Internal Examiner

.....

Dr. Abdularahman Abdualлах

External Examiner

.....

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my father, who has been and continues to be my source of inspiration and strength. No words can ever express the depth of my love for you and my appreciation for everything you have done for me.

Acknowledgment

I wanted to express my ultimate gratitude and appreciation to my husband, Hani, my sister, Safa and family, who were there from the start to support me. Your belief in me has been the reason for my success, and I am profoundly grateful for your endless encouragement and love.

To my colleague Hadi, whose non-stop assistance, feedback and support have been a guiding light in this journey, and I am deeply thankful for it.

Dr. Fatima Wali and Dr. Hisham El-Tahawy, your influence on me personally and my career in education cannot be overstated. Your support, guidance and commitment to my growth have been really inspiring. You both are role models, and I am forever grateful for your belief in me.

Lastly, I am thankful to my supervisor, Dr. Nuri Ageli, for his contribution to this achievement and his ultimate assistance. I also want to extend my heartfelt gratitude to Dr. Madani Othman for his constant presence and support throughout my journey to achieving this degree.

Table of Contents

Defense Committee's Approval Page.....	B
Abstract	C
Declaration	D
Dedication	E
Acknowledgment	F
List of Tables	L
List of Figures	M
Chapter One	2
Introduction.....	2
1.1 Contextual Background	2
1.1.1 Language and Meaning.....	2
1.1.2 Language and Identity	3
1.1.3 Language and Culture	5
1.1.4 Language and Gender	7
1.1.5 Gender, Language and Communication	9
1.1.6 Language and Teaching	13
1.1.7 Teacher Talk (TT) and Teachers' Questioning	14
1.1.8 Questioning and Students' Engagement.....	16
1.1.9 The Bahraini Context.....	18

1.2 Research Problem	19
1.3 Objectives of the Study.....	19
1.4 Significance of the Study	20
1.5 Research Questions.....	21
1.6 Definition of Terms	21
1.7 Organization of the Thesis.....	22
Chapter Two.....	25
Theoretical Framework and Literature Review	25
2.1 Theoretical Framework.....	25
2.2 Literature Review	27
2.2.1 Teacher Talk (TT).....	27
2.2.2 Gender in Teaching and Learning	32
2.2.3 Teacher Talk and Students Engagement.....	39
2.2.4 Teacher's Questioning and Students Engagement	43
2.2.5 Teacher's Questioning and Students Engagement in EFL Context	50
2.3 Summary	56
Chapter Three.....	58
Methods and Procedures	58
3.1 Research Approach.....	58
3.2 The Selected Sample.....	59
3.3 Methods of Data Collection.....	60

3.3.1 Observation	60
3.3.2 Recording	61
3.3.3 Questionnaire	61
3.4 Procedures of Data Collection	61
3.4.1 Observation and Recording	61
3.4.2 Questionnaire	62
3.4.3 Research Ethics	63
3.5 Methods of Data Analysis	63
3.6 Procedures of Data Analysis	64
Chapter Four	66
Results	66
4.1 Introduction	66
4.2 Observations	66
4.2.1 Observation of Male Participants	67
4.2.1.1 Observation of Participant 1	67
4.2.1.2 Observation of Participant 2	69
4.2.1.3 Observation of Participant 3	72
4.2.2 Observation of Female Participants	74
4.2.2.1 Observation of Participant 4	74
4.2.2.2 Observation of Participant 5	76
4.2.2.3 Observation of Participant 6	79

4.3 Questionnaire	81
4.3.1 Students' Engagement	81
4.3.2 Gender and Questioning	82
4.3.3 Types of Questions	86
4.3.4 Type of Questions in Relation to Gender	89
4.4 Summary	91
Chapter Five.....	94
Analysis and Discussion	94
5.1 Introduction.....	94
5.2 Types of Questions Asked by EFL Lecturers.....	94
5.3 The Frequency of Each Type of Question Asked by Male and Female Lecturers.....	97
5.4 Variation in Types and Frequency between EFL Male and Female Lecturers.....	100
5.4.1 Variation in Types between EFL Male and Female Lecturers.....	101
5.4.2 Variation in Frequency between EFL Male and Female Lecturers...	103
5.4.3 Patterns in Frequency between EFL Male and Female Lecturers.....	105
5.5 Effect of Gender on Student Engagement	107
5.5.1 Effect of Types of Questions on Students' Engagement.....	107
5.5.2 Effect of Gendered Questioning on Students' Engagement.....	111
5.5.3 Students' Engagement and Amount of Teacher Talk.....	115
5.6 Students' Perception of Male and Female Lecturers' Questioning.....	118

5.6.1 Students' Perceptions of the Lecturer's Gender	118
5.6.2 Students' Perceptions of Types of Questions	122
5.6.3 Students' Perception of Gendered Questioning.....	125
5.7 Summary of Analysis.....	127
Chapter Six.....	131
Conclusion	131
6.1 Overview.....	131
6.2 Summary	132
6.3 Research Limitations	136
6.4 Recommendations.....	137
References.....	139
Appendix A.....	I
Appendix B.....	VIII
Appendix C.....	XV
Appendix D.....	XX
Appendix E	XXVI
Appendix F.....	XXXVII
Appendix G.....	XLII
Appendix H.....	XLVIII
ملخص البحث.....	I

List of Tables

Table 1.....	67
Table 2.....	69
Table 3.....	72
Table 4.....	74
Table 5.....	77
Table 6.....	79
Table 7.....	97
Table 8.....	98
Table 9.....	107
Table 10.....	VIII
Table 11.....	XV
Table 12.....	XX
Table 13.....	XXVI
Table 14.....	XXXVII
Table 15.....	XLII

List of Figures

Figure 1	82
Figure 2	83
Figure 3	84
Figure 4	85
Figure 5	86
Figure 6	87
Figure 7	88
Figure 8	90
Figure 9	91
Figure 10	101
Figure 11	111
Figure 12	II
Figure 13	III
Figure 14	IV
Figure 15	V
Figure 16	VI
Figure 17	VII
Figure 18	XLVIII
Figure 19	XLIX

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Chapter One

Introduction

This chapter contains contextual background information on language in relation to gender and teaching. In addition to the contextual background, this chapter also includes the context of this study. The following section consists of the study's aim, research problem, research questions, definition of terms and the organization of this thesis.

1.1 Contextual Background

1.1.1 Language and Meaning

Language is a channel for delivering meaning to life (Riemer, 2010). It is an essential factor in human existence that enables people to communicate and interact with each other (Kramsch, 1998). At its core, language is mainly used for communication and interaction. Language is essential because it is used in everyday life and in every field in every part of the world. The study of language is called Linguistics, within which is the subfield of Applied linguistics, that focuses on implementing linguistic theories, methods and discoveries that address language related issues that arise in various contexts beyond the language itself (Crystal, 1980). Applied linguistics is a discipline that aims to provide an understanding of language and its impact on individuals and their communication. This field provides theoretical frameworks on language usage and examines its practical applications in real life communication. Linguists study and analyze these instances of

communication to examine the forms of communication and how meaning is conveyed through them. Language exists in multiple forms, such as in the form of verbal and nonverbal communication. Verbal communication can be defined as a spoken language that requires structure and words, whereas nonverbal communication can be defined as elements other than words, such as gestures, body language and facial expressions that deliver meaning (Jones & LeBaron, 2002). Language is not an isolated entity. It functions as a collaborative system that assigns meaning to symbols, signs and words within a shared community (Hall, 1997). Accordingly, language is not a mere complex system that focuses on structure and form, but rather it is an integral part of the human communication system that focuses on meaning. Language holds value primarily because of the meaning it conveys. Without meaning, language loses its significance (Jones & LeBaron, 2002). Therefore, language is a fundamental element of human communication.

1.1.2 Language and Identity

Language and culture are seen to be attached to one another in that meaning is constructed through social practices that give sounds, words and signs meaning in the real world. Drawn from a collective understanding and shared social knowledge, humans structured language and assigned meaning and significance to sounds, signs and words, allowing for successful understanding, interpretation and communication. It is through language that people exchange and receive knowledge and information. They also establish power, authority, status and social identities (Holmes, 1997). In addition to conveying meaning, language also plays a crucial role in reflecting the identity of its speaker. Hall (1997) stated that there is a vital interconnection between language and identity. Language serves as a tool that distinguishes individuals

from one another. It acts as a distinctive marker that differentiates individuals from each other. Through language, individuals express their thoughts, knowledge and beliefs, establishing a sense of individuality. The concept of identity is not defined by something individuals have, but rather it is something they do. These linguistic choices differ from one person to another. A simple example that can be made is where two neighbours living in the United States, who are native English speakers of the same age, would use language in distinct ways despite sharing a similar context such as backgrounds, language and geographical location, highlighting the fact that language is a reflection of the speaker. As a result, their communication styles, actions, and language will vary. Each person possesses their own unique personality and identity, leading to variations in pronunciation, word choices and style. Similar to a fingerprint, the language each individual uses is unique and different from others. Linguistic variation exists in the way people speak, such as in their accents and word choices. Furthermore, Language does not only reflect identity, but it also influences how people are perceived and understood. It is a fundamental aspect in establishing a sense of belongingness in a community. Wardhaugh and Fuller (2015) distinguish between two types of identities: individual identities and social identities. The identity explained earlier refers to the individual identities in which each individual encompasses unique variations in style and speech that distinguish their personality and characteristics. Social identity, on the other hand, “is defined as the linguistic construction of membership in one or more social groups or categories” (Kroskrity, 2000, p. 111). This definition illustrates that the concept of identity is highly interlinked and associated with society and culture.

1.1.3 Language and Culture

In addition to carrying meaning and identity, language also reflects one's culture. Language and culture are two inseparable entities. Language does not exist in a vacuum; it is influenced by many factors, a major one of which is culture. Culture can be defined as a collection of shared beliefs, values, rituals, expectations, customs and jargons that are embraced by members of a specific community (Lazear, 1999). With language being one of the fundamental components of culture's definition, it becomes evident that language plays a crucial role in shaping and expressing culture, therefore establishing a strong interconnection between these two fundamental aspects. Language also reveals a speaker's hidden ideologies such as their experiences, values and personal and religious beliefs, all of which are expressed through their language use. The power of language does not only lie in its ability to convey meaning, but also in its ability to preserve and establish the culture of one community over the other. It can be challenging for a native speaker of any language to separate their ethnicity, beliefs, background and culture from the language they use. The use of one's mother tongue is inherently tied to their personal identity and experiences, making it difficult to be entirely objective in its usage. As argued by Kramsch (1998), one's perception and understanding of the world around them is influenced by their beliefs, values and cultures. Correspondingly, the reality of the world is interpreted, received and understood through customs, beliefs and cultures. Jiang (2000) asserted that language does not only reflect culture, but it is also influenced and formed by it. Jiang argued that language serves as a "symbolic representation" of a community in that it encompasses their cultural and historical backgrounds, and it also forms their perspective on life, their ways of living and their

mindset and thinking (Jiang, 2000, p. 328). According to this perspective, culture can be understood as a system that shapes how individuals from a particular community perceive the world around them. It guides their mindset and influences their perception of reality. It also impacts people's way of living their lives, particularly by controlling their actions and thoughts. In other words, culture provides a framework through which individuals interpret their surroundings, ultimately shaping their behavior and thinking. The concept that language influences culture is closely associated with the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, also known as Linguistic Relativity theory (Casasanto, 2015). According to this theory, our understanding of reality is shaped by language. In simpler terms, the language that people use determines how the world is viewed. As a result, different languages can lead to different perspectives on the world. Furthermore, the theory also suggests that people's experiences and thoughts shape language, ultimately providing different realities (Whorf, 1956). Similarly, in *Language and Women's Place* by Lakoff (1973), the author connects language, culture and social norms. Lakoff (1973) argued that language does not only reflect culture, but it also determines and maintains social expectations. Lakoff further asserted that cultural and societal factors impact language use. People adopt their language to align with their culture and fulfill the expectations placed upon them. Therefore, Lakoff (1973) asserted that cultural and societal expectations play a significant role in shaping the distinct ways in which people, especially individuals of different genders, communicate. These expectations contribute to variations in language usage among individuals of different genders.

1.1.4 Language and Gender

At its core, applied linguistics investigates and addresses language related issues and problems, seeking to understand language and to provide practical solutions. It analyzes language both theoretically and practically, offering valuable insights into language and how it should be used (Cambridge, 2009). In her article, Kramsch (2015) presented her own interpretation and understanding of applied linguistics, which differs from the commonly accepted definition of the field as the application of linguistic theory or other theories to real-world language-related issues. Instead, Kramsch (2015) argued that applied linguistics should be seen as the actual practice of studying language itself, along with the theories that can be derived from that practice (Cambridge, 2009). Based on these definitions it becomes clear that applied linguistics is a field that focuses on the practical application of linguistic theories and methodologies to provide a better understanding of the real world. It also addresses language issues in real world contexts. By studying language as it is used in real-life situations, applied linguists aim to gain a full understanding of how language functions in the world. This branch of study often incorporates interdisciplinary approaches, such as sociolinguistic studies, which explore how society and culture influence language and its use. Scholars in this field argue that language is deeply associated with cultural and societal factors, and studying these connections is essential for a full understanding of language and its impact. Sociolinguistics studies how language is used in everyday life. It examines the impact of various social factors such as ethnicity, culture, age, social class and gender, on language and its usage. This field not only examines language itself but also seeks to understand the connection between social factors and language use. It also

provides an understanding of how these social factors determine language use within a given society, as well as its relationship to other societies. Sociolinguistics offers insights into why people communicate in certain ways, by placing language within its social context and examining the social influences on language use (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015). One of the major topics covered and discussed in sociolinguistics includes the investigation of linguistic features such as vocabulary, structure and word choices and their association with the gender of the speaker. In other words, one area of concern in sociolinguistics is studying language use and gender. For example, many studies on gender such as Lakoff (1973), Tannen (1999), Fishman (1978) Hirschman (1994) proposed that there are major variations in the way females and males communicate.

Many linguists differentiated the two terms *sex* and *gender*. Sex is a term that refers to the identification of humans based on their biological characteristics that differentiate males from females. On the contrary, although the term gender is based on the sex category, it is also socially and culturally constructed. For example, feminine and masculine behaviour and attributes are characterised by culture and they can vary across societies (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015). Many scholars supported the idea that gender is constructed rather than gained. For example, Cameron (2006) provided a similar understanding of the terms sex and gender, where the first refers to the biological features that distinguish animals and humans as male and female, while the latter refers to the cultural characteristics, actions and behaviors that a given society consider appropriate for women and men. Similarly, West and Zimmerman (1987) challenged the concept that gender is an inherent trait or characteristic that people possess. Instead, they argued that gender is a social

construct that is actively associated with culture, performed through people's behavior and actions. Therefore, it is not something they inherently have but something they gain, suggesting that gender is not something fixed, but is rather a dynamic process influenced by societal expectations, cultural norms and individual choices.

1.1.5 Gender, Language and Communication

In her 1973 article, Lakoff explored the ways in which men and women use language differently, relating these differences to cultural and societal expectations. She argued that language not only reflects the individual speaker but also reflects social inequalities, specifically in how women and men tend to communicate and use language. Lakoff (1973) posited that these linguistic differences arise from the pressure placed on individuals, particularly women, to conform to societal norms. Since language is part of culture and culture shapes people's worldview, women tend to adopt different language patterns in order to meet those societal expectations. Lakoff simply argued that women's language tends to be different due to the power and social status they hold in a society. Based on her observation, Lakoff (1973) further highlighted those linguistic differences that exist between men and women. For instance, women often employ uncertain speech styles, avoid expressing strong emotions and tend to elaborate more in their speech, unlike men. Furthermore, she established that there are major differences in the way women speak. For example, they tend to use different word choices and at different frequencies, raise their intonation in addition to asking questions, using hedging devices and tag questions more frequently than men do. She also highlighted that women participate less in serious and social domains. All these differences, according to Lakoff (1973), stem from the perception in society that women

are less powerful and less serious, ultimately shaping the way they speak, act and develop their identity within their society. Lakoff concluded that these differences exist due to the societal expectation on women, especially on how to speak and act within a given community, leading to major differences in style of speaking between men and women.

In another influential work on language and gender, *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation*, Tannen (1990) investigated the dynamic communication between women and men. In her book, Tannen (1990) highlighted that men and women speak and communicate differently, which ultimately results in a misunderstanding when women and men communicate with each other. Tannen provided a comprehensive exploration of the differences in communication between speakers of different genders. She argued that each gender has a different way of and approach to communication. Tannen's argument was supported by observation of natural conversations, wherein men and women were observed in different contexts such as workplaces, family settings and social gatherings. She concluded that there are major differences between men and women in their communication styles. She explained that women tend to pay more attention to rapport talk, trying to establish connections and build relationships in their conversations. In contrast, men tend to engage in report talk, which focused mainly on information exchange and maintaining dominance. Tannen emphasized that women value communication as a means of establishing and maintaining relationships, while men prioritize communication as a way to convey and gain information and maintain authority, ultimately leading Tannen to conclude that women and men vary in their speech styles and communicative purpose. These studies determine that speakers of the same language will use

it differently due to the gender of the individuals that use the language. On a similar note, Bradly (1998) stated that men use a different dialect than women.

One major work by Fishman (1978) investigated the dynamics of everyday hierarchy between men and women's interactions. The article mainly focused on the concept of power in relation to the way men and women converse in their interactions. In the article, Fishman (1978) examined the differences in conversational style between men and women in the context of a specific domestic sphere. Since language reflects social and historical agenda, Fishman clarified that the way people use language and interact with one another is highly influenced by the power the speaker possesses. On that condition, power is not something that is established by an immediate action or interaction but is a long-term establishment. The concept of power has the ability to inflect "one's definition of what is possible, what is right, what is rational, what is real" (Fishman, 1978, p. 89). In her study, Fishman placed a recording tape in five apartments to observe five married couples. She analysed interactions that took place between men and women to understand how conversation power dynamics are negotiated. Her data revealed that conversation is more complicated for women, who work hard to maintain the conversation, while it is less difficult for men, who have the ability to control what to say and when the conversation occurs. The data also revealed differences in conversation styles. For example, women utilized questions as a valuable resource in their interactions, asking questions approximately two and a half times more than to men. Fishman (1978) explained that women tend to ask more questions than men as a device that ensures interaction, where each question will elicit a minimum response. Also, the data indicated that both men and women use minimal responses such as *mm*, *yeah* and *ah*.

However, it was revealed that they used minimal responses differently and for different functions. For example, men tend to use them as a lack of interest in the conversation taking place, while women tend to use them as supportive tools that maintain the flow of the interaction. Furthermore, the author stated that women initiate topics more often than men do. She explained that these topics were not initiated for the purpose of discussing them but rather to keep the conversation going. The author concluded that conversations are not natural and spontaneous activities. Instead, they are social activities that mirror and reinforce existing power structures. She concluded that women often carry the emotional parts of conversations, actively listening, asking questions and providing emotional support, while men tend to take on a dominant role in the conversations, interrupting and leading the conversation to a different direction that serves their own interest. Therefore, she argues that conversation is not an equal exchange between men and women, wherein men tend to dominate conversations based on their power, whereas women tend to take on supportive roles, maintaining the flow and success of the conversation. Fishman (1978) highlighted that the power that men possess reflect their conversation style, suggesting that these patterns of conversation contribute to the maintenance of male dominance in social contexts.

On a similar note, Hirschman (1994) contributed to the understanding of male and female differences during conversational interaction. In *Female-male differences in conversational interaction*, Hirschman examined the differences in conversational style among males and females during natural conversations. She identified several differences between the two genders in their conversational styles. For example, the data revealed that women tend to use first person pronouns more frequently than third person pronouns when

compared to male speakers. It was also noted that women used minimal responses such as *mmm*, *yeah* and *ah* at a higher frequency than men in their conversations. Additionally, the data revealed that women tend to interrupt each other more frequently during their conversations. These works have been significant studies that have greatly contributed to the understanding of language use between males and females in the field of Applied Linguistics, particularly in sociolinguistics. These studies are recognized as valuable works that provided beneficial insights into the communication dynamics between males and females during their interaction and language use. Establishing these differences in language use illustrates that speakers of different genders do not only use language differently in interacting and communicating socially, but it means that they also use language differently in other contexts.

1.1.6 Language and Teaching

One such context in which language is used differently by people of different genders, ethnicities and ages is the context of teaching. Language is a tool that serves various functions for teachers in their communication and interaction. The act of teaching involves a teacher conveying information to students. The primary way through which teachers communicate with learners is language. Language plays a crucial role in the field of education; it extends beyond the mere purpose of communication. Teachers use language for a wide range of purposes and functions. One main function is to teach and deliver information. In the field of education, language is central in the process of teaching as it is used as an instrument that delivers meaning and knowledge to students. It is a channel that enables teachers to connect, express and bestow knowledge to students. Language used by teachers also allows learners to establish

understanding in the learning process. In this context, language is not limited to spoken language that includes vocabulary and grammar, but it also includes other non-verbal communication such as body language, gestures, eye contact and the tone of voice. Therefore, language is crucial because it influences students' comprehension and engagement in the classroom as students' understanding and engagement rely heavily on the teachers' language. The choice of tone, words and delivery influence the way learners perceive, obtain and interact in the classroom. Effective teaching requires concise language usage that allows for successful communication between learners and teachers. The linguistic style adopted by the teachers matters as it allows learners to understand, interact and learn.

1.1.7 Teacher Talk (TT) and Teachers' Questioning

The form of language used in the field of pedagogy within the classroom by teachers is known as Teacher Talk (TT). This type of language is a distinctive language that is adopted by lecturers to serve the needs of the classroom. This type of discourse is featured by a special style of language use. Chaudron (1988) explains that TT is a variety of language that includes special characteristics such as slow speech style, exaggerated pronunciation, constant pauses, repetition and straightforward and simple word choices. Furthermore, TT was defined as a variety of a language that is adopted by teachers during the teaching period and process, where teachers aim to communicate with the students by simplifying their spoken language (Richards, 1992). This discourse only exists within the classroom context, with the main function of communicating with the students. One crucial element in TT is the ability to use and provide clear language. TT not only has a significant impact on students' level of understanding, but it also influences students' level of

participation and engagement in the classroom. Within the classroom setting, TT serves as a tool in multiple ways: it is used to teach, instruct, discuss and ask questions, aiming to produce effective communication between teachers and students.

One feature identified in TT includes questioning. Most lecturers dedicate a significant amount of TT within the classroom on question-and-answer exchanges (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Lecturers use questioning during the lessons as a strategic approach to engage the learners in the classroom. They also use them as a way to assess students' understanding and promote critical thinking. However, the use of questions in the classroom extends beyond these purposes. Many lecturers employ questions to serve as rhetorical questions or simply to redirect students' attention back to the lesson (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Richards and Lockhart (1994) presented several justifications for incorporating questioning into TT within the classroom. One notable reason is that questions effectively stimulate and sustain students' interest. Additionally, questions promote critical thinking and concentration on the lesson's material. Most importantly, questions play a crucial role in fostering active participation among learners within the classroom. Scholars have classified these questions in various ways. For instance, some have classified them as open-ended and close-ended questions, while others have classified them as WH questions and Yes or No questions (Xiao-Yan, 2006). Yet, other scholars have classified these questions based on their functions and purposes. For example, Richards and Lockhart (1994) have classified questions into three categories: procedural, convergent and divergent, each of which serves a separate and different function in classrooms. Firstly, procedural questions refer to the questions that are used for routine purposes and classroom

management. Secondly, convergent questions refer to the questions that depend on prior knowledge and that are short in nature and close ended. Thirdly, divergent questions refer to the questions that target critical thinking and are open in nature. This framework is further discussed in section 2.1. Ultimately, teachers' questioning fulfils different functions within the classroom. The amount of and the reasons for these questions vary from one teacher to another. However, there are two universal reasons for teachers to use questioning as a strategy in the classroom: to assess students' understanding of the material and the lesson taught, and to promote students' engagement in the classroom.

1.1.8 Questioning and Students' Engagement

Many studies such as Carbonaro (1998) and Eccles (2004) argued that learners' engagement in the classroom is important to the learning outcomes. Scholars adopted the term *engagement* to describe the level of which learners connect, value and participate in the learning outcomes in the classroom (Willms, 2003). According to Finn (1989, 1993), Finn and Rock (1997) and Goodenow (1993), this definition encompasses two main aspects: the psychological and the behavioural aspects. The former refers to the learners' emotional sense of belonging and acceptance of classes' values, whereas the latter refers to learners' participation in the classroom. In this study, the term *engagement* is used in its broader sense, to refer to learners' participation and interaction in the classroom during the learning process. The TT adopted by teachers influences the environment in the classroom, wherein questioning is viewed as a strategy that serves many functions. One main function of teachers' questioning is to promote students' engagement in the class. By posing questions, teachers ensure that learners understand the lesson while

also playing an active part in the learning process itself. Learners' level of participation is viewed to be crucial in the learning process due to the fact that, by participating, learners show a high level of interest in the lesson being taught, which leads to them understanding and comprehending the intended lesson. Moreover, Krashen (1981) proposed a hypothesis called 'The Affective Filter' that states that there are many psychological and emotional variables that influence students' language learning. This hypothesis states that students' negative emotions, such as low self-confidence, anxiety and lack of motivation, act as filters that block learners from learning. On the other hand, when learners are more open to learn and are relaxed, they tend to be more willing to receive language input, thereby improving the learning process. Therefore, students' motivation and interest within the classroom foster a positive environment. This type of environment can only be achieved through TT and questioning, since they promote a sense of belonging and motivation within the classroom, whereby learners are active and participating in their own learning process. Teachers' questioning serves as a mutually beneficial tool in the classroom, as it benefits both teachers and learners. By posing questions, teachers assess how well the learners understand the learning objectives as well as actively engaging them in the lesson. These questions also benefit learners by redirecting their interest in the lesson, in addition to allowing them to assess and evaluate their understanding. It also allows them to share and express their thoughts during the lesson. Therefore, questioning serves as a beneficial strategy that is embedded in TT and that supports both teachers and learners alike.

1.1.9 The Bahraini Context

In this study, the research is focused specifically on Bahrain as its context. Bahrain is recognized as a country that comprises a multilingual society. People communicate using a variety of different languages. The official language used in Bahrain is Arabic, whereas the official dialect in Bahrain is known as Bahraini. In addition to using Arabic, English is widely spoken and taught as an additional language in the country. Both, Arabic and English are used inseparably in Bahrain. People often code-switch between the two languages. Arabic and English are commonly taught in the educational field at all levels including nurseries, schools and universities. Therefore, both languages are viewed to be equally important in the educational field. Since English is an important language that is taught at all the educational levels in Bahrain, this study specifically focuses on English classrooms. Within the boundaries of this study's context, the research is focused on university level only, specifically on observing English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms and lecturers who are part of the Faculty of Language Studies (FLS). The learners being observed were university students that were taking English courses. At the university level, English is the language used by lecturers during TT. These observations were conducted in one of the private universities in Bahrain, where English is used as a medium to communicate and teach. This study focuses on TT questioning in relation to students' engagement and perception in the EFL classrooms. Therefore, in this study, the definition utilized to evaluate students' engagement encompasses a broader understanding. It refers to the active involvement of students in the classroom, explicitly in terms of participating in and responding to lecturers' questions. Furthermore, the identified

questions during the observation are based on the framework proposed by Richards and Lockhart (1994). This framework outlines three categories that classify the types of questions posed by teachers during classroom lessons: procedural, convergent and divergent questions.

1.2 Research Problem

Since university English lecturers in Bahrain adopt different communication styles, changes in communication dynamics occur, thereby influencing students' engagement. Gender studies reveal that men and women have different speaking styles, leading to differences in the way male and female lecturers teach. Due to the fact that language is a crucial component in the teaching and learning process, the types of questions in TT addressed by lecturers of different genders can also influence students' engagement in English classrooms. It is through questioning that lecturers can facilitate student engagement during the lesson. Because effective teaching requires questioning, and given that gender affects communication style, then it is the case that lecturers of different genders employ different types of questioning with varying frequencies. The method of questioning between male and female lecturers also affects the students' level of engagement. Consequently, the students' level of engagement can either be positively or negatively impacted based on the gender of the lecturers and their questions. In addition to students engagement, students' perceptions are also shaped by the gender of the lecturers and the questions they ask.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

Considering the notion that gender affects communication style, the study aims to investigate potential variation in the types of questions that male and

female lecturers ask based on Richards and Lockhart's (1994) categorization. It also aims to determine the frequency of each type of question and the extent to which the type and frequency vary between male and female lecturers. Subsequently, the research aims to examine the influence of the types and frequency of questions on students' level of engagement in the classroom and their perceptions of their lecturers. This research also aims to examine students' perception towards their lecturers' questioning.

1.4 Significance of the Study

In regard to the significance of this study, it provides valuable insight into the potential correlation between the gender of lecturers, the type of questions posed during TT, and its impact on student engagement. The study's findings contribute to a deeper understanding of classroom communication, especially in understanding the types of questions that promote students' engagement. Furthermore, the study's conclusion offers practical implications and practices for lecturers to enhance classroom interactions, student engagement, and overall learning outcomes. Additionally, the study also contributes to the existing literature on gender studies in relation to teaching practices and student engagement. While many studies have examined the correlation between gender and language use, only a limited number of studies have investigated the association between gender and teacher talk (TT). This thesis aims to fill this gap in the literature by exploring the relationship between the gender of the lecturer, the types and frequency of TT questioning in relation to the level of student engagement in the classroom.

1.5 Research Questions

To achieve the objectives of the research, this study aims to answer the following three main questions:

1. What types of questions are posed by male and female EFL university lecturers in Bahrain?
2. How does the frequency of each type of question differ between male and female EFL university lecturers in Bahrain?
3. To what extent does lecturers' questioning by male and female EFL university lecturers in Bahrain influence student engagement and students' perceptions of their lecturers?

1.6 Definition of Terms

Linguistic variation: refers to the different ways people use and speak the same language, such as in their accents and word choices. *Social identity*: “is defined as the linguistic construction of membership in one or more social groups or categories” (Kroskrity, 2000, p. 111). *Sex*: a term that refers to the identification of humans based on their biological characteristics that differentiate males from females. Sex refers to the biological features that distinguish animals and humans as male and female (Cameron, 2006). *Gender*: a term that refers to a socially and culturally constructed character. Gender refers to the cultural characteristics, actions and behaviors that a given society consider appropriate for women and men (Cameron, 2006).

Teacher Talk (TT): The form of language used in the field of pedagogy within the classroom by teachers. It is featured by a special style of language use that includes special characteristics such as slow speech style, exaggerated

pronunciation, constant pauses, repetition and straightforward and simple word choices (Chaudron, 1988). *Procedural questions*: refer to the questions that are used for routine purposes and classroom management (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). *Convergent questions*: refer to the questions that depend on prior knowledge and that are short in nature and close ended (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). *Divergent questions*: refer to the questions that target critical thinking and are open in nature (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Engagement: refers to a term that describes the level of which learners connect, value and participate in the learning outcomes in the classroom (Willms, 2003). It refers to the active involvement of students in the classroom, explicitly in terms of participating in and responding to lecturers' questions.

1.7 Organization of the Thesis

This research is divided into six chapters. The first chapter serves as an introduction that consists of contextual background, research problem, objectives of the study, research questions and definition of terms.

The second chapter consists of two main sections. The first section covers the theoretical framework adopted in this study, whereas the second section presents previous studies that are relevant to this current study.

The third chapter provides a comprehensive description of the methods and procedures adopted in this research. This chapter covers the research approach adopted, the sample selected, methods of data collection and its procedure, research ethics, methods of data analysis and its procedure. It also explains the rationale behind these choices.

The fourth chapter presents the results and findings of the data collection, illustrated through tables and figures.

