GENDER AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION:
AN ANALYSIS OF HOW A FEMALE AND A MALE TEACHER IN TWO EFL CLASSROOMS IN TURKEY GIVE THEIR ATTENTION TO STUDENTS

Thesis submitted to the

Institute for Graduate Studies in the Social Sciences

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

in

English Language Education

by

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2009

Thesis Abstract

Ebru Bağ, "Gender and Classroom Interaction: An Analysis of How a Female and a Male Teacher in Two EFL Classrooms in Turkey Give Their Attention to Students"

The present study aimed to examine teachers' classroom interaction with female and male students, and to reveal the teachers' and the students' perceptions about gender and classroom interaction in EFL classrooms in Turkey. More specifically, a female and a male teachers' classrooms were examined to see whether there were any similarities and/or differences in the level of the teachers' student selection, in the number of the teachers' academic (A) and non-academic (NA) initiating moves directed towards female and male students, and in the amount of the feedback provided to female and male students by the teachers. For the study, two EFL classrooms, taught by a female and a male teacher at a preparatory school of a university, were video-taped and observed for two months. Both the teachers and some of the students were interviewed at the end of the data collection process. The transcribed classroom data were analyzed using an adaptation of the Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) Classroom Discourse Analysis Model.

The findings of the study showed that both the female and the male teacher did not pay equal attention to female and male students with respect to teacher's initiating moves (both academic and non-academic) and teacher's academic (A) and non-academic (NA) initiating moves. As for the feedback provided to female and male students provided by the teachers, the results showed that the female teacher provided equal attention to female and male students while the male teacher did not pay equal attention. The findings of the interviews, all of the students who were interviewed for the study indicated that the teachers select equal number of female and male students to participate in the classroom interaction. During the interview with the teachers, the female teacher stated that while selecting students to talk, she paid attention to the academic capacity of the students to answer the questions and the distribution between girls and boys, while the male teacher indicated that he paid attention to the readiness of the students to answer the questions. The results of the study were discussed by referring to the relevant literature, and pedagogical implications were drawn.

Tez Özeti

Ebru Bağ, "Toplumsal Cinsiyet ve Sınıf İçi İletişim: Türkiye'de İngilizce'nin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretildiği İki Yabancı Dil Sınıfında Bir Kadın ve Bir Erkek Öğretmenin Öğrencilerle Nasıl İlgilendiklerinin Analizi"

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'de İngilizce'nin Yabancı Dil Olarak (EFL) öğretildiği sınıflarda öğretmenlerin kız ve erkek öğrencilerle sınıf içi iletişimini incelemeyi ve öğretmen ve öğrencilerin toplumsal cinsiyet ve sınıf içi iletişimle ilgili algılarını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır. Özellikle belirtmek gerekirse bu çalışmada, sınıf içi iletişim sırasında kız ve erkek öğrencilere söz hakkı verildiğinde kız ve erkek öğrencilere yöneltilen açış tümceleri (initiating moves), akademik ve akademik olmayan açış tümceleri (academic and non-academic initiating moves) ve kız ve erkek öğrencilere verilen geri dönütlerin (feedback) oranı arasında benzerlik ve/veya farklılık olup olmadığını anlamak için bir kadın ve bir erkek öğretmenin yabancı dil sınıfı incelenmiştir. Çalışma için bir üniversitenin Hazırlık okulunda İngilizce'nin Yabancı Dil Olarak öğretildiği bir kadın ve bir erkek öğretmenin sınıfı iki ay boyunca gözlemlenmiş ve videoya kaydedilmiştir. Veri toplama sürecinin sonunda her iki öğretmen ve öğrencilerin bir kısmı ile görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Veriler Sinclair ve Coulthard'ın (1992) Sınıf İçi Söylem Analiz Modelinin bu çalışmaya uyarlanmış şekli ile analiz edilmiştir.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları hem kadın hem de erkek öğretmenin, öğrencilere yönelttikleri genel açış tümcelerinde (hem akademik hem akademik olmayan) ve akademik ve akademik olmayan açış tümcelerinde eşit dağılım olmadığını göstermiştir. Öğrencilere verilen geridönüt bakımından kadın öğretmenin sınıfında kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasında eşit bir dağılım görülürken erkek öğretmenin sınıfında eşit bir dağılım görülmemiştir. Görüşmelerin sonucunda, görüşme yapılan bütün öğrenciler öğretmenlerinin öğrencilere söz hakkı verirken kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasında eşit bir dağılım gösterdiklerini düşündüklerini belirtmişlerdir. Öğretmenlerle yapılan görüşmelerde kadın öğretmen öğrencilere söz hakkı verirken öğrencilerin akademik kapasitelerine ve kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasındaki dağılıma dikkat ettiğini belirtirken erkek öğretmen öğrencilerin sorulara cevap verip verememe durumlarına dikkat ettiğini belirtmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları ve alana katkısı ilgili alanyazına atıfta bulunularak tartışılmıştır.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge and extend my heartfelt gratitude to the people, who have made the completion of this thesis possible. First and foremost, I would like to offer my sincerest gratitude to my thesis advisors Assoc. Prof. Yasemin Bayyurt and Assist. Prof. Leyla Martı for their continuous support, encouragement, patience, guidance, and feedback. They have always been supportive of me since my undergraduate education and I am indebted to them not only for their academic support but also for their moral support. This work would not have been possible without their encouragement and supervision. I am also grateful to my thesis committee Prof. Fatma Gök, Dr. Lia Litosseliti and Assist. Prof. Sibel Tatar for their contribution to my thesis. I am grateful to Prof. Fatma Gök for her invaluable guidance and support throughout my education at Boğaziçi University. Her encouragement has been very important for me since my freshman class at the university. I owe special thanks to Dr. Lia Litosseliti for devoting her time to my thesis viva and for her invaluable comments and suggestions, which will help me develop my work further. I also owe my deepest thanks to Assist. Prof. Sibel Tatar for her constructive feedback on my thesis.

I am also grateful to my professors Assoc. Prof. Ayşe Gürel, Assoc. Prof. Belma Haznedar, Prof. Cem Alptekin, Assist. Prof. Gülcan Erçetin, Assist. Prof. Senem Yıldız, and Assist. Prof. Sumru Akcan, who have broadened my vision and contributed to my academic development throughout my graduate education.

I would like to thank Dr. Jane Sunderland from Lancaster University for providing me with an electronic copy of her PhD thesis.

I am grateful to Anthony John Pavlik for allocating his time to edit my thesis although he was very busy.

I owe special thanks to my dearest friends who have always been with me whenever I need help and support although it is not possible to mention all the names here. Among these are İnci Katırcı, Feride Özdemir, Kadir Kozan, Filiz Çele, Pınar Yavuz, Mustafa Tezcan, Melike Kara, Zennure Elgün, Eray Sevingil, Nevin Kahriman, Dijle Kasımoğlu, Emine Ersavaş Uçar, and Filiz Sert İğde. İnci, Feride and Kadir are the real witnesses of my thesis and all its painful stages. Their friendship means much to me.

I am totally indebted to my parents, Pembe Bağ and Yüksel Bağ for their unconditional love, support and encouragement. They have always been supportive of me and trusted in me. I am indebted to my elder sister Eylem Bağ Topbaş and her husband Aziz Topbaş for their encouragement and patience during the final stages of my thesis. My younger sister Esra Bağ deserves my deepest thank for her emotional support and endless help. It would have not been possible to complete my thesis without her aid during the last phases of my thesis. I owe much to my brother Emrah Bağ for the emotional support that he provided me with even though he lives far away from me. Although it is not possible to mention all of them here, I would also like to extend my gratitude to my extended family.

Many special thanks also go to the participants of the study who have made the research possible. Without their help, this thesis could not have been completed.

I would also like to acknowledge that the video-camera used for the study was provided by a research grant given to Assist. Prof. Leyla Martı by the Boğaziçi University Scientific Research Projects Fund (Project No: 08D601).

Last but not least, I would like to thank all the people who helped and inspired me during my education and this study.

To my family…

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Language and Gender[1] is a developing field, and it has been of interest to researchers from various disciplines (Tannen, 1996; Litosseliti, 2006). The second wave feminist movement, which flourished in the late 1960s and early 1970s, influenced the work in different areas and disciplines (e.g. see Freedman, 2002 for a more detailed review of the historical feminist movements). This movement also influenced the work on language and gender (Cameron, 1990; Spender, 1998, first published in1980; West & Zimmerman, 1977, 1983; Zimmerman & West, 1975).

Early studies between the 1970s and 1990s on language and gender focused on how language is used by women and men. Although there are some overlaps between them, these studies are generally divided into three phases: the deficit model, the dominance model and the difference model (Cameron, 1995; Talbot, 1998). Briefly explained, the deficit model sees women as disadvantaged language users, the dominance model sees men as more powerful and more dominant language users, and the difference model claims that girls and boys are socialized in different cultures, and these differences may lead to different communication styles and to miscommunication between women and men.

The second wave of the feminist movement in the 1960s and 1970s, which influenced the research on language and gender, also influenced the research on gender and education (Sunderland, 1998). There is extensive research in this area,

[1] The term 'gender' refers to the socially constructed values, traits, behaviors, and roles assigned to women and men while the term 'sex' refers to the biological distinctions between women and men (Litosseliti, 2006). However, in the present study, I do not use two separate terms as such and I refer to both terms as gender.

and a growing number of studies have been carried out to examine the issue of gender in education from various perspectives. Researchers have done studies to examine the issue of gender in education in pre-school and elementary classrooms (French & French, 1984; Reay, 2001; Sadker, Sadker & Klein, 1991), in secondary and high-school classrooms (Sadker, Sadker & Klein, 1991), and in university level classrooms (Brady & Eisler, 1999; Sax & Harper, 2007).

Research on gender and education can also be classified according to the areas and subject classes of the studies. There are studies that were carried out to examine the differences in the performance of girls and boys in different subject areas at school (Dayıoğlu & Türüt-Aşık, 2007; Salisbury et al., 1999; Swiatek et al., 2000), to examine the gender of students and their perception of classroom activities and perception of achievement (Bennett et al., 1993), and to examine gender and classroom interaction (Clarricoates, 1983; Duffy et al., 2001; French & French, 1984; Good et al., 1973; Kelly, 1988; Jones & Dindia, 2004; Jones & Wheatley, 1990; She, 2000; Stake & Katz, 1982).

Gender and classroom interaction, particularly teacher-student interaction in the English as a Foreign Language (hereafter EFL) classroom, is the main focus of the present study. Based on the review of the studies in the literature concerning teacher-student interaction, the two meta-analytic reviews conducted by Kelly (1988) and Jones and Dindia (2004) indicate that teachers have more interaction with males students than female students. With regard to foreign language classrooms, there are relatively few studies in the literature (Farooq, 2000; Sunderland, 1996). Sunderland (1996) noted that "the assumption that much of what is gendered that occurs in a given non-foreign-language class may well occur too in a foreign language class" (p. 41).

Having equal chances to talk and participate in classroom interaction is crucial for the academic development of students as well as their social development. In Turkey, there are a number of studies on gender and education (e.g. Dayıoğlu & Türüt-Aşık, 2007; Gök, 1999; Gök et al., 2002; Gümüşoğlu, 1996). However, to the best knowledge of the researcher, there are no studies carried out to examine teacher-student interaction in terms of teachers' and students' gender. For this reason, the present study aimed to analyze the quantity and quality of teachers' attention towards female and male students and to reveal teachers' and students' perception about gender and classroom interaction. For these purposes, two EFL classes that were taught by a female and a male teacher were examined in terms of teacher-student interaction, and both the teachers and some of the students were interviewed at the end of the data collection period. The study is guided by the following research questions:

1) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the level of a female and a male teacher's student selection in an intermediate level EFL classroom in a preparatory school of a university in Turkey?

2) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the number of the female and the male teacher's academic (A) and non-academic (NA) initiating moves directed to female students and male students in an intermediate level EFL classroom in a preparatory school of a university in Turkey?

3) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the amount of feedback provided by the female and the male teachers to female and male students in

an intermediate level EFL classroom in a preparatory school of a university in Turkey?

4) What are the perceptions of teachers and students about gender and teacher-student interaction in an intermediate level EFL classroom in a preparatory school of a university in Turkey?

(For the specific research questions of the study please see App. A).

The thesis is organized as follows: The second chapter is a review of the literature on language and gender, gender and non-language classroom interaction, and gender and second/foreign language classroom interaction. The third chapter provides information about the methodological procedures of the present study as well as the data analysis process of the study. The findings of the study will be reported in the fourth chapter. Finally, the fifth chapter presents the discussion and conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, studies on language, gender and classroom interaction will be reviewed in three sections. The first section will cover the studies on language and gender in two parts. In part one, the studies done between the 1970s and 1990s will be reviewed, and, in part two, recent approaches to language and gender will be discussed. The second section will be about research on gender and classroom interaction in non-language classrooms. Lastly, the third section will focus on gender and classroom interaction in second/foreign language classrooms.

An Overview of Literature on Language and Gender

Early work on language and gender will be reviewed in this part in order to provide some background information about the issue before presenting the studies on gender and classroom interaction.

Studies between the 1970s and 1990s

Although there are some overlaps between them, early work on language and gender is generally divided into three phases: the deficit model; the dominance model, and the difference model (Cameron, 1995; Talbot, 1998). Cameron (1995) summarizes these models as follows:

> A crude historical-typological account of feminist linguistic approaches since 1973 would probably distinguish between three models of language and

> gender. One is a deficit model in which women are seen as disadvantaged speakers because of their early sex-role socialization (…) The second is a dominance model in which women are seen, often through an ethnomethodological frame, as negotiating their relatively powerless position in interacting with men: male social privilege is made manifest in recurrent patterns of language use (…) Finally there is a cultural difference model in which analogies are made between gender and other social divisions such as ethnicity; segregation of the sexes during childhood and adolescence produces marked differences in their conversational goals and styles (…) (p. 33)

The three models and the recent approaches on gender and language will now be explained in detail below.

The Deficit Model

As stated above, the deficit model sees women as disadvantaged language users. Robin Lakoff's book, "Language and Woman's Place" (1975, reprinted in 2004), exemplifies the deficit model, and it is one of the earliest and the most influential works on language and gender. Lakoff's main claim is that women's language is characterized by certain features such as politeness, lack of confidence and uncertainty. She suggests that specific features of women's language are as follows: lexical hedges, tag questions, rising intonation on declaratives, empty adjectives, precise color terms, intensifiers, 'hypercorrect' grammar, 'superpolite' forms, an avoidance of strong swear words, and emphatic stress. Lakoff (1975, reprinted in 2004) claims that these features may be due to the low status of women and their having less power in society.