The fifth chapter delves into the analysis and discussion of the findings of this research. The chapter is organized into five main headings. It also links and compares the research results to previous studies mentioned in chapter two.

The sixth and final chapter serves as the conclusion of this thesis. It consists of the overview, summary, research limitations and further recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

Chapter Two

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

The chapter begins by explaining the theoretical framework applied in the present study proposed by Richards and Lockhart (1994). Additionally, this chapter of the study reviews previous studies that are relevant and closely related to the current research as they cover themes that are found in it.

Then, it reviews studies related to Teacher Talk as a general concept, before delving into the relationship between gender as a social variable and TT.

Next, the section highlights studies on the role of TT in impacting student engagement. Finally, studies that focused more specifically on the impact of teachers' questioning are reviewed, both in various teaching contexts and specifically in EFL teaching contexts.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

This study adopts the framework proposed by Richards and Lockhart (1994) to classify the questions asked by the participants. Richards and Lockhart (1994) classified questions into three categories: procedural, convergent and divergent, each of which serves a separate and different function in classrooms. The first category of questions is procedural questions that are asked by the lecturers during the class to address routine matters and to manage the classroom. These questions are not directly related to the content and material being taught in the lesson. Instead, they are an important aspect of classroom management as lecturers ask these questions as a way of ensuring that instructions are understood. Procedural questions serve as

instructions or administrative inquiries that help lecturers maintain order and attendance. For example, a lecturer might ask the students if everyone is present in the classroom, ensuring that all students are accounted for and ready to engage in the learning activities. Conversely, convergent and divergent are categories of questions that are relevant to the learning process and students' engagement in the classroom. The second category of questions is convergent questions which require short answers that can rely on prior knowledge. These questions are closed-ended in nature, often requiring simple yes or no responses. They do not necessarily trigger higher order thinking skills, but instead focus on having students recall information that has been previously learned. For instance, lecturers may ask questions like *Do you own a smartphone?* which can be answered with a simple yes or no. Additionally, a lecturer may ask, *Can you recall yesterday's lesson?* where students can respond with a yes or no or even provide the name of the lesson they have covered. The third category of questions is divergent, which target higher order thinking skills. Lecturers use this type of questioning technique to elicit answers that are open-ended in nature and that target diverse responses from students. In contrast to convergent questions, divergent questions encourage students to provide their own input rather than draw on previously presented information. For example, lecturers can ask questions like *What do you think about this story?* or *What do you think are the consequences of the main character's actions?*; the answers to these questions not only require students to add their own input and knowledge, but they also vary from one another. Note that the data for this study does not consist of procedural questions because they are part of the normal routine of the teaching process. Accordingly, this study only focused on convergent and divergent types of questions.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Teacher Talk (TT)

The concept of TT was defined in the introductory chapter. Therefore, the studies presented in this section do not define TT, but they provide insight into the ways TT is applied in practical contexts.

By conducting a case study, Winanta et.al (2020) analyzed the TT that occurred in an EFL classroom context as the teacher interacted with students. The study aimed to examine how teachers use language and to determine the nature of TT. To analyze TT, the researchers applied the Foreign Language Interaction (FLINT) framework developed by Moskowitz (1971). The framework provides a description of TT as being in the form of indirect influence and direct influence. The former refers to TT in which the teacher facilitates the learning process and scaffolds students' thinking without directly teaching. Through this form of TT, the students are at the center of the learning taking place. The indirect influence consists of acts such as praising, clarifying students' ideas, repeating students' responses and asking them questions. In contrast, direct influence refers to TT through which the teacher is directly managing students' learning. In this case, the teacher is at the center of the learning process, which tends to occur when student participation is low, although it conversely does not generate student engagement. It includes acts such as giving information by explaining, providing feedback, criticizing student behavior and giving directions like commands and requests. In achieving the aim of analyzing TT, the researchers collected data by conducting a case study of a female EFL high school teacher in which the teacher was observed, audio-recorded and interviewed. The

findings showed that the teacher employed indirect influence at a higher rate than direct influence with 59% and 41% respectively. This suggests that the lesson was student-centered as the teacher adopted the role of a facilitator, wherein she indirectly influenced student learning. Of all the types of TT, it was found that the teacher most frequently made utterances to praise and encourage students (25.3%), which is an example of her indirect influence. However, the second most frequent type of TT used by the teacher was giving directions (21.7%) to the students by instructing and commanding them to do things, which serves as an example of her direct influence. This was followed in frequency with the act of asking questions (15.7%) and giving information (10.8%). The act of asking questions was used to check students' understanding, while the act of giving information was where the teacher explained concepts and delivered content information to the students. Lastly, the least common type of TT used by the teacher was to criticize student behavior with 1.2%. Winanta et.al (2020) found that due to the higher amount of indirect influence, the amount of student talk was higher than teacher talk, resulting in a classroom environment with higher classroom interaction where students have ample opportunities to practice using their target language. Regarding the interview, the teacher stated that the high amount of praising and low amount of criticizing was part of her goal of creating a strong teacher-student relationship and fostering a positive classroom environment. Accordingly, Winanta et.al (2020) concluded by recommending that teachers should decrease TT and increase student talk by implementing indirect influence TT as it gives students more opportunities to improve.

Ghajarieh and Mirzabeigi (2023) examined the communicative features that are present during TT in English university classes in Iran. The aim of the

study was to compare the frequency and impact of the communicative features between general English classes and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes. The communicative features used during TT were analyzed and classified based on Walsh's (2006) framework, which provided a description of the interactional structure of second-language classrooms and how teachers use language. According to this framework, TT consists of direct and indirect repair, explaining content, checking for confirmation, clarifying and repeating, asking display questions and asking referential questions. The researchers collected data from a sample of three general English teachers and three EAP teachers who taught undergraduate and post-graduate students. Data was collected by conducting observations of their lessons in order to perform content analysis of their TT and identify their communicative features as they naturally occurred. A second instrument for data collection was interviews, through which the researchers aimed to gain insight into the EAP teachers' attitudes towards communicating in English. In terms of the findings, the observations and content analysis revealed that both sets of teachers utilized the same communicative features, but with varying levels of frequency. It was found that the general English teachers employed each of the features more frequently than their EAP counterparts. For instance, general English teachers asked 55 display questions and 58 referential questions, whereas the EAP teachers only asked 35 and 28 display and referential questions respectively. Consequently, Ghajarieh and Mirzabeigi (2023) noted that the general English classes generated substantially more student interaction than the EAP classes. Additionally, it was found that the general English teachers spoke in English more often and encouraged students to communicate in English, whereas the EAP teachers tended to revert to their native language (Persian) as they limited student communication and

interaction. Finally, the findings from the interview revealed that the EAP teachers believe that the limited communicative features were due to the students' low proficiency level, though Ghajarieh and Mirzabeigi (2023) suggest that teachers still have agency to implement communicative tasks in different ways to create classroom environments that encourage student engagement and interaction.

In a study entitled *How can teacher talk support learning?*, Sharpe (2008) explores the different strategies that teachers use to enhance students' learning. By observing and videotaping a total of 17 History lessons in an Australian middle school, the researcher aimed to identify the different strategies employed by a teacher during their TT. The first strategy found in the study was that of repeating, recasting and recontextualizing (Sharpe, 2008). Repeating did not only occur when the teacher repeated an informative statement, but it mostly occurred when the teacher repeated students' responses as way of confirming that their answers were correct. The researcher refers to recasting as a teacher's act of replacing colloquial words in a students' response with more technical terms that students need to learn. Lastly, recontextualizing occurred when the teacher clarifies and elaborates on a student's response by placing it in a more appropriate context. Sharpe (2008) suggested that these three techniques not only improve students' understanding of a particular subject, but also develop their subject-specific vocabulary. A second strategy identified in the study was cued elicitation, in which the teacher intentionally left gaps of knowledge in his explanation so that students could complete the explanation, thereby involving students in the teaching and learning process as they jointly construct their shared knowledge and understanding. Another strategy found in the study was that

of questioning. This form of questioning does not refer to the initial questions asked by teachers to test students' understanding, but rather it refers to the questions that the teacher asked after students had given a response to the initial question. This form of questioning was used as a strategy not only to provide feedback to the students, but also to challenge their response to require them to elaborate on or restructure their responses; this helped in engaging students and in having them form connections between ideas. Finally, at the end of lessons, it was found that the teacher enabled students to summarize key concepts and recycle the ideas that they have discussed during the lesson. The researcher concluded that these strategies help in improving the learning process for students and in developing their skills and their knowledge in the subject matter.

Gharbavi and Irvani (2014) explored the notion that TT can be harmful to students and their learning process. According to the researchers, the aim of their study was to make teachers aware of the potential drawbacks of their language use and interactions in the classroom, especially within the confines of the communicative approach to teaching. Their main aim was to examine the extent to which EFL teachers either facilitate or impede student engagement in the classroom, knowing that the communicative approach states that student participation is key in second language acquisition. The research was in the form of a case study of one male EFL teacher in Iran. To collect data, the researchers audio-recorded one lesson taught by the teacher, from which a transcript was written and analyzed through conversation analysis. The findings revealed that the teacher did not succeed in forming a communicative environment with authentic communication. Instead, the teacher relied on rote learning, where the students simply memorized

utterances and repeated them in the same way the teacher did. Accordingly, the teacher adopted the audio-lingual method, which, according to Gharbavi and Irvani (2014), consisted of a higher amount of TT that limited students' language use into a controlled exercise rather than providing students with opportunities to communicate in English realistically. Additionally, the researchers found that the choice of words by the teacher also negatively impacted the students as the teacher warned and berated them. Gharbavi and Irvani (2014) concluded that TT could be harmful to students and their learning process when used in such a way.

2.2.2 Gender in Teaching and Learning

Ochola and Juma (2014) conducted a study to explore the correlation between the gender of teachers and the academic performance of students in secondary schools in Nairobi. The study aimed to determine the impact of the conversational styles of teachers of different genders on the academic performance of their students. Ochola and Juma (2014) referred to theories in gender studies that proposed the notion that male and female speakers possess different conversational styles in that men are informative and authoritative, while women are emotional and ask questions. To achieve the objective of the study, the researchers collected data through questionnaires that were given to a sample of 120 students in order to gain insight into their perceptions toward their male and female teachers. Additionally, data was also collected by recording the results and grades that the sampled students received in their final exams in two subjects, one of which was taught by a male teacher while the other was taught by a female teacher. This was done to measure the academic performance of the sampled students. The study's findings revealed that 65% of the students believed that teachers of different genders teach

differently. Also, 49.5% of the respondents agreed with the notion that their male teacher uses an authoritative tone, while 38.32% of them believed that their female teacher asks too many questions. More significantly, it was found that the students preferred to be taught by the opposite gender as the male students preferred to be taught by female teachers, whereas female students preferred to be taught by male teachers. This was supported by their academic performance as it was found that male students performed better in the subject taught by a female teacher, while female students performed better in the subject taught by a male teacher. This led Ochola and Juma (2014) to conclude that the communication style of teachers of different genders impacts the academic performance of students.

Rashidi and Naderi (2012) conducted a study entitled *The Effect of Gender on the Patterns of Classroom interaction*. The objective of their study was to examine the classroom interactions that take place between teachers and students in EFL classrooms in Iran to determine the extent to which the gender of the teachers and students play a role in shaping those interactions. Data was collected through classroom observations of 24 classes taught by 24 teachers, twelve of whom were male and 12 were female. The lessons were also video-recorded so as to transcribe the interactions that took place between teachers and students in order to identify the different discourse acts performed by the teachers and how the students responded to them. The results showed that male and female teachers behaved similarly when attempting to elicit confirmations from students and when giving feedback, whether positive or negative. However, there were many differences between their communication patterns. First, male teachers tended to ask display questions, while female teachers preferred to ask referential questions, as 57% of the

observed display questions were asked by the male teachers and 63.4% of the referential questions were asked by the female teachers. Second, during their instructions, male teachers performed directive acts more often than the female teachers. Additionally, it was noted that the directive acts performed by the male teachers tended to be in the form of commands, whereas those performed by the female teachers tended to be in the form of requests, which Rashidi and Naderi (2012) suggest is due to females favoring to be more polite and less direct than males. Third, the findings revealed that female teachers encouraged and complimented their students at a higher rate than the male teachers. In general, female teachers were observed as being more interactive with their students as they offered them more encouragement and employed more group work activities than their male counterparts. Regarding the male and female students, the results showed some differences between them as well. First, the male students asked more questions during the lessons than the female students did. In contrast, female students tended to respond more frequently than the male students when their teachers attempted to elicit responses and they were more willing to take part in group activities. Furthermore, in terms of their responses, male students tended to provide short answers, whereas female students tended to elaborate. Finally, in spite of the female students' willingness to participate in activities, the male students were more willing to interact with their teachers by asking, requesting and thanking their teachers as well as acknowledging their instructions. Rashidi and Naderi (2012) concluded that gender and the characteristics of male and female teachers affected the patterns of interactions that occurred within the classrooms.

Appiah and Agbelevor (2015) explored the potential effect that the gender of lecturers has on students' learning in Ghana. The research aimed to investigate students' perception towards their male and female lecturers in terms of their teaching style and methods as well as whether the gender of the lecturer affects their level of participation in the classroom. The data was collected by distributing a questionnaire to a sample of 60 male and 60 female undergraduates to gain insight into their opinions and perceptions towards the gender of their lecturers. In terms of the students' perception of their male and female lecturers' teaching methods, the findings revealed that 45% of the students preferred the teaching method of male lecturers because they were more effective in explaining and because they were friendlier and more approachable. Moreover, 40% of the students responded that the gender of their lecturers makes no difference in their teaching methods. As such, only 15% of the students preferred female lecturers for the reason that they were more understanding, patient and interactive. Pertaining to the correlation between the gender of the lecturer and student participation and engagement, the findings showed that 49% of the students stated that female lecturers do a better job at involving the students in the lesson by frequently asking questions. On the other hand, 31% of the students believed they engaged more with male lecturers because they were more interactive and had a good sense of humor. Finally, when asked whether they prefer a lecturer because they are of the same gender as them, 94% of the students responded in the negative. The students stated that they rate their lecturers based on their personality and their performance in the classroom in terms of teaching style and not on their gender. This led Appiah and Agbelevor (2015) to conclude that the gender of the lecturer does not impact students as much as their personality and teaching methods.

A case study titled *Gender and Teacher Talk in the Classroom: A Case Study of Lecturers' Language Use* conducted by Ali (2023) examined the verbal and nonverbal communication of a female and a male lecturer in an EFL classroom setting. This study specifically examined lecturers' Teacher Talk in relation to the lecturer's gender within the classroom context. The study aimed to investigate the impact of the lecturers' gender and linguistic choices on students' participation levels. The study was in a form of a case study, where data was collected through two observations of each lecturer, who taught the same course material. Each observation lasted for two hours. The findings revealed significant differences in the verbal and nonverbal cues exhibited by the female and male lecturers, resulting in variations in students' participation levels. For instance, the male lecturer displayed a higher level of movement, adopting a more authoritative and serious stance, while also having a higher amount of TT in the classroom. It was also found that the male lecturer used a direct and explicit form of language in the teaching process. Furthermore, he also adopted a different body language gesture such as directly pointing at the students. It was noted that the male lecturer had limited smiles and constant eye contact with the students. One main feature found in his TT was repetition. For example, the male lecturer repeated many sentences frequently, to ensure students' understanding. On the other hand, the female lecturer had a more casual tone and relaxed body language. Also, in regard to the female lecturer's TT, it was found that the female lecturer frequently used hedging devices such as *I think*, *could* and *if*. Furthermore, the female lecturer also frequently used tag questions, unlike the male lecturer. It was found that the female lecturer nodded and smiled more frequently than the male lecturer. Pertaining to the students' participation level, the study found that students' participation levels were lower with the male lecturer, while the female

lecturer encouraged higher levels of student talk in the classroom. Thus, despite teaching the same material, the TT of lecturers of different genders varies from one another, as the male lecturer dominated the classroom in having a higher amount of TT and less amount of student talk, resulting in a limited level of student participation, whereas the female lecturer dedicated a higher amount of student talk and participation in the classroom. However, it was found that both lecturers used specific and similar jargon related to the course they taught. Also, both lecturers used repetition as a method of teaching. The study concluded that female and male lecturers exhibit major differences in their verbal and nonverbal communication within the classroom context. The study also concluded that lecturers' linguistic choices significantly influence student engagement in the classroom, and these choices are often influenced by the gender of the lecturer.

Aguillon et.al (2020) explored the potential gender differences that exist in classroom participation and student engagement within active learning classrooms. The researchers defined active learning as involving strategies utilized by teachers and lecturers to foster student participation and peer discussions which lead to independent learners and higher student performance. The aim of the study was to identify the different types of classroom interactions that occur between students and their lecturer and to determine any gender differences in the way male and female students engage in the classroom. To achieve these aims, the researchers conducted 40 observations of Biology lectures delivered by eight lecturers in the United States over a period of two semesters. In each of the 40 lectures, the researchers observed student participation and engagement by recording the type of interaction and the gender of the student participating. The types of

interaction were categorized into seven types: unprompted comment, unprompted question, prompted and voluntary individual, prompted and voluntary post-discussion, prompted and voluntary post-clicker, group random call and group work. In other words, students could interact with their lecturers by giving a comment or asking a question without being prompted; they could also interact by volunteering to respond to the lecturer's prompt either individually or as a group after they have discussed their response. The findings indicated that the most frequent types of interaction were group work, group random call and prompted and voluntary post-discussion responses. In contrast, the least frequent types of interaction were unprompted comments and unprompted questions. This suggests that students of both genders were more willing to participate when they were part of a group and when they were prompted to produce a response. Despite the similarity between the genders in the types of interaction, it was found that male students tended to participate more frequently in all seven types of interaction. As such, whether prompted or not and whether in groups or not, male students participated at a higher rate than female students. In terms of the gender of the lecturers, it was found that male students still participated more regardless of whether the lecturer was male or female. However, it was noted that the male students tended to participate in unprompted interactions more frequently with female lecturers than they did with male lecturers. Finally, it was also found that male students scored significantly higher grades in the final exam of this course, which led Aguilon et.al (2020) to conclude that students achieve more when placed in an active learning environment where they interact with their peers and with their lecturer.

2.2.3 Teacher Talk and Students Engagement

Havik and Westergård (2020) examined the correlation between students' perception of classroom interactions with their teachers and student engagement. More specifically, the study viewed student engagement as being the cause of classroom interaction, so it aimed to determine the association between them. The researchers defined student engagement on the basis of two of its subtypes: emotional engagement and behavioral engagement. Emotional engagement refers to students' feelings towards their school, their teachers and their peers. It relates to whether they have a positive or negative attitude and whether they like or dislike those components of school life, all of which affect their willingness to attend school and learn. On the other hand, behavioral engagement refers to the actions that students perform academically and socially, both inside and outside the classroom. In terms of the academic sphere, it involves students' active participation, their willingness to pay attention and to ask questions during the lesson, whereas in the social sphere, it includes interacting with their teachers and peers and taking part in extracurricular activities within the school. To collect data, a web-based questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 1769 students from primary and secondary schools in Norway to elicit their perceptions of classroom interactions in terms of their teachers' emotional support, instructional support and classroom organization. The results showed that there was a positive association between teachers' instructional support and both emotional and behavioral engagement. Second, it was found that teachers' act of monitoring had a negative association with students' emotional engagement, but it had a positive association with their behavioral engagement. Hence, students appeared to work harder and have higher

behavioral engagement when they perceived higher levels of teachers' instructional support. Third, the findings also revealed that students perceived a strong association between teachers' emotional support and a higher level of students' emotional engagement, as the results indicated that a stronger teacher-student relationship led to more classroom interactions, which in turn increased students' emotional engagement and their willingness to learn and attend school. Furthermore, pertaining to the age and gender of the students, it was found that student engagement was less among secondary school students than among primary school students, as the older students appeared to struggle with their emotional engagement. The researchers suggested that this was due to primary schools having one class-teacher, whereas secondary school students have multiple teachers, thereby limiting opportunities for them to build a strong relationship with their teachers. In terms of gender, female students reported having more behavioral engagement than male students, which was highlighted in their better academic performance. Ultimately, Havik and Westergård (2020) concluded that teachers should focus more on improving student engagement, especially among male students and older students.

Harahap and Emzir (2015) conducted discourse analysis of classroom interactions between teachers and students that took place in a high school EFL class in Indonesia. The aim of the study was to examine the teacher-student interactions and relationship in EFL classrooms to determine whether the teachers applied the strategies posed in the framework developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), a classroom exchange between teacher and students should follow the IRF model, wherein teachers begin by facilitating and initiating (I) the discussion,

followed by students responding (R) to the teacher's elicitation, which is then followed by the teacher's feedback (F) to the students' responses. The data in this study was collected by audio-recording the lessons to collect all instances of verbal and nonverbal communication by both teachers and students in the classroom. Subsequently, discourse analysis was conducted on the transcript of the lesson. The study found that 94% of the instances of communication were produced by teachers, while the students' communicative acts added up to only 6%. The researchers suggested that this was due to the frequent use of informative acts, where the function of the teachers' utterances was to inform students rather than to elicit responses from them. Harahap and Emzir (2015) concluded that the teachers did not follow the IRF model and instead adopted an IF model as the teacher simply initiated the topic and then followed-up on it without presenting students with opportunities to respond. Thus, the higher amount of TT and lower number of questions that elicit responses led to a classroom environment in which the students' engagement was low.

In the study titled *Construction or Obstruction: Teacher Talk and Learner Involvement in the EFL Classroom* by Steve Walsh (2002), the researcher examined how the way teachers communicate with students affects their participation and engagement in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. The study utilizes both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, such as classroom observations, recordings, and feedback from learners through questionnaires and interviews. The results indicate that the type of TT used has a significant impact on learner involvement. Teachers who employ interactive and student-centred instructional strategies promote higher levels of learner participation. Conversely, teachers who dominate the classroom discourse with a lecture-style approach experience lower levels of

learner involvement. The qualitative data further supports these findings, as learners express a preference for interactive and communicative activities that facilitate their active involvement in the learning process. In its conclusion, the study emphasizes the direct influence of TT on learner involvement and highlights the importance of teachers adopting student-centred approaches and creating interactive learning experiences to enhance learner engagement.

Another study conducted by Wirza and Sholihah (2020) investigated the use of TT in an EFL classroom, its impact on student participation, and students' perceptions of TT and their performance. The research employed a qualitative approach, collecting data through video recordings and interviews with an English teacher and 36 seventh-grade students in Bandung. The findings of the study revealed that teacher talk in the EFL classroom was organized into instructional talk and management talk. This organization provided students with opportunities to actively participate in the classroom. The teacher's initiation of discussions and questions prompted students to respond, leading to increased student participation. Additionally, students demonstrated a positive perception and attitude towards TT, which positively influenced their performance. The most frequently used TT strategies included corrections, asking instructional questions, providing explanations and instructions, encouraging student involvement, and asking and answering management questions that are part of classroom management. Students' participation was primarily observed in class discussions, answering questions when called upon, volunteering to answer questions, offering spontaneous ideas and engaging in discussions with their peers. The study concluded that active participation was found to be beneficial for students as it created opportunities for new language learning experiences.

2.2.4 Teacher's Questioning and Students Engagement

Dos et.al (2016) analyzed the strategies that teachers apply when asking questions in the classroom. The aim of the study was to identify the different strategies teachers employ when they teach as well as their perceptions of their act of questioning. The study applied a mixed-method design in its data collection, as it consisted of a semi-structured questionnaire that involved quantitative questions to identify the strategies used by the teachers and qualitative questions to elicit the reasons behind the teachers' questioning. The study consisted of a sample of 170 primary school teachers in Turkey, to whom the questionnaire was distributed. The findings of the questionnaire revealed that when teachers ask questions, they aim to draw students' attention (26.3%), to promote a higher level of thinking (14.8%) and to allow students to express themselves and share their interpretation (14.1%). To a lesser extent, teachers stated that they use questions to manage the classroom (4.8%). It was also stated by 67% of the teachers that they ask more divergent questions than convergent questions. Divergent questions were used to encourage students to think critically and for them to make inferences, whereas convergent questions were used to recall previous knowledge and to motivate students to participate. It was noted by the teachers who asked more convergent questions that they do so due to the students' lower levels, though the researchers claim that the teachers have misconceptions of the use of these two types of questions. In addition, it was found that the majority of teachers' questions targeted the whole class (87.1%), while only 9% of respondents stated that their questions mostly target individual students and 3.9% targeted groups of students. An additional finding was that teachers used probe questions and the wait-time technique to give students more time to formulate

a response. Dos et.al (2016) concluded that teachers require more professional training in order to be more knowledgeable about the important role of questioning in the teaching and learning process.

Aziza (2018) conducted a case study to explore the role of questioning in a mathematics classroom in relation to student engagement. The objective of the study was to examine the types and form of questioning and how they generate student responses. Data was collected for this study by observing and recording a female teacher, who teaches third-grade mathematics, during one of her lessons. The observation and recording focused on collecting three aspects of the teacher's questioning: the way the teacher asked questions, the type of questions she asked and the responses they generated from students. Additionally, samples of students' work were collected, and interviews were conducted with the teacher and six students, whose work formed the sample, to gain more insight and clarification into the questions asked by the former and the responses generated by the latter. In terms of the way the teacher asked questions, the findings revealed that most of the questions were posed orally, for students to respond orally, while some of the questions were posed in written form as displayed on PowerPoint slides for students to read and respond either orally or as a written task. Furthermore, the teacher tended to adopt the wait-time technique where she paused after asking the questions due to the students' inability to respond to questions spontaneously, especially concerning mathematical concepts. Next, regarding the types of questions, the teacher asked both close-ended and open-ended questions, where the former had one correct answer, while the latter had multiple ways of answering the question. The findings showed that out of a total of 48 questions asked by the teacher during the lesson, 26 were close-ended while 22 were open-ended.

Lastly, in terms of the students' responses, they tended to give most of their answers orally, though that was due to the higher rate of oral questions asked. Also, the open-ended questions naturally received more responses than the close-ended questions, as the students had multiple answers. Moreover, students tended to give short answers to the close-ended questions, whereas they tended to elaborate and provide justifications for the open-ended questions. Aziza (2018) emphasized the role of open-ended questions in enabling students' creativity as the students produced more flexible and original responses, as shown in the sample of their works. Regarding the findings of the interview, the teacher showed awareness of her tendency to employ close-ended and open-ended questions both orally and in written form. Aziza (2018) concluded by recommending that other teachers should adopt similar forms of questioning as they develop students' thinking and displays their creativity.

Troyer (2022) examined the relationship between teachers' knowledge for literacy teaching and the questions they ask to facilitate classroom discussion. The study aimed to identify the types and determine the frequency of questions asked by teachers with varying levels of teaching knowledge and how they facilitate student talk. A sample of two sixth grade teachers was selected from a group of 28 who were asked to complete a test to determine their level of knowledge in teaching literacy, such as reading and writing. Troyer (2022) stated that the knowledge the teachers were tested on included knowledge of the subject matter and the methods that can be implemented when teaching the content. Hence, the sample consisted of one teacher who demonstrated high knowledge and one who demonstrated lower knowledge of teaching literacy. Data was collected by audio-recording the two teachers

as they taught the same reading lesson. Subsequently, the recordings were transcribed and analyzed to codify the questions based on whether they were high-level or low-level and whether they were display or referential questions. The findings indicated that the teacher with higher knowledge asked more high-level questions than low-level questions, while the teacher with lower knowledge asked significantly more low-level questions. In addition, although both teachers asked low-level questions, the questions served different functions. For instance, the teacher with more knowledge asked low-level questions when students struggled with the high-level questions as a way to scaffold information before asking the high-level question again, whereas the teacher with lower knowledge asked low-level questions as the primary form of questioning to have students recall details from the text they read. Furthermore, both teachers asked display questions more frequently than referential questions, although the teacher with higher knowledge asked referential questions at a higher rate than the other teacher. As a result, it was found that the amount of student talk was higher in the lesson with the teacher with higher knowledge as the form of questioning she implemented got students actively involved in their learning with more opportunities to share their ideas and interpretations. Troyer (2022) concluded that the findings emphasize the importance of teacher knowledge and its contribution in creating a higher quality of learning for students.

Khoza and Msimanga (2022) conducted a case study of three male high school science teachers in South Africa. The purpose of the study was to examine the nature of the classroom interactions that took place in relation to teachers' questioning and teachers' moves. The researchers adopted a model proposed by Correnti et.al (2015) called *Analyzing Teacher Moves*, which focuses on

the role of teacher moves in facilitating student engagement in the classroom. According to this framework, TT involves teacher moves, which are comprised of two types: initiating moves and rejoinder moves. The former refers to a teacher's initiation of a discussion on a topic or concept. This teacher move occurs when a teacher starts or initiates a new line of thinking on the part of the students, often through close-ended questions or open-ended questions. Generally, closed-ended questions do not tackle students' higher order thinking skills and they do not lead to elaborate discussions with high amounts of student engagement, whereas open-ended questions do. Furthermore, rejoinder moves occur when the teacher manages and shapes student talk. Rejoinder moves can be in the form of eliciting responses, whereby the teacher makes a statement or asks a further question to lead students to the correct answer; they can also be in the form of clarifying moves, where the teacher re-words or summarizes a student's response to clarify it for the rest of the students. Lastly, rejoinder moves can also serve the purpose of extending a student's response by making them elaborate or provide a new context for their response (Correnti et.al, 2015). According to Khoza and Msimanga (2022), the aim of their study was to understand the nature of initiating and rejoinder moves and to determine the extent to which the statement about close-ended and open-ended questions is true. To achieve this aim, the researchers collected data by observing the teachers' lessons and videotaped them to capture the teachers' moves and the students' responses to them. The findings showed that the teachers most frequently used close-ended questions as their initiating move but followed it by rejoinders that prolonged student talk and made the quieter students engage as well. Additionally, it was found that a teacher who asked a close-ended question used a rejoinder to open a discussion on the answer. In contrast, instances were captured where

although the teacher asked an open-ended question, he followed it with a rejoinder that reminded students of their prior knowledge, therefore limiting the responses and making students stay in context. In this way, despite it being an open-ended question, it did not lead to a higher number of interactions and engagements. Khoza and Msimanga (2022) concluded that their findings contradict the notion that close-ended questions do not lead to student engagement. They concluded that student engagement depends on the nature of the rejoinder moves.

Lee and Kinzie (2012) explored the impact of teachers' questioning on students' response with focus on students' cognition and language use. The study aimed to identify the types and quality of questions teachers posed and how they shaped students' responses in classroom discourse. The researchers determined the quality of questions based on their effectiveness in stimulating student learning and critical thinking. To collect data, a sample of three female pre-kindergarten science teachers were observed and video-recorded during their lessons in addition to being interviewed. The former aimed to identify teachers' questions and observe students' responses, whereas the latter aimed to elicit teachers' perceptions of their questioning style. Subsequently, the data were analyzed by coding and categorizing the questions into close-ended and open-ended and by describing students' responses based on their cognitive levels and complexity of language use. The findings revealed that the teachers asked close-ended questions at a significantly higher rate than open-ended questions, as 65% of the total questions asked were close-ended, while only 35% were open-ended. The close-ended questions were asked to check students' prior knowledge and for them to recall information from readings, whereas the open-ended questions were asked to enable students to make

predictions and provide reasoning. However, the researchers observed that once the students struggled to answer an open-ended question, the teachers tended to revert to close-ended questions for the remainder of the lesson, which explains the discrepancy in their frequencies. The findings of the teachers' interviews indicated that the teachers' perceptions varied from their practice, as they thought they asked more open-ended questions than the observation revealed. The teachers also commented that the types of questions they asked are shaped by the students' knowledge and language level. Regarding the cognitive level of students' responses, it was found that the close-ended questions stimulated lower-level cognitive skills as the students were required to simply recall facts and answer yes or no questions. In contrast, the open-ended questions tackled students' higher-level cognitive skills as the students were required to think critically so as to make scientific predictions and provide justification. Moreover, in terms of students' language use, it was found that the students responded to close-ended questions with short answers, consisting of a limited range of vocabulary and simple sentence structure. On the other hand, students responded to open-ended questions with more sophisticated vocabulary and more elaborate and complex sentence structures. Finally, it was concluded by Lee and Kinzie (2012) that teachers are recommended to ask more high-quality questions as they play a crucial role in developing students' cognitive and language skills.