Although this was one of the pioneering works on language and gender, Lakoff's ideas were criticized by subsequent research and researchers (Holmes, 1986; O'Barr & Atkins, 1998, first published in 1974). For instance, it is suggested

that the features she ascribed to women's speech such as 'hedges' or 'tag questions' may have different functions (Holmes, 1986, 2001) other than showing hesitancy or lack of power. The results of Holmes's study (1986) examining the functions of the expression 'you know' in women's and men's speech revealed that there was no difference between women and men in the number of instances of 'you know'. Furthermore, Holmes stated that women used 'you know' for positive politeness functions, while men used it when they thought that the message was coded vaguely or insufficiently.

Lakoff (1975, reprinted in 2004) did not support her claims with empirical research; rather, she relied on her own intuition and observations. However, despite the criticism her work received, she influenced the studies of language and gender, and her study is important as it is one of the first studies on language and gender.

The Dominance Model

In late 1970s and early 1980s, the dominance model became prevalent in explaining women's and men's interaction. In the dominance model "language patterns are interpreted as manifestations of a patriarchal social order" (Talbot, 1998, p. 131). This model emphasizes the unequal power relationship between women and men, and how this unequal power relationship is expressed through language as well as how it affects language use. The best-known work on the issue of language, gender and power within the dominance approach is Man Made Language, written by Dale Spender in 1980. Spender (1998, first published in 1980) claimed that English language is man-made, and language is the means by which reality is constructed, which in turn, helps men block women's reality. Her ideas provide a basis for the

dominance approach, in which the emphasis is on the inequality in cross-sex conversations.

Related to this issue, Zimmerman and West (1975) examined same-sex and cross-sex conversations in their natural settings to see whether women or men interrupt, or which party dominates the speech. They found that more interruptions occurred in cross-sex exchanges than same-sex exchanges, and that male interruptions occurred more than female interruptions in those cross-sex exchanges. In a subsequent study, West and Zimmerman (1977) recorded five parent-child interactions in a physician's office and compared the interruptions in these interactions with the ones in their previous study of cross-sex interactions. They found that parent interruptions occurred more often than child interruptions, and they pointed out that females and children were treated in a similar way to conversations between males/adults and females/children. Following these studies, West and Zimmerman (1983) carried out another study with unacquainted people in a laboratory setting. The results of this study revealed that 75% of the interruptions were made by males, and these findings were similar to those of the previous one which was carried out with people who are familiar with each other, and in which 96% of the interruptions were made by males. As a result of these studies, West and Zimmerman (1983) suggested that "interruption is a device for exercising power and control in conversation" (1983, p. 103). However, these studies should be examined carefully and critically. As suggested by Litosseliti (2006), men's domination in a conversation may be unintentional, or "women may choose not to interrupt" (p. 37).

Drawing on Lakoff's ideas, O'Barr and Atkins (1998, first published in 1974) conducted a study in a court in North Carolina to examine the variations of language in a specific institutional context rather than examining language and sex differences.

Based on the results of their study, the researchers claimed that so called 'woman's language' "is neither the characteristics of all women nor limited only to women" (1998, p. 384). Thus, they suggested that it is better to use the term "powerless language" (p. 385) instead of "women's language" because the features ascribed to women's speech by Lakoff (1975) were also observed in men's speech. They claimed that the usages of those features are related to 'power' as they suggest that the speaker's status and powerfulness affect their language use.

In her study analyzing conversations between heterosexual couples, which was conducted to investigate how power was reflected and maintained in the couples' daily interactions, Fishman (1983) found that there was an inequality in talk between the couples who participated in her study and that, compared to men, women asked more "questions" (p. 94) and used more "attention beginnings" (p. 95). She put forward the idea that usages of these strategies of 'questions' and 'attention beginnings' were to facilitate the conversation rather than a result of women being hesitant or insecure. As stated in the deficit model section, Lakoff (1975, reprinted in 2004) interpreted women's asking more questions than men as their being insecure. However, Fishman (1983) stated that, "By asking questions, women strengthen the possibility of a response to what they have to say" (p. 94).

According to Lakoff (1975, reprinted in 2004), tag questions are one of the characteristics of 'deficit woman language'. However, Cameron, McAlinden and O'Leary (1988) argued that there is not a simple relation between linguistic form and communication function. For them, the roles of the participants in conversation as well as the objectives of interaction are also important in deciding the role of 'tag questions' used by women and men in an interaction.

Like the deficit model, the dominance model is not without criticism. As stated above, "not all men in all cultures are in a position to dominate women" (Litosseliti, 2006, p. 37). It has also been suggested that one should be more definitive and should take the social context into consideration while explaining the dominance issue (Talbot, 1998).

The Difference Model

The third model, the difference model, suggests that girls and boys are socialized in different cultures, and these differences may lead to misunderstandings or miscommunication between women and men. This model could best be exemplified by Maltz and Borker's study, "A cultural approach to male-female miscommunication" (Maltz & Borker, 1998, first published in 1982). In their study, the researchers tried to explore the differences in cross-sex conversations of female and male speakers. They pointed out that the explanations about the differences between women's and men's speaking features offered by the previous models (namely, the deficit and the dominance models) mostly focus on "differences in the social power or in the personalities of men and women" (p. 419). Maltz and Borker (1982; reprinted in 1998) thought the explanations that were put forward by the deficit and the dominance models were not satisfactory in explaining why some specific speaking features appear. Maltz and Borker stated in their study that they did not focus on power or psychological differences, but rather they focused on "a notion of cultural differences between men and women in their conceptions of friendly conversation, their rules for engaging in it and, probably most important, their rules for interpreting it" (p. 420).

Maltz and Borker were influenced by the work of Gumperz (2005, first published in 1982) and his "interethnic communication" framework, and they tried to apply his framework to the interaction between women and men. For Gumperz,

> The fact that two speakers whose sentences are quite grammatical can differ radically in their interpretation of each other's verbal strategies indicates that conversational management does rest on linguistic knowledge. But to find out what that knowledge is we must abandon the existing views of communication which draw a basic distinction between cultural or social knowledge on the one hand and linguistic signaling processes on the other. Socio-cultural conventions affect all levels of speech production and interpretation (…) (p. 43)

Gumperz claims that people may interpret cues differently, which in turn leads to miscommunication.

Some of the studies focusing on cultural differences between women and men have gained popularity not only among linguists and sociolinguists, but also among other readers from various disciplines. One of these works is "You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation" by Deborah Tannen (1990). In this popular book, Tannen claims that 'dominance' is not the only factor affecting the conversations between women and men, and that the cultures in which girls and boys are raised are not the same, which in turn leads to friction between them. Tannen (1998) reiterates her statement in her later work, "Talk in the Intimate Relationship: His and Hers".

Another book that has gained popularity is "Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus" by John Gray (1992). Gray also claims that women and men are different, and that it is this different culture that may cause conflicts between them. He suggests that "Without the awareness that we are supposed to be different, men and women are at odds with each other ... Clearly recognizing and respecting these differences dramatically reduce confusion when dealing with the opposite sex" (p. 10).

Focusing on women, men and politeness, Holmes (1995) claims that politeness is an issue that can be conceptualized differently by different cultures. Furthermore, she states that, when compared to men, women are more positively polite or supportive in their interactions. Gal (1995) also notes the importance of culture in determining the links between linguistic practices, gender and status. She argues that different linguistic forms may have different meanings in different specific linguistic situations and linguistic ideologies.

The Difference model is also criticized by some researchers for not accounting for the similarities between women's and men's speech, and for neglecting the issue of 'power' (Talbot, 1998; Litosseliti, 2006). In addition, it has been suggested that women and men are not always using the same interactional style (Talbot, 1998).

Recent Approaches to Language and Gender

As pointed out by Litosseliti (2006), early models, especially the difference and the dominance models, overemphasized the difference between women and men in their language use, while ignoring the similarities between these groups and the role of social context. However, early models of language and gender are crucial for feminist linguistics. As Cameron (1995) notes, "Both dominance and difference represented particular moments in feminism: dominance was the moment of feminist outrage, of bearing witness to oppression in all aspects of women's lives, while difference was the moment of feminist celebration, reclaiming and revaluing women's distinctive cultural traditions" (p. 39).

Most recent approaches to language and gender have been influenced by post-structuralism (Baxter, 2002a, 2002b, 2003), which is a successor to structuralism. Poststructuralist approaches ask more critical questions. They examine how gender is affected by language rather than looking for the different usages of language by different sexes. These approaches point out that gender is not simple and static but complex and dynamic (Norton & Pavlenko, 2004; Norton & Toohey, 2004; Pavlenko, 2004).

In order to comprehend the propositions of post-structuralism, it is necessary to give some information about structuralism. In the twentieth century, structuralism denoted the basis of European thought. In the study of linguistics, Ferdinand de Saussure (1966, first published in 1916) developed a structural notion of language in which he believes that meaning is something to be found in the whole structure of language. Culler (1998) defines structuralism and structuralists as follows:

> The term 'structuralism' can be applied to any analysis that emphasizes structures and relations, but it usually designates a twentieth-century European (especially French) school of thought that applies the methods of structural linguistics to the study of social and cultural phenomena. Starting from the insight that social and cultural phenomena are not physical objects and events but objects and events with meaning, and that their signification must therefore be a focus of analysis, structuralists reject causal analysis and any attempt to explain social and cultural phenomena one-by-one. Rather, they focus on the internal structure of cultural objects and, more importantly, the underlying structures that make them possible. (p. 174)

However, by the late twentieth century, a reaction against structuralism had emerged, a movement which is related to the French philosophers Jacques Derrida, Michel Foucault and their followers. Structuralism assumed that the system itself is absolute and leaves no room for subjectivity. On the other hand, "Post-structuralist critiques of structuralism typically challenge the assumption that systems are self-sufficient structures and question the possibility of the precise definitions on which systems of knowledge must be based" (Gutting, 1998, p. 596). The post-structural critique of

structuralism is mainly dependent on two hypotheses: "(1) that no system can be autonomous (self-sufficient) in the way that structuralism requires; and (2) that the defining dichotomies on which structuralist systems are based express distinctions that do not hold up under careful scrutiny" (Gutting, 1998, p. 597). The former is related to the rejection of "any logical foundation for a system of thought" since there is no mechanism that could "guarantee the validity or stability of any system of thought." The latter is concerned with the fundamental dichotomies (binary oppositions) since any structural system assumes the "distinctions" between oppositions such as "odd/even, living/non-living, man/nature, man/animal male/female" and so on (Gutting, 1998, p. 597). Derrida (1976), for example, uses "deconstruction" to play with dichotomies and to show that oppositions are not absolute because meaning is contextual and ambiguous; and language is not a natural reflection of the world but simply an interpretation of it.

The advent of post-structuralism also influenced the development of post-structuralist feminist critique (Baxter, 2002a, 2002b, 2003; Kristeva, 1982). Unlike other feminist critiques, which were concerned with the representation of women, the post-structuralist feminist theorists studied how gender is created within the structure of language itself. In this sense, post-structuralism is about subject positions of woman and man within the structure of language. By referring to Jardine (1982), Klages (2001) explains the contention of post-structuralist feminist theory as follows:

> Feminist theory in France in the early 80s, (…), isn't interested in women writers or women theorists, but in positing "woman" as a binary opposition to "man," and examining/deconstructing the other binaries that reinforce and uphold that opposition: man/woman, masculine/feminine, presence/absence, rational/irrational, moral/immoral, light/dark, life/death, good/evil, etc. All the things on the right side of the slashes are things that Western culture works to control, to suppress, or to exclude, positing them as disruptive or destructive of the concepts on the left side of the slash. Hence "woman" and

> the "feminine" are constituted as otherness, as non-being, as alterity, as something outside of consciousness and rationality, and dangerous to those categories (para. 6).

In conclusion, past research on language and gender focused on the differences between women's and men's speech and on male dominance. However, more recent approaches note the importance of gender complexity and dynamism. These recent approaches look at the effects of gender on language use rather than considering it as a determinant of different language use, as well as noting the importance of context, both localized and global.

Gender and Classroom Interaction in Non-Language Classrooms

School is a place that has important effects on the psychological and social development of a person (Sarah, 1988; Delamont, 1990). Together with other social settings, such as family and friends, educational setting plays an important role in the construction and realization of a person's gender as "school is a social world which bears a very close resemblance to society at large" (Sarah, 1988, p. 157). This section will discuss the relationship between gender and educational setting by referring to gender and classroom interaction in non-language classrooms before presenting the studies on gender and foreign language classrooms, which is the main focus of the present study.

Bayyurt and Litosseliti (2006) suggest that studies on gender and classroom interaction can be classified as studies focusing on 'teacher-student interaction' (Clarricoates, 1983; Duffy et al., 2001; French & French, 1984; Good et al., 1973; Kelly, 1988; Jones & Dindia, 2004; Jones & Wheatley, 1990; She, 2000; Stake & Katz, 1982), studies focusing on 'student-student interaction' (Gass & Varonis, 1986;

Godinho, 2004; Sauntson, 2007), and finally studies focusing on 'discourses and gender identities' in educational settings (Corson, 1997; Davies, 2003; Norton & Pavlenko, 2004; Norton & Toohey, 2004; Sunderland, 1995).

As stated earlier in the introduction chapter, there has been extensive research on gender and classroom interaction since the 1960s and 1970s. These studies have attempted to examine the effects of gender on classroom interaction, or the effects of classroom interaction on the construction of the gender identities of students. Some of these studies were carried out to find out whether the sex of the teacher or sex of the students has any effects on teacher-student interaction. For instance, Good et al. (1973) examined the effects of teacher sex and student sex on classroom interaction in 16 seventh- and eighth- grade classrooms by using the Brophy-Good Dyadic Coding System. Having observed four female and four male mathematics teachers, and four female and four male social studies teachers, they found that female and male teachers' behaviors towards students differed in some ways although there were also some similarities. The overall results of the study showed that high-achieving boys received the most favorable teacher treatment, while low-achieving boys received the poorest interaction with the teachers. On the other hand, low-achieving girls also received low teacher contact, but not lower than low-achieving boys.

In another study, Stake and Katz (1982) observed eleven female and ten male elementary school teachers in order to see the attitudes and behaviors of teachers toward their students. In addition to observation, teachers themselves described their behaviors towards the students on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Researchers reported that boys received more reprimands than girls, and both female and male teachers described them as misbehaving more than girls. Researchers explain this result by suggesting that boys have more discipline problems compared to girls in the

classroom. Additionally, the results of this study showed that female teachers were more positive than male teachers in their behaviors towards the students, which is explained by the researchers as females' receiving more socialization in the nurturing of children. Merrett and Wheldall (1992) also found that boys received more responses—both praise and reprimand—than girls. These results were further supported by Younger and Warrington (1996). Their research showed that teachers reprimanded boys more often than girls, directed more questions to boys, and gave their attention to them more than to girls. Younger and Warrington (1996) also claim that most of the teachers believe that they treat girls and boys equally, but that this is not often the case.