Xiao-Yan (2006) examined the effect of TT by university lecturers on the second-language acquisition of university students. It also aimed to determine the students' preferences to their lecturers' TT. To achieve these aims, the researcher conducted a case study of four lecturers by observing them during their lectures to capture their TT. Additionally, a questionnaire was utilized to

record students' preferences to their lecturers' TT. In terms of the amount of TT, Xiao-Yan (2006) found that three of the four lecturers had a high amount of TT, which resulted in students being "not active" and not being able to "focus their attention on the class" (p. 38). This aligned with the result of the questionnaire as it was found that 75% of the students preferred the lectures with the lower amount of TT. Pertaining to teachers' questioning, Xiao-Yan adopted Long and Sato's (1983) classification of teacher's questioning into display and referential questions. The former refers to closed and convergent questions that have a single, objectively correct answer, while the latter refers to open and divergent questions that have various subjective answers. In accordance with this classification, the observations revealed that the lecturers had a high tendency to ask display questions with 92% of the questions being display questions while only 8% of the questions were referential. Despite the low number of referential questions, the questionnaire revealed that 75% of the students preferred to be asked referential questions, which, according to Xiao-Yan (2006), "indicates their strong desire for participation and higher expectation toward the opportunity of speaking English" (p. 40). This also aligns with their preference for having a lower amount of TT, which in turn increases the amount of student talk. Consequently, Xiao-Yan concluded that lecturers must make a conscious decision to decrease TT and ask more referential questions to give students more opportunities to be actively involved in their learning.

2.2.5 Teacher's Questioning and Students Engagement in EFL Context

Wang and Wang (2013) conducted a case study of a female EFL university lecturer in China who taught an Intensive Reading course to undergraduates.

The study explored the role of teachers' questioning in developing students' knowledge and facilitating classroom interaction. The aim of the study was to identify the different functions of teachers' questioning and how they promote student learning. In achieving this aim, data was collected by observing and video-recording a lecture, wherein the questions asked and the functions they served were analyzed. The findings showed that different types of questions were asked by the lecturer at different stages during the lecture to serve different purposes. Firstly, lower-order questions were asked at the beginning of the lesson as a way of introducing the lesson's topic. The researchers described these as factual questions that had a predetermined answer that the lecturer was attempting to elicit, making it a display or close-ended question. However, it was found that these questions were followed by speculative questions that have no predetermined answers, which were used to build on the students' previous responses. Similarly, the second way in which questioning was utilized was to scaffold students' ideas. After asking such questions, the lecturer did not evaluate the students' responses but rather provided follow-up questions that enabled the students to build on their thinking and provide their own interpretations and personal experiences, which made other students more willing to participate, thereby increasing student engagement. Thirdly, the lecturer asked reflective questions which were in the form of higher-order and referential questions. Through these questions, the lecturer gave students the responsibility of constructing their own knowledge by critically thinking before generating a response. Subsequently, after responding, the students were required to reflect on and evaluate their responses above the level of being right or wrong. Wang and Wang (2013) concluded that the form of questioning by the lecturer not only increased student talk, but it also created a classroom environment where

students were expected and encouraged to share their thoughts and ideas as they were incorporated into the learning process itself.

Arini and Wahyudin (2022) explored the impact of teachers' questioning on students' speaking skills in EFL contexts. The study aimed to investigate students' perceptions of and attitudes towards their teachers' act of questioning and how it relates to their speaking ability. In achieving this aim, the researchers provided a sample of 24 male and female undergraduates with a questionnaire through which they elicited their perceptions. Additionally, the researchers interviewed five of the students to gain deeper insight into their attitudes. The findings revealed that only three of the 24 students disliked the use of questioning by their teachers, while the rest had a positive attitude towards it. Also, 83% of the participants believed that answering questions during lessons makes them more confident, and an additional 87.5% of the participants agreed and strongly agreed that their teachers' questioning makes them participate more in the classroom. In terms of their speaking skills, 83.3% of the participants stated that responding to teachers' questions improves their speaking skills. Moreover, similar percentages were found for other responses that indicated that teachers' questioning and students' subsequent responses improve students' vocabulary (87.5%), pronunciation (87.5%) and their overall fluency and accuracy (83%). Furthermore, the results of the interview indicated that the students have a positive attitude towards teachers' questioning because it encourages them to share their ideas. The interviewees also stated that questioning provides them with opportunities to practice speaking in the target language in an environment where they can receive direct feedback from their teachers regarding their pronunciations. Lastly, the students stated that one challenge that is presented

with the questioning method is that some students might be shy and afraid of making mistakes, which makes them dislike the method.

Al-Zahrani and Al-Bargi (2017) examined the impact of teachers' questioning on the level of interaction that occurs in EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia. The aim of the study was to determine the types of questions that produce the most and least levels of interactions among students. The data was collected by videorecording seven male EFL university teachers during their TT as they taught foundation level undergraduates. Upon recording the lessons, discourse analysis was conducted on the transcript of the lessons. Through discourse analysis, the types of questions asked by the teachers were classified as questions that successfully elicited a response and interaction from students and those that failed to produce any classroom interaction. The findings revealed that the types of questions asked by the teachers generated different levels of interaction based on the cognitive level and the complexity of the question as well as the students' English proficiency level, which dictated not only the type of question asked by the teachers, but also the level of interaction by the students in response to the question. The findings showed that the teachers most frequently asked display questions, which in turn resulted in low interaction levels from the students. In contrast, referential questions generated the highest level of interaction. However, the nature of referential questions requires students to apply higher order thinking skills, yet the students with lower levels of English proficiency were unable and unwilling to respond to such questions. According to Al-Zahrani and Al-Bargi (2017), students with lower proficiency levels displayed higher levels of anxiety when required to respond to such questions. Therefore, the researchers determined that a correlation exists between the students' level of English proficiency and

the level of classroom interaction in that as the students' level of proficiency increases, the level of classroom interaction increases as well. The researchers concluded that some types of questions successfully create classroom interaction while others do not, yet teachers must consider their students' proficiency level when asking questions.

Farahian and Rezaee (2012) conducted a case study of an EFL teacher in Iran with the aim of identifying and classifying the types of questions he asked as well as the students' responses to them. The researchers adopted two instruments to collect data. First, the researchers audio-recorded five consecutive lessons by the teacher before analyzing the transcript to classify the questions according to Yang's (2010) framework. Based on this framework, questions can be of three types: yes/no questions, closed/display questions and open/referential questions. Second, the researchers conducted an interview with the teacher, asking him nine questions, to gain insight into his opinions on teachers' questions and their influence on students' engagement and language learning. In terms of the teacher's questions, it was found that, out of 160 total questions asked, 83 were yes/no questions, 61 were closed/display questions and only 16 questions were open/referential. Farahian and Rezaee (2012) stated that the high number of yes/no questions was due to the teacher ensuring the students' understanding by asking questions like *Is it clear?* The results of the interview revealed that the teacher was aware that open/referential questions were more effective at increasing students' engagement, yet he still did not make an effort to ask those kinds of questions. This led the researchers to state that although closed/display questions are typically used with students of lower language proficiency, they were used in this study due to the teacher's inexperience in teaching and his

own low level of language proficiency, as it was easier for him to ask those simpler types of questions. The researchers also concluded that the reason behind the students' unwillingness to participate was due to the ineffective questioning by the teacher, which highlights the significance of teachers' questioning.

In another study by Rezaee and Farahian (2012), the focus was on investigating the communication dynamics between teachers and students in an EFL classroom in Iran. The study utilized a case study approach that examined the classroom interactions of twelve upper-intermediate students and their teacher. The researchers employed a combination of observation of five lectures, each lasting 45 minutes, recording the lectures and interviewing the teacher, to gain insights into the allocation of time for TT in the classroom, the types of questions asked by the teacher, and the impact of TT on student learning. The aim of the study was to analyze the proportion of time dedicated to TT, Student Talk (ST), and other activities in the classroom. The researchers found that, on average, 70% of class time was allocated to TT, 20% to ST, and 10% to other activities. This distribution indicated a significant focus on teacher-led instruction rather than student participation. Additionally, the study investigated the types of questions posed by the teacher. The researchers adopted Richards and Lockhart's (1994) categorization of questions. It was found that a significant portion of the questions asked were divergent, ranging from 35% to 54.5%. Convergent questions accounted for 31% to 51% of the questions, while procedural questions made up 11.5% to 15.5% of the total questions asked. Furthermore, the teacher utilized various question techniques, such as nominating specific students to answer, asking questions for the whole class to respond in chorus,

allowing students to volunteer answers, and posing self-answer questions. The findings of the study indicated that the different question types and techniques served specific purposes, including obtaining feedback, capturing students' attention, and maintaining classroom control. The researchers concluded that increasing the amount of TT is preferred, as it plays a crucial role in delivering informative, explanatory, and descriptive information that enriches students' understanding.

2.3 Summary

This chapter consisted of the framework adopted in this study alongside other relevant studies. Apart from the previous studies, this study aims to fill the gap in the literature by investigating the relationship between the gender of the lecturers, as a social variable, and their questioning techniques, as a linguistic variable within EFL classrooms. The previous studies presented in this chapter examined the types and frequency of questions asked by teachers. However, what sets this study apart from the previous studies, is that it examines the types and frequency of questions in relation to gender. In doing so, it directly compares the questions asked by male and female lecturers who are teaching in the same context. Whereas the previous studies explored the impact of teachers' questioning on students' participation, this study contributes to the literature by investigating the role of gender of the lecturers in eliciting responses from the students. Another way this study contributes to the literature is by being conducted in the Kingdom of Bahrain at the university level in EFL context.

CHAPTER THREE

Methods and Procedures

Chapter Three

Methods and Procedures

The chapter offers detailed insights into the chosen data collection methods, followed by the procedures, research ethics, sample selection, and the employed data analysis methods for this study. The first section covers the research approach adopted for this study. The second section presents the sample selected for this study, consisting of EFL university lecturers and students. The third section focuses on the methods and instruments selected to collect data for this research. The fourth section consists of the procedures of data collection and how the instruments were employed to obtain data. In addition, it includes another sub-section dedicated to research ethics. Lastly, the final section presents the framework and the data analysis methods employed, followed by the procedure of how the analysis was conducted.

3.1 Research Approach

The approach adopted in this research is a mixed methods approach, incorporating both qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative methods adopted in this research include observations and recordings. On the other hand, the quantitative method includes a questionnaire. A mixed-methods approach is often preferred in research due to its flexibility in utilizing various instruments to collect different forms of data. In the context of this study, this approach was chosen because it effectively captures the necessary data, ensuring the validity of the measurements.

3.2 The Selected Sample

The sample for this research consists of two groups: EFL university lecturers and students. The target population of this study involves all university lecturers and students in Bahrain, while the accessible population is comprised of EFL university lecturers from a private university in Bahrain. The sample consisted of three male EFL lecturers and three female EFL lecturers teaching at a private university in Bahrain. The six lecturers were selected through a purposive sampling method. A purposive method was used to decrease other variables, so that the lecturers are teaching similar EFL courses. It was also used to purposively select the gender of the three male and three female lecturers. For reference, the three male lecturers are numbered Participant 1 (P1), Participant 2 (P2) and Participant 3 (P3), while the three female lecturers are numbered Participant 4 (P4), Participant 5 (P5) and Participant 6 (P6). All six lecturers were teaching the same EFL courses to undergraduate EFL students. Additionally, all six participants had extensive teaching experience, ranging from 3 to 15 years. In terms of their linguistic backgrounds, four participants were of Arabic origin and native Arabic speakers, while Participants 3 and 5 were native English speakers.

The second set of samples relate to the students who were the subject of the questionnaire. The participants consisted of a mixture of both male and female EFL students. Those students were also selected purposively, as the questionnaire was provided only to the students who attended the lectures being observed. The questionnaire was completed by a total of 185 students across all six observed lectures, consisting of 121 female EFL students and 64 male EFL students, who served as the sample.

3.3 Methods of Data Collection

This study is in the form of a case study of six EFL university lecturers. The study aimed to identify the types of questions asked by each gender in EFL classrooms and how often they ask them in relation to student engagement. The study also aimed to reveal students' perception towards their lecturers' questioning. Therefore, the approach utilized in this study incorporated a mixed methods approach, including both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. The qualitative instruments involved observing and recording EFL lecturers to collect their questions, while the quantitative instrument involved distributing a questionnaire to their students to examine their perception towards the lecturer's gender in relation to the type of questions they prefer.

3.3.1 Observation

The first method used in this study involved observing the six selected lecturers, consisting of three male and three female EFL university lecturers. Observation was chosen as a method of data collection because it allowed for a natural observation of TT and students' engagement with the lecturer, which in turn addressed the research questions. Since the data was in the form of questions asked by the lecturers during their TT, the observation aimed to examine the male and female lecturers' TT and to observe the variation in the types and frequency of the questions they asked. Moreover, the data collected consisted of indirect questions as well, in which the lecturers did not use the form of interrogative sentences but used raising intonations to indicate that they were asking questions, which the observation helped in identifying. It also enabled the researcher to capture the direct engagement of the students to

the types of questions asked by the male and female lecturers. The researcher also acted as a distant observer to assess student engagement in the classroom.

3.3.2 Recording

The second method used to collect data in this study involved recording the six selected lecturers. Recording was selected to achieve the following objectives: identify the types of questions included in TT, the frequency of questions asked by both male and female lecturers, the variation in the types and frequency of questions between male and female lecturers and the extent to which the type of questions asked by each gender affects students' engagement levels, all of which were necessary in answering the research questions.

3.3.3 Questionnaire

The third method employed is quantitative in nature as the students' engagement and perception were assessed through the distribution of a questionnaire to the students, addressing the final research question. Questionnaire was chosen as a method of data collection because it allowed the researcher to gain insights into the students' perceptions of their lecturers' questions. Furthermore, this method was chosen because it allowed access to a larger sample size of students.

3.4 Procedures of Data Collection

3.4.1 Observation and Recording

In this study, the data collection procedure involved observing and recording six lessons taught by six different lecturers: three male and three female. Each

participant was observed for a two-hour duration after obtaining their permission to attend and record the lesson. During the observations, the researcher focused on identifying the types and frequency of questions asked by the lecturers and assessed students' level of engagement towards these questions in the lesson. These instances were carefully recorded for further analysis and reported in the Appendix. The observations were conducted as non-participant observations, in which the researcher took the role of an observer only, without interfering in the classroom dynamics. This approach ensured that the interactions and behaviors of the participants and their students were captured authentically, providing valuable insights into the natural process of teaching and learning without any external influence. The collected data consisted of the questions asked, the type of each question and the number of responses elicited from the students for each question.

3.4.2 Questionnaire

In terms of the questionnaire, it was created using Google Forms as it is intuitive and easy for participants to use. The questionnaire was only distributed to the students who attended the observed classrooms. The questionnaire included 11 questions overall. The questionnaire started with general questions such as *Are you a university student?*, before transitioning to more specific ones related to the aim of the questionnaire. The questions posed in the questionnaire were in the form of multiple choice, where students were given options that revealed their preferences in terms of the type of questions and gender of the lecturers.

3.4.3 Research Ethics

In order to gather data for this study, it was crucial to record and observe the natural teaching process of male and female lecturers within the context of the classroom. Therefore, the researcher provided the lecturers with a consent form (see Appendix A) that permits the recording and observation of the lesson. Accordingly, the researcher obtained approval from the private university and the participants to conduct the observations and recordings to collect data for this study. In addition, to ensure privacy, the university's name and lecturers' information, such as their names, ages and courses they teach, have been kept confidential. However, one detail that was disclosed was their gender as it was the social variable that was investigated in this study.

3.5 Methods of Data Analysis

This study employed three main methods in analysing the collected data. This included using discourse analysis, Richards and Lockhart's (1994) framework and Microsoft Excel. Discourse analysis looks at language use within a context. This type of analysis studies language in its social context. Discourse analysis goes beyond words and utterances, targeting meaningful interpretation in a specific context. It specifically looks at language usage and function in relation to meaning within a context. Therefore, discourse analysis examines linguistic products in relation to their meanings within a particular context. In this case, the language use is in the form of questioning in TT within the context of a university classroom. Discourse analysis was selected as the method of data analysis for the reason that it allows for the identification of the questions based on Richards and Lockhart's (1994) classification. The second method used to categorize teachers' questioning is based on Richards

and Lockhart's (1994) framework. This framework classifies teachers' questioning based on three categories: procedural, convergent and divergent questions. Therefore, all the questions gathered from the six participants were classified based on these three categories. The third method of data analysis is Microsoft Excel as it allowed for the frequency of the data to be calculated. It also organized the data in the form of figures to be presented in the findings and discussion chapters.

3.6 Procedures of Data Analysis

Through Discourse Analysis, the researcher analysed the language used by the lecturers during their TT. Discourse Analysis was applied by examining the lecturer's language use within its context during the observations. The questions they asked were identified and classified into procedural, convergent and divergent questions. Regarding the quantitative data, Excel was used to store the data that were collected from the observations. After storing the types of questions, the frequency of each question for each lecturer was calculated through Excel. Finally, Excel was used to create figures to present the data.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

Chapter Four

Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the data collected from the observations, recordings and questionnaire gathered from the six participants of both male and female lecturers and their students. Therefore, this chapter is divided into two parts. The first part included all the data and observational notes gathered from the observations and the recordings for each participant. The second part included presenting the results from the distributed questionnaire. The data gathered for each participant is displayed in the form of a table to facilitate an easy read and reference. Since the gathered data is quantitative in nature, the tables contained the classification of each type of question based on Richards and Lockhart's (1994) framework, the frequency with which these questions were posed by the participants and the number and percentage of responses for each type of question.

4.2 Observations

This section contains all the relevant information gathered from each participant during the observation process. The types of questions posed by the six participants are categorized based on Richards and Lockhart's (1994) framework, that includes procedural, convergent, and divergent questions.

4.2.1 Observation of Male Participants

4.2.1.1 Observation of Participant 1

The first EFL male lecturer, referred to as participant 1 (P1), was observed for two hours. During the observation process, it was noted that P1 posed three types of questions that included procedural, convergent and divergent questions. The observation and recording showed a fair number of questions posed during his lesson. The information is elaborated on in Table 1.

Table 1

Questions Asked by P1.

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage	Responses	Percentage of responses
Procedural	49	26.8%	55	17.9%
Convergent	80	43.7%	111	36%
Divergent	54	29.5%	142	46.1%
Total	183	100%	308	100%

As indicated in table 1, P1 asked a total of 183 questions during a two-hour lecture. Within this, P1 asked 49 questions which were categorized as procedural questions, constituting 26.8% of the total. These questions were centered on routine and procedural aspects that are necessary for the progression of the lesson, such as “Are you done?”, “Finished?” and “Any questions?”. In contrast, P1 posed 80 questions which were classified as convergent questions, representing approximately 43.7% of the total. These questions were based on prior knowledge and concepts previously taught in

class, exemplified by questions like “When you take in air, what do we call it?” and “What is the verb in the sentence?”. The final category of questions posed during the lesson comprised of divergent questions, with P1 presenting this type of question 54 times, accounting for approximately 29.5% of the overall questions asked during the two-hour lecture. Divergent questions aimed to stimulate higher order thinking skills, including questions that were not limited to a single answer or based on prior knowledge, such as “What are three things I will need to survive?” and “What do you think is the best way to study a language?”.

In regard to students’ engagement with these questions, the 183 questions asked during the lesson generated 308 responses from students. Furthermore, it was observed that the majority of student responses were directed towards divergent questions, with a total of 142 responses, constituting 46.1% of the overall responses elicited by P1. In contrast, the 80 convergent questions generated 111 responses from the students, representing 36% of the total responses. The final category, comprising 49 procedural questions, prompted 55 responses from the students, accounting for 17.9% of the overall responses in the classroom. Throughout the observation, it became evident that students were generally unresponsive unless prompted or provoked. Their engagement in the lesson was primarily triggered by P1 asking questions. Generally, throughout the lesson, the students remained passive, as they sat in the classroom without actively participating or engaging. Furthermore, it was observed that on some occasions, P1 posed questions for humorous effect. For instance, after a student provided an answer, P1 followed up with a question such as “In your own home or someone else’s?” to lighten the mood of the classroom. Furthermore, despite posing a fair amount of convergent and

divergent questions, P1 received no responses in many cases. For example, out of 80 convergent questions, 15 of them received no answer or student engagement. Similarly, out of 54 divergent questions, 11 received no responses. It was observed that P1 most frequently asked convergent questions during the lecture. However, it was also observed that divergent questions were the questions that received the most responses with 46.1% of the overall number of responses. It was concluded that P1's lecture exhibited a high level of TT, accompanied by a sense of humor. P1 also utilized repetition as a technique as he often repeated utterances and students' responses by restructuring sentences to the students to make the sentences more understandable.

4.2.1.2 Observation of Participant 2

The second EFL male lecturer, referred to as participant 2 (P2), was observed for two hours. From the gathered data from the observation and recording, it was shown that P2 posed many questions following all three types proposed by Richards and Lockhart (1994) which included, procedural, convergent and divergent questions. This is clarified more in table 2 below.

Table 2

Questions Asked by P2

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage	Responses	Percentage of responses
Procedural	17	15.7%	16	16.8%
Convergent	35	32.4%	42	44.2%
Divergent	56	51.9%	37	39%
Total	108	100%	95	100%

As illustrated in table 2 above, P2 asked a total number of 108 questions during his two-hour lecture. The recording revealed that P2 posed 17 procedural questions, constituting 15.7% of the overall number of questions asked during the lecture. This type of question included examples such as “Are you okay?” and “clear?”. The result indicates that P2 did not address many procedural questions during the lecture. Furthermore, P2 addressed 35 questions that are convergent in nature, which represented 32.4% of the total number of questions asked during the lesson. These questions were based on students’ prior knowledge and learning of the taught material. These questions included examples such as “Do you remember how many stages we have for the history?” and “From the definition, who can remind me of the fourth feature?”. Conversely, P2 posed divergent questions approximately 56 times, accounting for 51.9% of the total questions asked during the lesson. These divergent questions included examples such as “What is the moral lesson?” and “What was the purpose of fairytales?”. These questions were open-ended in nature and targeted different responses from the students.

In terms of students’ engagement during the lecture, it was observed that out of 108 questions asked during the lesson, the students responded 95 times during the two-hour lecture. To elaborate, the 17 procedural questions asked during the lesson received 16 responses from the students, representing 16.8% of the overall number of responses. In addition, the 35 convergent questions received 42 responses, reaching 44.2% of the overall number of responses during the two-hour lecture. The divergent questions, comprising 56 questions, prompted 37 responses, accounting for 39% of the overall number of responses in the classroom. However, during the observation, it was

observed that a significant number of questions did not receive responses. For instance, out of 17 procedural questions, seven received no responses. Similarly, 18 out of the 35 convergent questions did not receive any answers or responses. Furthermore, 39 out of the 56 divergent questions did not receive any answers or responses from the students. It became evident from the observation that P2 used questioning as a teaching technique rather than to elicit answers. P2's communication style consisted of asking questions that were not intended to be answered. This was revealed in the way he asked these questions during the lecture, where he did not pause and instead continued explaining, without giving the students the opportunity to answer the questions. These questions were answered by the lecturer himself as a method of explaining the lesson. Many questions posed during the lecture were used to present information rather than to receive responses. This justifies the high number of unanswered questions and the low amount of students' engagement during the lesson. It was found from the observation that P2 most frequently asked divergent questions during the lesson. Although divergent questions were asked more frequently than convergent questions, the latter generated more responses, reaching 42 responses (44.2%), out of the total number of responses. During the observation, P2's lecture was characterized by a high amount of TT, as he spent the majority of the lecture explaining concepts and posing questions. It was also observed that P2 maintained a serious and direct tone throughout his TT accompanied by direct and straightforward language use. Also, P2 often repeated his own utterances and questions and even students' answers throughout the class by paraphrasing or restructuring sentences as a way of clarifying information to the students.

4.2.1.3 Observation of Participant 3

The third observation involved the examination of an EFL male lecturer, referred to as Participant 3 (P3), during a two-hour lecture. P3 posed all three types of questions outlined by Richards and Lockhart (1994), consisting of procedural, convergent and divergent questions. Further details can be found in table 3 below.

Table 3

Questions Asked by P3

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage	Responses	Percentage of responses
Procedural	40	28.8%	31	11.9%
Convergent	36	25.9%	68	26%
Divergent	63	45.3%	162	62.1%
Total	139	100%	261	100%

As illustrated in Table 3 above, P3 asked many questions during the two-hour lecture, adding up to 139 questions. During the observation and recording, it was revealed that out of 139 questions asked, 40 were procedural questions, constituting 28.8% of the overall questions asked during the class. These procedural questions included examples such as “What is going to happen today?”, “who’s next?” and “Abdulla, can you choose someone?”. Similar to the other two participants, P3 posed convergent questions around 36 times during the class, accounting for 25.9% of the overall number of questions asked. For instance, these questions included questions that targeted students’ prior knowledge such as “Do you remember we had a practice debate?”,

“What did it include?” and “What should I put here?”. In addition to the procedural and convergent questions, P3 asked divergent questions as well, though he did so more frequently than the first two types. It was observed that P3 posed 63 divergent questions, with 45.3% of the overall questions asked during the lecture. These questions targeted open and diverse answers from the students, where P3 asked questions such as “How many of you take risks?”, “How long does it take for us to trust someone?” and “What is the logical step from here?”. Out of the three types of questions, it was noted that P3 posed more divergent questions during the lecture.

In regard to students’ engagement to these questions, the observation revealed that out of 139 questions asked during the lecture, 261 answers were elicited from the students. Of these responses, the 40 procedural questions received only 31 responses from the students, accounting for 11.9% of the overall number of responses. However, the 36 convergent questions posed by P3 elicited 68 responses, with 26% of the overall number of responses. Furthermore, the 63 divergent questions addressed by P3 during the lecture received 162 responses from the students, constituting 62.1% of the overall number of students’ responses. It was observed that P3 posed these questions mainly to engage the students and allow them to actively participate in the class. Moreover, P3 demonstrated reduced Teacher Talk Time (TTT) and increased chances for student participation in the classroom, where the lecture was designed to be a mutual exchange between P3 and the students. P3’s role in the classroom was more facilitative, resulting in a lower level of TT. It was also observed that P3’s TT was accompanied by humor, which contributed to a more easy-going classroom environment. Similar to the other participants,

P3 repeated many of his and students' utterances as a way of clarifying information.

4.2.2 Observation of Female Participants

4.2.2.1 Observation of Participant 4

The fourth participant and first EFL female lecturer observed is referred to as Participant 4 (P4). Like the other observed lecturers, P4 was observed for a duration of two hours. P4 also asked the three types of questions proposed by Richards and Lockhart (1994), which included procedural, convergent, and divergent questions. This is further elaborated in table 4 below.

Table 4

Questions Asked by P4

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage	Responses	Percentage of responses
Procedural	73	32.5%	112	15.8%
Convergent	53	23.6%	211	29.9%
Divergent	98	43.9%	385	54.3%
Total	224	100%	708	100%

As shown in table 4, P4 posed many questions during the two-hour lecture, consisting of 224 questions. The recording revealed that P4 posed 73 procedural questions, constituting 32.5% of the overall number of questions asked during the teaching process. The procedural questions consisted of examples such as “Got it?”, “clear” and “Okay?”. P4 used procedural questions as a way to check on students' understanding and get students'

confirmation before proceeding forward with the lesson. Accordingly, this served as an important function that was used by P4 as a teaching technique to engage the students and check on their understanding. Furthermore, it was revealed that convergent questions were addressed 53 times out of 224 questions, with 23.6% of the overall number of questions asked during the lecture. For instance, P4 asked questions such as “What is this chapter about?” and “Do you remember when I spoke about the culture?”. These questions aimed to assess students’ prior knowledge of the lessons that were previously covered. Unlike procedural and convergent questions, divergent questions were asked 98 times out of 224 questions during the lecture, representing 43.9% of the overall number of questions asked during the lecture. For instance, P4 asked questions such as “Can knowledge be your only capital, ownership and money?”, “How can you evaluate if a text is creative?” and “When can you label a text to be political?”. These questions stimulated critical thinking and elicited diverse responses from the students, without targeting one single answer.

In regard to students’ engagement to these questions, during the two-hour lecture, P4 addressed a total of 224 questions to the students, which elicited a total of 708 responses from the students. For instance, it was revealed that the 73 procedural questions asked by P4 received 112 responses, accounting for only 15.8% of the overall responses. In addition, it was also noted that the 53 convergent questions generated 211 responses, representing 29.9% of the total. Finally, the 98 divergent questions posed by P4 received 385 responses, representing 54.3% of the overall number of responses. Although P4 received a high number of responses during the two-hour lecture, the observation revealed that there were several questions posed by the lecturer that received

no answers. For instance, out of 73 procedural questions, 13 questions were left unanswered with no responses. Similarly, seven out of 53 convergent questions were unanswered. Furthermore, the observation revealed that the 98 divergent questions received a higher rate of unanswered questions, reaching 44 questions. However, this was justified during the observation. During the observation process, it was noted that the reason for the unanswered questions was due to the lecturer's style when asking these particular questions. To elaborate, P4 would ask the questions without pausing afterwards to give the students the opportunity to answer, instead, P4 used some of these questions as a way to explain and introduce new information that answered the addressed question. In other words, some of these questions were used as a teaching method, where the lecturer wanted to propose the questions before explaining and providing informative knowledge related to the questions. Therefore, the questions were used as a teaching method rather than to elicit responses from the students. According to P4's observation, it was noted that the most frequently asked questions during the lecture were divergent questions, representing 98 questions, which is 43.9% of the total number of questions asked. These divergent questions also generated the highest number of responses from the students, with 389 responses, accounting for 54.3% of the total responses. P4's lecture was characterized by a high amount of TT, but with a less serious and more casual tone, often incorporating humor into interactions with the students. P4 also employed the repetition of her and students' utterances as a way to reinforce key points.

4.2.2.2 Observation of Participant 5

The fifth observation included observing another EFL female lecturer referred to as Participant 5 (P5). P5 was also observed for two hours. Similar to the

other participants, P5 posed the three questions introduced by Richards and Lockhart (1994), which involved procedural, convergent and divergent questions. This is further discussed in table 5 below.

Table 5

Questions Asked by P5

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage	Responses	Percentage of responses
Procedural	46	37.3%	47	19%
Convergent	34	27.7%	74	30%
Divergent	43	35%	126	51%
Total	123	100%	247	100%

As presented in Table 5 above, P5 posed a mixture of questions during the two-hour observation, involving a total of 123 questions. The recording revealed that P5 asked 46 procedural questions, constituting 37.3% of the overall questions asked during the lecture. These questions included examples such as “You finished right?”, “Finished? Any questions?” and “Any questions about that?”. These questions were posed during the lecture for procedural reasons only. Furthermore, the recording also revealed that P5 posed 34 convergent questions, with 27.7% of the overall questions asked during the teaching process. These convergent questions included examples such as “Who can remind me of a cause-and-effect essay?”, “What are the other types we discussed?” and “What does it take to make a complete sentence?”. These questions targeted students’ prior knowledge of the material. Close to the number of procedural questions, divergent questions were asked 43 times during the lecture, constituting 35% of the overall

number of questions asked in the class. These divergent questions included examples such as “What are the effects of the following: AI, social media, stress, war and Covid?”, “Why do we think we need to add two sentences together?” and “What else can we do?”. These questions received different responses from the students and had more than one possible answer.