One of the most cited studies on gender and classroom interaction was carried out by Spender (1982, as cited in Sunderland, 1992). She recorded her own teaching to examine whether there are any differences or not in her interaction with the students. She evaluates her findings as follows:

> (…) sometimes I have (…) thought I have gone too far and have spent more time with the girls than the boys. But the tapes have proved otherwise. Out of ten taped lessons (…) the maximum time I spent interacting with girls was 42 per cent and on average 38 percent, and the minimum time with boys 58 per cent (…) It is nothing short of a substantial shock to appreciate the discrepancy between what I thought I was doing and what I actually was doing.
>
> (Spender, 1982, p. 56, as cited in Sunderland, 1992, p. 88)

Swann and Graddol (1988) analyzed sequences of talk between teacher and students in two different primary school classrooms. Classroom interaction was video-taped for the analysis. In one of the classrooms, the teacher's style was described as "relaxed and informal" (p. 50), while the other teacher's style was described as "more formal" (p. 51). It is reported that, regardless of the teacher's style—relaxed or strict—girls contributed far less than boys. The researchers suggested that teachers

favored boys "by giving them more gaze attention, offering them more questions and cuing them to answer earlier" (p. 60).

In her meta-analytic review of 81 studies Kelly (1988) explored the gender differences in teacher-student interaction. A more detailed summary of the review is made by Kelly as follows:

> It is now beyond dispute that girls receive less of the teacher's attention in class, and that this is true across a wide range of different conditions. It applies in all age groups (although more in some than in others) in several countries, in various socio-economic groupings, across all subjects in the curriculum, and with both male and female teachers (although more with males). Boys get more of all kinds of classroom interaction. The discrepancy is most marked for behavioural criticism, but this doesn't explain the overall imbalance. Boys also get more instructional contacts, more high level questions, more academic criticism and slightly more praise than girls (…) the discrepancies are just as large in teacher-initiated interactions as in pupil-initiated interactions (…) (p. 20).

Duffy, et al. (2001) investigated the classroom interactions of 597 students (303 females and 294 males) and 36 teachers (8 females and 28 males) in the mathematics and English literature/language classes of 18 schools in Canada by examining the effects of teachers' gender, students' gender and class subject. Interactions for Sex Equity in Classroom Teaching (hereafter INTERSECT), the model developed by Sadker and Sadker in 1982 to code classroom interaction, was used as the instrument to observe the interactions. They found that female mathematics teachers, female literature/language teachers and male literature/language teachers had more interactions with male students than female students.

Nearly twenty years later than the meta-analytic review done by Kelly (1988), another meta-analytic review was conducted by Jones and Dindia (2004) to examine teacher-initiated teacher student interactions. Researchers coded 32 studies for positive, negative and total interactions. It was reported that teachers initiated more overall interactions with male students than female students, which was similar to the

results of Kelly's meta-analytic review. It was also reported that teachers had more negative interactions with male students than female students.

In a recent study, Aukrust (2008) examined the participation of girls and boys in teacher-led classroom conversations in four grade levels (first, third, sixth and ninth). Her aim was to find out whether there is a difference between girls' and boys' classroom participation, whether girls and boys have similar or different strategies for becoming participants in classroom conversations, and whether grade level and teacher gender matter for girls' and boys' participation. She found that the boys participated more than the girls in all grade levels and they participated in activities most both in female and male teachers' classes. She also found that the boys overlapped the teacher more than the girls.

While examining the teacher-student interaction in classroom, researchers also investigated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices (She, 2000; Tatar & Emmanuel, 2001). In a study of this kind, She (2000) aimed to analyze and describe the relationships between teacher beliefs, teaching practices, and gender-based student-teacher interaction by using an adaptation of the Brophy-Good Dyadic Interaction System. She collected data from a seventh-grade biology classroom in Taiwan. She specifically examined the relationship between a teacher's beliefs, his/her practices and his/her classroom interaction with students, the beliefs which most affect a teacher's pedagogical approach and interactions with either male or female students; and the factors that affect gender-based student-teacher interactions in those particular seventh-grade biology classrooms. She reported that a teacher's beliefs and teaching philosophy do have an effect on her beliefs about the learning styles of girls and boys, which in turn influence the distribution of teacher's questions, feedback and control of calling out of answers.

Although research studies on gender and student-student interaction are not as many as the studies on teacher-student interaction, there are several studies in the literature. For instance, Gass and Varonis (1986) looked at whether there are gender differences between the interactions of non-native adult Japanese speakers who were learning English as a second language. In their study, the researchers asked the participants to complete a conversation task, and two picture-description tasks. The results of the study showed that there were indeed differences between women's and men's interaction. The researchers put forward the idea that "Men took greater advantage of the opportunities to use the conversation in a way that allowed them to produce a greater amount of 'comprehensible output', whereas women utilized the conversation to obtain a greater amount of comprehensible input" (p. 349).

In another study, Godinho and Shrimpton (2003, as cited in Godinho, 2004) explored the gender differences in girls' and boys' use of linguistic space in small group discussion at primary level classrooms. The findings of the study suggested that boys dominated the linguistic space. Godinho (2004) stated that she carried out a similar study with secondary level classrooms as a result of the suggestions of the secondary level teachers who had indicated that the situation of boys' domination might not be the same in such a setting. However, the findings were consistent with the results of Godinho and Shrimpton's previous study (2003, as cited in Godinho, 2004) on primary school students showing that boys dominated the small group discussions.

In a recent study, Sauntson (2007) examined girls' and boys' use of 'acknowledging moves' in their group discussions. She defines acknowledging moves in the following way: "Within structural-functional models of discourse analysis, acknowledging moves are a discourse feature that perform the function of

providing feedback to another speaker's utterance" (p. 304). In the study, she recorded the interactions of 12-13 year-old girls and boys in their single-sex group discussions during their Design and Technology class. Analysis of the discussions revealed that girls used proportionally more acknowledging moves than boys. Moreover, it is suggested that girls generally used acknowledging moves to accomplish collaboration and consensus within the group, while boys generally used acknowledging moves to negotiate status and hierarchy within the group. Sauntson's study is important as she concludes that it can contribute to "thinking about how discoursal gender differences in pupil group discussion can enhance our overall understanding of gender-based differences in social behaviour in the classroom, and of gender-differentiated approaches to group discussion" (p. 323).

Although gender, language and equality issues in classroom interaction are still been examined and discussed, more recent research mostly focuses on the construction of gender identity, and the significance of discourse in educational settings (Archer & Francis, 2005; Baxter, 2002b; Davies, 2003; Norton & Toohey, 2004; Reay, 2001). Gender Identity refers to how a person defines herself/himself as a woman and man and how they perceive themselves. It is not simple and static, but rather is complex and fluid (Litosseliti, 2006). The term 'discourse' has been defined in different ways by different disciplines. More recent approaches, which have been influenced by the post-structuralist theories, generally defines it as "not only a form of knowledge about cultural ways of thinking and doing, but also a form of practice (an 'event')" (Litosseliti & Sunderland, 2002, p. 9).[2]

The language used in the school setting may influence students' perceptions of their gender, identity and their realization of themselves. Swann (2005, first

[2] (See Litosseliti and Sunderland, 2002, for a detailed discussion).

published in 2003) explains the relations between language and gender in educational settings as follows:

> Through their participation in diverse educational language events, girls and boys develop certain ways of using language; they also become certain kinds of students, and, more generally, certain kinds of people. Insofar as gender is "done" in educational settings it is done, to a large extent, through language. And insofar as language is gendered in educational settings, this will affect girls' and boys' development as "schooled subjects," their experiences of education, and what they get out of it. (p. 624)

According to Corson (1997), there are two types of life chances that education gives people: "options" (p. 140) and "ligatures" (p. 140). "Options" is related to the greater range of choices in people's future, while "ligatures" means the bonds between individuals and groups of people that educational experiences provide people with. He suggests that "girls derive much more in the way of ligatures from the discursive practices of their education than boys [while] boys seem to derive more options for themselves" (p.142).

In order to examine pupils' gendered discourse styles, Davies (2003) analyzed their interaction in small group classroom discussions. She stated that the girls in her study worked in a supportive environment which enhances their learning, while boys "frequently had to choose whether to be accepted by their peer group and join in 'macho discourse' or to work hard and become ostracized and have their behaviour and language derided" (p. 124). Nevertheless, Davies noted that girls were the victims of boys' language, and that they occasionally accepted the construction of femininity by males. This study is important in terms of showing how the societal norms influence the linguistic choices of girls and boys in the classroom, and how this in turn can affect the perception of being a 'real boy' as well as the norms of society that a girl should accord with.

Reay (2001) suggests that "contemporary gendered power relations are more complicated and contradictory than any simplistic binary discourse of 'the girls versus boys' suggests." (p. 153). In one of her studies, Reay attempted to examine girls' cultures and femininities in the primary classroom. She carried out her study with 26 (14 girls, 12 boys) Year 3 class students. As a result of her study she concluded that:

> Performing gender is not straightforward; rather it is confusing. (…) There is a multiplicity of femininities and masculinities available in this primary school classroom. (…) Class, ethnicity and emergent sexualities all play their part, and constrain as well as create option (…) Yet, despite the multiple masculinities and femininities manifested in 3R, there is evidence of hegemonic masculinity in this classroom no less than outside in the wider social world. Within such context, it makes sense for girls to seek to resist traditional discourses of subordinate femininity. (p. 163)

Reay (2001) further indicated that although girls are constructed as "harder working, more mature and more socially" skilled in peer group discourses, all the boys and a significant number of girls think that being a boy is better than being a girl (p. 164). Similarly, Baxter (2002b) also states that analyses of her ethnographic case study, in which she observed Year 10 students' classroom interaction over a period of three months, "indicate an implicit understanding of how potentially disempowering constructs such as conformity and good behaviour are considered to be more compatible with female teenage identity, whereas constructs of non-conformity and misbehaviour are considered to be more compatible with male teenage identity" (p. 15).

To sum up, studies on gender and classroom interaction have investigated the effects of gender on teacher-student interaction, student-teacher interaction, as well as on student-student interaction. Most of these studies focused on teacher initiated teacher-student interaction and aimed to find out whether the teacher's gender and students' gender affect teachers' interaction with the students. The findings of the

studies showed that male students got more teacher attention than female students. Similar to these findings, studies examining the effects of gender on student-student interaction also showed that male students dominated the interaction. Although gender equality in teachers' giving their attention to students in classroom is still attracting the attention of some researchers, more recent studies place their emphasis on the construction of gender identities in educational settings.

Research that investigates the relationship between gender and foreign language classroom interaction will be presented in the following section of the chapter.

Gender and Classroom Interaction in Second/Foreign Language Classrooms

Research on gender and second/foreign language classrooms can be classified as the studies on gender and foreign language learning styles and strategies (Oxford, 1994; Green & Oxford,1995), studies on gender and learners' perception and attitudes towards foreign language learning (Bacon & Finnemann, 1992; Carr & Pauwels, 2006; Guimond & Roussel, 2001), studies on gender and foreign language assessment (O'Loughlin, 2002; O'Sullivan, 2000); studies on gender and foreign language materials (Bağ & Bayyurt, 2008; Jones et al., 1997; Poulou, 1997; Porreca, 1984; Sunderland et al., 2002), and, finally, studies on gender and foreign language classroom interaction (Farooq, 2000; Gass & Varonis, 1986; Sunderland, 1996; Yepez, 1994). This section will specifically report on the studies on gender and second/foreign language classroom interaction.

There is not as much research on gender and second/foreign language classroom interaction as there is research on gender and other subject classrooms.

Sunderland (1998; 2000) suggests that research on gender and language classroom interaction is sparse when compared to research on gender and other subject classroom interaction and that more research is clearly needed in this particular area. Sunderland (1998) classifies the studies into three groups: "those focusing on teacher to student discourse in whole class work"; "those focusing on student to teacher discourse in whole class work"; and "those focusing on learner discourse in pair and group work" (p. 49).

One of the first studies that attempted to examine whether the differential treatment of teachers to their students in non-language classrooms is seen or not seen in foreign language classrooms was carried out by Sunderland (1994). Using a questionnaire, Sunderland explored the perspectives of EFL students and teachers as ex-learners of the language on the basis of differential teacher treatment. She stated that four groups of respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire. In the first group, there were seven students of different nationalities (three female, four male) who were improving their language. The second group consisted of thirty-nine Greek EFL teachers who were all female. In the third group, there were eighteen Austrian trainee EFL teachers, most of whom were female. Lastly, the fourth group included eighteen practicing Japanese EFL teachers, most of whom were male. On the basis of her findings, Sunderland suggested that "… teachers in EFL classrooms seem to treat their male and female students differently and to do so in a range of ways which vary from culture to culture" (p. 152). For instance, the Greek and/or Austrian respondents of the study indicated that female students were expected to be more polite and that teachers were more polite to female students. The Japanese teachers in the study also reported that when a female and a male student talk at the same time, usually the female student was allowed to continue talking by the teacher. However, Sunderland

notes that further studies of differential treatment in foreign language classrooms need to be done.

In order to explore the role of participation and gender in non-native speakers' classroom interaction, Alcón (1994) recorded the conversations of 24 students' (12 female and 12 male) and two non-native English teachers' (1 female and 1 male). Students participating in the study were Spanish, and they were learning English as a Foreign Language at secondary school level. Alcón investigated the learners' turn takings in teacher-led discussions as well as in learners' same- and cross-gender discussions. Her findings indicated that teachers' turn taking was higher than that of the students, and boys' turn taking was higher than that of the girls. Significant differences were reported in students' same- and cross-gender conversations. Boys' interruptions were more compared to girls' interruption in cross-sex conversations. However, girls' had more opportunity to interrupt and produce the foreign language in same-gender conversations. Alcón explains this with the stereotype image of women in the society, where women are expected to be polite and supportive when talking to men.

Another study on gender-differentiated teacher behavior, but this time in English as a Second Language (hereafter ESL) classroom, was done by Yepez (1994). She analyzed the classroom interactions of four ESL teachers (2 female, 2 male teachers) both quantitatively and qualitatively by using the coding instrument INTERSECT. In the study, each teacher was observed six times for a grand total of 42 observations. According to the results of the study, three of the four teachers showed remarkable equality in their interactions with females and males. These results were inconsistent with the previous research.

In another study, Sunderland (1996) observed a 7 year German as a Foreign Language classroom for ten weeks to examine teacher-to-student talk and student-to teacher talk. The class she observed had 13 girl and 14 boy students who were aged 11 or 12. She analyzed how the teacher interacted with students, and whether boys and girls use more or different language when talking to the teacher, and, if boys and girls do use more/different language with the teacher, what the implications of this are for their language learning opportunities. Additionally, she interviewed the teacher and the students as a supporting data collection method. The study showed that, most of the time, there was no statistically significant indication of 'differential teacher treatment.' Boys were given more attention by the teacher in terms of 'number of solicit words' and 'proportion of non-academic solicits'. However, girls were asked more 'academic solicits', to which the teacher expected them to respond in German, the target language, and they were asked more questions, which they had to answer with more than one word. The term 'solicit' was defined by Sunderland as "a teacher-student (but not teacher-whole class) or student-teacher utterance which requires and/or results in a verbal response or which results in or requires a behavioural one from the student or teacher respectively very soon after the uttering of the solicit" (p. 143). In analyzing the student-to-teacher talk, Sunderland found that the 'average girl' produced more solicits, more academic solicits, more non-academic solicits, significantly more solicit-words, significantly shorter solicits, and a significantly greater proportion of 'unsolicited solicits' than the 'average boy' (p. 198). Sunderland's findings suggest that 'the more is better' approach should be handled cautiously by teachers and researchers. Commenting on these findings in one of her subsequent articles, Sunderland (2004) argued that:

> (…) despite evidence of relative male verbosity in some discoursal areas of classroom life, the girls were actively constructing themselves as the more

> academic students—in the same way as they could be seen as being constructed as the more academic students by the teacher. Certainly, they did not appear as passive victims of verbal male dominance (p. 230).

A more recent study was carried out by Farooq (2000), and it aimed to examine a male teacher's attention in a mix-sexed EFL Japanese high school classroom. There were 10 girls and 11 boys who were aged 16 in the observed classroom. He analyzed three fifty-minute lessons by using an adapted version of Sinclair and Coulthard's (1992) model. Based on the overall findings of the study, Farooq suggested that the teacher paid more attention to boys than girls. He argues that the different treatment of the teacher towards girls and boys resulted from the fact that girls were seen as more academic, able and well-behaved learners, while boys were seen as learners who needed attention due to their more immature and disruptive nature.

Sunderland (2000) notes the importance of avoiding "unhelpful" generalizations about female and male learners (p. 169). Similarly, more recent approaches to gender and language learning see 'gender' as a more complex and dynamic system rather than seeing it as an individual variable (Norton & Pavlenko, 2004; Norton & Toohey, 2004, Pavlenko, 2004). Norton and Pavlenko (2004) claim that gender is one of the important aspects of social identity, and it interacts with other factors such as "race, ethnicity, class, sexuality, (dis)ability, age, and social status in framing students' language learning experiences, trajectories, and outcomes." (p. 504).

In Turkey, the researcher did not find any study specifically examining teacher-student interaction, and how a teacher gives his/her attention to students in an EFL classroom. However, there are some studies on different areas of gender and foreign language teaching and learning. For instance, Sunkar-Koçoğlu (1997) investigated the influence of gender on EFL learners' communication strategies in

their interaction with the native speakers of English. It is stated that the study aimed to examine what type(s) of communication strategies (CS) male and female Turkish EFL students use when they interact with male and female native speakers of English, and whether there are any similarities and/or differences between male and female Turkish EFL students in the use of communication strategies regardless of the gender of the NS interlocutors. Ten students (5 female and 5 male) were paired with ten (5 female and 5 male) native speakers of English. Students had ten-minute long conversations (a total of 20) with same-sex and opposite-sex native speakers. The results of the study showed that, rather than the gender of the students, it was the gender of the native speakers of English that had an impact on Turkish EFL students' CS use. The female native speakers were perceived by the students as more supportive, cooperative and encouraging, and the students used more CSs with female native speakers. Moreover, it was reported that there were more similarities than differences between female and male students in their use of CSs when the interlocutor was not taken into account.

In a similar study, Tercanlıoğlu (2004) aimed to discover whether there are any differences in language learning strategies used by adult foreign language learners in a university in Turkey. 184 university students participated in the study, and the data were gathered by using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The results of the study showed that there were significant gender differences in the use of language learning strategies in favor of boys. It is indicated that male students reported higher use in five of the six scales—remembering more effectively, using all mental processes, compensating for missing knowledge, organizing and evaluating learning, and learning with others—while female students reported a higher score only in one scale: managing emotions. These results were not

consistent with the previous studies (Green & Oxford, 1995). Tercanlıoğlu (2004) suggests that "A possible explanation for this result may be that in the male-dominated Turkish society female students may have lower self-esteem in reporting the strategies they use," and she notes that "The influence of second language learners' cultural background and of the educational settings in which they learn the target language on the choice of their learning strategies have been the subject of several research studies" (p. 190)

In a different study, Tercanlıoğlu (2005) investigated pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language learning with regard to gender. 73 female and 45 male EFL teachers completed Horwitz's Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). She stated that there is a strong relationship between the research variables. In terms of gender related differences, namely relationships between belief factors and gender, no significant difference was reported. According to Tercanlıoğlu (2005), "In Turkish culture, gender is still a key variable that may directly influence or even determine attitudes or motivations or behaviors." (p. 148)

In another study in Turkey, Bağ and Bayyurt (2008) examined 'gender representation' in the EFL textbooks used by primary school students in Turkish state schools. The researchers analyzed the textbooks by focusing on: a) use of pronouns, b) use of proper names, c) illustrations and d) representation of females and males as the main character in a text. The findings of the analyses showed that, in all of the books except for one, there is an overrepresentation of males, and consequently, an underrepresentation of females. This result was in parallel with the previous research carried out with EFL/ESL materials (Porreca, 1984; Poulou, 1997) and other subject classroom materials (Allen & Ingulsrud, 1998; Gök et al., 2002; Gümüşoğlu, 1996).

A review of the research in foreign language classrooms on gender and classroom interaction shows that there are no conclusive results on the topic. Although most of the studies showed that there is not an equal distribution of teacher attention in the classroom, there are also studies showing that the teachers gave their attention to both female and male students evenly.

As stated above, to the best knowledge of the researcher, there are no studies examining the attention of a teacher in a foreign language classroom in Turkey based on transcribed data of classroom interaction and perceptions of teachers and students on gender and classroom interaction. Thus, the present study was carried out to fill this gap. In the following chapter, I will present the aim of the study with its methodological considerations.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the objectives, research questions, sample selection, data collection procedures, and data analysis of the study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to reveal the nature of the classroom interaction in terms of teacher's attention in an EFL context. For this reason, two tertiary level EFL classrooms which were taught by a female and a male teacher were selected. The main objectives of the study were to examine how a female and a male teacher gave their attention to students and to reveal the teachers' and the students' perceptions about gender and classroom interaction. More specifically the teachers' attention was examined to see whether there were any similarities and/or differences in the amount of teachers' initiating moves directed to female and male students, teachers' academic (A) and non-academic (NA) initiating moves directed to female and male students, and feedback provided to female and male students by the teacher (Please see the introduction chapter for the research questions of the study and see App. A for the specific research questions of the study)

The Setting of the Study

The study was conducted in the school of foreign languages at a state university in İstanbul, Turkey. This is a university in which English is used as the medium of instruction. The students have to pass an English proficiency exam before starting to study in their departments. Students who cannot pass the proficiency exam have to go to the preparatory school where, in order to get ready for the proficiency exam, they go through a preparatory English language program.

The school categorizes the level of the students as beginner, pre-intermediate, intermediate and advanced based on a placement test. Students in all levels have two teachers, one of whom is responsible for reading and writing courses, while the other is responsible for listening and speaking courses.

Beginner, pre-intermediate, intermediate and some advanced level students had their classes in the morning (they have three blocks of lessons in a day, which last 90 minutes, 75 minutes and 60 minutes, respectively). Other advanced level students, who have their classes in the afternoon, also have three lessons in a day, but in this instance all three lessons last 75 minutes each.

Apart from the instructors teaching in the classrooms, the school has a group of instructors to prepare the materials used in the classrooms as well to prepare the exams. Teachers generally use these pre-prepared materials in the classroom, and all the students take the same proficiency exam. Students also take two ‘achievement’ exams and two ‘quarter’ exams in a term. The school administers the proficiency exam both at the end of the first term and at the end of the second term of an academic year.

For this study, two classes from the preparatory school were chosen. While choosing the teachers and classes, certain factors were taken into consideration such as level and number of the students in the class, and teaching experience and age of the teachers. One of the classes was being taught by a female teacher, and one of them was being taught by a male teacher. Both teachers were teaching the main courses, namely reading and writing by focusing on grammar and vocabulary when necessary. They were teaching the classes three days a week. More detailed information about the teachers and the students will be given in the following (participants) sections.

Participants

The Teachers

Teacher 1

Teacher 1 is the female teacher who was teaching class 1. She is a Turkish national and was 45 years old at the time of the data collection period. She was single. She had been teaching English at that school for 7 years, but she had had 11 years teaching experience in total. She stated that, besides English as a foreign language, she studied German in secondary and high school, and her level was intermediate. She also stated that she started to study French but could not continue learning it.

Teacher 2

Teacher 2 was the male teacher who was teaching class 2. He is a Turkish national and was 46 years old at the time of data collection. He was married. He had been teaching English for 15 years. Other than English as a foreign language, he had been studying German for 35 years and French for 20 years.

The Students

Class 1

Class 1 was the one which was being taught by the female teacher. There were 28 students in this classroom, 16 of whom were female and 12 of whom were male. Their level of English was intermediate according to the English proficiency test that was given by the school. All of the students were Turkish nationals except for two male students, one of whom was from Afghanistan, while the other one was from Azerbaijan. The mean of the female students' ages was 18.87, and the mean of the male students' ages was 18.75. Apart from the two male students who were not from Turkey, the remaining female and male students were from different cities of Turkey including Istanbul. The students were preparing for their academic studies at the time of the data collection period. After passing the proficiency exam, they would start studying in a range of different faculties and departments such as the Faculty of Engineering (Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Industrial Engineering), the Faculty of Arts and Science (Mathematics, Sociology, Turkish Language and Literature, History), the Faculty of Education (Secondary School Science &

Mathematics Education, Educational Sciences), the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Studies (Political Science and International Relations), and the School of Applied Disciplines (International Trade Department).

Class 2

Class 2 was the one which was being taught by the male teacher. There were 14 female and 12 male students in this classroom. Their level of English was intermediate. All of the students were Turkish nationals. The mean age for female students was 19.23. The mean age of male students was 17.14. After passing the proficiency exam, they would start taking classes in their departments at different faculties such as the Faculty of Education (Secondary School Science and Mathematics), the Faculty of Engineering (Chemical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Industrial Engineering), the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (Economics and Management), and the Faculty of Arts and Sciences (Physics and Chemistry).

Data Collection Procedures

The data of the study were collected through 1) video-taping of the classroom interaction, 2) recording of the classroom interaction and interviews, 3) observation of classroom interaction, 4) a demographic information form (App. B), and 5) interviews conducted with the teachers and some of the students (App. C & D). As the first step of the data collection process, the classes of the teachers were videotaped for two months, with 13 class hours in each teacher's class (26 hours in

total). Videotaping is preferred as it is easier via video to see both the teachers' and the students' nonverbal behavior throughout the class period, which in turn, would help the researcher to analyze the data in more depth, both qualitatively as well as quantitatively.

The data—videotaping, recording, interviews and observations—were collected in the second term of the academic year. While the data collection process was going on, students were asked to fill in the demographic information forms. At the end of the data collection period, the teachers and some of the students were interviewed. Due to practical reasons twelve students were interviewed. The interviews were semi-structured as there were certain questions asked to each person, and, in addition, other questions arose during the interviews. Before recording the interviews, both the students and the teachers were told that no private information would be revealed while writing up the data, and that their personal information would be kept confidential. This was important in order to let them feel comfortable with the process. It was observed that, since it was a preparatory school, and the students were not being graded by the teacher on their classroom performance, students were not reluctant to state their opinions about the teacher and the class.

It was an advantage to do the research in this school as, while chatting to them during the breaks, many of the students mentioned that they were used to being observed by someone else during their class hours. They stated that their behaviors and the aura of the classroom while I was in the classroom were not so different from when I was not in the classroom to videotape them. The school administration also confirmed that they let the new trainee teachers observe their classes in order to have an idea about the school and the system.

Data Analysis

Analysis of Transcribed Classroom Interaction Data

The Coding Scheme: Sinclair and Coulthard's Model: Background of the Model and Rationale for Using This Model

The model that was used in this study was developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) to investigate the structure of classroom interaction in 1975, and it was later revised by them in 1992 (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992). McCarthy states that this model "is very useful for analysing patterns of interaction where talk is relatively tightly structured" (1991, p. 22).

The reason for choosing this model can be listed as follows: Firstly, using a model to code the transcribed data and to analyze it would help the researcher categorize the classroom interaction with confidence. Secondly, the framework of the model is suitable for the research questions of the study as one of the main aims of the study was to investigate the nature of teacher-initiated teacher-student interaction. In line with the specific research questions of the study, the model would help to find out: a) how many of the female/male teacher's initiating moves were directed to female/male students; b) how many of the female/male teacher's initiating moves were academic (A) and non-academic (NA); c) how many of the female/male teacher's feedbacks were provided to female/male students. Thirdly, the model and the adaptations of the model have been used in EFL/ESL classrooms as well as in other subject classrooms (Farooq, 2000). Finally, in her study, Sunderland (1996) suggests the usefulness of this method as follows:

> My actual 'moves' and 'acts' do not (…) correspond neatly to the moves and acts identified in the Coulthard classification; my terminology is different. This was in fact my original intention, and remained so. In any future work, analysing this data as exchanges and transactions however remains a possibility: this initial focus on what can be seen as moves and acts will provide a useful starting point. (Sunderland, 1996, pp. 84-85)

As stated above, the model has been adapted or adopted and used by many researchers in the analyses of their studies (Abd-Kadir & Hardman, 2007; Atkins, 2001; Coulthard & Brazil, 1992; Farooq, 2000; Francis & Hunston, 1992; Hewings, 1992; Willis, 1992). For instance, Francis and Hunston (1992) modified the model and used it in analyzing everyday conversations. They stated that the revised version of the model "… reflects accurately the nature of different types of talk while remaining true to the spirit of the original model and its fundamental underlying principles" (1992, p. 123). The model has also been used to analyze the spoken discourse in language classrooms (Hewings, 1992; Willis, 1992; Farooq, 2000; Atkins, 2001). Recently, Farooq (2000) used the model to analyze a male teacher's attention in an EFL classroom of Japanese learners.

Description of Sinclair and Coulthard's Discourse Analysis Model

In this section, a detailed description of the ranks that form the model will be presented with examples. Detailed figures explaining the model and its parts are provided in the appendices (App. E-L).

Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) indicate that the model they developed is hierarchical and is "… closely modelled on Halliday's Categories of a Theory of Grammar." (p. 5). This rank scale consists of 5 ranks which are 'lesson', 'transaction', 'exchange', 'move', and 'act' respectively, with lesson being the largest unit, and act being the smallest unit. In the model, lesson is composed of

transactions, transactions are composed of exchanges, exchanges are composed of moves, and moves are composed of acts.

Act is the smallest unit of the model, and there are twenty-two acts identified in the model. Detailed descriptions of each act and their functions are provided in the appendices (App. M).