In terms of students’ engagement, P5 directed 123 questions to the students during the two-hour lecture, which evoked 247 responses from the students. To illustrate, it was revealed that the 46 procedural questions posed by P5 elicited 47 responses, with 19% of the overall responses received during the class. Furthermore, it was noted that the 34 convergent questions obtained 74 responses from the students, accounting for 30% of the overall responses. Finally, the 43 divergent questions generated 126 responses in the class, accounting for 51% of the overall number of responses received. It was noted during the observation process that unlike the other participants, P5 received responses to the majority of the questions posed during the lecture, with only 12 instances where no answer was provided. Additionally, from the observation, it became clear that all the questions posed during the lecture were directed at the students rather than being used as a teaching method. In addition, it was observed that P5 posed eight tag questions during the two-hour lecture. Furthermore, one notable feature during P5’s observation was that P5 had limited teacher talk time during the lecture, whereby student talk time (STT) was actively high during the class. For instance, students initiated many questions and actively engaged with P5, without being prompted or asked. It was also noted that P5’s communication style featured a less serious and more casual tone. Finally, in addition to repetition, P5 also employed hedging devices such as *I believe* as part of her TT.

4.2.2.3 Observation of Participant 6

The final observation conducted included observing an EFL female lecturer referred to as Participant 6 (P6). P6 was observed for a two-hour duration, similar to the other observed participants. During the observation, P6 posed procedural, convergent and divergent types of questions as proposed by Richards and Lockhart (1994). More details can be found in Table 6 below.

Table 6

Questions Asked by P6

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage	Responses	Percentage of responses
Procedural	34	23.8%	38	14%
Convergent	48	33.5%	79	29.3%
Divergent	61	42.7%	153	56.7%
Total	143	100%	270	100%

As illustrated in Table 6 above, P6 posed many questions during the lecture, reaching a total of 143 questions. The recording revealed that P6 asked 34 procedural questions, with 23.8% of the overall number of questions asked during the lecture. These questions included examples such as “Did you open up the book?”, “Did you get the answer?” and “Are you sure about these answers?”, which were posed for procedural reasons only. In addition, P6 posed 48 convergent questions, constituting 33.5% of the overall number of questions asked during the class. For example, P6 asked convergent questions such as “Again, did they mention wearing a suit?”, “Did they say about what women have to wear?” and “Can you drive past a red light?”, which targeted

prior information from the students. Unlike procedural and convergent questions, P6 posed 61 divergent questions, representing 42.7% of the overall questions asked during the lecture. These divergent questions included examples such as “What is your dream job?”, “If you are an employee, what is something you wish to be able to do?”, and “How did your life change after university?”. These questions were answered differently by the students.

In regard to students’ engagement to these questions, P6 addressed 143 questions during the two- hour lecture, which elicited 270 responses from the students. To explain further, through 34 procedural questions asked during the class, it was revealed that P6 received 38 responses from the students, reaching only 14% of the overall number of students’ responses. Furthermore, the 48 convergent questions asked by P6 obtained 79 responses from the students, with 29.3% of the overall responses received during the class. Unlike procedural and convergent questions, P6 received a high number of responses for the 61 divergent questions posed during the lecture, reaching 153 responses, which accounted for 56.7% of the overall number of responses received during the lecture. It was observed that many of the questions asked by P6 during the lecture were from the book itself and not her own questions. Moreover, P6 often paused after asking questions to give students enough time to participate and share their answers with the class. One notable feature in P6’s observation was that she tended to rephrase the question when students took time to respond. Also, P6 tended to pose many questions in the form of question tags, where the utterances were in the form of declarative sentences but were used to ask a question and served the function of a question. There were seven instances of question tags during the two-hour lecture that included examples such as “It is a good point, right?”, “We can say that,

right?” and “Both of you said you wanted to become teachers, right?”. Similar to the other participants, P6’s lecture was characterized by a high amount of TT, accompanied by less serious and more casual approach and tone. Repetition of utterances and student responses were also observed during her TT. Finally, one notable feature of P6’s communication style was employing hedging devices such as *I think*.

4.3 Questionnaire

The second part of the findings section consists of the findings of the questionnaire. A total of 185 responses were collected from the questionnaire that was distributed to the students who were taught by the six male and female EFL participants observed in this study.

4.3.1 Students’ Engagement

The first section in the questionnaire aimed to explore and understand students’ preferences regarding the gender of their EFL lecturers and its impact on their classroom engagement. The students were asked to answer the following the question *Do you think you engage more in a class with a EFL male lecturer or a EFL female lecturer?*.

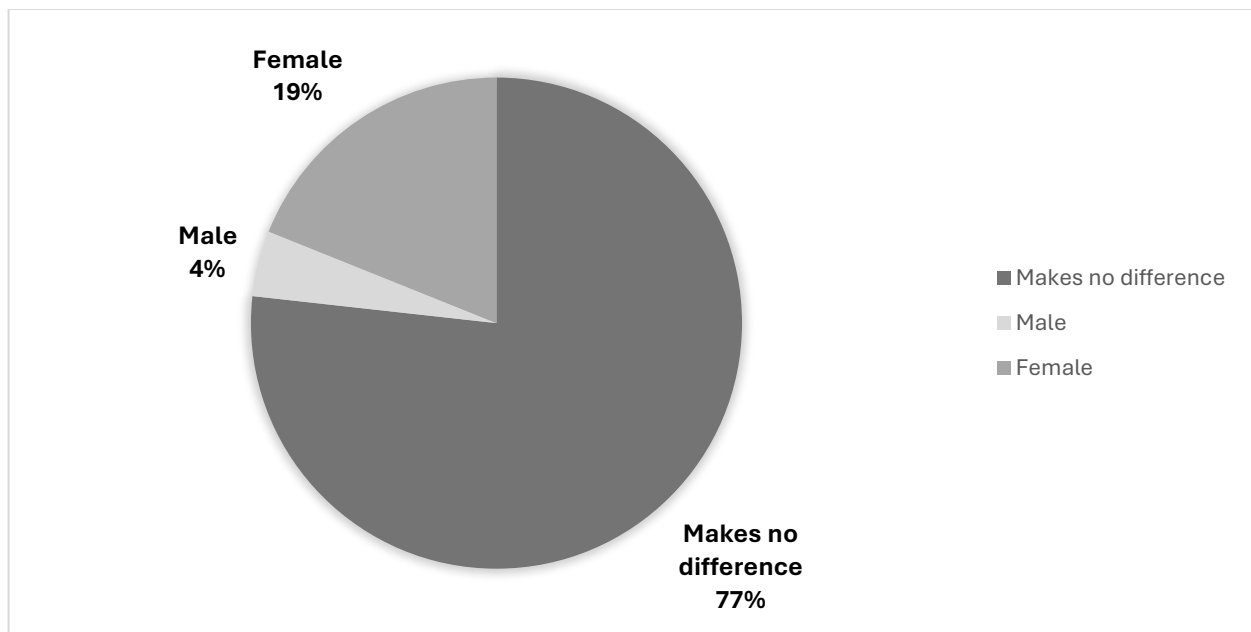


Figure 1
Students' Engagement in Classrooms

As shown in Figure 1, out of 185 responses collected from the students, 142 (77%) indicated that the gender of the lecturer made no difference to their engagement in the classroom. In contrast, 35 (19%) students reported that they engage more with female lecturers, while only 8 (4%) responses favored male lecturers.

4.3.2 Gender and Questioning

The second section in the questionnaire aimed to gain insight into students' preferences for EFL lecturers' questioning based on the lecturer's gender. The students were asked to answer the following question *Do you prefer to be asked questions by EFL male or female lecturers?* Upon selecting male or female lecturers, students were given another optional question to select their reasons for favoring either male or female lecturers.

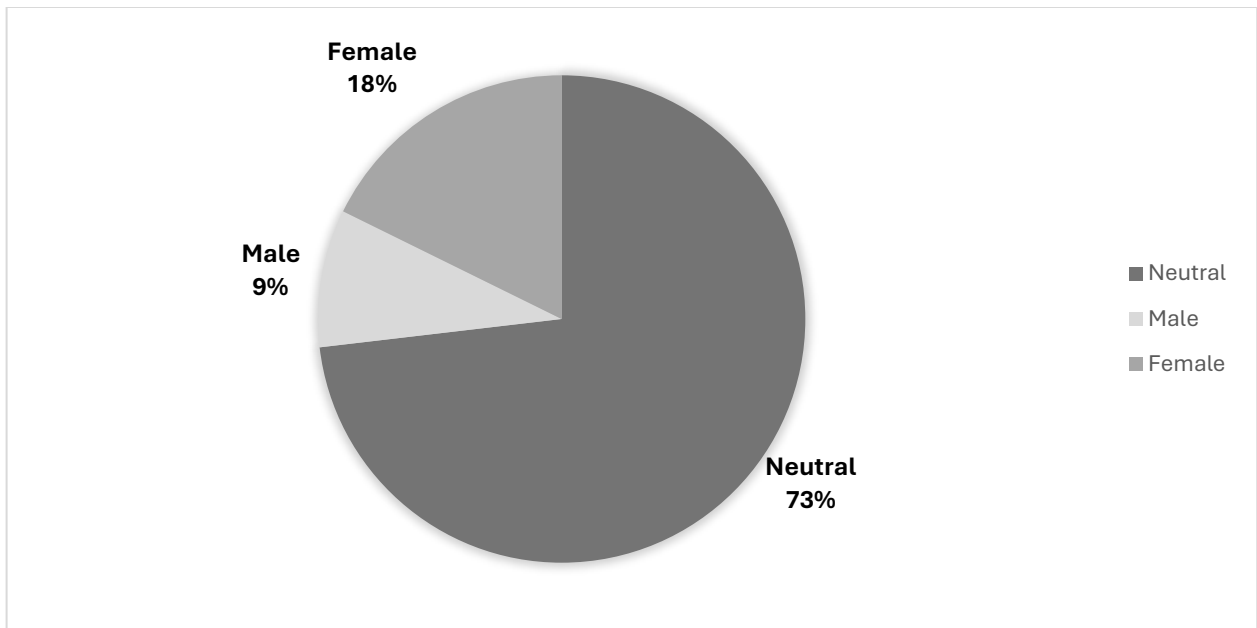


Figure 2

Student's preferences to Gendered Questioning

As illustrated in Figure 2, from the 185 responses gathered, the majority, comprising 73% of the total, provided neutral feedback, indicating that they were indifferent to being asked questions by either female or male lecturers in the EFL classroom. However, 18% of the responses favored being asked by female lecturers, while only 9% of overall responses favored being asked questions by male lecturers.

Students who chose female lecturers were then prompted to answer a follow-up question, which asked them the following *If you selected EFL female lecturers in the previous question, which of the following options explains your reasoning*. Students were presented with 10 different reasons to select from, with the option of choosing more than one reason.

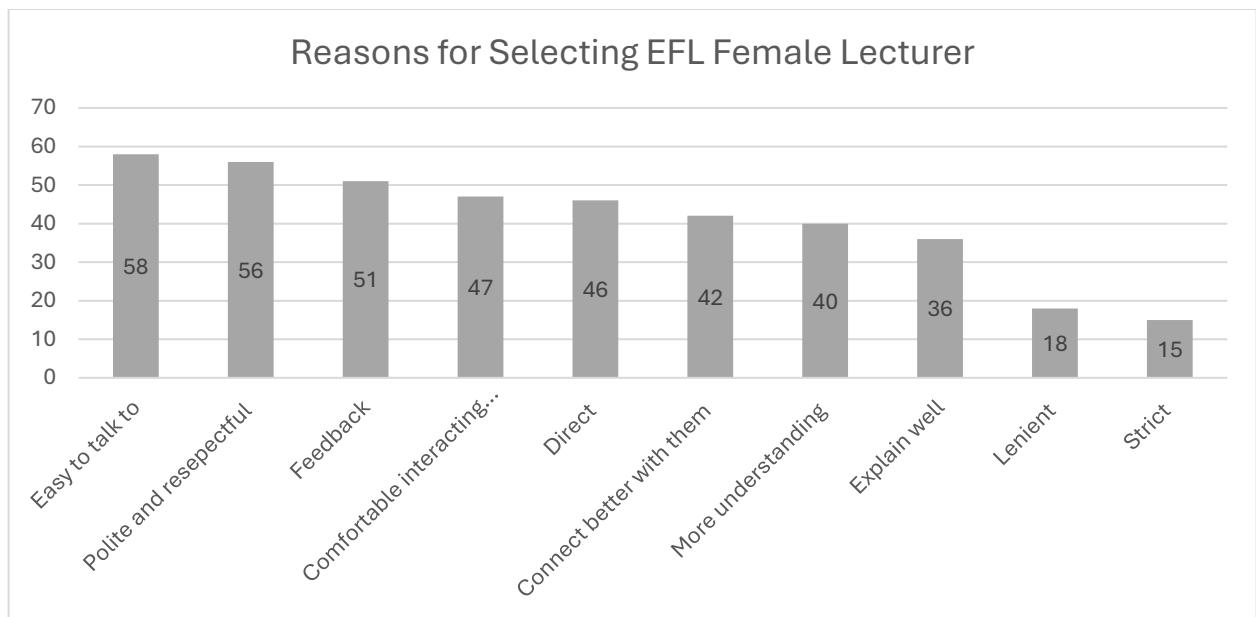


Figure 3

Reasons for Selecting Female Lecturer

As depicted in Figure 3, the majority of responses favoring EFL female lecturers cited that the reason for preferring them is due to their ease of approachability and communication, which had 58 student responses, making it the highest among all reasons offered. The second most common reason was that female lecturers are polite and respectful, which gathered 56 responses from the students. Furthermore, 51 students expressed a preference for being asked by female lecturers due to their willingness to provide feedback, support and help. In contrast, the least cited reasons for selecting EFL female lecturers were due to the lecturers being lenient and less authoritative and strict and authoritative as the former received 18 responses while the latter received 15 responses only.

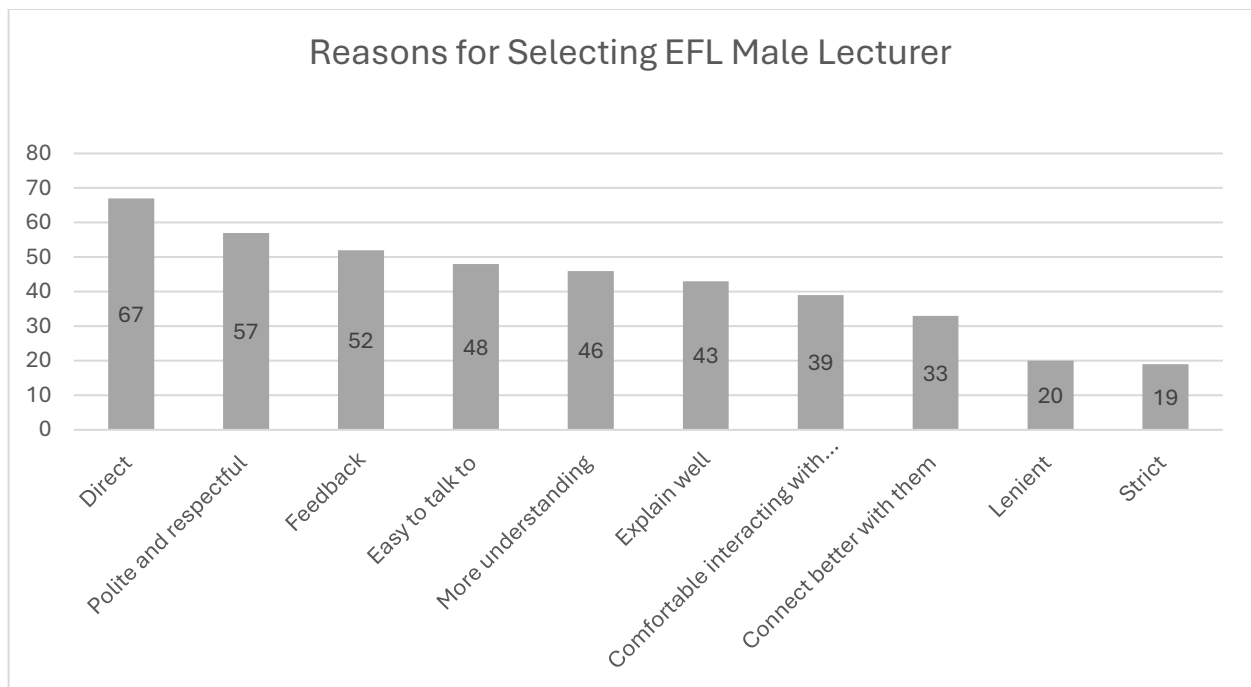


Figure 4

Reasons for Selecting Male Lecturer

According to Figure 4, a significant number of students cited the direct and straightforward nature of male lecturers as the primary reason for choosing to be asked by them, accounting for 67 responses. Similar to the second highest reason selected for choosing female lecturers, the second most common reason for selecting male lecturers was their politeness and respectfulness, which gathered 57 responses from the students. Additionally, students also mentioned receiving feedback, support and assistance as the third highest reason for choosing to be questioned by male lecturers, constituting 51 responses from the students. On the other hand, the reasons least mentioned for selecting male lecturers were due to the lecturer's leniency and less authoritative nature, which received 20 responses, and their strict and authoritative nature, which gained 19 responses from the students.

4.3.3 Types of Questions

The third section in the questionnaire aimed to understand students' preferences toward the type of questions they prefer to be asked during the lecture. Students were asked to answer the following question *Are you more likely to answer open-ended questions or close-ended questions?*. Upon selecting the type of question they prefer to answer, students were given another follow-up question to select their reasons for favoring the type they chose between open-ended questions and close-ended questions. For this particular question, open-ended questions refer to divergent questions, targeting more than one possible answer, while close-ended questions refer to convergent questions, targeting one correct answer.

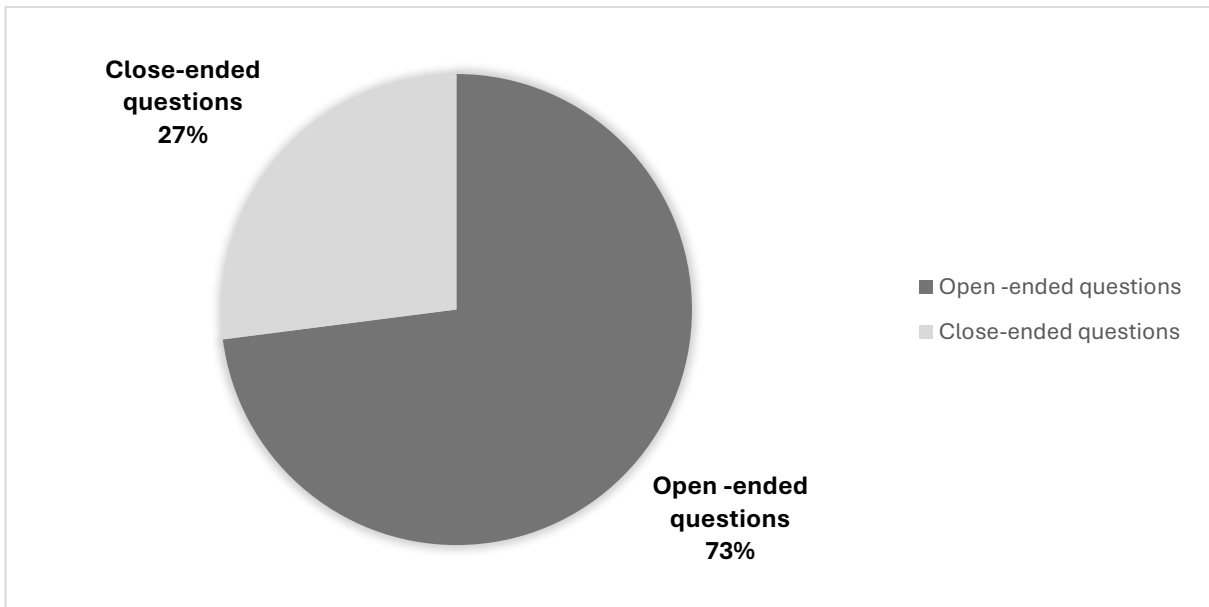


Figure 5

Types of Questions Selected by Students

As depicted in Figure 5 above, out of the 185 students who participated in the questionnaire, the majority, accounting for 73% (135 responses) of the overall number of responses, indicated that they are more likely to answer open-ended questions posed by lecturers, while only 27% (50 responses) expressed a preference towards responding to close-ended questions in the classroom. Subsequently, this section was followed-up with a question that aimed to explain students' reasons for selecting open-ended questions and close-ended questions. Students were given seven reasons to select from with the option of selecting more than one answer.

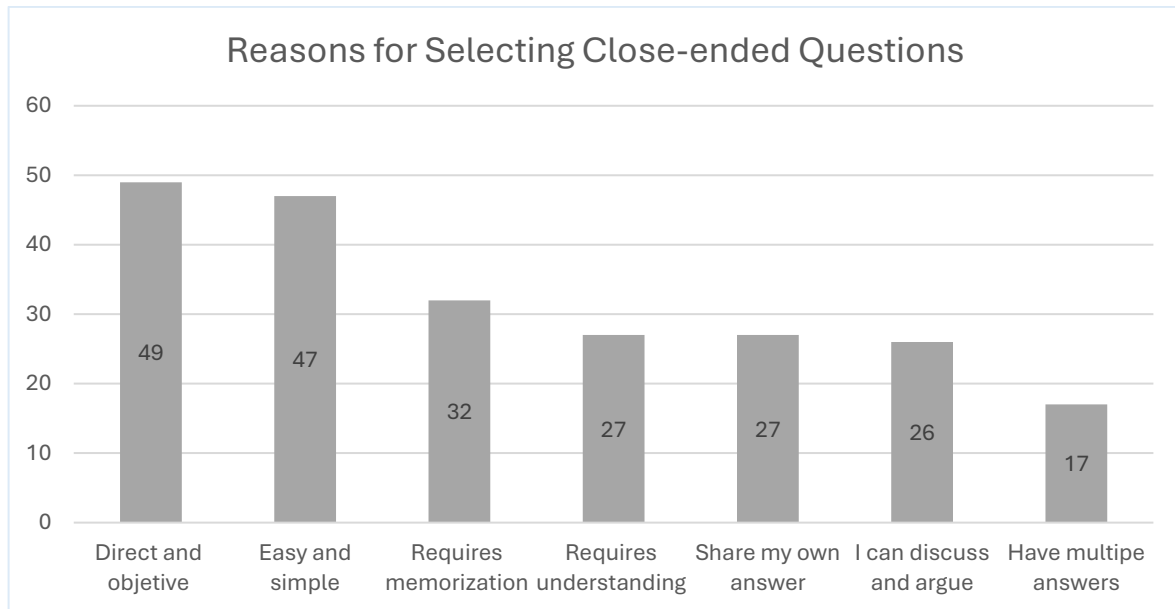


Figure 6

Reasons for Selecting Close-ended Questions

As displayed in Figure 6, when asked a follow-up question in the questionnaire, students provided various reasons for favoring close-ended questions during classes. The primary reason that was chosen by the majority

was the direct and objective nature of the questions, receiving 49 responses. Subsequently, the second most common reason for preferring close-ended questions was their ease and simplicity, with 47 responses. Moreover, the third highest reason selected by students for preferring close-ended questions is that these questions rely on prior knowledge that was taught earlier, including memorization, which accounted for 32 responses from the students. On the other hand, the least mentioned reason was the presence of multiple answers for close-ended questions, gathering only 17 responses from the students.

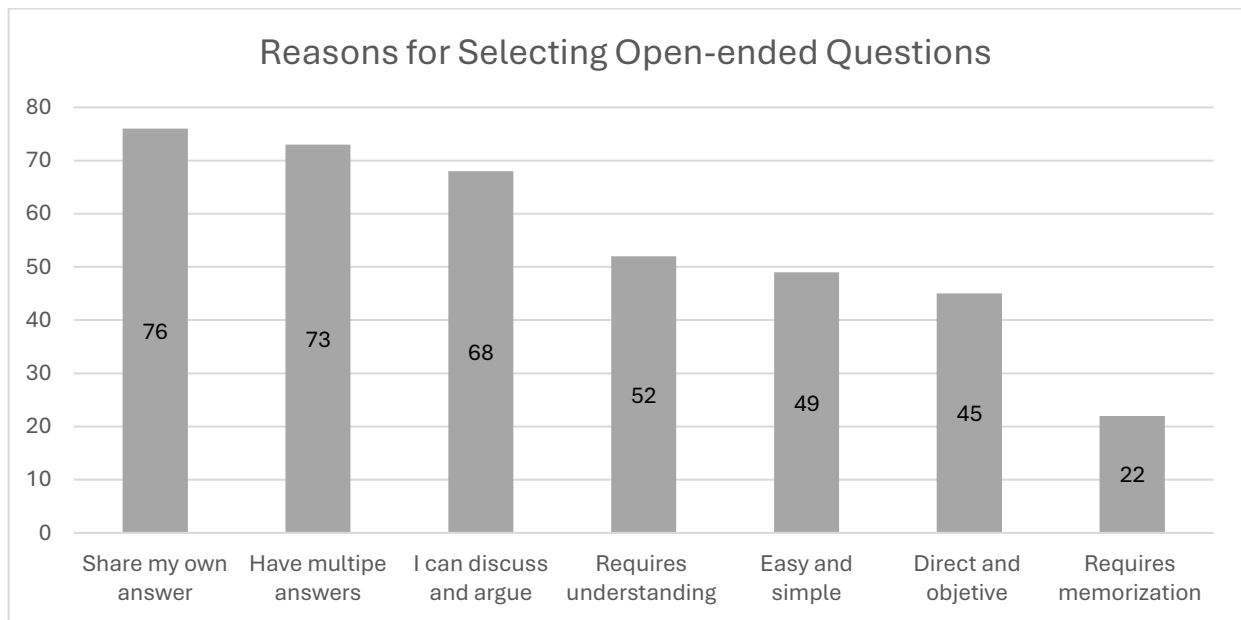


Figure 7

Reasons for Selecting Open-ended Questions

As depicted in Figure 7, upon asking the students about their reasons for being more likely to answer open-ended questions, the most selected reason among the majority of students was the opportunity to share their unique answers and perspectives, receiving 76 responses from the students. Additionally, the

second most common reason was the possibility of having multiple possible answers and the subjective nature of these questions, accounting for 73 responses from the students. Furthermore, the third highest reason cited by the students was the ability to discuss, argue and debate these questions, gathering 68 responses from the students. In contrast, the least selected reason among the majority was the requirement for memorization, with only 22 responses from the students.

4.3.4 Type of Questions in Relation to Gender

The final section in the questionnaire aimed to tackle students' preferences and attitude toward each type of question, whether close-ended questions or open-ended as asked by both male and female EFL lecturers. Students were asked to answer two questions. The first question included the following *Are you more willing to answer close-ended questions asked by EFL male or female lecturers?*, which aimed to get insights into students' preferences toward close-ended questions in relation to the gender of the lecturer addressing these questions. Similarly, the second question included answering the following *Are you more willing to answer open-ended questions asked by EFL male or female lecturers?*, with the target of understanding students' preferences toward open-ended questions in relation to the gender of the lecturer posing these questions. Students were given three options to choose from, which included neutral, male and female lecturers.

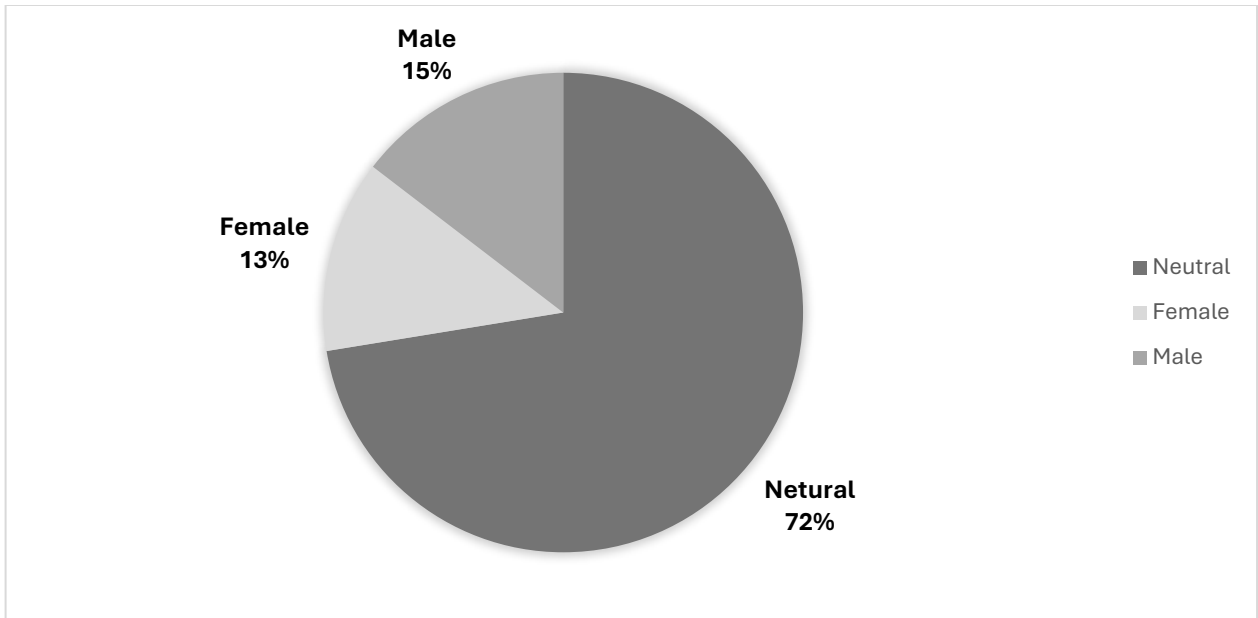


Figure 8

Close-ended Questions in Relation to Lecturer's Gender

As depicted in Figure 8, upon asking 185 students about their preference for being asked close-ended questions by male or female lecturers, the results revealed that the majority of students, constituting 72% (134 responses) of the total, indicated a neutral preference towards the gender of the lecturer asking close-ended questions. This neutral response was the most common among the students. Additionally, 15% (27 responses) of the students expressed a preference for being asked close-ended questions by male lecturers, while 13% (24 responses) of the total indicated a preference for being asked close-ended questions by female lecturers.

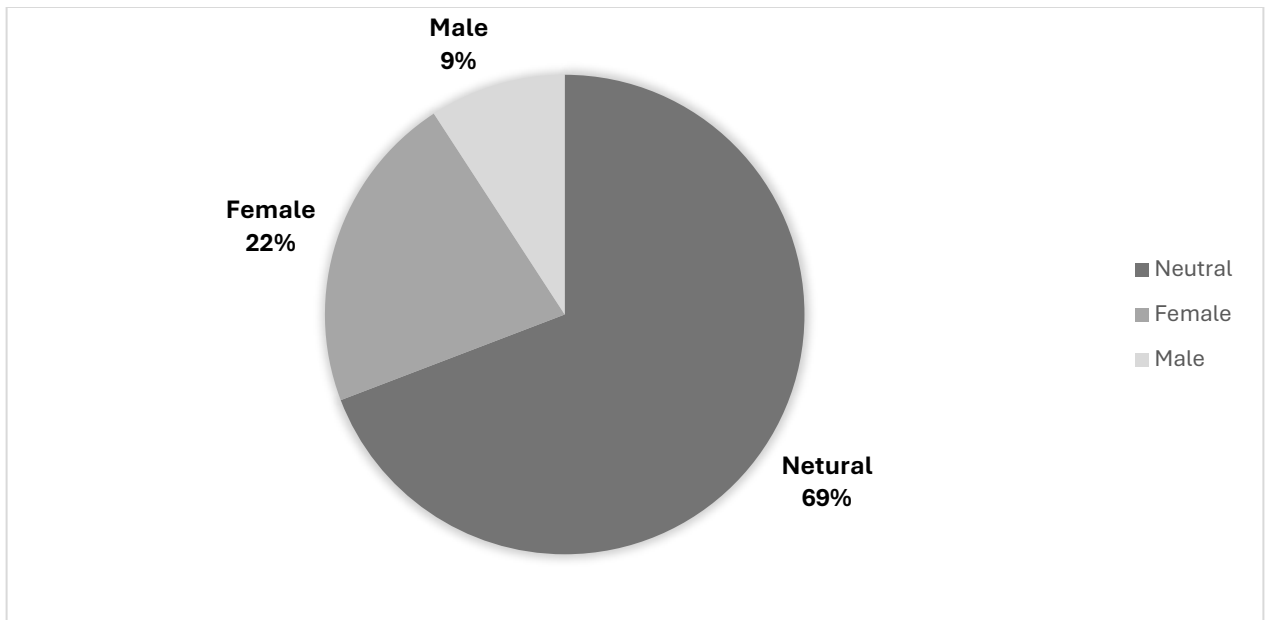


Figure 9

Open-ended Questions in Relation to Lecturer's Gender

As shown in Figure 9, upon asking 185 students about their preference for being asked open-ended questions by male or female lecturers, the results revealed that a large number of students, accounting for 69% (128 responses) of the total, indicated a neutral preference towards the gender of the lecturer asking open-ended questions. This neutral response was the most common among the students. On the other hand, 22% (44 responses) of the students expressed a preference for being asked open-ended questions by female lecturers, while only 9% (17 responses) of the total indicated a preference for being asked open-ended questions by male lecturers.

4.4 Summary

This chapter reported the data collected from the observations, recordings and the questionnaire collected from the two sets of participants that consisted of

the six female and male lecturers as well as their students. These data were reported in a quantitative form that included tables and figures. The findings section was divided into two parts. One section was dedicated for the first set of participants, that being the six lecturers, while the second section was dedicated for the second set of participants, that being their EFL students. The first part reported the types and frequency of questions asked by each participant in addition to the number of responses each question received in the form of tables. The observations revealed that all six participants posed procedural, convergent and divergent questions, all of which elicited different number of responses from the students. The second part reported the data gathered from the questionnaire in the form of figures, displaying the findings gathered from the second set of participants. This included students' responses towards the types of questions they prefer to be asked and their reasons for selecting these questions.

CHAPTER FIVE

Analysis and Discussion

Chapter Five

Analysis and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

Based on the data gathered from the observations and questionnaire, this chapter provides analysis of the data to address the three research questions that were posed in section 1.4. Therefore, this chapter addresses the research questions and relates them to the previous studies that were discussed in chapter 2.

5.2 Types of Questions Asked by EFL Lecturers

The results of the observations pointed to the importance of TT in the teaching and learning processes. During the observations, it was noted that TT influenced various major aspects. Importantly, TT significantly impacted students' understanding of the lesson and their participation and involvement in the classroom (See section 5.5). This aligns with Walsh (2002), where the author emphasized on the significance of TT used by lecturers on students. In terms of questioning, Winanta et al. (2020) discovered that 15.7% of the total lecture time was dedicated to asking questions, while only 10.8% was allocated to providing information. This observation highlights the significance of questioning in TT and the learning process. Furthermore, it was observed in the current study that TT had certain characteristics that encompass different features such as repetition, informative statements and questioning. These characteristics are in line with the patterns identified in TT

by Sharpe (2008), Ghajarieh and Mirzabeigi (2023) and Ali (2023), indicating shared characteristics in the nature of TT across different studies. Furthermore, the current study identified questioning as a prominent characteristic of TT among the six participants, aligning with the findings of Sharpe (2008), which highlighted questioning as a prevalent strategy employed by lecturers during TT. Similarly, other studies by Ghajarieh and Mirzabeigi (2023), Winanta et.al (2020), and Ali (2023) also proposed that lecturers commonly use questioning within TT.

In addressing the first research question posed in this study, which aimed to identify the types of the questions posed by male and female EFL lecturers in Bahrain, the findings of the observations revealed that the six male and female lecturers observed in this study posed three primary types of questions during their TT within the EFL classroom context. These questions were categorized according to the framework proposed by Richards and Lockhart (1994) that consisted of procedural, convergent and divergent questions. The first category comprised of procedural questions, which included questions that were used for procedural processes within the classroom, such as checking students' understanding and other questions not directly related to the lesson being taught. The second classification encompassed convergent questions, which were directly linked to prior knowledge of the material taught. This category included revision questions which referred to things that students were previously taught in the classroom. These questions targeted one possible answer. In other words, convergent questions were closed-ended questions that drew upon previous knowledge. The third and final categorization involved divergent questions, which comprised open-ended questions that aimed to elicit critical thinking and diverse answers from the

students. These questions had multiple possible answers and were not tied to any prior knowledge. Accordingly, both male and female EFL lecturers demonstrated the utilization of all three question types as part of their TT questioning throughout the two-hour observation period.

The types of questions identified in this study align with several other studies mentioned in chapter 2. For example, in the studies by Rezaee and Farahian (2012) and Dos et al. (2016), questions during TT were categorized as procedural, convergent, and divergent, following the classification by Richards and Lockhart (1994). Similar to the findings of this study, these studies found that teachers posed these types of questions during their TT. Furthermore, studies by Ghajarieh and Mirzabeigi (2023), Long and Sato (1983), Wang and Wang (2013), Al-Zahrani and Al-Bargi (2017) and Troyer (2022) also identified the types of questions posed by teachers during TT in the classroom context. These questions were classified as display questions and referential questions. Display questions, similar to convergent questions, target a single possible answer and rely on prior knowledge, resulting in close-ended answers. In contrast, referential questions, similar to divergent questions, allow for multiple answers and rely more on critical thinking, leading to longer, open-ended responses. Moreover, Aziza (2018), Khoza and Msimanga (2022), Lee and Kinzie (2012), and Farahian and Rezaee (2012) identified the questions posed by teachers in the classroom and classified them as close-ended questions and open-ended questions. The former refers to convergent questions with short and single possible answers, while the latter refers to divergent questions with longer, open-ended responses. Accordingly, the current study aligns with these studies by discovering similar types of questions.

5.3 The Frequency of Each Type of Question Asked by Male and Female Lecturers

After identifying and categorizing the types of questions asked by the six lecturers during their TT, it was crucial to determine the frequency of each question asked as the second research question of this study aimed to find the variation in the frequency of each type of question asked by EFL male and female lecturers in Bahrain. Teachers' questioning only included convergent and divergent questions. Procedural questions are routine questions such as *is it clear?* Or *Do you understand?*, that are asked by all teachers in general. These types of questions are a regular part of classroom management and they do not test students' knowledge and understanding in relation to the lesson being taught. Due to this nature of procedural questions, they have been excluded from the analysis. The analysis consists only of convergent and divergent questions. The findings revealed a total of 661 questions that were posed by both male and female lecturers, with 286 convergent questions and 375 divergent questions. For the purpose of answering the second research question, the data was divided into two groups: frequency of questions asked by male lecturers and frequency of questions asked by female lecturers. This was done to directly compare the questions asked by each gender.

Table 7

Frequency of Questions asked by Male Lecturers

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage
Convergent	151	46.6%

Divergent	173	53.4%
Total	324	100%

Table 7 illustrated the frequency of questions posed by the male lecturers. As demonstrated in Table 7, during their lessons, the three male EFL lecturers that were observed asked a total of 324 questions, consisting of both convergent and divergent questions. Convergent questions were posed 151 times, accounting for 46.6% of the overall number of questions asked during the lessons. To elaborate more, it was observed that P1 posed 80 convergent questions during his TT questioning. On the other hand, P2 addressed 35 convergent questions, which is similar to P3, who addressed 36 convergent questions during their TT questioning, accounting for a total of 151 convergent questions. In terms of the divergent questions, they were asked 173 times, constituting 53.4% of the overall number of questions asked. P1 addressed 54 divergent questions, while P2 addressed 56 divergent questions, and P3 addressed 63 divergent questions.

Table 8

Frequency of Questions asked by Female Lecturer

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage
Convergent	135	40%
Divergent	202	60%
Total	337	100%

Table 8 illustrated the frequency of questions posed by the female lecturers. As displayed in Table 8, the three female lecturers that were observed addressed a total of 337 questions, comprising both convergent and divergent questions. Female lecturers posed 135 convergent questions during their TT, constituting 40% of the overall number of questions asked during the lessons. To provide more details, P4 posed 53 convergent questions during her TT, while P5 asked 34 convergent questions and P6 asked 48 convergent questions, accounting for a total of 135 questions. In terms of divergent questions, they were addressed 202 times, presenting 60% of the overall number of questions asked by female lecturers. It was calculated that P4 posed a total of 98 divergent questions during the lesson, whereas P5 addressed 43 divergent questions and P6 addressed 61 divergent questions.

After analyzing the data from the six observations, it was revealed that a total of 661 questions were posed by both male and female lecturers. Among these, 286 questions were identified as convergent questions, while 375 were categorized as divergent questions. The frequency found in this study is consistent with the findings of a study by Rezaee and Farahian (2012), which indicated a higher usage of divergent questions compared to convergent questions, with divergent questions accounting for 35% to 54.5% and convergent questions accounting for 31% to 51% of the total questions asked. However, it is noteworthy that these results contradict the findings of several of the previous studies, including another study by the same authors, where Farahian and Rezaee (2012) reported a higher frequency of convergent close-ended questions compared to divergent open-ended questions. Additionally, another study by Ghajarieh and Mirzabeigi (2023) also highlighted that teachers of general English courses and English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

tended to ask convergent questions more frequently than divergent questions in the classroom. Similarly, Troyer (2022) concluded that teachers at both lower and higher levels posed convergent questions more frequently than divergent ones during their lessons. Furthermore, the findings of Khoza and Msimanga (2022) indicated a higher usage of convergent questions over divergent questions among teachers. Moreover, in a study by Xiao-Yan (2006), it was concluded that lecturers demonstrated a higher tendency to ask convergent questions at 92%, with only 8% being divergent questions.

These contrasting findings illustrate the complexity and variability in the frequency of questions posed by educators in pedagogical settings. According to the current literature, one pattern that was consistently found was that teachers tended to ask convergent questions more frequently than divergent questions. This consistency was not found in the findings of Rezaee and Farahian (2012) and this present study, as both studies found that divergent questions were more frequently asked than convergent questions.

5.4 Variation in Types and Frequency between EFL Male and Female Lecturers

After calculating the frequency of questions, it became crucial to examine the extent of variation in the types and frequency of questions asked by EFL male and female lecturers in Bahrain. Therefore, the answer to the second research question consists of two parts: the first part investigates the extent to which the types of questions posed during the lessons vary in relation to gender, while the second part explores the extent to which the frequency of questions asked by male and female lecturers vary.

5.4.1 Variation in Types between EFL Male and Female Lecturers

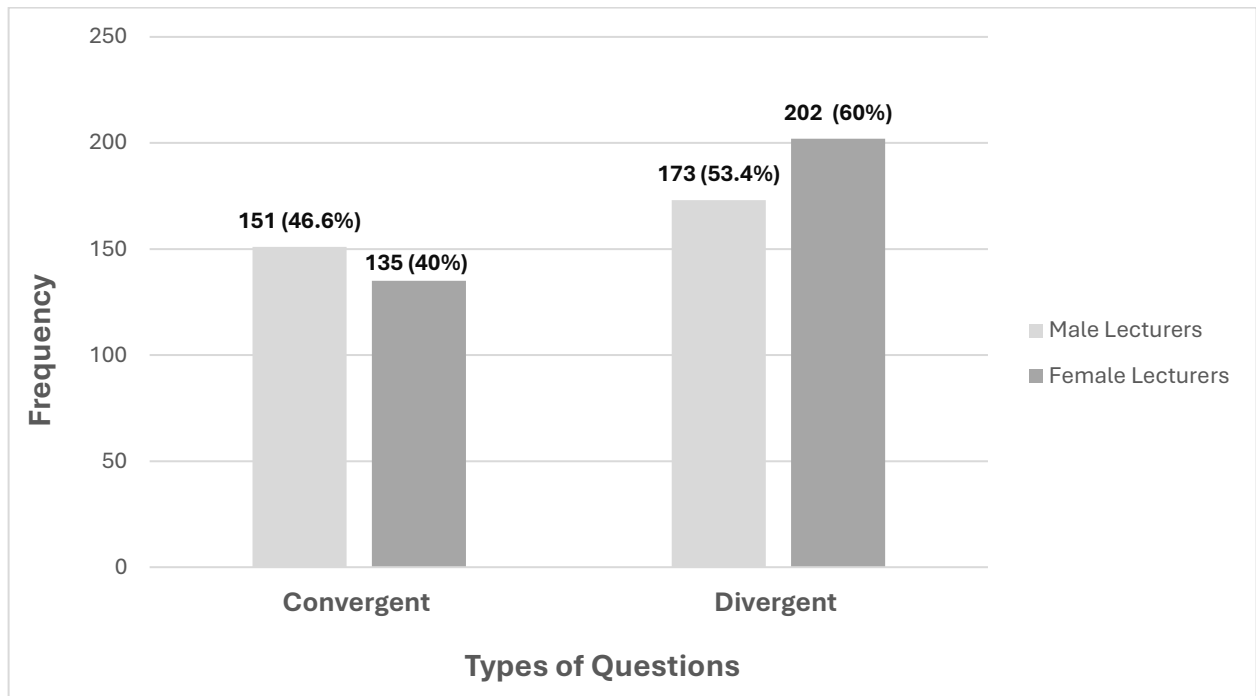


Figure 10

Types and Frequency of Questions Asked by Both Genders

In Figure 10, the demonstration illustrates the types and frequency of questions posed by both EFL male and female lecturers. As depicted in figure 10, EFL male lecturers presented both convergent and divergent questions. In a similar manner, EFL female lecturers also addressed both convergent and divergent questions during their lessons. This suggests that gender does not directly influence the types of questions posed by lecturers during their lessons. Moreover, the study concluded that questioning is a characteristic inherent in TT, aligning with findings from studies such as Sharpe (2008), Ghajarieh and Mirzabeigi (2023) and Ali (2023). This implies that teachers across different majors and levels incorporate questioning into their lectures,

indicating that it is an inherent aspect of TT rather than being influenced by the gender of the lecturers. Many studies have revealed that these types of questions are addressed in different disciplines and levels by different genders. For instance, a case study by Aziza (2018) investigated the role of questioning in a mathematics classroom. The study was based on a female teacher, who taught third-grade mathematics. The study revealed that the female teacher posed two types of questions, that included both convergent and divergent questions, during her mathematics classes.

Furthermore, in another similar case by Khoza and Msimanga (2022), three male high school science teachers were observed to find the type of questions they pose during their science classes. The study found that these three male high school teachers addressed both convergent and divergent questions during their science classes. Therefore, in addressing the first part of the second research question, it was concluded that convergent and divergent questions are part of TT questioning and that the types of questions asked by EFL male and female lecturers do not vary, indicating that gender does not influence the type of questions that lecturers asked. One variation that was found in regard to the types of questions was in their function. For instance, P2 and P4 used convergent and divergent questions as a strategy to elaborate on their explanations rather than to elicit responses. However, even this variation was not related to gender since P2 was a male lecturer and P4 was a female lecturer. This indicates that TT questioning has variation within itself in terms of how they are used and addressed in the classroom, despite being the same types of questions.

5.4.2 Variation in Frequency between EFL Male and Female Lecturers

In analyzing the frequency of questions posed by EFL male and female lecturers during their lessons, it is evident that both genders addressed convergent and divergent questions at different frequencies. As shown in Figure 10, female lecturers asked a total of 337 questions, while male lecturers asked a total of 324 questions. To elaborate more, 46.6% (151) of the overall number of questions asked by EFL male lecturers during the lecture were convergent questions and 53.4% (173) were divergent questions. On the other hand, 40% (135) of the overall number of questions asked by EFL female lecturers were convergent questions while 60% (202) were divergent questions. Female lecturers asked more divergent questions (202) than the male lecturers asked (173). Not only did the female lecturers ask more divergent questions, they also did so at a higher rate as 60% of all questions asked by the female lecturers were divergent, whereas only 53.4% of the questions asked by male lecturers were divergent. This indicates that EFL female lecturers addressed more divergent questions than EFL male lecturers, with a difference of around 6.6% (29) questions.

In contrast, male lecturers asked more convergent questions than the female lecturers with 151 and 135 respectively. Not only did the male lecturers ask more convergent questions, but they did so at a higher frequency as 46.6% of all questions asked by the male lecturers were convergent, whereas only 40% of the questions asked by the female lecturers were convergent. This indicates that EFL male lecturers addressed more convergent questions, with 6.6% (16) extra questions addressed compared to EFL female lecturers. The role of

gender in determining the frequency of questions asked by both EFL male and female lecturers was not found to be significant, with only a difference of 6.6% between the frequency of questions asked by both genders. This suggests that the gender of the lecturer does not play a significant role in determining the frequency of questions asked during the lecture. The overall pattern that was found was that both genders asked divergent questions more frequently than convergent questions. If gender differences existed, it would have been assumed that there would be differences in the frequency of the questions they ask. However, this pattern of asking more divergent questions indicates that gender played a minor role in determining the frequency with which lecturers asked these questions.

The results of this current study do not align with the findings of the research conducted by Rashidi and Naderi (2012). Rashidi and Naderi's study suggested that male lecturers tend to ask convergent questions more frequently at 57%, while female lecturers tended to ask divergent questions more often, reaching 63.4%. However, this current study found that both male and female lecturers tended to ask divergent questions more frequently than convergent questions. Additionally, Rashidi and Naderi (2012) concluded that gender plays a significant role in affecting the patterns of interactions within the classroom. However, the findings of this current study do not support these conclusions. Additionally, it was observed that EFL female lecturers asked divergent questions more frequently than EFL male lecturers during their lessons, while it was noted that male lecturers tended to ask convergent questions more frequently than female lecturers. However, in general, the findings from the analysis concluded that women tended to ask questions more often than men.

5.4.3 Patterns in Frequency between EFL Male and Female Lecturers

In directly addressing the role of gender in determining the frequency of questions asked by EFL male and female lecturers, it was concluded that the gender difference does not significantly influence the frequency of questions posed. This conclusion was drawn based on the minimal differences in the frequency of questions between the two groups. Notably, a consistent pattern emerged in the frequency of both convergent and divergent questions asked by the six lecturers. For convergent questions, the frequency ranged from 35 to 53, with only P1 deviating from this pattern by posing 80 convergent questions. In contrast, P2 asked 35 convergent questions; P3 posed 36 convergent questions; P4 addressed 53 convergent questions; P5 asked 34 convergent questions, and P6 addressed 48 convergent questions.

Moreover, a similar pattern was evident in the frequency of divergent questions, with most lecturers maintaining a consistent range. For instance, among the three male lecturers, P1 addressed 54 divergent questions, while P2 asked 56 divergent questions, and P3 asked 63 divergent questions. The female lecturers had a close pattern as well, with P4 addressing 98 divergent questions, while P5 asked 43 divergent questions, and P6 asked 61 divergent questions. Despite the fact that P4 notably posed a higher number of divergent questions, with 98, this was justified as the specific teaching strategy aimed at providing information rather than seeking answers from the students. These findings collectively indicate that the frequency of asking convergent and divergent questions during lectures is more closely linked to the teaching style of the lecturer rather than their gender. Another feature worth highlighting is the similarity in the teaching style observed in both P2 and P4's lectures,

where the former is a male lecturer and the latter is a female lecturer, in which both utilized questioning as a teaching strategy, which is to deliver more information rather than to elicit responses from the students. In addition to this, it was also noted that repetition in TT and questioning was evident across all six observations. Regardless of gender, the lecturers frequently repeated their questions, either through paraphrasing or by posing the same question again.

Despite the similarities found between the EFL male and female lecturers, an interesting pattern was exclusively found among the three female lecturers, which was not observed in the questions posed by the male lecturers. It was found that the EFL female lecturers frequently used tag questions during their lectures, particularly P5 and P6. This pattern was consistently evident throughout the three observations. This aligns with Lakoff's (1973) findings, where she asserted that women tend to ask questions, especially tag questions, more frequently than men do. Lakoff's conclusion was reflected in the findings of this study, as the three female lecturers asked slightly more questions than their male counterparts, with a notable difference in the usage of tag questions during their questioning patterns. This was further supported in another study conducted by Ali (2023), where it was found that the female lecturer often employed tag questions during her lessons, in contrast to the male lecturer. Accordingly, despite asking the same type of questions and at close frequencies, the female lecturers asked questions that were slightly different in form, which is in line with Lakoff (1973) who stated that women tended to ask more tag questions than men.

5.5 Effect of Gender on Student Engagement

This section of the discussion covers the first part of the third research question, which seeks to understand the extent to which the types of questions asked by each gender impact student engagement. To answer the first part of this research question, the analysis is divided into two subparts. The first subpart examines the effect of both convergent and divergent questions on students' level of engagement in EFL classrooms. The second subpart examines the effect of gender on students' engagement within EFL classrooms. In addition, a third subpart is included dedicated to presenting additional field notes found in the observations related to students' engagement.

5.5.1 Effect of Types of Questions on Students' Engagement

To address the first subpart, Table 9 below illustrates the type and frequency of each question asked by both EFL male and female lecturers as well as the number and percentage of responses received for each type of question.

Table 9

Overall Number of Questions Asked, and Responses Generated.

Type of question	Frequency	Percentage	Responses	Percentage of Responses
Convergent	286	43.3%	585	36.8%
Divergent	375	56.7%	1,005	63.2%
Total	661	100%	1,590	100%

The data presented in Table 9 above offers detailed insight into the types of questions asked, along with the corresponding number and percentage of responses collected for each question that was asked by both male and female EFL lecturers collectively. This analysis specifically investigates the impact of each question on student engagement within the EFL classrooms observed. From the table, it is apparent that divergent questions were posed more frequently than convergent questions, constituting 56.7% (375) of questions, while convergent questions accounted for 43.3% (286) of the overall number of questions asked, resulting in a difference of 89 questions. To elaborate more, further examination of the data revealed that the 286 convergent questions asked by both male and female EFL lecturers generated only 585 responses, representing 36.8% of the total responses from students. Unlike the convergent questions, the 375 divergent questions elicited a total of 1,005 responses, constituting 63.2% of the overall responses. Notably, the additional 89 divergent questions resulted in an increase of 420 responses from students. Accordingly, the data indicates that the students engage more with divergent questions, as evidenced by the fact that 63.2% of the responses were directed at divergent questions, while only 36.8% were in response to convergent questions. Consequently, in addressing the first subpart, it is evident that divergent questions posed by both male and female EFL lecturers have a higher effect on students' engagement, generating a higher number of responses within the EFL classroom. The nature of divergent questions made it that each question can have multiple answers. This led to more student engagement as students tended to give their own varied answers and interpretations. During the observations, it was noted that the divergent questions that were posed during the lessons had multiple correct answers. Therefore, students were more eager to share and take part in the class. In

contrast, convergent questions resulted in lower student engagement as it generated almost half as many responses as divergent questions. The nature of convergent questions required students to give one answer, which limited their participation. Once that correct answer was given, the students did not engage further. Accordingly, the nature of each type of question affected student engagement. When analyzing the overall number of responses and those in each individual observation, the number of responses to divergent questions was higher than those to convergent questions. This suggests that divergent questions had a positive effect on students' engagement as it provided students with more opportunities to share their ideas and inputs. The positive effect was also observed in students' willingness to participate and engage in the class. Another reason why divergent questions led to more students' engagement was because many of the divergent questions posed by the six lecturers targeted critical thinking. Students did not rely on knowledge that was previously provided by the lecturer but rather relied on their own interpretations of the subject matter. In contrast to divergent questions, convergent questions relied on previous knowledge gained by the students, which promoted the act of memorization by the students. This can be viewed as another reason for the low number of students' engagement to convergent questions. Ultimately, the nature of each type of question affected student engagement.

These findings align with the studies discussed earlier in chapter 2. For instance, in the study by Al-Zahrani and Al-Bargi (2017), it was noted that teachers predominantly posed convergent questions, which corresponded to a lower level of interaction from the students. In contrast, the use of divergent questions was observed to elicit a higher level of interaction and engagement

from the students. Similarly, the findings also align with a study by Aziza (2018), which revealed that despite the fact that out of 48 questions addressed in the class, 26 were convergent questions and 22 were divergent questions, divergent questions generated more responses from the students compared to the convergent questions, leading to the conclusion that divergent questions facilitate authentic responses and foster creativity among students.

Moreover, the current study also revealed several instances, particularly with P1, P2, P4, and P6, where students did not actively engage or participate in the class unless they were prompted by a question. In other words, students were provoked to participate through the use of questions. This observation is consistent with findings from studies such as Wizra and Sholihah (2020), Wang and Wang (2013) and Harahap and Emzir (2015). Wizra and Sholihah (2020) concluded that student participation in the classroom predominantly occurred when students were responding to questions and when called upon. Similarly, Wang and Wang (2013) found in their study that student engagement was primarily prompted by questions directed at them. Furthermore, Harahap and Emzir's (2015) findings revealed that 94% of the gathered data was from the instances of communication initiated by the teachers, while only 6% were initiated by the students. They found that this was attributed to the frequent use of informative acts by the teachers, where their utterances primarily served the function of delivering information to the students rather than eliciting responses from them. Harahap and Emzir (2015) concluded that the teachers typically initiated topics and then proceeded with the lesson without providing students with opportunities to actively engage and respond. They concluded that the higher amount of TT and lower number of questions that elicit responses led to a classroom environment in which the

students' engagement was low. Accordingly, these studies clearly demonstrate the significant role of questioning in engaging and stimulating students' participation. Additionally, it also highlights the type and nature of questions that engage the students within the classroom context.

5.5.2 Effect of Gendered Questioning on Students' Engagement

The second subpart investigates the level of students' engagement in relation to the gender of the lecturers posing these questions.

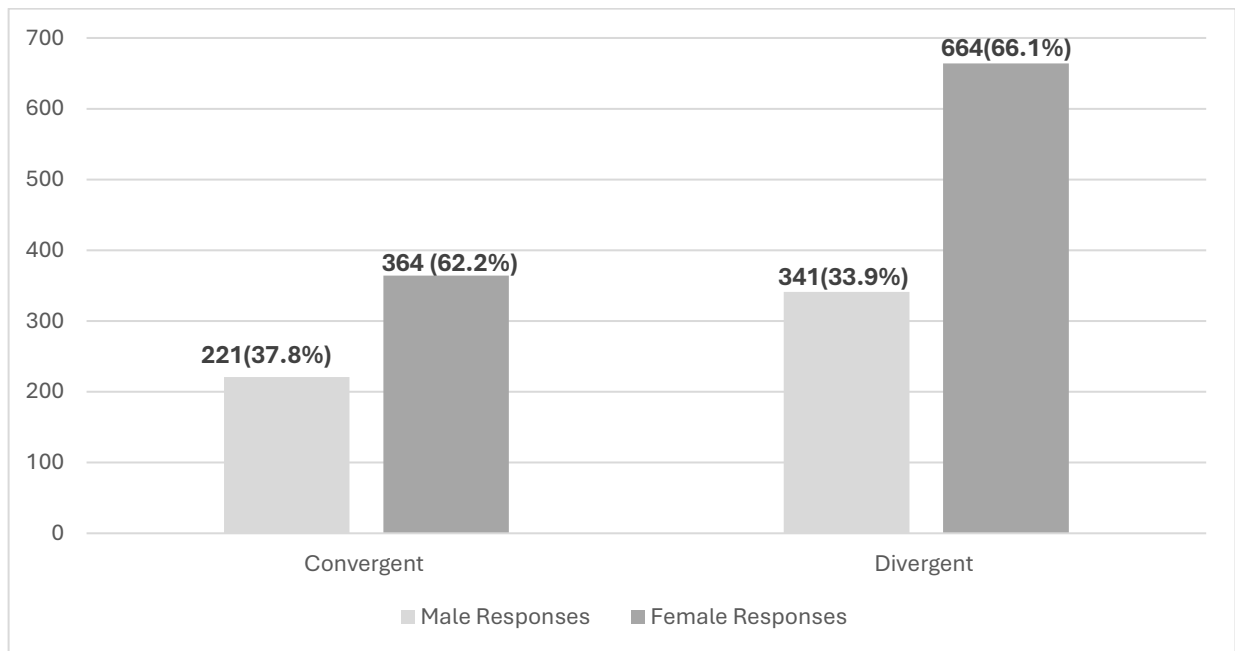


Figure 11

Number of Responses by EFL Students to Male and Female Lecturers

Figure 11 presents the number of the responses gathered from convergent and divergent questions posed by EFL male and female lecturers, in comparison to each other. After discussing the effect of each type of question on students' engagement, this subsection discusses the effect of the lecturers' gender on

students' engagement within EFL classrooms. In covering the convergent type of questions, the data presented in Figure 11 compares the number of responses gathered from convergent questions posed by EFL male and female lecturers. The data shows that EFL male lecturers posed a total of 151 convergent questions, which resulted in 221 responses, constituting 37.8% of the overall number of responses to convergent questions. On the contrary, EFL female lecturers were observed to pose 135 convergent questions, which resulted in 364 responses, accounting for 62.2% of the total number of student responses to convergent questions. Upon incorporating the gender of the lecturers to analyze the effect of gender on the number of responses, it becomes evident that there is a difference between the genders as the EFL male lecturers posed convergent questions 16 more times than female lecturers. However, this illustrates that despite asking less convergent questions than the EFL male lecturers, the female lecturers received 143 more responses, which suggests that students studying with these female lecturers were more willing to participate and engage with their female lecturers. Therefore, the findings highlight notable differences in students' engagement toward each gender when answering convergent questions. The students demonstrated a greater willingness to participate and engage with their EFL female lecturers, despite them posing less convergent questions compared to the EFL male lecturers.

In the context of divergent questions and their correlation to gender, it is observed that EFL male lecturers posed 173 divergent questions, eliciting 341 responses, which accounts for 33.9% of the total responses to divergent questions. On the other hand, EFL female lecturers posed 202 divergent questions, gathering 664 responses, representing 66.1% of the total responses

to divergent questions. Upon analyzing the data, it becomes apparent that despite the female lecturers only posing 29 more divergent questions, these questions generated a significantly higher number of responses from the students, amounting to 323 more responses. This reflects students' willingness to engage with and respond to questions posed by female lecturers despite the minor differences in the number of divergent questions asked by both genders. Therefore, the analyzed data reveals that students engage more with their female lecturers, as illustrated by the significant differences in the number of responses elicited by their divergent questions in comparison to the responses to male lecturers' questions. This finding suggests that female questioning has a more positive effect on students' engagement as students are more willing to participate and engage with them.

To directly address the second subpart, which aims to find the effect of gender on students' engagement in EFL classrooms, it is evident that students exhibited a greater willingness to engage and respond to both convergent and divergent questions when posed by EFL female lecturers. Specifically with regard to convergent questions, the analysis revealed that EFL female lecturers asked fewer convergent questions compared to their EFL male colleagues, with a difference of 16, yet managed to elicit significantly more responses from the students. Similarly, in the context of divergent questions, the analysis demonstrated that female lecturers posed 29 more divergent questions than male lecturers, resulting in a significantly higher level of student engagement. These findings stress the effect of the lecturers' gender on student engagement to their questions, emphasizing the direct influence of gender on student participation and interaction within EFL classroom settings.