The second rank of the model is move, which is made up of acts. There are five different types of moves that realize the classes of exchange, which is the third rank. Framing and focusing moves realize the boundary exchanges, while opening, responding and follow-up moves realize teaching exchanges. Sinclair and Coulthard stated that "framing moves are indications by the teacher that he regards one stage in the lesson as ended and that another is beginning" (1975, p. 44). They are realized by a marker that is followed by silent stress, 'right', 'now', and 'OK'. Function of focusing moves is to talk about the discourse and to tell what has happened and what will happen. The function of an opening move is to "cause others to participate in an exchange" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992, p. 22). An opening move and answering move are complementary. The function of follow-up is to "let the pupil know how well he/she has performed" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992, p. 24).

In the original model, the elements of exchange structure are specified as Initiation (I), Response (R) and Feedback (F). In the model, there are two major classes of exchange: 'boundary exchange' and 'teaching exchange'. Boundary exchange functions to signal the beginning or end of a stage of a lesson and, as stated above, it is realized by framing and focusing moves. Teaching exchange has eleven subcategories, six of which are 'free exchanges', while five of them are 'bound exchanges'. The six free exchanges are divided into four groups—informing, directing, eliciting and checking—and two of them are further subdivided into two

groups: teacher inform/student inform, and teacher elicit/student elicit. Four of the bound exchanges—re-initiation (i), re-initiation (ii), listing, repeat—are bound to teacher elicit, and one of them (reinforce) is bound to teacher direct.

It is proposed that the elements of a Teaching Exchange—Initiation (I), Response (R), and Feedback (F) —can take the form I R (F), where the element F is in parentheses, which indicates that it is optional. However, in subsequent versions of the model (Coulthard & Brazil, 1992; Sinclair, 1992), the exchange structure was extended to I (R/I) R (F), which suggests that R/I can be a response to the preceding element and an initiation for the following one. On the other hand, the structure of student elicit is IR. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1992), the difference between teacher and student elicit is that "… the pupil provides no feedback—an evaluation of a teacher reply would be cheeky. Thus the structure is IR" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992, p. 27)

In addition to this, Coulthard and Brazil (1992) suggested that the labels 'eliciting', 'informing', and 'acknowledging' can be used for moves instead of the 'opening', 'answering', and 'feedback' labels that were used in the original model by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). That is because the function of the feedback is defined as "let the pupil know how well he/she has performed."

The fourth rank, transaction, is realized by a series of exchanges and the fifth rank, lesson, is made up of a series of transactions.

Transcribing the Data and Choosing the Lessons for the Analysis

The data were transcribed by the researcher herself and a research assistant as the data transcription was a laborious and time consuming work. While determining the

lessons to be analyzed, the following factors were taken into consideration: a) attendance of the students; b) dates of the classes; c) subjects of the classes. Specifically speaking, the lessons in which the number of female and male students was similar, from different weeks, were chosen, while the ones in which the students did reading or writing through the whole class hour were not chosen as there was very little interaction in the classroom.

After deciding on the model that will be used for data analysis, transcriptions were checked by the researcher once more and formatted according to the framework. This was a useful procedure as it was easier to divide the classroom interaction into exchanges, which is the main rank of the analysis model. In addition, it was easier to determine the borders of the exchanges and type of the utterances in exchanges.

Coding the Categories and Analyzing the Data

After choosing the lessons (4 lessons for each teacher) that would be analyzed according to the criteria that were mentioned above, transcriptions were checked by the researcher. In addition, while checking the transcriptions, exchanges which were composing transactions were determined. Then, the moves composing the exchanges were divided into slots—I (initiation), R (response) and F (follow-up/feedback) —as in the following example:

Example 1:

Line of moves (Exchange structure e.s.)	Act	Move type
T (I): Small items of information are?		
F (R): Details		
T (F): Details		
Good		

As explained above, Coulthard and Brazil (1992) suggested the labels ‘eliciting’, ‘informing’, and ‘acknowledging’ should be used for moves instead of the ‘opening’, ‘answering’, and ‘feedback’ labels that were used in the original model by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). This labeling was used in the analysis of the present study as exemplified by the second example below:

Example 2:

Line of moves (e.s)	Act	Move type
T (I): Small items of information are?	el	Eliciting
F (R): Details	rep-i	Informing
T (F): Details Good	acc	Acknowledging

In the model, the act ‘informative’ is shown with ‘i’, and the act ‘reply’ is shown with ‘rep’. Similarly, in the present study, while coding the data, students’ informs with the act ‘informative’ were indicated by ‘i’. On the other hand, students’ answers, which were with the act ‘reply’, to teacher’s eliciting moves, were shown with ‘rep-i’ as both acts compose the move ‘informing’.

Example 3:

Line of moves (e.s)	Act	Move type
T (I): Number two, precise information?		
Ss (R): The specifics	rep-i	Informing
T (F): The specifics Good		

Example 4:

Line of moves (e.s)	Act	Move type
F (I): Hmm bu bende var ya (Hmm, I have this)	i	Informing

Additionally, as used by Francis and Hunston (1992) and by Farooq (2000) a responding move realized by the act 'react' was named as 'reacting' as shown in example 5.

Example 5:

Line of moves (e.s)	Act	Move type
T (I): …. Şimdi başlayın!(Start now!) (To the late-comers)	d	Directing
Ss (R): NV (studying their sheets)	rea	Reacting

Lastly, the move realized by the act 'checking' (ch) was classified as 'eliciting', although the act check (ch) was used in coding, as suggested by Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) in their revised version of the model:

> At some time in most lessons teachers feel the need to discover how well the children are getting on, whether they can follow what is going on, whether they can hear. To do this they use a checking move which could be regarded as a subcategory of elicit, except that feedback is not essential, because these are real questions to which the teacher does not know the answer. (p. 28)

Teacher's Initiating (I) Moves

In each class, the teacher's initiating move (I) directed to a female student, a male student or class was categorized as 'eliciting', 'informing' or 'directing' according to

the type of the act realizing that move. These initiating moves were also classified as academic (A) and non-academic (NA), based on Sunderland's (1996) analysis of classroom interaction. She defined academic teacher solicit and non-academic teacher solicit as follows:

> An academic teacher solicit was concerned with academic content of the lesson, including marks. It was usually 'testing' but could also be 'telling' or 'helping', e.g. asking a student to write something or directing her or him to a particular language item. A non-academic teacher solicit included all other possible teacher directives, including asking how/where students were, directives concerning classroom organisation, choosing people to do dialogues and starting them off, most responses to students' raised hands or miss (so that 'yes Sue' means 'go ahead'), and all disciplinary solicits. (p. 149)

The following are examples of teacher's A and NA initiating moves:

Example 6:

Line of moves (e.s2)	Act	Move type
T (I): Unique, original?	el	Eliciting (A)
F (R): One of a kind.	rep-i	Informing
T (F): One of a kind exactly.	acc	Acknowledging
It's a very practical word.	com	

Example 7:

Line of moves (e.s.)	Act	Move type
T (I): … Do you play chess?	el	Eliciting (NA)
F (R): Yes.	rep-i	Informing

Students' Responding (R) Moves

Students' responding moves were categorized as 'eliciting', 'informing', 'reacting' or 'acknowledging' according to the act that they were realized by as displayed in example 8.

Example 8:

Line of moves (e.s2)	Act	Move type
F (I): Which days are we expected to bring this? (showing the vocabulary book)	el	Eliciting
M (R): "I drink three or four cup of coffee every morning." True.	rep-i	Informing
Ss (R): NV (Ss write the essay)	rea	Reacting
F (F): Hmm	ack	Acknowledging

Teacher's Follow-up (F) Moves (Feedback)

As the last step, teacher's follow-up moves were identified as acknowledging moves. They were classified as from teacher to female student, from teacher to male student, and from teacher to class. As can be seen in example 9, the reply "good" is an example of the teacher's follow-up:

Example 9:

Line of moves (e.s)	Act	Move type
T (I): And number three? Melek?	el (n)	Eliciting
F (R): “I closed the door quietly.”	rep-i	Informing
T (F): Good.	e	Acknowledging

(Please see App. N and App. O for an analysis sample)

Calculating the Results

The final step of data analysis was to calculate the results of the analyses. Firstly, for both of the classes and for each class hours of these classes, due to that fact that number of female and male students in each class was not the same, the percentages of the female and male students were calculated. Thus, in all of the calculations of each question, percentages were calculated, and these percentages were compared with the percentages of the student numbers in each class hour.

In line with the research questions of the study regarding the transcribed data of classroom interaction, teachers’ initiating moves, students’ responding moves to these initiating moves, and lastly teachers’ follow-up moves to these responding moves were counted, and their percentages were calculated. Secondly, teachers’ initiating moves were also classified as academic and non-academic initiating moves, and their percentages were calculated separately. In addition, teachers’ initiating moves were classified as those directed to the female students, those directed to the male students, and lastly those directed to the class. The counts and percentages of these moves were firstly presented to the ones directed to class without specifying a name, and the ones directed to a female and a male student. Then, calculations for

the initiating moves directed to female students and the ones directed to the male students were presented. The same calculations were done for students' responding moves and teachers' follow-up moves.

In order to answer the last research question, which investigates the teachers' and the students' perceptions about gender and teacher-student interaction in an intermediate level EFL classroom in a preparatory school of a university in Turkey, teachers' and students' answers were counted and classified according to the themes that emerged from the answers. A detailed description of the participants' answers is stated in the results chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Research Findings

In this chapter, the findings of the study are presented in accordance with the research questions listed in Chapter 3. The first research question examines whether there are any similarities and/or differences in the amount of a female and a male teachers' initiating moves directed towards female and male students. The second research question investigates whether there are any similarities and/or differences in the amount of A (academic) and NA (non-academic) initiating moves directed to female and male students by a female and a male teacher. The third research question examines whether there are equal distribution of follow-up (feedback) moves provided to female and male students by the teachers. Finally, the fourth research question attempts to reveal the teachers' and the students' perceptions on gender and classroom interaction. The findings of the study will be presented as the female teacher's classroom and the male teacher's classroom respectively in two separate sections below.

The Female Teacher's Class

This class was led by a female teacher with 11 years' experience and consisted of 28 (16 female; 12 male) intermediate level college students (for a detailed description of 'class 1' see p. 35). Table 1 presents the numbers and percentages of female and male students in each class hour.

Table 1 Student Numbers and Percentages in Class 1

	No. of Ss		Percentages	
Lessons	Female	Male	Female	Male
Lesson 1	13	11	54%	46%
Lesson 2	14	11	56%	44%
Lesson 3	16	12	57%	43%
Lesson 4	15	11	58%	42%

As can be seen in this table, in all of the class hours, the number of female students exceeds male students. This means that, since the female students exceed male students in number in each class hour, the percentages of teacher's initiating moves or follow-up moves should not be less than the students' attendance percentages to have an equal distribution.

Teacher's Initiating Moves

The number and percentage distribution of the female teacher's initiating moves are presented in this section [Please see p. 45 for an example of a teacher's initiating move (I)]. Table 2 shows the number and distribution of the female teacher's initiating moves (both A and NA) in each lesson.

Table 2 The Female Teacher's Initiating Moves Directed to Class without Specifying a Name or to a Specific Female or Male Student

	No. of teacher's initiating moves		Percentages	
Lessons	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	142	33	81%	19%
Lesson 2	85	88	49%	51%
Lesson 3	96	58	62%	38%
Lesson 4	48	41	54%	46%

As can be seen in Table 2, in the first class hour, from a total of 175 initiating moves, 142 (81%) were directed to the class without specifying a name, and 33 (19%) were directed to a specific female or male student. In the second class hour, from a total of 173 initiating moves, 85 (49%) of teacher's initiating moves were directed to the class, and 88 (51%) were directed to a specific female or male student. In the third class hour, from a total of 154 teacher's initiating moves 96 (62%) were directed to the class, while 58 (38%) were directed to a specific female or male student. Finally, from a total of 89 teacher's initiating moves in the fourth class hour, 48 (54%) of teacher's initiating moves were directed to the class, while 41 (46%) were directed a specific female or male student. These findings suggest that, in all class hours except for one, the teacher directed more initiating moves to the class without specifying a name than to a specific female or male student. Table 3 shows the distribution of teacher's initiating moves specifically directed to a female or a male student in numbers and in percentages as well as the mean for the average female or male student. Teacher's initiating moves in this calculation include both A and NA moves.

Table 3 The Female Teacher's Initiating Moves Directed to Female and Male Students

Lessons	Ss' percentages		No. of teacher's initiating moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
	F Ss	M Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	54%	46%	17	16	17:13= 1.30	16:11= 1.45	52%	48%
Lesson 2	56%	44%	43	45	43:14= 3.07	45:11= 4.09	49%	51%
Lesson 3	57%	43%	30	28	30:16= 1.87	28:12= 2.33	52%	48%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	28	13	28:15= 1.86	13:11= 1.18	68%	32%

In the first class hour, 17 (52%) of teacher's initiating moves from a total of 33 were directed to female students, while 16 (48%) of them were directed to male students. In this lesson, the average female student received 1.30 moves, while the average male student received 1.45 moves. In the second class hour, from a total of 88 initiating moves, 43 (49%) were directed to female students, and 45 (51%) were directed to male students. The average female student received 3.07 moves, and the average male student received 4.09 moves in this hour. In the third class hour, from a total of 58 initiating moves, 30 (52%) of teacher's initiating moves were directed to female students while 28 (48%) of them were directed to male students. In this session, the average female student received 1.87 moves, while the average male student received 2.33 moves. Finally, in the fourth class hour, from a total of 41 initiating moves, 28 (68%) were directed to female students, and 13 (32%) were directed to male students. The average female student in this class hour received 1.86 moves, while the average male student received 1.18 moves. Taking the number and percentages of female and male students in each class hour into consideration, these findings suggest that, except for one class hour (the fourth one), the teacher directed more initiating moves to male students than to female students. The following tables

(4-7) display the results of the teacher's A and NA initiating moves. Table 4 presents the results of the teacher's A initiating moves that were directed to the class without specifying a student name and the ones directed to a specific female or male student.

Table 4 The Female Teacher's A Initiating Moves Directed to Class without Specifying a Name or to a Specific Female or Male Student

	No. of teacher's A initiating moves		Percentages	
Lessons	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	125	29	81%	19%
Lesson 2	64	83	44%	56%
Lesson 3	68	55	55%	45%
Lesson 4	32	38	46%	54%

As displayed in Table 4, from a total of 154 A initiating moves, 125 (81%) were directed to the class while 29 (19%) were directed to a specific female or male student the first class hour. In the second class hour, 64 (44%) A initiating moves were directed to the class, and 83 (56%) A initiating moves were directed to specific students from a total of 147 A initiating moves. In the third class hour, from a total of 123 A initiating moves, 68 (55%) were directed to the class, while 55 (45%) were directed to specific students. Finally, in the fourth class hour, from a total of 70 A moves, 32 (46%) were directed to the class without specifying a student name, while 38 (54%) were directed to specific students. These results suggest that, in two of the four class hours, teacher directed more A moves to the class than to specific students, while there were more A moves directed to specific students than directed to the class in the other two lessons. The next table, table 5 shows the distribution of teacher's NA initiating moves.