This is further supported by the responses obtained from the distributed questionnaire (refer to Figure 1). The questionnaire inquired about the students' preferences regarding their engagement in a classroom with EFL male and EFL female lecturers. The question presented to the students in the questionnaire offered three options: makes no difference, female lecturer and male lecturer. Notably, it was found that 77% of the respondents indicated that the gender of the lecturer did not impact their engagement, while 19% favored female lecturers and only 4% expressed a preference for male lecturers. These responses align closely with study's conclusion, which demonstrated a higher level of student engagement with female lecturers as opposed to male lecturers. This alignment between the questionnaire's results and the research findings highlights the significance of gender as a factor in shaping student engagement within EFL classrooms. Furthermore, these findings align with the study conducted by Ali (2023) where the researcher found that the male and female lecturers' linguistic choices influenced the student engagement in the classroom and that these choices were often influenced by the gender of the lecturer.

To conclude, in the analysis of lecturer's questioning patterns and student engagement, it was concluded that the frequency of both convergent and divergent questions posed during the lectures by EFL male and female lecturers was not significantly influenced by the gender of the lecturer, with a strong pattern found in the number of questions asked by both genders apart from minor differences. Yet, despite the minor differences in the frequency of questions asked, the study revealed that students showed a higher level of engagement with divergent questions in general, suggesting that the nature of the questions posed plays a significant role in student participation and

interaction during the lecture. Upon examining the influence of the gender of the lecturer on students' level of engagement with convergent and divergent questions, it was found that the gender of the lecturer did indeed have a significant impact, with female lecturers receiving a higher level of engagement from students in response to their questioning as compared to the male lecturers. In conclusion, while the frequency of questioning during lectures may not be influenced by the gender of the lecturer, the gender does play a role in determining students' levels of engagement with the questions posed, with female lecturers particularly eliciting a higher degree of engagement from students, especially in response to divergent questions.

5.5.3 Students' Engagement and Amount of Teacher Talk

The data that was collected for this study was in the form of responses that the students gave to their lecturers' questions. However, there were some instances in the observations that highlighted active students' engagement, where students initiated the interaction with the lecturers by asking them questions or volunteering their own comments. These instances were not counted as part of the data because they were not responses to questions, but they still serve as examples of students' engagement.

Alongside the technique of questioning, it was revealed from the observations in this study that the amount of TT was another important factor that affected students' engagement in EFL classrooms. Both EFL male and female lecturers were noted to exhibit a high amount of TT that resulted in limited students' engagement. To elaborate more, the high amount of TT resulted in students responding and engaging only when prompted by the lecturer through questioning. In other words, students did not engage in the class unless they

were asked a question. However, it was also observed that when lecturers provided opportunities for students to actively participate and engage in dialogue, students were more willing to contribute to the lesson. There were instances where lecturers had high amounts of students' engagement. For example, the observations of P3, who is a male lecturer, and P5, who is a female lecturer, highlighted that both lecturers gave opportunities for the students to talk and engage in their classrooms. For instance, P3 and P5 demonstrated a similar approach in initiating discussions and introducing interesting topics that captured students' interest, leading to students' active involvement in the classroom. Furthermore, it was noted that both P3 and P5 employed frequent pauses during their TT. This technique was employed to give students the opportunity to engage in discussions and contribute to the conversations. Moreover, it was also observed that the interactions that P3 and P5 had with their students were characterized by a mutual exchange in the form of a dialogue rather than a traditional one-sided monologue, where the lecturer solely delivers information. These approaches increased the level of interaction and engagement in the classroom. It was observed that the lecturers' amount of TT was limited, and their student talk (ST) was high as the students were active. Notably, students took the initiative to start discussions, pose topics and ask questions. The difference in gender between P3, who is a male lecturer, and P5, who is a female lecturer, suggests that student's engagement is not only influenced by the gender of the lecturer, but also by the teaching style employed. This is further supported in a study conducted by Havik and Westergard (2020), where their study examined the correlation between students' perception of classroom interaction with their teachers and classroom engagement. Their results revealed that there is a clear and significant link between the teacher-students relationship and increased

classroom interactions. A stronger relationship between a teacher and the students led to more classroom interactions and willingness to learn and attend by the students. This leads to the conclusion that, in spite of gender, lecturers who provided opportunities for ST witnessed high levels of active engagement, whereas those who did not, only elicited student responses to answer their questions. This highlights the important role of the lecturer's teaching style in shaping student involvement in the classroom, indicating that the encouragement of ST is a vital factor in fostering students' active engagement.

The findings of this study are consistent with studies such as Gharbavi and Irvani (2014) and Winanta et al. (2020). For example, Gharbavi and Irvani (2014) found that the male lecturer failed to establish a communicative environment through active engagement, relying heavily on traditional teaching methods characterized by a high amount of TT, thereby limiting student talk. As a result, the researchers concluded that this form of TT could have negative effects on students, contributing to a negative learning environment. Similarly, a study by Winanta et al. (2020) revealed that when the teacher took the role of a facilitator and indirectly influenced students' learning processes, the result was a higher amount of ST compared to teacher talk. They concluded that the reduction in TT and the increase in ST provided students with greater opportunities to actively engage and participate in the classroom. These findings align with the observations of the current study, where students were found to be passively listening to their lecturers' TT without actively participating. However, the findings of this current study differ from those of Rezaee and Farahian (2012), who concluded that a higher amount of TT ensures the delivery of information. However, other studies,

including this current one, indicate that a higher amount of TT led to a lower amount of ST, resulting in a passive environment where students were not engaged.

5.6 Students' Perception of Male and Female Lecturers' Questioning

The final section of this chapter is dedicated to addressing the second part of the third research question, which aims to seek the extent to which students' perceptions of the types of questions and the gender of lecturer posing these questions differ. To effectively address this question, the section is structured into three distinct subparts. The first subpart investigates students' perceptions of being asked questions by male and female lecturers, supported by their respective reasons for favouring either gender. Following that, the second subpart covers students' perceptions towards the types of questions asked in general, without reference to gender. Finally, the third subpart examines students' perceptions of each gender posing both types of questions and students' willingness to answer these questions.

5.6.1 Students' Perceptions of the Lecturer's Gender

The second question in the questionnaire aimed to gain insight into students' preferences regarding being asked questions by EFL male and female lecturers, as shown in Figure 2. From a total of 185 responses, a significant portion of the students provided a neutral stance, with 73% expressing no specific preference for the gender of the lecturer asking them questions. Interestingly, 18% of the students expressed a preference for being asked questions by EFL female lecturers, while only 9% favoured male lecturers. This suggests that, overall, the gender of the lecturer does not significantly

influence the students' preferences in relation to being asked questions. However, the data reveals that among the 27% of students who did have a preference, more students preferred EFL female lecturers as they were the second preferred choice among students, with male lecturers being the least selected option. This suggests that the correlation between gender and lecturers' questioning is not direct and clear. It also suggests that students do not answer questions and engage in the classroom based on the lecturer's gender.

When students were asked about their reasons for preferring to be asked by EFL female lecturers (refer to Figure 3), the responses revealed several reasons. The majority of students (58) stated that they find EFL female lecturers easy to talk to, making it the most commonly selected reason by the students. Similarly, 56 students highlighted that they perceive female lecturers as polite and respectful, while 51 students appreciated their tendency to provide feedback. On the other hand, the options of being lenient and being strict were the least selected reasons, with 18 and 15 responses respectively. This indicates that students generally value the approachability, politeness and feedback provided by EFL female lecturers, while showing less importance to leniency and strictness.

In a similar manner, when students were asked about their reasons for selecting EFL male lecturers (refer to Figure 4), their responses provided similar reasons. 67 students indicated that they prefer male lecturers for being direct and straightforward, making it the most commonly selected reason. Following that, 57 students highlighted that they perceive EFL male lecturers as polite and respectful, while the third most selected reason was the feedback provided by EFL male lecturers with 51 responses. In contrast, the options of

being lenient and being strict were the least favoured reasons, with 20 and 19 responses respectively. This suggests that students tend to value the directness, politeness and feedback provided by EFL male lecturers, while showing less preference for leniency or strictness.

Accordingly, the data discussed above highlights that the primary reason that students prefer to be asked questions by EFL female lecturers is their approachability. This suggests that female lecturers are favored based on their communication style within the classroom, particularly on their ability to engage with students in a conversational manner. In contrast, the primary reason for students' preference for being asked questions by EFL male lecturers is their direct and straightforward approach. This indicates that EFL male lecturers are favored based on their direct and clear manner of interaction within the classroom. Moreover, the analysis reveals a consistent pattern in students' preferences for both EFL male and female lecturers. Both genders were regarded highly for their politeness in attitude and providing feedback to students as those were indicated by similar percentages. This highlights that these qualities are primary to students' preferences in terms of being asked questions, regardless of the gender of the lecturer addressing these questions. Therefore, it is concluded that students preferred lecturers who were polite and gave them feedback, without any direct reference to the lecturers' gender, indicating that they had a neutral stance regarding the gender of lecturer. In addition, another noteworthy pattern discovered is that the least selected reasons for both EFL male and female lecturers were based on their leniency and strictness. This indicates that students' preferences are not influenced by the lecturers' leniency or strictness but rather by other qualities and characteristics.

The collected data regarding students' preferences for being asked questions by EFL male and female lecturers aligns with the findings presented in section 5.5.2. The data gathered from the observations revealed that students were more actively engaged when answering questions with female lecturers compared to male lecturers, showcasing students' preferences for engaging with female lecturers over male lecturers.

The students' preferences for female lecturers, based on the reasons of their approachability and ease of communication, are contrasted by those who selected male lecturers for their direct and straightforward nature. These findings do not only reveal the nature of each gender but also support and emphasise influential works by Lakoff (1973) and Tannen (1990) as discussed in section 1.1.5. For instance, Lakoff's (1973) assertion that women tend to elaborate more in their language and express strong emotions aligns with the students' preference for female lecturers. This indicates that students preferred female lecturers because of these characteristics. Similarly, Tannen (1990) emphasized that women's communication styles, which prioritize rapport talk to establish connections and relationships, contribute to their empathic nature. This additionally establishes that female lecturers were preferred by students due to these attributes, which make them more approachable than male lecturers. In contrast, Tannen (1990) argued that men engage in report talk, focusing primarily on direct informational exchange. Similarly, the findings revealed that the minority who selected male lecturers did so due to their straightforward and direct nature, which align with Tannen's theory. Therefore, it is concluded that students' preference for female lecturers over male lecturers is influenced by their communication styles, which are attributed to the nature of their gender.

Moreover, the findings of this study oppose the findings of Appiah and Agbelevor (2015). In their study, Appiah and Agbelevor (2015) revealed that students' preferences towards their lecturers' gender varied significantly. The study found that only 40% of the students had no specific preference towards their lecturers' gender. Instead, the findings indicated that 45% of the students preferred male lecturers due to their friendliness and approachability, while only 15% preferred female lecturers because they were seen as more understanding, patient and interactive. However, the present study revealed contrasting results. The majority of the students (73% of the total) in the current study expressed no specific preference for the gender of their lecturers, which significantly contradicts the findings of Appiah and Agbelevor (2015). Furthermore, in the current study, 18% of the students preferred female lecturers due to their approachability and ease of communication, which opposes the findings of the previous study. In contrast to Appiah and Agbelevor's (2015) findings, male lecturers were least selected and those who selected them did so due to their attribute of directness.

5.6.2 Students' Perceptions of Types of Questions

In this section, students were asked about their preferences regarding the type of questions they prefer to be asked, without specific reference to the gender of the lecturer addressing these questions. When asked about their preferences towards answering convergent or divergent questions, the data from 185 responses (refer to Figure 5) revealed that 73% of students expressed a preference for divergent questions, while only 27% favoured convergent questions.

Students were further asked to give their reasons for selecting each type. Upon asking students to state their reasons for selecting convergent questions (refer to Figure 6), the primary reasons selected by the majority were the direct and objective nature of convergent questions, gathering 49 responses from the students. This suggests that students preferred these questions due to their nature of being unambiguous and clear, and for having factual answers. The second highest selected reason for preferring convergent questions was due to their ease and simplicity, with 47 gathered responses from the students. This indicates that these questions are favoured based on their simplistic nature. Moreover, the third highest chosen reason for selecting convergent questions was because they require memorization, accounting for 32 responses from the students. This data suggests that 27% of students who chose convergent questions did so because of their directness, ease and memorization. The reasons given by the students suggest that they form their judgements based on how difficult or easy they perceive the questions to be, which means that their preferences for the type of questions are shaped by the characteristics they attach to the types of questions. Therefore, it can be concluded that 27% of the students preferred convergent questions due to these reasons. Students' perceptions towards convergent questions are in line with the analysis presented in section 5.5.1, where it was observed that convergent questions did not elicit high amounts of student engagement.

In a similar manner, students were asked to cite their reasons for selecting divergent questions (refer to Figure 7). The most commonly selected reason was the students' desire to share their own unique answers and perspectives, with 76 responses indicating this preference. Following closely, 73 responses indicated that students appreciated the nature of divergent questions for

having multiple answers and being subjective. Additionally, 68 responses highlighted that the students' preference towards divergent questions is due to their ability to facilitate discussions and arguments. This data suggests that 73% of students who selected divergent questions did so because of the nature of these questions, which allows them to share their answers and viewpoints, presents multiple subjective answers, and allows them to support their answers with discussions and debates. Therefore, the findings indicate that the majority of students prefer to answer divergent questions that are based on their own perspectives rather than fixed prior knowledge and memorization.

It is concluded that students' perceptions and preferences regarding the types of questions align with the analysis presented in section 5.5.1. The data revealed a notable difference in students' engagement towards divergent and convergent questions, with a significantly higher number of students engaging to divergent questions over convergent questions. It was observed that convergent questions did not attract a high level of engagement among students. As a result, it can be concluded that the majority of students prefer divergent questions due to their nature of allowing students to share their own inputs, its ability to have multiple answers and for allowing students to support their answers with further discussions and arguments. On the other hand, convergent questions are less favoured due to their nature of having one specific answer that is based on previous presented knowledge and memorizations. This illustrates that students' preferences are towards divergent questions that stimulate critical thinking rather than rely on prior knowledge. This means that students favour these questions because they allow them to have multiple and divergent answers that are opinionated, rather than to test their memorization skills.

Furthermore, the findings of this study are consistent with those of Xiao-Yan (2006), who reported that 75% of the students preferred to be asked divergent questions, while the remaining 25% favoured convergent questions. Likewise, the current study revealed that 73% of the students expressed a preference for divergent questions, while 27% indicated a preference for convergent questions. Even though the studies were conducted in China and Bahrain, students had similar preferences. This indicates that the majority of students prefer divergent questions in general, emphasizing the significance of this type of questions.

5.6.3 Students' Perception of Gendered Questioning

In the final section of the questionnaire, students were asked about their preferences for answering convergent and divergent questions posed by EFL male and female lecturers. In the context of convergent questions (refer to Figure 8), the majority of students indicated that they had no specific gender preference for the lecturer asking these questions, accounting for 72% of the overall number of responses. This suggests that students are generally willing to answer convergent questions regardless of the gender of the lecturer. On the other hand, 15% of the students expressed a preference for answering convergent questions posed by EFL male lecturers, while 13% indicated a preference for EFL female lecturers. This indicates that while most students do not have a strong gender preference, there is a minority who do express a preference for male lecturers in relation to convergent questions. The data also indicates that there is a relatively minor difference in preference between male and female lecturers, with 15% of students preferring male lecturers and 13% preferring female lecturers to ask convergent questions. This suggests that EFL male and female lecturers are almost equally preferred, with a slight

preference for male lecturers. Therefore, it is concluded that the majority of students do not have a specific preference towards the gender of the lecturer asking convergent questions. However, there is a minority who do express a preference for being asked convergent questions by male lecturers in this context.

The analysis reveals an interesting pattern related to the type of question being asked and the gender of the lecturer. It was discovered that students who expressed a preference for EFL male lecturers did so due to students' perception of male lecturers being characterized as direct and straightforward, based on their given reasons. Additionally, it was noted that convergent questions, which are characterized as direct and objective, align with the attribute of male lecturers. This suggests that students may have selected this type of question in relation to male lecturers due to the common perception of males as being more direct and straightforward in their communication style, which is similar in nature to convergent questions. However, students' perceptions appear to contradict the data gathered from observations (as discussed in section 5.5.2), which revealed that students were more engaged in answering convergent questions posed by EFL female lecturers compared to EFL male lecturers. This contrast is further emphasized by the higher number of responses elicited by convergent questions posed by female lecturers, despite the fact that they asked fewer convergent questions than male lecturers.

In the context of divergent questions (refer to Figure 9), the majority of students indicated that they had no specific gender preference for the lecturer asking divergent questions, accounting for 69% of the total number of responses. This similarly suggests that students are willing to respond to

divergent questions regardless of the gender of lecturer posing these questions. Meanwhile, 22% of students' responses expressed a preference for answering divergent questions posed by EFL female lecturers, while only 9% of the total number of responses indicated a preference for EFL male lecturers. This suggests that the majority of respondents had no specific preference, but among those who had gender preferences, more students preferred being asked divergent questions by female lecturers over male lecturers. This aligns with the data gathered from the observations, where students engaged more with female lecturers than male lecturers.

In addressing the second part of the third research question, it is concluded that despite the fact that the majority of students had no gender preferences, there were differences among those who had gender preferences. In regard to convergent questions, there was a slight difference between the students' preferences, where a difference of 2% was found among students who preferred to be asked convergent questions by male lecturers over female lecturers. On the other hand, in regard to divergent questions, there was a more significant difference, as 13% more students preferred to be asked divergent questions by female lecturers. In relation to the observations, students were observed to engage more to questions asked by EFL female lecturers, regardless of whether the questions were convergent or divergent.

5.7 Summary of Analysis

Based on the observations of six participants, including both EFL male and female lecturers, it has been determined that lecturers' questioning is a necessary and crucial component of TT. These questions were observed to serve the purpose of assessing students' understanding and engaging them in

the classroom. The observed types of questions consisted of procedural, convergent, and divergent questions, with all six participants utilizing these types regardless of their gender. The frequency of these questions was almost similar for both EFL male and female lecturers, and all three types of questions elicited responses from students. It was noted that female lecturers posed more divergent questions, while male lecturers asked more convergent questions. Despite this, female lecturers received a higher level of engagement from students for both convergent and divergent questions, indicating that students were more willing to participate with female lecturers. The data also revealed differences in the responses elicited by convergent and divergent questions. Convergent questions received fewer responses, while both male and female lecturers' divergent questions generated more student engagement. This is attributed to the nature of divergent questions, which allow for varied and multiple responses, rather than a single fixed answer based on prior knowledge. Upon investigating the students' point of view of the role of questioning in relation to the lecturers' gender, it was found that the majority of students had no specific preference and were willing to engage with questions from any lecturer, regardless of gender. However, those with a preference favoured female lecturers due to their approachability and ease of communication. Additionally, when asked about their preference for question types, the majority of students selected divergent questions due to the opportunity they give them to share unique answers, generate multiple responses and engage in further discussions and debates. This aligns with a study by Arini and Whyudin (2022), which found that students have a positive attitude towards answering questions and believe that their teacher's questioning increases their participation in the classroom. In this present study, it was observed that students in the class only engaged when they were

given the opportunity to participate, which was through the act of answering lecturers' questions. Therefore, it can be concluded that the more questions the lecturer poses, the greater the students' engagement, leading them to have an active role within the classroom. In relation to the lecturers' gender, it can also be concluded that students prefer to engage with female lecturers over male lecturers due to their communication style and nature. In terms of the type of question, it can be concluded that divergent questions elicit a higher number of students' engagement within EFL classrooms, as supported by the data collected from the observations and reinforced by the responses to the questionnaire regarding students' preferences for these questions.

CHAPTER SIX

Conclusion

Chapter Six

Conclusion

This chapter is the conclusion section of this study. It consists of the overview, the summary, limitations and recommendations of this research.

6.1 Overview

The research is structured into five main chapters. The first chapter served as an introduction, providing a contextual background on the role of language in meaning and understanding, culture, gender, and teaching and questioning. Furthermore, the introduction chapter also included the specific Bahraini context of the study in addition to outlining the research objectives, research problem, significance, and research questions. The second chapter consisted of the literature review, which was categorized under five subheadings supported by different and recent studies. It began with broader studies related to TT, gender in teaching and learning and teacher talk and student engagement, before covering more specific studies related to this research, such as teacher's questioning and student engagement in an EFL context. The third chapter detailed the methodology, illustrating the methods used to obtain and analyse data for the study. In a similar pattern, this chapter was divided into six subsections, covering the method of data collection, procedure of data collection, research ethics, selected sample, method of data analysis and procedure of data analysis. This study was in the form of a case study of six university lecturers. The method used to gather data included both quantitative and qualitative methods. The qualitative method included observations and

recordings whereas the quantitative method included a questionnaire. The data analysis method employed was based on discourse analysis and Richards and Lockhart's (1994) framework that allowed the researcher to identify and classify the obtained data. Furthermore, the data was also analysed quantitatively through excel, which allowed the researcher to find the frequency and percentages of questions and responses gathered from each observation. The fourth chapter in this study presented the findings of the data. This section was divided into two main parts: data gathered from the observations of the six participants and data gathered from the questionnaire given to students. Each participant was discussed separately in a subheading along with all the details found from their observation, such as the type of question addressed and their frequency in relation to students' level of engagement to each question. This was reported in the form of tables, while the data from the questionnaire was reported in the form of figures. The final chapter was dedicated to the discussion and analysis of the data. This chapter was divided into five main headings. The analysis also related the findings to the literature review.

6.2 Summary

Since influential works such as Lakoff (1973), Fishman (1978) and Tannen (1990) argued that the language used by men and women have differences, and since these assumptions were supported by various studies, this current research aimed to investigate gender as a social variable in relation to questioning as a linguistic variable in a pedagogical context. This research was conducted with the primary aim of exploring the relationship between gender, TT, and student engagement within EFL classrooms. Specifically, the study aimed to investigate how the gender of the lecturer influences their

questioning style and, consequently, the level of student engagement. To elaborate more, the objective of this study was to find the types of questions posed by both EFL male and female lecturers in addition to the frequency of questions they asked and students' level of engagement to each question posed by each gender. In addressing the objectives of this research, the following research questions were posed:

1. What types of questions are posed by male and female EFL university lecturers in Bahrain?
2. How does the frequency of each type of question differ between male and female EFL university lecturers in Bahrain?
3. To what extent does lecturers' questioning by male and female EFL university lecturers in Bahrain influence student engagement and students' perceptions of their lecturers?

This study was conducted in Bahrain, particularly, in one of the private universities in Bahrain. This study was in the form of a case study of six EFL university lecturers. To achieve these objectives, a mixed-methods approach was employed, incorporating both qualitative and quantitative methods on a sample that included three male and three female EFL university lecturers, as well as their EFL university students. In order to obtain valid data, the qualitative methods involved observations and recordings of the lecturers during their TT within EFL classrooms, while the quantitative methods included the distribution of a questionnaire to their students to examine their perceptions and preferences regarding the type of questions posed by EFL male and female lecturers. The gathered data was then analyzed using discourse analysis and classified based on the framework outlined by Richards

and Lockhart (1994). In answering the first research question, which aimed to find the types of questions posed by both EFL male and female lecturers, the findings revealed that, regardless of gender, all six lecturers posed three types of questions that included, procedural, convergent and divergent questions. In answering the second research question, which aimed to find the frequency of each type of question and the extent to which they differed between EFL male and female lecturers, a total of 661 questions were posed by both sets of lecturers. To elaborate more, male lecturers posed a total of 324 questions, where 173 were divergent questions and 151 were convergent questions. On the other hand, female lecturers posed 337 questions, with 202 divergent questions and 135 convergent questions. Additionally, the data revealed that the types of questions asked by both EFL male and female lecturers were similar, including procedural, convergent and divergent questions. In terms of their frequencies, the frequency between the questions posed by male and female lecturers was revealed to be very close with insignificant differences between them. The study found that male lecturers asked slightly more convergent questions than female lecturers, accounting for 16 more convergent questions. In contrast, female lecturers asked more divergent questions than male lecturers, accounting for 29 more divergent questions. Accordingly, it was concluded that gender does not significantly influence the type and frequency of questions posed in EFL classrooms. This conclusion was drawn based on the minimal differences in the frequency of questions between the two groups. In answering the third research question that aimed to find the extent to which EFL male and female lecturers' questioning affects student engagement and students' perception, the data revealed that, regardless of the gender of the lecturer, students were more willing to engage with divergent questions, suggesting that the nature of the questions posed

influences students' level of engagement in the classroom. However, in examining the influence of the gender of the lecturer on students' level of engagement with convergent and divergent questions, it was found that the gender of the lecturer did indeed have a significant impact, with female lecturers receiving a higher level of engagement from the students in response to their questioning as compared to the male lecturers. Students were found to engage and respond to female lecturers more than to male lecturers, as female lecturers elicited 364 student responses to convergent questions and 664 responses to divergent questions. In contrast, male lecturers received 221 student responses to convergent questions and 341 responses to divergent questions. This was further emphasized by the fact that female lecturers asked less convergent questions than male lecturers, yet they still received a higher number of students' engagement in their classrooms. In terms of the students' perception of their male and female lecturers' questioning, the data from the questionnaire revealed that the majority of students had no specific gender preferences, however, there were differences among those who did, as it was found that more students preferred to be asked questions by female lecturers over male lecturers. Furthermore, the data showed that students had a stronger preference to be asked divergent questions over convergent questions. Accordingly, it was concluded that the majority of students did not express a clear preference for the gender of the lecturer asking questions. However, among those who did have a preference, they favored being asked questions by female lecturers over male lecturers. The students supported their preference by selecting the communication style and approachable nature of the female lecturers as reasons for their choice. The study concluded that while the frequency of questioning may not be influenced by the gender of the lecturer, the gender of lecturer does play a role in determining students' levels

of engagement with the questions posed, with female lecturers particularly eliciting a higher degree of engagement from students, especially in response to divergent types of questions. Moreover, it was revealed from both the observations and the questionnaire that students showed a higher level of engagement and preferences to divergent questions. Ultimately, students were observed to engage more frequently to female lecturers than to male lecturers.

This study unfolds significant implications for the field of pedagogy, as it offers valuable insights for lecturers at all levels and within different courses. This study highlighted the significance of the act of questioning in promoting student engagement within EFL classrooms, since the data revealed that students only engaged in the classroom when they were prompted by questions. Additionally, the study provided valuable insights into the type of questions that encouraged active participation and engagement from the students. The data revealed that students were more responsive when asked divergent questions, regardless of the gender of the lecturer asking these questions. This suggests that students prefer questions that encourage critical thinking and that are open-ended rather than questions that are closed-ended and based on memorization and prior knowledge. Accordingly, it is recommended for teachers in different fields, teaching different levels to pose more divergent questions.

6.3 Research Limitations

This study had some limitations. One of the limitations was a result of it being a case study, which inherently studies a limited sample size. Consequently, the sample consisted only of six participants, which as a result limited the representativeness of the sample. Moreover, this also limited the

generalizability of the findings of this study. In addition, another reason for the limited sample size was due to the lower number of male EFL lecturers at the private university where the observations took place. A bigger sample size would have resulted in a clearer pattern between EFL male and female lecturers. Secondly, another limitation was in relation to the number of students who responded to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed to a larger number of students, though not all of them responded to the questionnaire. Finally, another limitation is that there are other social variables such as culture, age and experience that could have influenced the questioning techniques adopted by the lecturers during their TT, which were not measured in this study.

6.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended for teachers to increase the frequency of questions they ask, especially divergent questions, and to reduce the amount of TT by pausing more often and by giving students more opportunities to share their interpretations with their teachers and classmates. This would lead to a healthier and more active classroom environment, with mutual interactions between the students and their teachers. In addition, it is recommended for institutions to provide their teachers with the appropriate training on the types of questions they should ask within the classrooms in order to facilitate students' engagement. Moreover, based on the reasons given by the students in the questionnaire, it is recommended for teachers to be more approachable and easier to talk to, which the students prefer.

Based on the literature review above, it is recommended for more studies to be conducted on the impact of gender on teacher's questioning and students'

engagement. A similar study to the current one could be conducted with a larger sample size, to provide more generalizable findings. Moreover, further studies employing similar methodologies should be conducted in different teaching contexts and different fields such as Business and Information Technology. In addition, further research should be conducted on students' attitudes towards the gender of their teachers in general, without particular focus on their questioning.

References

- Aguillon, S. M., Siegmund, G. F., Petipas, R. H., Drake, A. G., Cotner, S., & Ballen, C. J. (2020). Gender Differences in Student Participation in an Active-learning Classroom. *CBE—Life Sciences Education*, 19(2), ar12.
- Al-Zahrani, M. Y., & Al-Bargi, A. (2017). The Impact of Teacher Questioning on Creating Interaction in EFL: A Discourse Analysis. *English Language Teaching*, 10(6), 135-150.
- Ali, S. (2023). *Gender and Teacher Talk in the Classroom: A Case Study of Lectures' Language Use* [Unpublished manuscript]. University of Bahrain.
- Alshammari, S. H. (2018). The Relationship between Language, Identity and Cultural Differences: a Critical Review. *IJSSHE-International Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(1), 98-101.
- Appiah, S. O., & Agbelevor, E. A. (2015). Impact of Lecturers' Gender on Learning: Assessing University of Ghana Students' Views. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(28), 30-37.

Arini, M., & Wahyudin, A. Y. (2022). Students' Perception on Questioning Technique in Improving Speaking Skills Ability at English Education Study Program. *Journal of Arts and Education*, 1(2).

Aziza, M. (2018). An Analysis of a Teacher's Questioning Related to Students' Responses and Mathematical Creativity in an Elementary School in the UK. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, 10(4), 475-487.

Bradley, J. (1998). Yanyuwa: 'Men Speak One Way, Women Speak Another.' In J. Coates (ed.), *Language and Gender: A Reader*. Blackwell.

Cambridge. (2009). *What is Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge University Press.

Cameron, D. (2006). Gender and the English Language. In B. Aarts and A. McMahon (eds.), *The Handbook of English Linguistics*. Blackwell.

Carbonaro, W. J. (1998). A Little Help from my Friend's Parents: Social Closure and Educational Outcomes. *Sociology of Education*, 71 , 295–313.

Casasanto, D. (2015). Linguistic Relativity. In *The Routledge Handbook of Semantics* (pp. 174-190). Routledge.

Correnti, R., Stein, M. K., Smith, M., Scherrer, J., McKeown, M., Greeno, J., & Ashley, K. (2015). Improving Teaching at Scale: Design for the

Scientific Measurement and Development of Discourse Practice. In L. Resnick, C. Asterban, & S. Clarke (Eds.), *Socializing intelligence through academic talk and dialogue* (pp. 315–334). AERA.

Crystal, D. (1980) *A First Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, André Deutsch.

Dos, B., Bay, E., Aslansoy, C., Tiryaki, B., Cetin, N., & Duman, C. (2016). An Analysis of Teachers Questioning Strategies. *Educational research and reviews*, 11(22), 2065-2078.

Eccles, J. S. (2004). Schools, Academic Motivation, and Stage-environment Fit. In R. M. Lerner & L. Steinberg (Eds.), *Handbook of adolescent psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 125–153). Wiley.

Farahian, M., & Rezaee, M. (2012). A Case Study of an EFL Teacher's Type of Questions: An investigation into Classroom Interaction. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 47, 161-167.

Finn, J. (1989). Withdrawing from School. *Review of Educational Research* 59(2): 117–42.

Finn, J. (1993). *School Engagement and Students at Risk*. National Center for Education Statistics Research and Development Reports.