Table 5 The Female Teacher's NA Initiating Moves Directed to Class without Specifying a Name or to a Specific Female or Male Student

	No. of teacher's NA initiating moves		Percentages	
Lessons	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	17	4	81%	19%
Lesson 2	21	5	81%	19%
Lesson 3	28	3	90%	10%
Lesson 4	16	3	84%	16%

In the first lesson, from a total of 21 NA moves, 17 (81%) were directed to the class without specifying a student name, and 4 (19%) were directed to specific students. In the second lesson, 21 (81%) NA initiating moves were directed to the class from a total of 26 NA moves, while 5 (19%) were directed to specific students. In the third class hour, from a total of 31 NA moves, 28 (90%) NA moves were directed to the class, while 3 (10%) were directed to specific students. Lastly, in the fourth lesson, from a total of 19 NA moves, 16 (84%) were directed to the class, while 3 (16%) were directed to specific students. These findings show that, in all of the four lessons, considerably more NA moves were directed to the class without specifying a student name than to specific students. The number and percentage distribution of the teacher's A initiating moves directed to female and male students are displayed in table 6.

Table 6 The Female Teacher's A Initiating Moves Directed to a Female or a Male Student

	Ss' percentages		No. of teacher's A initiating moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
Lessons	F Ss	M Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	F Ss	M Ss
Lesson 1	54%	46%	15	14	15:13= 1.15	14:11= 1.27	52%	48%
Lesson 2	56%	44%	39	44	39:14= 2.78	44:11=4	47%	53%
Lesson 3	57%	43%	28	27	28:16= 1.75	27:12= 2.25	51%	49%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	27	11	27:15= 1.8	11:11= 1	71%	29%

As can be seen in Table 6, from a total of 29 A initiating moves, 15 (52%) were directed to female students, and 14 (48) were directed to male students in the first lesson. The average female student received 1.15 A initiating moves, while the average male student received 1.27 moves in this lesson. In the second lesson, from a total of 83 A initiating moves, 39 (47%) were directed to female students, while 44 (53%) were directed to male students. The average female student received 2.78 A moves in this lesson, while the average male student received 4 A moves. In the third lesson, from a total of 55 A initiating moves, 28 (51%) were directed to female students, while 27 (49%) were directed to male students. In this lesson, the average female student received 1.75 A moves, while the average male student received 2.25 A moves. Lastly, in the fourth lesson, from a total of 38 A initiating moves, 27 (71%) were directed to female students, while 11 (29%) were directed to male students. The average female student received 1.8 A moves, while the average male student received 1 A move. These results are consistent with the results presented in Table 3, which shows the distribution of teacher's initiating moves, including both A and NA, directed to female and male students. Taking the number and percentages of female and male students in each class hour into consideration, these findings suggest that,

except for one class hour (the fourth one), the teacher directed more A initiating moves to male students than female students. The distribution of teacher's NA initiating moves between female and male students is presented in the next table.

Table 7 The Female Teacher's NA Initiating Moves Directed to a Female or a Male Student

Lessons	Ss' percentages		No. of teacher's NA initiating moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
	F Ss	M Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	54%	46%	2	2	2:13= 0.15	2:11= 0.18	50%	50%
Lesson 2	56%	44%	4	1	4:14= 0.28	1:11= 0.09	80%	20%
Lesson 3	57%	43%	2	1	2:16= 0.12	1:12= 0.08	67%	33%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	1	2	1:15= 0.06	2:11= 0.18	33%	67%

As can be seen in Table 7, in the first class hour, 2 (50%) NA initiating moves were directed to female students, while 2 (50%) were directed to male students. The average female student received 0.15 NA moves, while the average male student received 0.18 NA moves. In the second lesson, 4 (80%) NA initiating moves were directed to female students, and 1 (20%) was directed to male students. The mean for the average female student is 0.28, while it is 0.09 for the average male student. In the third lesson, 2 (67%) NA initiating moves were directed to female students, and 1 (33%) NA initiating move was directed to male students. In this lesson, the average female student received 0.12 NA initiating moves, while the average male student received 0.08 NA moves. Finally, in the fourth lesson, 1 NA initiating move was directed to female students, while 2 NA initiating moves were directed to male students. The mean for the average female and male student was 0.06 and 0.18 respectively. These findings suggest that, in two of the lessons, the teacher directed

more NA moves to female students, while she directed more NA moves to male students in the other two lessons. Both the percentages and the mean of teacher's NA initiating moves for the average female and male student were calculated for this question as with the previous calculations. However, the results should be assessed carefully as the raw scores are very small and there is not much difference between the raw scores of two groups.

Students' Responding Moves

In order to have a more comprehensive view, students' responding moves were also calculated and presented in this section. The results of students' responding moves are presented in table 8 and 9 [Please see p. 45-46 for an example of a student's responding move (R)].

Table 8 Students' Responding Moves in Class 1

Lessons	No. of Ss' responding moves		Percentages	
	From class	From a specific female or male student	From class	From a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	78	38	67%	33%
Lesson 2	37	15	71%	29%
Lesson 3	46	10	82%	18%
Lesson 4	22	13	63%	37%

As can be seen in Table 8, in the first lesson, from a total of 116 responding moves, 78 (67%) were from the class, and 38 (33%) were from a specific female or male student. In the second class hour, from a total of 52 responding moves, 37 (71%) were from the class, while 15 (29%) were from specific students. In the third lesson,

46 (82%) moves from the total of 56 responding moves were from the class, while 10 (18%) were from specific students. In the last lesson, from the total of 35 responding moves, 22 (63%) were from the class, while 13 (37%) were from a specific female or male student. These results suggest that, in all of the four lessons, the class responded to the teacher's initiating moves more than specific students did. The distribution of the responding moves to the teacher's initiating moves between female and male students were also examined. The next table, Table 9, displays the results of female and male students' responding moves.

Table 9 Female and Male Students' Responding Moves in Class 1

	Ss' percentages		No. of Ss' responding moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
Lessons	F Ss	M Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	54%	46%	18	20	20:13= 1.53	19:11= 1.72	47%	53%
Lesson 2	56%	44%	14	1	14:14= 1	1:11= 0.09	93%	7%
Lesson 3	57%	43%	8	2	8:16= 0.5	2:12= 0.16	80%	20%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	10	3	10:15= 0.66	3:11= 0.27	77%	23%

As can be seen in Table 9, from a total of 38 responding moves in the first lesson, 18 (47%) were from female students, and 20 (53%) were from male students. In this lesson, the mean for the average female student is 1.53, while it is 1.72 for the male students. In the second class hour, from a total of 15 responding moves, 14 (93%) were from female students, while 1 (7%) was from a male student. The means for the average female and male student were 1 and 0.09 respectively. In the third lesson, 8 (80%) responding moves from a total of 10 responding moves were from female students, while 2 (20%) were from male students. The mean for the average female

student is 0.5, while it is 0.16 for the average male student. Finally, in the last lesson, from a total of 13 responding moves, 10 (77%) were from female students, while 3 (23%) were from male students. The mean for the average female student is 0.66, while it is 0.27 for the male students. These results suggest that, except for lesson 1, female students responded to teacher's initiating moves more than male students when the teacher directed her initiating moves to the class without specifying a student name.

Teacher's Follow-up Moves (Feedback)

In this section, the findings regarding the female teacher's follow-up moves will be presented [Please see p. 46 for an example of a teacher's follow-up move (F)]. Table 10 shows the distribution of teacher's follow-up moves provided to the class without specifying a student name or to a specific female or male student in numbers and in percentages.

Table 10 The Female Teacher's Follow-up Moves (feedback) Provided to Class without Specifying a Name or to a Specific Female or Male Student

	No. of teacher's follow-up moves		Percentages	
Lessons	Provided to class without specifying a name	Provided to a specific female or male student	Provided to class without specifying a name	Provided to a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	63	33	66%	34%
Lesson 2	26	72	27%	73%
Lesson 3	36	45	44%	56%
Lesson 4	13	43	23%	77%

As can be seen in Table 10, in the first lesson, from a total of 96 follow-up moves, 63 (66%) were provided to the class while 33 (34%) were provided to specific students.

In the second class hour, 26 (27%) follow-up moves were provided to the class from a total of 98 while 72 (73%) were provided to specific students. In the third lesson, from a total of 81 follow-up moves, 36 (44%) were provided to the class while 45 (56%) were provided to specific female or male students. In the fourth class hour, from a total of 56 follow-up moves, 13 were provided to the class while 43 (77%) were provided to specific students. These findings suggest that, except for the first lesson, the teacher provided more follow-up moves to specific students than to the class as a whole. The numbers and percentages of the teacher's follow-up moves directed to female and male students are displayed in the next table.

Table 11 The Female Teacher's Follow-up Moves (feedback) Directed to Female and Male Students

	Ss' percentages		No. of teacher's follow-up moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
Lessons	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	54%	46%	15	18	15:13= 1.15	18:11= 1.63	45%	55%
Lesson 2	56%	44%	32	40	32:14= 2.28	40:11= 3.63	44%	56%
Lesson 3	57%	43%	27	18	27:16= 1.68	18:12= 1.5	60%	40%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	32	11	32:15= 2.13	11:11= 1	74%	26%

As can be seen in Table 11, in the first lesson, from a total of 33 follow-up move, 15 (45%) were directed to female students while 18 (55%) were directed to male students. The mean for the average female and male student was 1.15 and 1.63 respectively. In the second lesson, female students were provided with the teacher's follow-up moves 32 (44%) times, while male students were provided 40 (56%) times. The average female student received 2.28 follow-up moves while the average male student received 3.63 moves. In the third class hour, female students were

provided with the follow-up moves by the teacher 27 (60%) times while male students were provided with 18 (40%) times. The average female student in this lesson received 1.68 moves while the average male received 1.5 moves. In the last lesson, from a total of 43 follow-up moves, 32 (74%) were provided to female students while 11 (26%) were provided to male students. The average female student in this class hour received 2.13 follow-up moves while the average male student received 1 move. These results show that, in the first two lessons, the teacher provided more follow-up moves to male students than to female students, while, in the last two lessons, female students were provided with follow-up moves more than male students.

The Male Teacher's Class

This class was taught by a male teacher with 15 years' teaching experience. The class consisted of 26 (14 female; 12 male) intermediate level college students (for a detailed description of "class 2", please see p. 36). The number of students and their percentage distributions in class 2 are presented in Table 12. As can be seen in Table 12, in all of the four lessons, female students were more than male students, which is similar to class 1 taught by the female teacher.

Table 12. Student Numbers and Percentages in Class 2

	No. of Ss		Percentages	
Lessons	Female	Male	Female	Male
Lesson 1	14	8	64%	36%
Lesson 2	13	9	59%	41%
Lesson 3	9	6	60%	40%
Lesson 4	14	10	58%	42%

Teacher's Initiating Moves

The number and percentage distribution of the male teacher's initiating moves (both A and NA moves) directed to the class without specifying a student name and to specific students will be presented in this section [Please see p. 45 for an example of a teacher's initiating move (I)].

Table 13 The Male Teacher's Initiating Moves Directed to Class without Specifying a Name or to a Specific Female or Male Student

	No of teacher's initiating moves		Percentages	
Lessons	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	124	12	91%	9%
Lesson 2	148	25	86%	14%
Lesson 3	48	42	53%	47%
Lesson 4	94	14	87%	13%

As can be seen in Table 13, in the first lesson, 124 (91%) of the teacher's initiating moves, from a total of 136 moves, were directed to the class without specifying a name while 12 (9%) moves were directed to a specific female or male student. In the second class hour, from a total of 173 teacher's initiating moves, 148 (86 %) were directed to the class, and 25 (14%) were directed to specific students. In the third lesson, 48 moves (53%) were directed to the class from a total of 90 initiating moves while 42 (47%) were directed to a specific female or male student. Finally, in the fourth class hour, from the total of 108 teacher's initiating moves, 94 (87%) of the teacher's initiating moves were directed to the class while 14 (13%) were directed a specific female or male student. These findings suggest that there is a considerable

amount of difference between the teacher's initiating moves directed to the class and to specific students. In all of the four lessons, the teacher directed far more initiating moves to the class without specifying a student name than to any specific student. The numbers and percentage distribution of teacher's initiating moves that were specifically directed to a female or a male student and the mean for the average female or male student in each four class are presented in Table 14.

Table 14 The Male Teacher's Initiating Moves Directed to Female and Male Students

Lessons	Ss' percentages		No. of teacher's initiating moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
	F Ss	M Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	64%	36%	10	2	10:14= 0.71	2:8= 0.25	83%	17%
Lesson 2	59%	41%	14	11	14:13= 1.07	11:9= 1.22	56%	44%
Lesson 3	60%	40%	27	15	27:9= 3	15:6= 2.5	64%	36%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	11	3	11:14= 0.78	3:10= 0.3	79%	21%

As can be seen in Table 14, in the first class hour, 10 (83%) initiating moves from a total of 12 were directed to female students while 2 (17%) of them were directed to male students. The average female student received 0.71 moves while the average male student received 0.25 moves in the first lesson. In the second lesson, from a total of 25 initiating moves, 14 (56%) were directed to female students, and 11 (44%) were directed to male students. The average female student received 1.07 moves, and the average male student received 1.22 moves in this lesson. In the third class hour, 27 (64%) of the teacher's total of 42 initiating moves were directed to female students while 15 (36%) of them were directed to male students. In this hour, the mean for the average female student was 3 while it is 2.5 for the average male

student. Finally, in the fourth lesson, from a total of 14 initiating moves, 11 (79%) were directed to female students, and 3 (21%) were directed to male students. The average female student in this class hour received 0.78 moves while the average male student received 0.3 moves. Taking into consideration the number and percentage distribution of female and male students in each lesson, these findings suggest that, except for one lesson, the teacher directed more initiating moves to female students than to male students. The distribution of the male teacher's A initiating moves that were directed to the class and to specific students is presented in Table 15.

Table 15 The Male Teacher's A Initiating Moves Directed to Class without Specifying a Name or to a Specific Female or Male Student

	No. of teacher's A initiating moves		Percentages	
Lessons	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	108	11	91%	9%
Lesson 2	146	19	88%	12%
Lesson 3	45	37	55%	45%
Lesson 4	90	14	87%	13%

As seen in Table 15, in the first lesson, from a total of 119 A initiating moves, 108 (91%) were directed to the class while 11 (9%) were directed to a specific female or male student. In the second class hour, 146 (88%) A initiating moves were directed to the class from s total of 165 A initiating moves, and 19 (88%) A initiating moves directed to specific students. In the third lesson, from a total of 82 A initiating moves, 45 (55%) were directed to the class while 37 (45%) were directed to specific students. Finally, in the fourth class hour, from a total of 104 A moves, 90 (87%) were directed to the class without specifying a student name while 14 (13%) were

directed to specific students. These findings indicate that the teacher directed more A initiating moves to the whole class than to any specific student. The numbers and percentage distribution of the male teacher's NA initiating moves are presented in Table 16.