- Finn, J. and Rock, D. A. (1997). Academic Success among Students at Risk for School Failure. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 82(2): 221–34.
- Fishman, P. M. (1978). Interaction: the Work Women Do. *Social Problems*. 25(4):397-406.
- Ghajarieh, A., & Mirzabeigi, N. (2023). Investigating Teacher Talk in EAP and EGP Classes: In Pursuit of Communicative Features. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*.
- Gharbavi, A., & Iravani, H. (2014). Is Teacher Talk Pernicious to Students? A Discourse Analysis of Teacher Talk. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 552-561.
- Goodenow, C. (1993). The Psychological Sense of School Membership among Adolescents: Scale Development and Educational Correlates. *Psychology in Schools* 30 (January), 79–90.
- Hall, S. (1997). Cultural Identity and Diaspora. In K. Woodward (Ed.), *Identity and difference* (pp. 392–403). Sage.
- Harahap, A., & Emzir, E. (2015). Teacher-students Discourse in English Teaching at High School (Classroom discourse analysis). *IJLECR*

(*International Journal of Language Education and Cultural Review*), 1(2), 11-26.

Havik, T., & Westergård, E. (2020). Do Teachers Matter? Students' Perceptions of Classroom Interactions and Student Engagement. *Scandinavian journal of educational research*, 64(4), 488-507.

Hirschman, L. (1994). Female–male Differences in Conversational Interaction. *Language in Society*, 23(3), 427-442.

Holmes, J. (1997). Women, Language and Identity. *Journal of sociolinguistics*, 1(2), 195-223.

Hutapea, A. P. (2021). *Structure of Conversation Between Teacher and Students In Online English Classroom at The Second Grade of SMA Negeri Matauli Pandan* (Doctoral dissertation, Universitas Negeri Medan).

Jiang, W. (2000). The Relationship between Culture and Language. *ELT journal*, 54(4), 328-334.

Jones, S. E., & LeBaron, C. D. (2002). Research on the Relationship between Verbal and Nonverbal Communication: Emerging integrations. *Journal of communication*, 52(3), 499-521.

- Khoza, H. C., & Msimanga, A. (2022). Understanding the Nature of Questioning and Teacher Talk Moves in Interactive Classrooms: A Case of Three South African Teachers. *Research in Science Education*, 52(6), 1717-1734.
- Kramsch, C. (1998). Language and Culture. In M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.), *Language learning in intercultural perspective: Approaches through drama and ethnography* (pp. 19–31). Cambridge University Press.
- Kramsch, C. (2015). Applied Linguistics: A Theory of the Practice. *Applied linguistics*, 36(4), 454-465.
- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Pergamon Press.
- Kroskrity, P. (2000). Identity. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology*. 9(1-2-);111.
- Lakoff, R. (1973). Language and Woman's Place. *Language in society*, 2(1), 45-79.
- Lazear, E. P. (1999). Culture and Language. *Journal of political Economy*, 107(S6), S95-S126.

- Lee, Y., & Kinzie, M. B. (2012). Teacher Question and Student Response with regard to Cognition and Language Use. *Instructional science*, 40, 857-874.
- Long, M. H. (1983). Classroom Foreigner Talk Discourse: Forms and Functions of Teachers' questions. *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition*. Newbury House.
- Manke, B., McGuire, S., Reiss, D., Hetherington, E. M., & Plomin, R. (1995). Genetic Contributions to Adolescents' Extrafamilial Social Interactions: Teachers, Best friends, and Peers. *Social Development*, 4, 238–256.
- Moskowitz, G. (1971). Interaction Analysis—a New Modern Language for Supervisors. *Foreign language annals*, 5(2), 211-221.
- Ochola, M., & Juma, D. (2014). Role of Gender Communication on Students' Academic Behaviour: Survey of Public Secondary Schools in Makadara sub-county Nairobi. *Int J Soc Sci Entrepreneur*, 1(13), 366-385.
- Portes, A. (2000). The Two Meanings of Social Capital. *Sociological Forum*, 15, 1–12.
- Rashidi, N., & Naderi, S. (2012). The Effect of Gender on the Patterns of Classroom Interaction. *Education*, 2(3), 30-36.

- Rezaee, M. and Farahian, M. (2012). An Exploration of Discourse in an EFL Classroom: Teacher talk. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 47, 1237-1241.
- Richards, J. C. (1992). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics*. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Riemer, N. (2010). *Introducing semantics*. Cambridge University Press.
- Robins, R. Henry and Crystal,. David (2024, January 19) Language. Encyclopedia Britannica. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/language>
- Sharpe, T. (2008). How Can Teacher Talk Support Learning?. *Linguistics and education*, 19(2), 132-148.
- Sinclair, J. M., Coulthard, R. M. (1975). *Towards an Analysis of Discourse: The English Used by Teachers and Pupils*. Oxford University Press.
- Starr, S. (2017). Teacher-Talk: Supporting Teacher Practice. *Kairaranga*, 18(2), 29-39.
- Tannen, D. (1990). *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation* (p. 352). Virago.

- Tannen, D. (1999). Women and Men in Conversation. *The workings of language: From prescriptions to perspectives*, 211-216.
- Troyer, M. (2022). Teacher Knowledge and Questioning in Classroom Talk about Text. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 62(2), 101-126.
- Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or Obstruction: Teacher Talk and Learner Involvement in the EFL Classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 6(1), 3-23.
- Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating Classroom Discourse*. Routledge.
- Wang, K., & Wang, X. (2013). Promoting Knowledge Construction and Cognitive Development: A Case Study of Teacher's Questioning. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(8), 1387.
- Wardhaugh, R. and Fuller, J. (2015). *Introduction to Sociolinguistics* (7th ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.
- West, Candace and D. H. Zimmerman (1987) Doing Gender. *Gender and Society* 1(2):125–51.
- Whorf, B. L. (1956). *Language, Thought, and Reality: Selected Writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf*. Edited by John B. Carroll. MIT Press.

- Willms, J. D. (2003). Student Engagement at School. *A Sense of Belonging and Participation. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development*, 1-84.
- Winanta, A., Rochsantiningih, D., & Supriyadi, S. (2020). Exploring EFL Classroom Interaction: An Analysis of Teacher Talk at Senior High School Level. *ELS Journal on Interdisciplinary Studies on Humanities*.
- Wirza, Y., & Sholihah, U. I. A. (2020). Teacher Talk in Encouraging Students' Participation in the EFL Classroom. In *3rd International Conference on Language, Literature, Culture, and Education (ICOLLITE 2019)* (pp. 287-293). Atlantis Press.
- Xiao-Yan, M. A. (2006). *Teacher Talk and EFL in University Classrooms*. Unpublished master's thesis, Chongqing Normal University; Yangtze Normal University, 5-13.
- Yang, C. C. R. (2010). Teacher Questions in Second Language Classrooms: An investigation of Three Case Studies. *Asian EFL Journal*, 12(1), 18.

Appendix A

This chapter contains the consent forms signed by the selected sample of this case study that included the six participants of both male and female lecturers. The participants were asked to sign these forms before the researcher visited and recorded their classes for a duration of two hours. This procedure was done to ensure ethical practices that allow the researcher to gain access to authentic data and utilize it for research purposes.

Research Consent Form

The nature of the research:

I am currently conducting my master's dissertation as part of my academic program. The focus of my research requires to observe university lecturers. Therefore, your participation is highly appreciated.

Confidentiality of the data and the participants:

This is to state that the data will only be used for research purposes. Your identity will remain confidential and anonymous in any reports or publications resulting from this research, with reference to your gender only.

Consent Statement:

I hereby agree to be a participant in a research conducted by Salwa Hasan Ali, whereby I agree to have my lecture observed and recorded by her, so long as the data collected will be utilized for research aims only.

Participant's Signature: Haditha Ali

Date: 11/3/24

Participant's Initial: H.A

Participant's Gender: Male

Observation Date: 11/3/24

Figure 12

Consent Form of P1

Research Consent Form

The nature of the research:

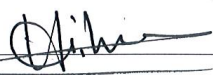
I am currently conducting my master's dissertation as part of my academic program. The focus of my research requires to observe university lecturers. Therefore, your participation is highly appreciated.

Confidentiality of the data and the participants:

This is to state that the data will only be used for research purposes. Your identity will remain confidential and anonymous in any reports or publications resulting from this research, with reference to your gender only.

Consent Statement:

I hereby agree to be a participant in a research conducted by Salwa Hasan Ali, whereby I agree to have my lecture observed and recorded by her, so long as the data collected will be utilized for research aims only.

Participant's Signature: 

Date: 12/03/24

Participant's Initial: H

Participant's Gender: Male

Observation Date: 12/03/24

Figure 13

Consent Form of P2

Research Consent Form

The nature of the research:

I am currently conducting my master's dissertation as part of my academic program. The focus of my research requires to observe university lecturers. Therefore, your participation is highly appreciated.

Confidentiality of the data and the participants:

This is to state that the data will only be used for research purposes. Your identity will remain confidential and anonymous in any reports or publications resulting from this research, with reference to your gender only.

Consent Statement:

I hereby agree to be a participant in a research conducted by Salwa Hasan Ali, whereby I agree to have my lecture observed and recorded by her, so long as the data collected will be utilized for research aims only.

Participant's Signature: Karim Agha Qizcebaev

Date: 3-4-24

Participant's Initial: KA

Participant's Gender: Male

Observation Date: 3-4-24

Figure 14

Consent Form of P3

Research Consent Form

The nature of the research:

I am currently conducting my master's dissertation as part of my academic program. The focus of my research requires to observe university lecturers. Therefore, your participation is highly appreciated.

Confidentiality of the data and the participants:

This is to state that the data will only be used for research purposes. Your identity will remain confidential and anonymous in any reports or publications resulting from this research, with reference to your gender only.

Consent Statement:

I hereby agree to be a participant in a research conducted by Salwa Hasan Ali, whereby I agree to have my lecture observed and recorded by her, so long as the data collected will be utilized for research aims only.

Participant's Signature: Fatenia

Date: March 16th, 2024

Participant's Initial: F. A

Participant's Gender: Female

Observation Date: March 16th, 2024

Figure 15

Consent Form of P4

Research Consent Form

The nature of the research:

I am currently conducting my master's dissertation as part of my academic program. The focus of my research requires to observe university lecturers. Therefore, your participation is highly appreciated.

Confidentiality of the data and the participants:

This is to state that the data will only be used for research purposes. Your identity will remain confidential and anonymous in any reports or publications resulting from this research, with reference to your gender only.

Consent Statement:

I hereby agree to be a participant in a research conducted by Salwa Hasan Ali, whereby I agree to have my lecture observed and recorded by her, so long as the data collected will be utilized for research aims only.

Participant's Signature: Courtney Milis

Date: 1/4/2024

Participant's Initial: CM

Participant's Gender: Female

Observation Date: 1/4/2024

Figure 16

Consent Form of P5

Research Consent Form

The nature of the research:

I am currently conducting my master's dissertation as part of my academic program. The focus of my research requires to observe university lecturers. Therefore, your participation is highly appreciated.

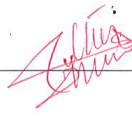
Confidentiality of the data and the participants:

This is to state that the data will only be used for research purposes. Your identity will remain confidential and anonymous in any reports or publications resulting from this research, with reference to your gender only.

Consent Statement:

I hereby agree to be a participant in a research conducted by Salwa Hasan Ali, whereby I agree to have my lecture observed and recorded by her, so long as the data collected will be utilized for research aims only.

Participant's Signature: _____



Date: _____

31/3/24

Participant's Initial: _____

SN

Participant's Gender: _____

female

Observation Date: _____

31/3/24

Figure 17

Consent Form of P6

Appendix B

This section consists of all the questions posed by P1 alongside their types and number of responses that each question elicited.

Table 10

Questions Posed by P1

Number	The questions asked during the lecture	The type of question asked	Number of responses
1	Did you at least try to practice or anything?	Procedural	1
2	From the picture, what do you think the topic is?	Convergent	2
3	How does the technology relate to the title “changing times”?	Divergent	1
4	What is the relationship between changing times and technology?	Divergent	1
5	Can you give some bigger examples other than phones?	Divergent	1
6	What about the way we live every day?	Divergent	2
7	Can you tell me three things you will need in order to carry on?	Divergent	4
8	What is he using?	Convergent	1
9	What is he wearing in the picture?	Convergent	1
10	Who can read here?	Procedural	3
11	What does it mean to survive?	Convergent	1
12	Eman, can you read?	Procedural	1
13	What does that mean?	Procedural	0
14	Noor, can you please read?	Procedural	1
15	Can you please raise your voice little bit?	Procedural	1
16	Who can read next, here?	Procedural	1
17	Who can read here?	Procedural	1

18	Who here gets seven hours of sleep each night?	Convergent	1
19	Can you discuss and match each word with its meaning and definition?	Divergent	21
20	Can I have a look?	Procedural	1
21	Do you have to type them?	Procedural	1
22	You finished the whole thing?	Procedural	1
23	If you need a drink, what do we call it?	Divergent	1
24	If you need water, what do we call it?	Divergent	1
25	When you take in air, what do we call it?	Convergent	1
26	When you take in oxygen, you are?	Divergent	1
27	Which one has something about oxygen? Which of the words?	Convergent	1
28	Which is what?	Procedural	1
29	Does it say something about the oxygen or air or something?	Convergent	1
30	What does it say?	Convergent	1
31	What is the word for being very tired?	Divergent	4
32	Needing a drink, then what are you?	Convergent	2
33	To kill animal for food or sport?	Convergent	1
34	Below the surface of water, we call that?	Convergent	2
35	What do we describe something that you eat or drink that makes you ill or kills you?	Convergent	1
36	The choices you make after thinking, what do we call that?	Convergent	1
37	To take in air it is to?	Convergent	0
38	What are the objects?	Convergent	5
39	How do they help people survive?	Divergent	11
40	The first one is to?	Convergent	3
41	What about B?	Convergent	2
42	Before GPS, what did they used to use?	Convergent	2
43	Alright, what about C?	Convergent	1
44	What can we use it for?	Divergent	2

45	Think of three thing you will need?	Divergent	0
46	What do you need them for?	Divergent	0
47	What are three things I will need to survive?	Divergent	21
48	Why do I need them?	Divergent	21
49	What is the reason for each one?	Divergent	1
50	What?	Procedural	1
51	Which situation did you choose?	Divergent	2
52	Are you done?	Procedural	1
53	What do you need to make these things?	Divergent	1
54	What do you need to fish?	Convergent	1
55	What about the last one?	Divergent	1
56	Finished?	Procedural	1
57	What did you choose?	Convergent	1
58	Finished?	Procedural	1
59	Tell me one thing you selected and why?	Divergent	8
60	How are you going to make the fire?	Divergent	1
61	What is that something?	Divergent	1
62	For what?	Divergent	1
63	Fatima and Eman, do you have one?	Divergent	1
64	What do you need?	Divergent	1
65	What would you use it for?	Divergent	1
66	Where will you go?	Divergent	1
67	For the title itself, we use <i>will</i> to talk about?	Convergent	1
68	About making prediction, what does it mean to make a prediction?	Convergent	2
69	Which sentence describes your opinion?	Divergent	4
70	Why are you excited, what is it about the future that excites you?	Divergent	1
71	What did you say Arslan?	Procedural	1
72	What excites you about the future?	Divergent	1
73	Where is our duster?	Procedural	0

74	Give me a sentence for something you have planned to do?	Convergent	1
75	How much in the future is that?	Convergent	1
76	What is the verb in the sentence?	Convergent	1
77	Is 'go' the main verb?	Convergent	0
78	What is it?	Convergent	1
79	What about the word <i>will</i> ?	Divergent	0
80	What does <i>will</i> do in the sentence?	Divergent	1
81	How is it helping us?	Divergent	0
82	What is it telling us?	Divergent	1
83	What did we say about helping verbs?	Convergent	1
84	Can you make a question out of this?	Divergent	4
85	Will you go home to sleep?	Convergent	2
86	What would I say to make it negative?	Convergent	2
87	How can I make this into a WH question?	Convergent	1
88	When will you go home?	Convergent	0
89	What is the only difference between them?	Divergent	0
90	Why will you go home?	Procedural	0
91	Easy right?	Procedural	2
92	Clear?	Procedural	1
93	Clear?	Procedural	4
94	Do you have any questions?	Procedural	3
95	Can you turn these sentences into future tense?	Convergent	2
96	Finished?	Procedural	1
97	What is it?	Convergent	1
98	First one?	Convergent	1
99	Can you say it again?	Procedural	1
100	She is what?	Procedural	1
101	What are they?	Convergent	1
102	What is the base form of is?	Convergent	1
103	He will be (Pause)?	Convergent	1

104	How to make it in the future tense?	Convergent	1
105	Number 2, who can answer that?	Convergent	1
106	You cannot say he will be is tired, why?	Convergent	0
107	Why?	Convergent	1
108	Alright?	Procedural	0
109	Will we travel to Bahrain?	Convergent	0
110	Will it rain tomorrow?	Convergent	0
111	What will they do tomorrow night?	Convergent	0
112	Where will your family go this weekend?	Convergent	0
113	When will you sleep tonight?	Convergent	0
114	Can you turn these sentences into questions	Convergent	20
115	What are they?	Procedural	1
116	Will I watch the movie tonight?	Convergent	0
117	What about number two?	Procedural	1
118	When will he be tired?	Convergent	1
119	What are your questions?	Convergent	1
120	Why won't my parents tell me?	Convergent	1
121	Why will he be tired?	Convergent	1
122	Will you watch the movie?	Convergent	1
123	Won't my parents tell me?	Convergent	1
124	Will she study?	Convergent	1
125	Will he be tired?	Convergent	1
126	Finished?	Procedural	1
127	Why won't my parent tell me?	Convergent	1
128	What about number two? Amina?	Convergent	1
129	Number three?	Convergent	1
130	Number four, Zahra?	Convergent	1
131	How are you all?	Procedural	1
132	Are you ready to sleep?	Procedural	1
133	Are you guys taking another course?	Procedural	0
134	Who is taking other courses?	Procedural	2

135	Will you get married and have children when you are older?	Convergent	0
136	Will people live in Mars?	Convergent	0
137	What is the helping verb we need to use?	Convergent	1
138	Where do you see yourself in six years?	Divergent	0
139	What does that mean?	Convergent	0
140	Are you going to have children?	Divergent	1
141	Are you going to get married?	Divergent	1
142	Why are you using your phones?	Procedural	0
143	Alright, did you finish?	Procedural	1
144	Hi, how are you?	Procedural	1
145	Finished, you asked each other?	Procedural	2
146	Where will you live in 2030?	Divergent	3
147	Will you have children?	Divergent	2
148	In your own home or someone else's?	Procedural	1
149	Do you think these three things will happen?	Divergent	0
150	Do you think people will live for 130 years?	Divergent	1
151	Why?	Divergent	1
152	Do you think there will be one world language?	Divergent	1
153	Do you think computers will drive cars?	Divergent	2
154	What was the title for unit 5?	Convergent	1
155	What is the best way to study a language?	Divergent	0
156	What do you think is the best way to study a language?	Divergent	4
157	Why?	Divergent	1
158	From the picture here and the word virtual learning, what do you think we are going to read now?	Divergent	0
159	What do you think when you see this picture?	Divergent	2
160	Who can start reading?	Procedural	1
161	Can you please raise your voice a little bit?	Procedural	1

162	What is the solution for that?	Divergent	0
163	How can we learn a language from that?	Divergent	0
164	You can read?	Procedural	1
165	Eman, can you read from here?	Procedural	1
166	Which one describes them?	Convergent	0
167	Finished?	Procedural	1
168	Finished?	Procedural	1
169	Finished?	Procedural	1
170	Which one is that?	Convergent	1
171	Write a shopping list in English, which one is that?	Convergent	3
172	Watch movies with subtitles, which one is that?	Convergent	4
173	Find an English friend online, which one is that?	Convergent	1
174	Label things in your house, which one is that?	Convergent	4
175	Have you tried it before?	Convergent	0
176	Has anyone tried this?	Convergent	1
177	Have you done any of these?	Convergent	1
178	Who can read from here?	Procedural	3
179	Who wants to read next?	Procedural	1
180	Which three words or phrases does the writer use to refer in the present time?	Convergent	3
181	Give me some words that show that this thing happened in the past?	Convergent	2
182	What phrase did the writer use to show he is giving extra information?	Convergent	2
183	Any questions?	Procedural	1

Appendix C

This section consists of all the questions posed by P2 alongside their types and number of responses that each question elicited.

Table 11

Questions Posed by P2

Number	The questions asked during the lecture	The type of question asked	Number of responses
1	Is that right?	Procedural	1
2	Why are you telling me that these are the origin of fairytales?	Convergent	0
3	Okay?	Procedural	0
4	Okay, clear?	Procedural	0
5	What are the features of fairytales?	Convergent	0
6	Who can remind me of the fourth feature?	Convergent	2
7	From the definition, who can remind me of the fourth feature?	Convergent	2
8	Like typical, what?	Convergent	3
9	What else?	Convergent	1
10	Lack of powerful plot and lack of?	Convergent	1
11	Overall, how many features do we have?	Convergent	2
12	Why are you repeating these features so many times?	Divergent	0
13	Snow white is a prominent fairytale, discuss with reference to your study of the topic?	Divergent	0
14	Okay, clear?	Procedural	0
15	Clear?	Procedural	2
16	Okay?	Procedural	0
17	This is important, is it clear?	Procedural	1
18	What is the importance of fairytales?	Divergent	6
19	Source of morality according to who?	Convergent	1
20	Who are they?	Convergent	0

21	Do you remember how many stages we have for the history?	Convergent	11
22	And then?	Convergent	1
23	When?	Convergent	0
24	What are fairytales for?	Divergent	0
25	Did fairytales offer these tales for children or to the children about children, what do you think?	Divergent	0
26	For, to or about children?	Divergent	0
27	What do you think?	Divergent	0
28	The differences are important, do you know them?	Divergent	1
29	What about to?	Divergent	2
30	Do you remember when I asked if fairytales were for delight or instruction?	Convergent	2
31	Are these fairytales written specifically about children experiences?	Divergent	1
32	Do you agree?	Divergent	10
33	Do you agree with this statement?	Divergent	3
34	Why do you refer to the female characters as stupid?	Divergent	0
35	Can you find this kind of stupidity in young girls?	Divergent	0
36	Can we conclude these discussions in one point, which is?	Divergent	0
37	Do you understand?	Procedural	2
38	It is a difficult question because of what?	Divergent	1
39	What is a fairytale?	Divergent	0
40	Do you remember the point that fairytales started with farmers?	Convergent	2
41	What is the moral lesson?	Divergent	0
42	What was the purpose of fairytales?	Divergent	1
43	Okay?	Procedural	0
44	Are fairytales as the same as folktales?	Divergent	0

45	What do you think?	Divergent	0
46	Are fairytales as the same as folktales?	Divergent	1
47	How to recover?	Divergent	0
48	It will end with what?	Convergent	0
49	Do you remember anything about the 19 th century?	Convergent	0
50	Why did she say Little Women?	Divergent	0
51	Have you read this novel before?	Convergent	1
52	Who has read this novel?	Convergent	1
53	What does classic mean?	Convergent	0
54	Written mainly to approach what?	Divergent	0
55	What does autobiographical mean?	Divergent	1
56	What about the case we are talking about?	Divergent	0
57	What can I do?	Convergent	0
58	What does it mean 19 th century society?	Divergent	0
59	Do you remember Victorian age?	Convergent	5
60	Are you convinced that a one writer like Lousia May Alcott can write something to support a stereotypical of women?	Divergent	2
61	Can you consider Thomas Nile succeeded in agreeing with her to write something to match the restriction of society in her time?	Divergent	3
62	He reached a compromising point, what was it?	Divergent	0
63	What do I say?	Convergent	0
64	What can I say?	Convergent	1
65	Are you in need for money?	Convergent	0
66	Do you want to publish your writings to get some kind of reputation?	Convergent	0
67	You need to write something that matches the standard of the society, agreed?	Convergent	0
68	Family life, what does it mean?	Divergent	0
69	Who is the only one who succeeded?	Convergent	0

70	I shared everything through WhatsApp, right?	Procedural	4
71	Are you still alive?	Procedural	2
72	Still interested?	Procedural	1
73	You are dead, why are you dead?	Procedural	1
74	What are the points we have to focus on in Little Women?	Divergent	0
75	What is the significance of saying it was written in the mid of 19 th century?	Divergent	0
76	What is classic?	Divergent	0
77	Why are you saying Semi?	Divergent	0
78	We can say what?	Divergent	1
79	Why did she change the ending of the story?	Divergent	0
80	Are you okay?	Procedural	1
81	Why did you refer to this point?	Divergent	0
82	And?	Divergent	0
83	What did she do?	Divergent	0
84	Which square one?	Divergent	0
85	Can we consider Little Women as a part of enhancing this stereotypical image of women?	Divergent	1
86	How can you answer this question?	Divergent	1
87	I like her answer, why?	Divergent	0
88	Because of?	Divergent	1
89	Okay?	Procedural	0
90	Without this incident, we cannot consider Little Women to be a stereotypical novel, why?	Divergent	0
91	What did she do?	Convergent	0
92	What was this square?	Convergent	0
93	Who is the main character in Little Women?	Convergent	5
94	What is the meaning of tomboyish?	Convergent	0
95	What did she pay attention to?	Divergent	0
96	Who succeeded?	Divergent	0

97	What about the others?	Divergent	0
98	What about Jo?	Divergent	0
99	What can you understand?	Divergent	1
100	Do you know the meaning of the word tomboyish?	Convergent	1
101	Yeah?	Procedural	0
102	Am I sincere with myself?	Divergent	0
103	At end she got married from this man?	Divergent	0
104	What is the story of Mr. Laurie?	Convergent	0
105	Why did the mother leave?	Convergent	0
106	Why did Jo decline this proposal?	Divergent	0
107	He decided to move to another city, why?	Divergent	0
108	Finished?	Procedural	1

Appendix D

This section consists of all the questions posed by P3 alongside their types and number of responses that each question elicited.

Table 12

Questions Posed by P3

Number	The Questions asked during the lecture	The Type of Question asked	Number of responses
1	We will wait for another 5 minutes, okay?	Procedural	0
2	What is going to happen today?	Procedural	0
3	What would I do?	Convergent	0
4	Have you started?	Procedural	1
5	No questions?	Procedural	1
6	Anyone doing it in pairs?	Procedural	1
7	Do you know TED Talks?	Convergent	1
8	Why?	Divergent	1
9	Does anyone watch TED talks?	Convergent	1
10	What is the slogan of TED talks?	Convergent	1
11	Does anyone heard of this guy?	Convergent	1
12	Why?	Divergent	0
13	Any ideas?	Divergent	1
14	Can you tell me what speed of light is?	Divergent	1
15	What is M99?	Divergent	1
16	What about on your phone?	Divergent	1
17	What is gravity force?	Divergent	1
18	Do you know what science is?	Divergent	0
19	What do we call these things?	Divergent	1
20	And constant is supposed to be?	Divergent	1
21	What was one of his main theories?	Divergent	1

22	Why would I spend 5 minutes speaking about this?	Divergent	2
23	Are you happy about presentation 2?	Procedural	1
24	How do you do your presentations?	Divergent	0
25	What did we do last year?	Convergent	2
26	What do you have to do?	Divergent	2
27	What did I just do now?	Divergent	3
28	What is his name?	Convergent	2
29	Why did I tell you about Rupert?	Divergent	2
30	Why?	Divergent	3
31	How did I start?	Divergent	2
32	What do you have to talk about in presentation 3?	Divergent	2
33	You know right?	Procedural	1
34	Can you discuss your own unique idea, theory or thought that you want to share with the world?	Divergent	1
35	What does <i>dot</i> mean?	Divergent	3
36	When do we come to 0.2?	Divergent	1
37	When do we come to 0.1?	Divergent	2
38	What is the value of 1?	Divergent	1
39	Which one do you want to go for?	Divergent	3
40	What did you miss?	Procedural	0
41	What is the easiest one?	Convergent	2
42	How are you going to be assessed?	Convergent	0
43	Have you seen this one?	Convergent	3
44	Are you happy about presentation 3?	Procedural	2
45	Any question about presentation 3?	Procedural	1
46	Do you remember we had a practice debate?	Convergent	1
47	Do you know what questions they came up with?	Convergent	2
48	Can you imagine?	Procedural	0
49	Alright?	Procedural	0

50	Alright?	Procedural	0
51	Sarah, do you want to take the responsibility?	Procedural	1
52	Any questions about the debate?	Procedural	2
53	Where is the debate?	Divergent	1
54	Where did it go?	Procedural	0
55	Have you seen them?	Convergent	1
56	Have you opened them?	Convergent	1
57	Have you read them?	Convergent	1
58	What would we do?	Procedural	0
59	Anything more?	Procedural	0
60	What would I do?	Convergent	1
61	What is better for you?	Convergent	2
62	Should I put the deadline on Saturday?	Procedural	1
63	Should I put it on the weekend?	Procedural	1
64	That's clear right?	Procedural	1
65	Can you give me a number?	Convergent	1
66	How many of you take risks?	Divergent	2
67	What is the biggest risk you've ever taken?	Divergent	1
68	What should he include?	Divergent	4
69	What was it?	Convergent	1
70	What did it include?	Convergent	1
71	What were the consequences?	Convergent	1
72	What is there on the board?	Convergent	1
73	Why and when?	Divergent	1
74	Was he telling us about the risk or describing the car?	Convergent	1
75	Tell me if I'm wrong?	Convergent	1
76	How long does it take for us to trust someone?	Divergent	1
77	Would you trust this guy?	Divergent	3
78	Are the first impression important?	Divergent	1

79	What and why?	Divergent	1
80	Can you give this form to the boss?	Convergent	1
81	Why?	Divergent	1
82	Why would you use it?	Convergent	1
83	Is it right to judge people?	Divergent	1
84	And the question is?	Divergent	1
85	What's the question?	Convergent	1
86	Can we debate?	Procedural	0
87	You know what my favorite word in Arabic is?	Convergent	0
88	When would you say it is important to introduce yourself?	Divergent	1
89	Why?	Divergent	1
90	Why?	Divergent	1
91	On a date?	Divergent	1
92	Alright?	Procedural	0
93	You know what?	Procedural	0
94	Define for me success?	Divergent	2
95	So, if you don't achieve your success, you are a failure?	Divergent	2
96	So, success is in your hand?	Divergent	1
97	What is failure?	Divergent	1
98	What?	Procedural	1
99	Can you think of a moment in your own life where you have failed?	Divergent	1
100	How can he go on from here?	Divergent	1
101	What is the logical step from here?	Divergent	2
102	Abdualla, can you choose someone?	Procedural	1
103	Did you ever play this game Japanese whisper?	Convergent	4
104	Is change good or bad?	Divergent	1
105	What do we mean by change?	Divergent	5

106	What would you say has been a big change in the last few years?	Divergent	1
107	Is it good or bad?	Divergent	1
108	Okay?	Procedural	0
109	What does change mean to you?	Divergent	0
110	Where is it?	Procedural	0
111	Where is the one about money and happiness?	Procedural	1
112	Have you ever done something called theme and rhyme?	Convergent	0
113	Pen is good for what?	Convergent	1
114	What can you do with writing?	Convergent	3
115	What is wrong with you today?	Procedural	1
116	A pen is good for?	Divergent	3
117	What should I put here?	Convergent	1
118	Should I put expressive ideas or?	Convergent	1
119	Can money buy happiness?	Divergent	6
120	Why?	Divergent	2
121	Why?	Divergent	2
122	Okay?	Procedural	1
123	What cost?	Convergent	1
124	Does it make sense?	Procedural	1
125	Can you come up with an idea?	Divergent	1
126	Yes, or no and why?	Divergent	1
127	Are you ready?	Procedural	1
128	Any volunteer to go first?	Procedural	1
129	You wanna go first?	Procedural	1
130	Who's next?	Procedural	1
131	So, money would buy you friendship?	Divergent	1
132	Who agrees?	Convergent	1
133	So, if you don't have money, you won't have friends?	Divergent	1
134	You said can or can't?	Procedural	1

135	What's next?	Procedural	1
136	Like what?	Divergent	1
137	Anyone else?	Procedural	1
138	Can you explain more?	Divergent	1
139	Finish it here?	Procedural	4

Appendix E

This section consists of all the questions posed by P4 alongside their types and number of responses that each question elicited.