Table 16 The Male Teacher's NA Initiating Moves Directed to Class without Specifying a Name or to a Specific Female or Male Student

Lessons	No. of teacher's NA initiating moves		Percentages	
	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student	Directed to class without specifying a name	Directed to a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	6	1	86%	14%
Lesson 2	2	6	25%	75%
Lesson 3	3	5	38%	62%
Lesson 4	4	0	100%	0%

As can be seen in Table 16, in the first class hour, from a total of 7 NA moves, 6 (86%) were directed to the class without specifying a student name, and 1 (14%) was directed to a specific student. In the second lesson, 2 (25%) NA initiating moves were directed to class from a total of 8 NA moves while 6 (75%) were directed to specific students. From the total of 8 NA moves in the third class hour, 3 (38%) NA moves were directed to the class while 5 (62%) were directed to specific students. Finally, in the fourth lesson, all of the 4 (100%) NA moves were directed to the class while there were no NA moves directed to specific students. These findings show that, in two of the four lessons, more NA moves were directed to the class without specifying a student name than to specific students while more NA moves were directed to specific students in the other lessons. The distribution of teacher's A initiating moves between female or male students is presented in Table 17.

Table 17 The Male Teacher's A Initiating Moves Directed to a Female or a Male Student

Lessons	Ss' percentages		No. of teacher's NA initiating moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
	F Ss	M Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	64%	36%	9	2	9:14= 0.64	2:8= 0.25	82%	18%
Lesson 2	59%	41%	13	6	13:13= 1	6:9= 0.66	68%	32%
Lesson 3	60%	40%	26	11	26:9= 2.88	11:6= 1.83	70%	30%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	11	3	11:14= 0.78	3:10= 0.3	79%	21%

As can be seen in Table 17, in the first lesson, from a total of 11 A initiating moves, 9 (82%) were directed to female students, and 2 (18%) were directed to male students. The average female student received 0.64 A initiating moves while the average male student received 0.25 moves in this lesson. In the second class hour, from a total of 19 A initiating moves, 13 (68%) were directed to female students while 6 (32%) were directed to male students. The mean for the average female student is 1 in this lesson while it is 0.66 for the average male student. In the third lesson, from a total of 37 A initiating moves, 26 (70%) were directed to female students while 11 (30%) were directed to male students. In this lesson, the average female student received 2.88 A moves while the average male student received 1.83 A moves. Lastly, in the fourth lesson, from a total of 14 A initiating moves, 11 (79%) were directed to female students while 3 (21%) were directed to male students. The average female student received 0.78 A moves while the average male student received 0.3 A moves. These results suggest that, in all of the four lessons, the teacher directed more A initiating moves to female students than to male students. The distribution of the teacher's NA initiating moves directed to female and male students is shown in Table 18.

Table 18 The Male Teacher's NA Initiating Moves Directed to a Female or a Male Student

Lessons	Ss' percentages		No. of teacher's NA initiating moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
	F Ss	M Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	64%	36%	1	0	1:14= 0.07	-	100%	0
Lesson 2	59%	41%	1	5	1:13= 0.07	5:9= 0.55	17%	83%
Lesson 3	60%	40%	1	4	1:9= 0.11	4:6= 0.66	20%	80%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	0	0	-	-	0%	0%

As Table 18 shows, there are few or no NA moves in these lessons directed to students by the teacher. In the first class hour, there is only one NA move, and it was directed to a female student. In the second lesson, from a total of 6 NA initiating moves, 1 (17%) was directed to a female student while 5 (82%) were directed to male students. The mean for the average female student is 0.07 while it is 0.55 for the average male student. Similarly, in the third lesson, from a total of 5 NA moves, 1 (20%) was directed to a female student, and 4 (80%) were directed to male students. This means that the average female student received 0.11 NA moves while the average male student received 0.66 NA moves. In the fourth lesson, there is no NA move directed to female or male students by the teacher. These results suggest that, although there were not many NA moves in these lessons, when they were directed, they were directed to male students more than female students.

Students' Responding Moves

In this section, the percentage distribution of students' responding moves in class 2 is presented [Please see p. 45-46 for an example of a student's responding move (R)]. Table 19 shows how many of the teacher's initiating moves (both A and NA) were

responded to by the class, and how many of them were responded to by specific female or male students.

Table 19 Students' Responding Moves in Class 2

Lessons	No. of Ss' responding moves		Percentages	
	From class	From a specific female or male student	From class	From a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	33	117	22%	78%
Lesson 2	29	131	18%	82%
Lesson 3	5	73	6%	94%
Lesson 4	18	83	18%	82%

In the first lesson, as displayed in Table 19, from a total of 150 student responding moves, 33 (22%) were from the class while 117 (78%) were from specific female or male students. In the second class hour, 29 (18%) responding moves from a total of 160 moves were from the class, and 131 (82%) were from specific students. Similarly, in the third lesson, 5 (6%) responding moves out of 78 were from the class, and 73 (94%) were from specific female or male students. Finally, in the fourth lesson, from a total of 101 responding moves, 18 (18%) were from the class while 83 (82%) were from specific students. These results suggests that, although the teacher directed more initiating moves to the class as a whole, his initiating moves were responded to by students individually most of the time.

The results in Table 19 show that there were more responding moves to teacher's initiating moves from specific female or male students. Table 20 shows the distribution of these responding moves directed to the teacher by the female and male students.

Table 20 Female and Male Students' Responding Moves in Class 2

Lessons	Ss' percentages		No. of Ss' responding moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
	F Ss	M Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	64%	36%	90	27	90:14= 6.42	27:8= 3.37	77%	23%
Lesson 2	59%	41%	76	55	76:13= 5.84	55:9= 6.11	58%	42%
Lesson 3	60%	40%	47	26	47:9= 5.22	26:6= 4.33	64%	36%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	60	23	60:14= 4.28	23:10= 2.3	72%	28%

As can be seen in Table 20, in the first lesson, from a total of 117 responding moves, 90 (77%) were from female students while 27 (23%) were from male students. This means that the mean for the average female student is 6.42, while it is 3.37 for male students. In the second lesson, female students responded to teacher's initiating moves 76 (58%) times while male students responded 55 (42%) times. The average female student in this lesson responded 5.84 times while the average male student responded 6.11 times. In the third class hour, from a total of 73 responding moves, 47 (64%) were from female students while 26 (36%) were from male students. The mean for the average female student is 5.22 while it is 4.33 for the male average male student. Finally, in the fourth lesson, female students responded to teacher's initiating moves 60 (72%) times while male students responded to them 23 (28%) times. This means that the average female student responded to teacher's initiating moves 4.28 times while the average male student responded to them 2.3 times. These findings suggest that, except for one lesson (lesson 2), female students responded to the teacher's initiating moves more than male students.

Teacher's Follow-up Moves (Feedback)

The findings regarding the male teacher's follow-up moves will be presented in this section [Please see p. 46 for an example of a teacher's follow-up move (F)]. Table 21 shows the distribution of the male teacher's follow-up moves provided to the class without specifying a student name or to a specific female or male student in numbers and in percentages. It specifically shows how many of the teacher's follow-up moves were provided to the class, and how many of them were provided to specific students.

Table 21 The Male teacher's Follow-up Moves (feedback) Provided to Class without Specifying a Name or to a Specific Female or Male Student

	No. of teacher's follow-up moves		Percentages	
Lessons	Provided to class without specifying a name	Provided to a specific female or male student	Provided to class without specifying a name	Provided to a specific female or male student
Lesson 1	50	93	35%	65%
Lesson 2	33	132	20%	80%
Lesson 3	19	52	27%	73%
Lesson 4	23	59	28%	72%

As can be seen in Table 21, in the first lesson, from a total of 143 follow-up moves, 50 (35%) were directed to the class while 93 (65%) were directed to specific students. In the second class hour, 33 (20%) of the follow-up moves were directed to the class while 132 (80%) were directed to specific students. From a total of 61 follow-up moves in the third class hour, 19 (27%) moves were directed to the class, and 52 (73%) moves were directed to specific female or male students. Finally, in the fourth lesson, from a total of 82 follow-up moves, 23 (28%) were directed to the class while 59 (72%) were provided to specific students. These findings suggest that

more follow-up moves were directed to specific female or male students than to the class. The previous table, table 21, shows that the teacher provided more follow-up moves to specific female or male students than to the class. Table 22 shows the distribution of teacher's follow-up moves between female and male students.

Table 22 The Male Teacher's Follow-up Moves (feedback) Provided to Female and Male Students

	Ss' percentages		No. of teacher's follow-up moves		Mean for the "average" female/male student		Percentages	
Lessons	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss	Female Ss	Male Ss
Lesson 1	64%	36%	72	21	72:14= 5.14	21:8= 2.62	77%	23%
Lesson 2	59%	41%	86	46	86:13= 6.61	46:9= 5.11	65%	35%
Lesson 3	60%	40%	37	15	37:9= 4.11	15:6= 2.5	71%	29%
Lesson 4	58%	42%	48	11	48:14= 3.42	11:10= 1.1	81%	19%

As can be seen in Table 22, in the first lesson, from a total of 93 follow-up moves, 72 (77%) were provided to female students while 21 (23%) were provided to male students. This means that the average female student received 5.14 moves while the average male student received 2.62 moves. In the second class hour, female students were directed with the follow-up moves 86 (65%) times, and males students 46 (35%) times. The mean for the average female student in this class hour is 6.61 while it is 5.11 for the average male student. In the third lesson, from a total of 52 follow-up moves, 37 (71%) were directed to female students while 15 (29%) to male students. This means that the average female student received 4.11 moves while the average male student received 2.5 moves. Finally, in the fourth lesson, from a total of 59 moves, 48 (81%) were provided to female students while 11 (19%) were provided to male students. Thus, the mean for the average female student is 3.42 while it is 1.1

for the average male student. These results suggest that, in all of the four lessons, female students were directed with more follow-up moves than male students. However, both the results in this table and in the previous table should be assessed carefully because, both tables include the follow-up moves that are directed not only to students' responding moves to teacher's initiating moves, but also the follow-up moves directed to students' initiating moves.

All these findings can be summarized as follows:

In class 1, the female teacher;

1) directed more initiating moves to the class without specifying a name than to a specific female or male student in all class hours except for one.
2) directed more initiating moves to male students than female students except for one class hour (the fourth one)
3) directed more A moves to the class than to specific students in two of the four class hours, while she directed more A moves to specific students than to the class in the other two lessons.
4) directed considerably more NA moves to the class without specifying a student name than to specific students in all of the four lessons
5) directed more A initiating moves to male students than female students except for in one class hour (fourth one)
6) directed more NA moves to female students in two of the lessons, while she directed more to male students in the other two lessons.
7) provided more follow-up moves to specific students than to the class apart from in the first lesson.

8) provided more follow-up moves to male students than to female students in the first two lessons, while she provided more follow-up moves to female students than to male students in the last two lessons

The students in class 1;

1) in all of the four lessons, responded to the teacher's initiating moves as a class more than as specific students.
2) except for lesson 1, female students responded to teacher's initiating moves more than male students when the teacher directed her initiating moves to the class without specifying a student name.

In class 2, the male teacher

1) directed far more initiating moves to the class without specifying a student name than to any specific student in all of the four lessons
2) directed more initiating moves to female students than male students except for in one lesson
3) directed far more A initiating moves to the class without specifying a student name than to any specific student.
4) in two of the four lessons, directed more NA moves to the class without specifying a student name than to specific students, while he directed more NA moves to specific students in the other two lessons.
5) directed more A initiating moves to female students than to male students.
6) directed more NA moves to male students than to female students
7) provided more follow-up moves to specific female or male students than to the class.

8) provided more follow-up moves to female students than to male students in all of the four lessons.

The students in class 2;

1) teacher's initiating moves that were directed to class were responded to by a specific female or male student more than the class together.
2) except for one lesson (lesson 2), teacher's initiating moves were responded to by female students more than by male students.

Interview Findings

The fourth research question of the study aimed to reveal the teachers' and students' perceptions about gender and classroom interaction. In this section, the findings of the interviews conducted with teachers and students will be reported in two separate parts. The first part will report on the answers of the students to the interview questions, and the second part will report on the answers of the teachers. Twelve students (6 students in class 1, and 6 students in class 2) were interviewed for the study. Of the six students in each classroom, three were female and three were male.

Students' Perceptions about Gender and Classroom Interaction

The first interview question was asked in order to see whether the students think that there were any factors affecting classroom interaction. If they stated that there were some factors affecting the interaction in the classroom, they were further asked what those factors were. In class 1, all of the students indicated that there were some key

factors affecting classroom interaction. They reported that the attitude of the teacher towards the class was the principal factor affecting classroom interaction. They additionally stated that the interaction among students and the materials used for the classroom activities were important. Likewise, all of the students in class 2 stated that there were some factors affecting classroom interaction such as teacher, students, and materials used in the classroom.

The second question was about teacher's feedback and backchannel (supportive) responses.[3] The students were asked whether the teacher's feedback and backchannel (supportive) responses were effective in their interaction with the teacher. Both in class 1 and in class 2, all of the students answered that the teacher's feedback and backchannel (supportive) responses were very effective in increasing their motivation. For instance, in class 1, one of the female students reported that:

> It is for sure that the supportive attitude of a teacher is of great importance. In addition, it is important to know that the teacher will answer your question in a good manner. Otherwise, one can get anxious and feel reserved simply because s/he is in a group of people.
>
> (Class 1, informant 2)[4]

One of the male students in class 2 stated that:

> When we say something our teacher does not respond to us in a humiliating manner even though he thinks that the thing we say is wrong. Thus, even if we answer the question wrong he provides supporting responses to us. And I think that this is very important for to be able to speak in English.
>
> (Class 2, informant 10)[5]

The third question aimed to learn whether the students think that a student's sex is effective in his/her success and interaction in the foreign language classroom. In

[3] Students were given extra information about "backchannel (supportive) responses" when needed.
[4] See Appendix P for the original quotations in Turkish.
[5] The excerpts were translated from Turkish into English by the researcher and checked by an English teacher who got his BA and MA from the Department of Foreign Language Education, Boğaziçi University, İstanbul.

class 1, one of the male students said that a student's gender is effective in his/her success or interaction in the foreign language classroom, while one of the male and one of the female students stated that it is not. One of the female students did not answer the question negatively or positively, but claimed that male students are more self-confident, while female students are more hard-working. Likewise, the other female student responded that female students are more hard-working and dominant in language classrooms. Lastly, one male student claimed that female students are more organized. On the other hand, none of the students in class 2 thought that gender of the student is effective in his/her success and interaction in the foreign language classroom. However, one of the female students expressed that women are more interested in language learning and the foreign language classrooms mostly consist of female students.