Table 13

Questions Posed by P4

Number	The questions asked during the lecture	The type of question asked	Number of responses
1	How about you send it now?	Procedural	1
2	I called you Reem is that correct?	Procedural	1
3	Who else came in late?	Procedural	1
4	Done?	Procedural	1
5	Am I two days ahead of myself?	Procedural	1
6	All is good?	Procedural	1
7	Do we have one or two groups presenting today?	Procedural	4
8	We stopped up to which stage, do you remember?	Convergent	2
9	The stage of the middle English is very much influenced by the French, why is that?	Divergent	0
10	What can you find in this era?	Divergent	0
11	Were they forced to learn French?	Divergent	0
12	How can we notice all of these changes?	Divergent	1
13	Clear?	Procedural	3
14	What were they used for?	Divergent	0
15	They were borrowed for what good reasons?	Divergent	0
16	What will the French bring?	Divergent	0
17	Your good name?	Procedural	1

18	Got it?	Procedural	5
19	What do we call stage five?	Divergent	0
20	What happened in early modern English?	Divergent	0
21	They are not using it anymore, why?	Divergent	0
22	Can you just imagine the shift?	Divergent	4
23	People had to adjust, to do what?	Divergent	0
24	How good is it?	Convergent	0
25	How does it sound?	Convergent	1
26	Do you need to know the names?	Convergent	0
27	What else happened?	Divergent	0
28	What happened next?	Divergent	1
29	Okay?	Procedural	3
30	How did it start?	Divergent	0
31	What happened here?	Divergent	0
32	The imperial powers all around the world somehow got combined, why?	Divergent	0
33	Where else?	Convergent	0
34	They had a collaboration in between them, why?	Divergent	0
35	Funds like what?	Divergent	0
36	What happened to education this time?	Divergent	0
37	How it happened here in Bahrain?	Divergent	0
38	What else did they use English for?	Divergent	0
39	What are the types of colonization?	Divergent	0
40	Do you think that the culture of India was fully wiped?	Divergent	7

41	Do you think that the English culture influenced the way the local are behaving in this area?	Divergent	10
42	What do you think?	Divergent	5
43	Do you think they have embedded fully and maintained the British culture with the language?	Divergent	7
44	But to demolish my culture?	Divergent	0
45	This is for?	Convergent	0
46	What?	Divergent	0
47	Can you discuss the standardization of English?	Divergent	0
48	Why did they start standardizing English?	Divergent	0
49	How did they select the type of English that was used?	Divergent	0
50	If I speak a dialect that is a minority, do you think it will be the official dialect of Bahrain?	Divergent	6
51	It is supposed to be the?	Convergent	1
52	How do we codify a language?	Divergent	0
53	Later on, they do elaborate it, how?	Divergent	0
54	They will be prescribing it and implanting it, how?	Divergent	0
55	Is it yours?	Procedural	1
56	It is telling you go back to work?	Procedural	1
57	Your good name?	Procedural	1
58	Do you have your reading presented today?	Procedural	1
59	Okay?	Procedural	1
60	Who was one of the most powerful people who made English conquer and get implemented as a native language, as a non-native language, as a national language, as	Divergent	0

	all the types of different English, as a foreign language, as a second language, as a first language?		
61	A year ago?	Convergent	2
62	Got it now?	Procedural	3
63	What is his name?	Convergent	1
64	Okay guys?	Procedural	5
65	Are we still colonized officially by any of those powers?	Convergent	6
66	Can you see their affect still ongoing?	Divergent	7
67	Do we have to resist?	Divergent	4
68	Do you remember when I spoke about the culture?	Convergent	5
69	Did they maintain that everywhere?	Divergent	2
70	You know what linguistic imperialism is?	Divergent	2
71	Your good name?	Procedural	1
72	Have you seen this guy before?	Procedural	10
73	Qassim, where were you last week exactly?	Procedural	1
74	Where were you sitting?	Procedural	1
75	How did you miss all of that?	Procedural	1
76	Why?	Procedural	1
77	Do you know there is not paper for you?	Procedural	1
78	Okay?	Procedural	1
79	Seriously?	Procedural	0
80	Who else came in late?	Procedural	5
81	Who else?	Procedural	1
82	Anyone else?	Procedural	1

83	And you?	Procedural	1
84	Your good name?	Procedural	1
85	You are?	Procedural	1
86	Done?	Procedural	4
87	That's it?	Procedural	1
88	Can you see this?	Procedural	1
89	What are you doing?	Convergent	1
90	Oh, really?	Procedural	1
91	Now next week, your exam starts when exactly?	Procedural	2
92	Correct?	Procedural	1
93	What do you have next Saturday?	Procedural	1
94	What's the exam you have on Saturday?	Procedural	1
95	Who else was late?	Procedural	1
96	Who else came late?	Procedural	1
97	Are all the people here for your presentation Zahra?	Procedural	1
98	This is about the grammarians, correct?	Convergent	2
99	Which era is that, which stage?	Convergent	4
100	Can you leave your phones and pay attention to your colleagues please?	Procedural	0
101	May I add one thing?	Procedural	4
102	Can I interrupt you?	Procedural	2
103	Do you know what puns are guys?	Divergent	2
104	What are puns?	Divergent	3
105	Like a word play, to mean what exactly?	Divergent	4
106	Is it being sarcastic?	Divergent	6

107	Do you consider puns to be clever?	Divergent	1
108	Right?	Procedural	1
109	What as a writer makes the writer stands out?	Divergent	1
110	What do you focus on the most?	Divergent	1
111	Do you see them?	Convergent	1
112	Where do we see the subject?	Divergent	0
113	How?	Divergent	0
114	Why?	Divergent	0
115	What was typical of his writing?	Divergent	0
116	Can you identify the subject and the object?	Convergent	1
117	Where is the subject?	Convergent	1
118	Why is this useful?	Divergent	0
119	Can I ask you all to go to the WhatsApp group please?	Procedural	5
120	Your good name?	Procedural	1
121	Have I seen you before?	Procedural	1
122	Can you answer the survey?	Procedural	1
123	Osama, can you please go to the WhatsApp group and fill in the survey?	Procedural	1
124	Is it opening for all of you guys?	Procedural	7
125	What is going to be there?	Procedural	0
126	What would the midterm be about?	Procedural	0
127	Okay?	Procedural	0
128	What is this chapter about?	Convergent	0
129	What do you think sociolinguistic mean?	Divergent	2
130	Is it social media though, only?	Divergent	2

131	What do you think?	Divergent	0
132	How expensive is this car?	Divergent	1
133	Why did you say it is very expensive?	Divergent	3
134	Do you know what this is?	Convergent	3
135	Is it a toy?	Convergent	2
136	You know what this is?	Convergent	1
137	Why did you say it is a toy? Because of the looks of it?	Divergent	1
138	You said it was expensive, why?	Divergent	3
139	What makes you judge it this way?	Divergent	1
140	Do you know about it in general?	Convergent	5
141	Okay?	Procedural	0
142	You see what he is doing?	Procedural	0
143	Do you know what you just did?	Procedural	0
144	What is the message the teacher is sending to the student?	Divergent	2
145	How would you feel if I wrote something like this for you?	Divergent	3
146	You see?	Procedural	0
147	What did the teacher do?	Divergent	0
148	What would I do when I see your papers?	Divergent	0
149	Will I be using certain criteria for that?	Divergent	3
150	Have you seen the rubric?	Convergent	2
151	Okay?	Procedural	0
152	When can you label a text to be political?	Divergent	0
153	When can a text be political?	Divergent	0
154	Who is also absent during quiz 1?	Procedural	2

155	When can you label a text to be political?	Divergent	1
156	What are they?	Convergent	1
157	If it is the abroad one, what will it be?	Divergent	1
158	Anyone else, who can add?	Divergent	1
159	Is the meaning of politics relevant to power structure?	Divergent	2
160	Is the meaning of politics relevant to relationships?	Divergent	2
161	How?	Divergent	1
162	Parents at home, did you hear that?	Procedural	2
163	Do they have their own rules, their own politics?	Convergent	2
164	What does the teacher do then?	Divergent	3
165	What else?	Convergent	2
166	How can you evaluate if a text is creative?	Divergent	0
167	How will you judge it that it is creative?	Divergent	0
168	What makes a creative text?	Divergent	1
169	What would make it special?	Divergent	3
170	Okay?	Procedural	0
171	How do you evaluate someone as a person to be creative?	Divergent	4
172	Do you find yourself creative?	Divergent	1
173	Such as?	Divergent	1
174	Should I bring you a mirror?	Procedural	1
175	Really?	Procedural	1
176	For most people?	Divergent	1
177	Was it genuinely made because of feeling?	Convergent	2

178	Is your evaluation considered a powerful activity?	Divergent	2
179	If I evaluate you, is it going to have an impact on you?	Convergent	2
180	Do you feel that the teacher has an upper hand on you?	Divergent	3
181	Do you have an upper hands-on teacher?	Divergent	1
182	Don't you get surveys to evaluate teachers?	Convergent	6
183	Do you state the truth, or you feel sorry?	Convergent	3
184	Is that the feeling you get?	Convergent	2
185	Okay?	Procedural	2
186	Do you have rubrics for all the courses guys?	Convergent	2
187	Do you think that is right?	Convergent	2
188	Do you think it is your full right to know how and why you are being assessed?	Convergent	2
189	Do you think the exams are being created here?	Convergent	3
190	Okay?	Procedural	1
191	Okay?	Procedural	1
192	Do you know who these are?	Convergent	4
193	Do you know him?	Convergent	1
194	What about this one?	Convergent	4
195	Do you consider these people to be from the elite parts of the society, yes or no?	Divergent	5
196	Seriously, no?	Procedural	2
197	They didn't start that way, but aren't they though?	Convergent	4
198	Because they are rich?	Divergent	1
199	Didn't he?	Convergent	3

200	Did he go to a university?	Convergent	2
201	Who created all of this?	Convergent	1
202	Were any of these rich people?	Convergent	3
203	What about Steve Jobs?	Convergent	0
204	How did he invent all of this in apple?	Convergent	0
205	Can you believe it?	Divergent	6
206	Do you know why?	Divergent	0
207	What else do I need to speak about here?	Procedural	0
208	Can knowledge be your only capital, ownership and money?	Divergent	2
209	Can you make it through with knowledge only?	Divergent	2
210	Can you reach this level of eliteness through knowledge only?	Divergent	3
211	What are the criteria we need to consider when we are talking about culture capital?	Divergent	0
212	Okay?	Procedural	0
213	You don't want to even question it because you don't want the image to be destroyed, correct?	Convergent	3
214	How can judgements about values be political?	Divergent	0
215	Didn't it?	Convergent	1
216	Did I destroy this moment for you?	Convergent	1
217	What does that do?	Divergent	1
218	When you are little, you were judged all the time, correct?	Convergent	2
219	If you are a linguist, are you supposed to do that?	Convergent	3
220	Do you expect them to do that?	Divergent	3

221	Do they see the value of it when they are being corrected?	Convergent	2
222	Do you see the value when you are being corrected?	Convergent	2
223	Do you normally correct people when they are speaking in English?	Divergent	6
224	Have you ever heard of the term Queen English?	Convergent	3

Appendix F

This section consists of all the questions posed by P5 alongside their types and number of responses that each question elicited.

Table 14

Questions Posed by P5

Number	The Questions asked during the lecture	The Type of Question asked	Number of responses
1	What's going on?	Procedural	1
2	How are you?	Procedural	1
3	You finished right?	Procedural	1
4	Is there any MTAs going on today, now?	Procedural	2
5	Is there anyone who did not take TMA 1?	Procedural	2
6	What is your full name?	Procedural	1
7	What is it?	Procedural	1
8	Is that right?	Procedural	1
9	It is really difficult when are writing in your hand, right?	Convergent	1
10	How was the Midterm overall?	Procedural	2
11	You finished?	Procedural	1
12	Finished? Any questions?	Procedural	1
13	Any questions?	Procedural	1
14	Any questions?	Procedural	1
15	You are?	Procedural	1
16	Any questions about that?	Procedural	2
17	How was this section in your midterm?	Procedural	0
18	Was it easier or harder?	Procedural	1
19	What are the effect of the following AI, social media, stress, war and Covid?	Divergent	8
20	You finished this?	Procedural	1

21	Can we start on this side?	Procedural	1
22	Can you share your answer?	Divergent	1
23	What about you?	Divergent	1
24	What do you want to share?	Divergent	1
25	Does anyone use AI in school?	Convergent	3
26	What about you?	Divergent	1
27	Did you think of any ideas?	Divergent	1
28	Anything else?	Divergent	1
29	What about you, what do you think?	Divergent	1
30	Is there anyone who needs to turn in their assignment?	Procedural	
31	Who can remind me of a cause-and-effect essay?	Convergent	1
32	What are the other types we discussed?	Convergent	1
33	We can talk about?	Convergent	1
34	Would someone like to read the first three?	Procedural	1
35	Can someone else read the other three?	Procedural	1
36	Can someone read the last four?	Procedural	1
37	Can someone read this for me?	Procedural	0
38	Abdualla, can you read?	Procedural	1
39	What does it take to make a complete sentence?	Convergent	3
40	And?	Convergent	1
41	And	Convergent	1
42	What has two-compound clauses?	Convergent	1
43	Comma and?	Convergent	1
44	What should we have when we have two independent clauses?	Convergent	2
45	What is the other option?	Divergent	2
46	Why do we think we need to add two sentences together?	Divergent	2
47	We want to make a full sentence, why?	Divergent	2
48	What else?	Divergent	1

49	Anything else from the back, here?	Procedural	0
50	Why do we combine two complete sentences?	Divergent	1
51	Can someone read sentence one?	Procedural	1
52	Can someone sentence two?	Procedural	1
53	A run-on sentence, what does it mean?	Convergent	1
54	Okay?	Procedural	3
55	And this is different from Arabic, right?	Divergent	1
56	Can someone read sentence three?	Procedural	1
57	What's number one?	Convergent	2
58	What's number two?	Convergent	3
59	What's number three?	Convergent	3
60	What is it?	Divergent	2
61	Maybe it is missing?	Divergent	2
62	What is a gerund?	Convergent	1
63	What are we missing?	Divergent	3
64	What can we add?	Divergent	1
65	What is another option?	Divergent	1
66	Can you work with those?	Procedural	1
67	You did your TMA, right?	Procedural	1
68	You both took your TMA, right?	Procedural	2
69	What is your student ID?	Procedural	1
70	907, right?	Procedural	1
71	It is a semi-column or a full stop?	Convergent	1
72	What do we put there?	Convergent	1
73	Where to add a semi-column or a conjunction?	Convergent	1
74	Who would like to read number two?	Procedural	1
75	Where should we add a semi-column?	Convergent	1
76	What else do we need?	Convergent	1
77	Is that a complete sentence?	Convergent	3
78	Is that a complete sentence?	Convergent	2

79	What did you get?	Divergent	1
80	And?	Divergent	1
81	The period works best, why?	Divergent	1
82	Where do we need to split the sentence?	Divergent	1
83	Where should we pause?	Divergent	1
84	Number 5?	Procedural	1
85	What else can we do?	Divergent	3
86	What is the cause and what is the effect?	Convergent	1
87	This is the cause, right?	Procedural	0
88	Any questions about this?	Procedural	1
89	What would you guess is a compare and contrast essay?	Divergent	1
90	What are trying to find?	Divergent	1
91	What else?	Divergent	1
92	What else do people compare and contrast?	Convergent	1
93	What are they?	Divergent	1
94	What things you should compare?	Divergent	0
95	Why and why not?	Divergent	1
96	What is the point?	Convergent	0
97	Who can tell me what a bias is?	Convergent	1
98	What is an analogy?	Convergent	1
99	Any other ideas?	Divergent	0
100	Would someone like to read this?	Procedural	1
101	Where is the analogy here?	Convergent	1
102	Has anyone held a fish before?	Convergent	1
103	Does anyone know what a metaphor is?	Convergent	0
104	Does anyone know what a simile is?	Convergent	0
105	Does anyone know where this is from?	Convergent	0
106	Can you write down one analogy?	Divergent	1
107	Can you think of abstract nouns?	Divergent	1
108	Can you think of others?	Divergent	1
109	Anything else?	Divergent	1

110	Can you just send me a text?	Procedural	1
111	Does anyone have an example?	Divergent	1
112	Can you repeat?	Procedural	1
113	So, is this an example of simile, metaphor or analogy?	Convergent	2
114	Does anyone else have an example?	Divergent	2
115	What happiness is like?	Divergent	2
116	What about sadness?	Divergent	1
117	What about fear?	Divergent	1
118	What about death?	Divergent	2
119	What else?	Divergent	2
120	Can you answer the survey very quickly?	Procedural	1
121	Do you have any questions about your midterm?	Procedural	0
122	Do you have any questions about your TMA?	Procedural	0
123	Do you have any questions?	Procedural	2

Appendix G

This section consists of all the questions posed by P6 alongside their types and number of responses that each question elicited.

Table 15

Questions Posed by P6

Number	The Questions asked during the lecture	The Type of Question asked	Number of responses
1	Did you open up the book?	Procedural	2
2	Let me know when you ready ok?	Procedural	2
3	Did you open your book Eman?	Procedural	1
4	What sort of company would you like to work for?	Divergent	0
5	What is your dream job?	Divergent	2
6	What about you, Eman?	Divergent	1
7	What type of teacher?	Divergent	1
8	Is it A?	Convergent	1
9	Which one would you pick?	Divergent	2
10	You would prefer number 2?	Divergent	1
11	Which one would you prefer to wear?	Divergent	2
12	What about you?	Divergent	1
13	Do you prefer working from home or at an office?	Divergent	2
14	Do you prefer travelling for work or staying in one country?	Divergent	2
15	Do you prefer to have your own phone or a company phone?	Divergent	1
16	Which one do you prefer?	Divergent	2
17	Did you get the answer?	Procedural	2
18	Do you want me to repeat?	Procedural	2
19	Did they mention earning a high salary?	Convergent	1
20	Did they mention wearing a suit?	Convergent	1

21	Are you sure about these answers?	Procedural	1
22	Again, did they mention wearing a suit?	Convergent	1
23	When do we use each of these?	Divergent	0
24	Eman, can you read the first example?	Procedural	1
25	What about this one?	Convergent	1
26	Sumaya, can you read the second example?	Procedural	1
27	Do you think you can give me your own examples?	Divergent	0
28	That's an example, right?	Convergent	0
29	What else?	Divergent	1
30	What about you Eman?	Divergent	0
31	Can you give me an example using the word 'can'?	Divergent	1
32	Do you have to wear a seatbelt when driving in Bahrain?	Convergent	1
33	What other rules do we have?	Divergent	0
34	Can you drive past a red light?	Convergent	1
35	What do you do?	Divergent	1
36	What else, give me another example?	Divergent	1
37	Do we have more examples?	Divergent	1
38	Is the lesson clear?	Procedural	2
39	Do you have any questions?	Procedural	1
40	That's what we listened to, right?	Procedural	1
41	Are you ready?	Procedural	1
42	What else did you write?	Convergent	1
43	Did they say about what women have to wear?	Convergent	1
44	What did they say?	Convergent	1
45	Did you get the answer?	Procedural	1
46	Can you put it in a sentence?	Divergent	1
47	Eman, did you get the answers?	Procedural	1
48	Can I see?	Procedural	0
49	How many did you get correctly?	Procedural	1

50	Did you get any answers?	Procedural	1
51	Anything else?	Divergent	1
52	What about the thing they wear?	Convergent	0
53	Did they talk about that?	Convergent	1
54	What was the last comment made by the manager?	Convergent	0
55	Should I repeat it?	Procedural	1
56	What did he say about that?	Convergent	1
57	Can I work in this room?	Convergent	1
58	Do we have to finish our reports tonight?	Convergent	1
59	What are your working hours?	Convergent	1
60	Can we buy our tickets on the bus?	Convergent	1
61	Do you have to work tonight?	Convergent	1
62	Can I pay in euros?	Convergent	1
63	Which one is it?	Convergent	1
64	Is it this one?	Convergent	1
65	It is this one, right?	Convergent	1
66	Do we have to finish our reports tonight?	Convergent	0
67	What does tonight mean?	Convergent	0
68	Do we know?	Convergent	1
69	Do you think the answer has anything to do with the day?	Divergent	1
70	Do you agree?	Divergent	1
71	This was easy, right?	Procedural	1
72	Can we buy our tickets on the bus?	Convergent	1
73	Do you have to work tonight?	Convergent	1
74	Can I pay in euros?	Convergent	1
75	Can you read it for me?	Procedural	1
76	How does it keep its employees happy?	Convergent	0
77	Do you have any ideas for a company?	Divergent	0
78	Both of you said you wanted to become teachers, right?	Convergent	2

79	What is a thing that employees have to do?	Divergent	0
80	If you are an employee, what is something you wish to be able to do?	Divergent	1
81	What is something you don't have to do at school?	Divergent	1
82	What about you, Eman, what do you think?	Divergent	0
83	Do you think they can do that?	Divergent	1
84	Do you think they should go to work everyday?	Convergent	1
85	If you are a manager, what do you have to do?	Divergent	1
86	So, you think he should be strict?	Divergent	1
87	What do you think, Eman?	Divergent	1
88	What is a rule that you think you have to follow?	Divergent	0
89	Do you think you need to attend meetings?	Divergent	1
90	Can we put that in a sentence?	Convergent	1
91	What about you, Eman?	Divergent	0
92	Can you put it in a sentence?	Convergent	1
93	What can't he do?	Convergent	0
94	Can the manager be mean to the employees?	Convergent	1
95	What else?	Convergent	1
96	We can say that, right?	Convergent	1
97	Do you have any questions?	Procedural	2
98	Did you open your books?	Procedural	2
99	Do you think people live longer now?	Divergent	2
100	Why though?	Divergent	2
101	What do you think?	Divergent	1
102	Did they use medications fifty years ago?	Convergent	0
103	Do you think there are things that make us sick that weren't there before?	Divergent	3
104	What are the positive and negative aspects of life before and now?	Divergent	1
105	What else?	Divergent	2

106	What else?	Divergent	1
107	Are these negative or positive?	Divergent	1
108	What about the positive aspects?	Divergent	1
109	Do you think they are different?	Divergent	1
110	Do you think life was much healthier before?	Divergent	1
111	What are some negative aspects of life nowadays?	Divergent	1
112	What else?	Divergent	1
113	Can we say people are lazy nowadays?	Divergent	2
114	Do you have anything to add?	Procedural	1
115	What about the positive aspects of life?	Divergent	3
116	Who can start reading the first paragraph?	Procedural	1
117	Can you finish this section?	Procedural	1
118	What point did we say about that?	Convergent	2
119	Did we mention this point?	Convergent	1
120	It is a good point, right?	Convergent	1
121	Do you know what <i>obesity</i> means?	Convergent	2
122	Can you continue reading here?	Procedural	1
123	Did we mention this point?	Convergent	1
124	Do you agree with the last point?	Divergent	2
125	How did your life change since starting university?	Divergent	0
126	Are you ready to answer?	Procedural	1
127	Who wants to start?	Procedural	1
128	Anything else?	Divergent	1
129	What about you Eman?	Divergent	0
130	How did your life change after university?	Divergent	1
131	What else?	Divergent	1
132	Who was here when I explained this lesson?	Procedural	0
133	Were you here when I explained this lesson?	Procedural	0
134	Do you need any help?	Procedural	2

135	Did you get the answer?	Procedural	1
136	Do you know if the other students are coming?	Procedural	1
137	Where is the gerund?	Convergent	2
138	Do you remember what prepositions are?	Convergent	2
139	What else?	Divergent	6
140	Do you have any guesses?	Convergent	2
141	Should I give you an example?	Procedural	0
142	What other examples do you have?	Divergent	6
143	Anything else?	Divergent	1

Appendix H

This appendix consists of the questions that were asked in the questionnaire but were not presented in the findings because they did not contribute to answering any of the research questions.

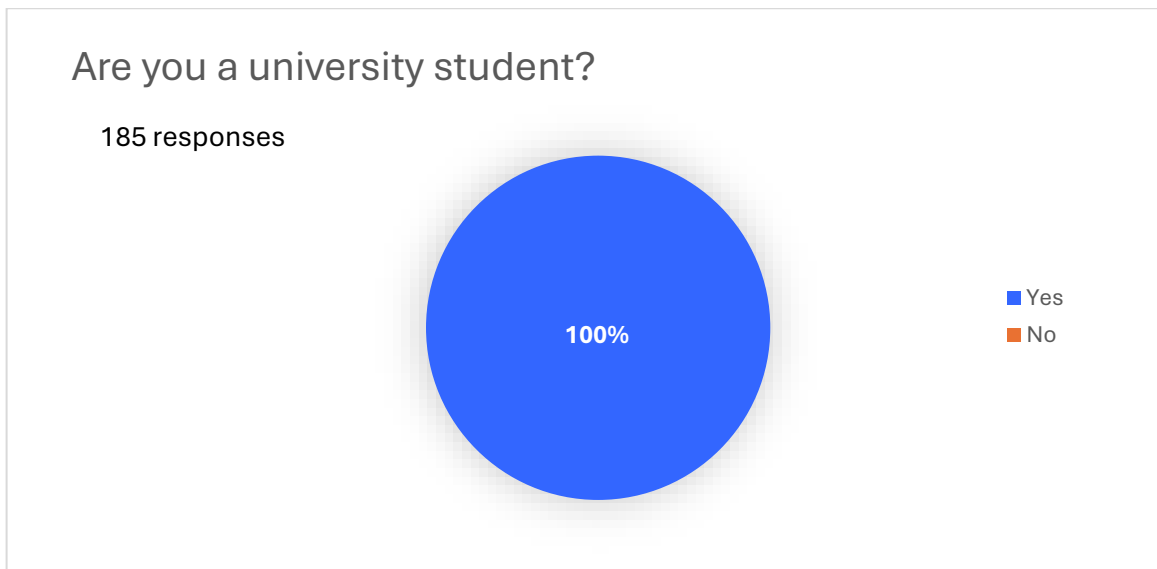


Figure 18

Question One in the Questionnaire

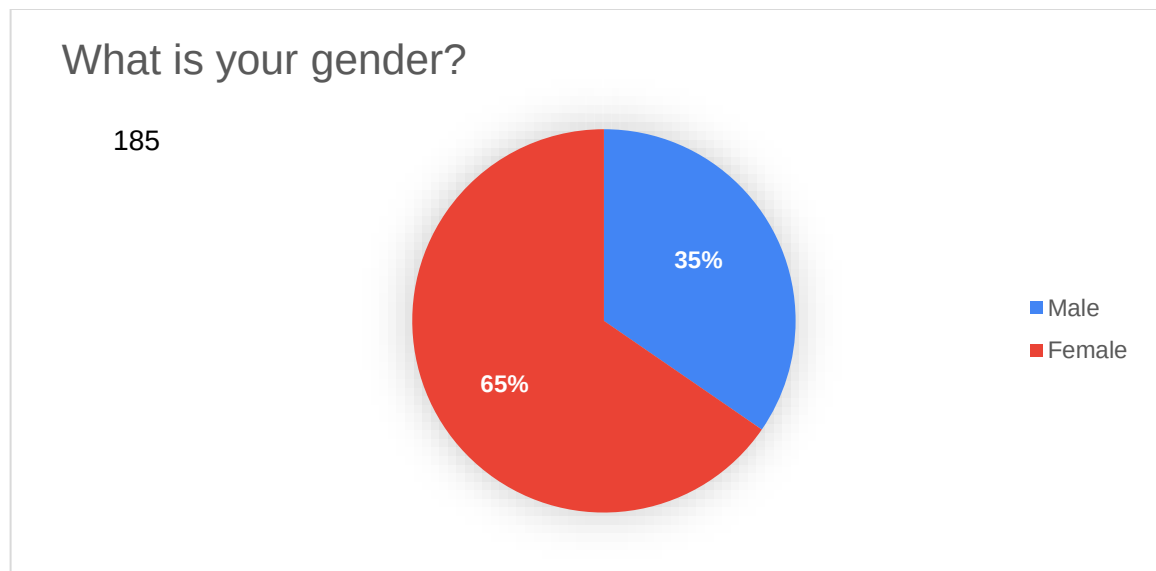


Figure 19

Question Two in the Questionnaire

ملخص البحث

تبحث الدراسة الحالية العلاقة بين حديث المعلم (Teacher Talk) وجنسه، الهدف من الدراسة هو تحديد أنواع وتكرار الأسئلة التي يطرحها كل جنس في الحصص الدراسية التي تدرس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية فيما يتعلق بمشاركة الطلاب. لجمع البيانات استخدمت الدراسة أساليب مختلطة من الأدوات النوعية والكمية من خلال الملاحظات والتسجيلات والاستبيان، واستخدمت هذه الدراسة أيضا تحليل الخطاب لتحليل حديث المعلم إلى جانب إطار ريتشاردز ولوكهارت لتصنيف الأسئلة إلى ثلاث فئات: الأسئلة الإجرائية والمتقاربة والمتباعدة. تكونت العينة من ثلاثة محاضرين جامعيين من الذكور وثلاثة محاضرات من الإناث إلى جانب طلابهم الذين يدرسون اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. أظهرت النتائج أنه بغض النظر عن الجنس، أظهر المحاضرون الستة أنواعا متشابهة من الأسئلة، بما في ذلك الأسئلة الإجرائية والمتقاربة والمتباعدة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، وجد أن تكرر هذه الأسئلة قريبة جدًا، لذلك استنتج أن الجنس لم يؤثر بشكل كبير على نوع وتعدد الأسئلة المطروحة في الفصول الدراسية التي تدرس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. ومع ذلك، وجد أن جنس المحاضر له تأثير كبير على مشاركة الطلاب، حيث تبين أن تفاعل الطلاب مع المحاضرات الإناث أكثر من المحاضرين الذكور، وعند التحقق من تصورات الطلاب لنوع الأسئلة وجنس المحاضرين الذين يطرحون هذه الأسئلة، تم تحديد أنه في حين أن غالبية الطلاب ليس لديهم تفضيلات لجنس المحاضر، كانت هناك اختلافات بين أولئك الذين لديهم. وأعرب غالبية الطلاب عن تفضيلهم لطرح أسئلة متباعدة، وهو ما تدعمه الملاحظات. وخلصت هذه الدراسة إلى أن أنواع وتكرار الأسئلة التي يطرحها المحاضرون لا تتأثر بالجنس المحاضر. ومع ذلك، يتأثر مستوى مشاركة الطلاب بجنس المحاضر بسبب أنماط التواصل المختلفة لديهم. بناءً عليه، يُوصى المعلمين بزيادة تكرار الأسئلة المطروحة في الصف، وخاصة الأسئلة المتنوعة. كما يُوصى بأن يكون المعلمون أكثر قربًا وسهولة في التحدث مع الطلبة وهو ما يفضلهُ الطلاب

جامعة البحرين



كلية الآداب

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية وآدابها

تأثير أنواع الأسئلة على مشاركة الطلاب: دراسة حالة محاضري اللغة
الإنجليزية في الجامعة بمملكة البحرين

رسالة مقدمة استكمالاً لمتطلبات درجة الماجستير في الدراسات التطبيقية في اللغة الانجليزية

إعداد

سلوى حسن علي

20150593

بإشراف

الدكتور نوري العجيلي

أستاذ مشارك

جامعة البحرين

مملكة البحرين

سبتمبر / 2024