The following question examined the role of teacher gender. The students were asked whether they think that a teacher's gender has an effect on in-class interaction, and whether they prefer having a class with male teachers to female teachers or vice versa. In class 1, all of the female students and one of the male students indicated that they do not prefer male teachers to female teachers or vice versa. However, the male students who indicated that the gender of the teacher does not matter to them additionally stated that:

> No, it does not affect. (…) But, a female teacher or female teachers can be more energetic and enjoyable than a male teacher. As far as I observe, male teachers have a tendency to keep a sort of seriousness threshold. On the other side, lessons offered by female teachers may be more enjoyable. However, by and large, no! It does not.
>
> (Class 1, informant 5)

On the other hand, the other two male students pointed out that they prefer female teachers to male teachers. For instance, a male student who prefers female teachers to male teachers said that:

> I prefer the teacher to be a woman. That's because the communication with a female occurs in a more polite environment simply because you communicate with a woman. Also, it (communicating with a woman) turns out be more careful generally. Or, I'm not sure, but it is because of my idea, which is rooted in my high school times, that male teachers have a tendency to give more chance of participation to girls.
>
> (Class 1, informant 6)

The other male student indicated that he prefers having a class with female teachers to male teachers as he thinks that male teachers may be tougher than female teachers. In class 2, two of the female students stated that they do not have a specific preference regarding teacher gender, while one of them stated that she prefers male teachers to female teachers. One of the female students who stated that it does not matter for her to have a female or male teacher reported that:

> Teacher's gender does not matter to me. What is important is his or her interaction with us (…).
>
> (Class 2, informant 7)

The female student who prefers having a class with a male teacher explained her reason as follows:

> To me it is better to have a male teacher in all subject classes. Because- although I am a female too I have to say this- female teachers generally have inferiority complex. They behave as if their lessons are not paid attention to…. Due to their nature, males generally do not care about such stuff. They do not reflect upon what happened again and again over time in contrast to what females generally do.
>
> (Class 2, informant 8)

As for the male students, one of the male students said that gender of the teacher does not have any effect on his interaction while the other two male students said that they prefer having a class with male teachers.

Another question asked during the interview was whether the students think that their teacher selects female and male students to participate in the classroom interaction equally. Both in class 1 and in class 2, all of the students answered the question positively. In other words, all of them think that the teacher selects equal number of female and male students to participate in the classroom interaction. On the other hand, in both classes, some of the students reported that they had experienced unequal teacher treatment in their former schools. One of the female students in class 2 stated that:

> When I was in high school our psychology teacher was favoring female students. He was a male teacher. (…) But he was giving low marks to male students. But he could give high marks to female students even if they did not study hard. Thus male students were affected by his treatment. They hated the teacher.
>
> (Class 2, informant 7)

One of the male students in class 2 stated that, in his former undergraduate education, one of his female teachers was discriminating against female students. These results showed that, although none of the students think that there was an inequality in teachers' selecting female and male students to participate in class interaction, most of them reported that they had teachers who were favoring female students or vice versa in their former education.

The last interview question was asked in order to reveal whether the students think that there are certain roles for women and men in society. They were further asked what they think about those roles. In class 1, except for one male student, all of

the students pointed out that there are some roles assigned to women and men in society. One of the female students stated that:

> Whether you like it or not, it emerges, because there is a society to which we have been getting accustomed since our childhood, and it is a place where we live. I mean, (…) above everything, boys are raised more comfortably and free while girls grow up under more suppression. To illustrate, girls are thought to be more inclined to do housework. On the other hand, it is more impressive for boys not to do housework and such boys get more credits.
> (Class 1, informant 3)

One of the male students in class 1 stated that:

> (Gender difference) appears to be strong in my mind when it comes to occupation types. I think that there are certain sorts of jobs with which women cannot deal like being a driver or the like. Such occupations (…) constitute an environment where there is heavy stress and more effort, and generally one can confront rude people. In other words, I think women belong to and survive more under kind circumstances. (…) I think that men should speak less, be more cool/calm, and take care about the people around them by having a caring personality. Compared to men, I think women have a more active atmosphere around them while being involved in communication.
> (Class 1, informant 6)

In class 1, the male student who stated that there are no certain roles assigned to women and men any more claimed that:

> Almost twenty years ago, a woman was a housewife and she cared about children. However, it is not that much certain and clear now. Sometimes, women work and men stay at home. Therefore, no, there isn't.
> (Class 1, informant 4)

Similar to class 1, in class 2, except for one male student, all of the students indicated that there are some roles assigned to women and men in the society. One of the female students said that:

> People have certain roles in a society. And people expect each other to behave in accord with their social roles. For example, because you are a woman, you should behave in this way; and because you are a man, you should behave in another way. It is a truth that such prescriptions exist. Unfortunately, they do! But, it is my belief that men and women shouldn't be

> perfectly equal. I think that every one has certain duties. I mean, it is wrong for me to try to gauge the equality of such duties by means of a weighing machine.
>
> (Class 2, informant 9)

One of the female students stated that:

> Of course, one should not restrict himself or herself in any way. Namely, it is not appropriate or should not be the case that one cannot place himself/herself into some roles but not into others. It is also awkward to think that "I am a woman; so, I have to do it". However, there can be social human responsibilities, which are respected by the people around you, which may stem from gender differences. Of course, this is not a rule, but it may be an individual feeling of obligation coming from inside of a person. Simply, you might think that some others do it, but I mustn't. Therefore, one may claim that she is a female and should not involve in certain actions.
>
> (Class 2, informant 7)

The male student who thinks that the roles assigned to women and men in the society have changed said that:

> After college education, and when men and women step into business life, here comes marriage: a man is the boss of the home, he works and he is the breadwinner. Once upon a time, it was thought that a woman should care about and raise her children. However, now, since women have started to take over active roles, they have started to have most of the jobs men can do. I think that women are in good position in both social and business life.
>
> (Class 2, informant 10)

Teachers' Perceptions about Gender and Classroom Interaction

The first interview question that was asked to the students was also asked to the teachers. The question was about the factors affecting classroom interaction (both academically and socially). In class 1, the female teacher claimed that the socio-economic environment of the students is very important for their interaction in the classroom. In class 2, the male teacher asserted that the social relations between students are a very important factor affecting classroom interaction. He stated that it

is important for students to like each other and to get along well with each other in order to have "teamwork." He further claimed that student motivation is a prerequisite for an effective classroom interaction and for student success.

Teachers were also asked whether they think that their feedback and backchannel (supportive) responses are effective in students' interaction. Both the female and the male teacher reported that teacher feedback and teacher's supportive responses are significant for students' interaction and motivation. Both of the teachers indicated that they tried to provide feedback to students and support them while they are speaking English in the classroom.

As for the third interview question, the teachers were asked whether they had any considerations while selecting (picking out) students to participate in the classroom interaction. The female teacher reported that:

> While selecting students to talk there are some factors that I pay attention to. First of all, I try to give the attention equally to everyone but it is difficult to do this in crowded classes. If there is an exercise, the questions should be answered randomly. Otherwise, the students focus only to their own questions. (…) I know how easy or how difficult a question is. (…) I try to ask questions to students according to their capacity… And lastly, I pay attention to the distribution between girls and boys. If I ask a question to two girls then I try to ask the next ones to three boys.
>
> (Class 1, the female teacher)

The male teacher indicated that he basically paid attention to readiness of the students to answer a question or to do an activity.

> I paid attention to asking questions to the students whom I thought were ready to answer.
>
> (Class 2, the male teacher)

The fourth interview question was about the gender of the students and foreign language classrooms. The teachers were asked whether the students' gender affects their success and interaction in foreign language classrooms. The female teacher

claimed that girls are more apt to learn foreign languages and their verbal skills are better than boys. The male teacher also claimed that girls are better than boys at learning a language. He indicated that the reason for this was that girls are more well-behaved and hard-working than boys.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study was to examine the nature of classroom interaction with respect to the attention teachers paid to students in an EFL context, and the perceptions of teachers and students about gender and classroom interaction. More specifically, to explore the nature of classroom discourse and the effects of gender on teacher-student interaction, the study examined how a female and a male teacher gave their attention to students in terms of: a) teachers' initiating moves; b) teachers' academic and non-academic initiating moves; c) teachers' follow-up moves (feedback) directed to female and male students.

Based on the analyses described in detail in chapter 4, this chapter will first discuss the results of the study by focusing on the teachers' initiating moves directed to students, students' responding moves to teachers' initiating moves, and teachers' follow-up moves provided to students. Then, the findings of the interviews conducted with the teachers and the students will be discussed. After discussing the findings of the study, the implications of the study will be stated. The limitations of the study and suggestions for further research will follow the implications part. In the final section, the conclusion of the study will be provided.

Discussion

Teachers' Initiating Moves

As presented in the previous sections, gender and classroom interaction has long been investigated. Numerous studies have examined the effects of teacher's gender or student's gender on teacher-student interaction in non-language classrooms (Duffy et al., 2001; Good et al., 1973; Jones & Dindia 2004; Kelly, 1988; Stake & Katz, 1982; Swann & Graddol, 1988). However, there are relatively few studies carried out in language classrooms (Farooq, 2000; Sunderland, 1996; Yepez, 1994).

The findings of the current study partially confirm the previous research. In terms of the first research question, which investigated the similarities and/or differences in the number of teacher's initiating moves, the results revealed that, in both of the classrooms taught by the female and the male teacher, the teachers directed more initiating moves (both A and NA moves) to the class as a whole without specifying an individual student. Specifically speaking, the male teacher directed considerably more initiating moves to the whole class rather than directing his initiating moves to a specific student. The reason behind such a tendency of the teacher may be trying to let the students be more stress-free.

As regards to the distribution of the teachers' initiating moves between female and male students, the findings showed that the female teacher directed more initiating moves to male students than to female students except for one class hour. This finding is consistent with the previous research carried out both in foreign language classrooms (Farooq, 2000; Sunderland, 1996) and other subject classrooms (Duffy et al., 2001; Good et al., 1973; Stake & Katz, 1982; Swann & Graddol, 1988).

On the other hand, the male teacher directed more initiating moves to female students than to male students except for in one lesson. This result is not consistent with the previous research (Farooq, 2000).

During the interview with the female teacher, when she was asked whether there were any factors she was paying attention to while selecting students to talk, she indicated that she paid attention to students' gender as well as other factors. As she stated:

> While selecting students to talk there are some factors that I pay attention to. First of all, to give the attention equally to everyone but it is difficult to do this in crowded classes. If there is an exercise, the questions should be answered randomly. Otherwise, the students focus only to their own questions. (…) I know how easy or how difficult a question is. (…) I try to ask questions to students according to their capacity. (...) And lastly, I pay attention to the distribution between girls and boys. If I ask a question to two girls then I try to ask the next ones to three boys.
>
> (Class1, The female teacher)

This shows that, although the female teacher stated that she took care to give equal attention to female and male students, she directed more initiating moves to male students. On the other hand, when the male teacher was asked whether there were any factors he was paying attention to while choosing students to talk, he stated that:

> I tried to ask the questions to the students whom I thought were ready to answer.
>
> (Class2, The male teacher)

This may indicate that the male teacher saw the female students in his class as more academic, and as the ones who were ready to answer his questions. Farooq (2000) found that, although the teacher paid more attention to boys, girls were seen as more academic and well-behaved learners.

Examining the students' responding moves as well as the teacher interviews may be more revealing. In both of the classes, when the teachers directed their

initiating moves to the class, female students responded to the teacher's initiating moves more than male students (except for in one lesson). In the female teacher's classroom, in class 1, since the teacher directed more initiating moves to male students, female students might try to overcome this by responding to the teacher's initiating moves more than male students when the teacher directed her initiating moves to the class. On the other hand, it may be the other way around as well: When female students responded to the teacher's initiating moves that were directed to the class more than to male students, the teacher might have tried to ask the male students to participate in the classroom interaction by directing more initiating moves to them.

The second research question of the study attempted to examine whether there were any similarities and/or differences in the amount of teachers' A and NA moves directed to female ad male students. As Sunderland (1996) pointed out, it is important to classify the teachers' initiating moves as A and NA. In her study, in which she examined teacher-to-student talk and student-to teacher talk in a 7 Year German as a Foreign Language classroom, Sunderland found that, although boys were paid more attention by the teacher in terms of "number of solicit words" and "proportion of non-academic solicits", girls were asked more "academic solicits" (p. 177). Therefore, in order to have a more comprehensive view on teachers' initiating moves directed to students, A and NA moves were examined separately. The findings showed that, in both of the classrooms, teachers' A initiating moves were far more than their NA moves (Tables 4-5-15-16). Students' age and grade level may be the reasons for this: Students in the primary or secondary level may have more disciplinary problems, and teachers may direct more NA moves (including reprimands and criticisms) to them. Although the NA moves are far less than the A

moves in both of the classrooms, they existed to some extent. In class 1, the female teacher directed more NA moves to female students in two of the lessons, while she directed more to male students in the other two lessons. Since these NA moves were small in number, they could be examined in order to reveal the reasons for their occurrence. It is found that the female teacher used NA moves for the organization of the class in all of the lessons. In other words, the NA moves directed to both female and male students by the female teacher were uttered for organizing the classroom. On the other hand, consistent with the previous research which showed that boys received more criticisms and reprimands than girls (Merrett & Wheldall, 1992; Stake and Katz, 1982; Younger and Warrington, 1996), the male teacher, in class 2, directed more NA moves to male students than to female students. Consistent with the previous research, of 9 NAs, 5 were directed to male students in this class, and all these 5 NA moves were for disciplinary purposes. During the observations in the male teacher's class, the researcher also noticed that there were some male students who had disruptive behaviors. This observation was also supported by the teacher during the interview with him.

As for teachers' A initiating moves, the female teacher directed more A initiating moves to male students than female students except for in one class hour (Table 4). As stated above in this chapter, although the female teacher stated that she tried to give equal attention to female and male students, the results showed that there was an unequal distribution of her attention between female and male students in terms of initiating moves. On the other hand, the male teacher directed more A initiating moves to female students than to male students. However, it should be noted that, although both of the teachers directed more initiating moves to the class without specifying a certain student, the male teacher directed far more initiating

moves to the class rather than to a specific student (Table 13). Moreover, unlike the female teacher, the male teacher did not claim that he tried to select equal number of female and male students to talk. As mentioned above, what he stated is that he tried to let the students voluntarily answer.

Teachers' Follow-up Moves (Feedback)

The third research question of the study aimed to find out whether there were any similarities and/or differences in the amount of teachers' follow-up moves (feedback) directed to female and male students. The significance of feedback, both in language classrooms (Cullen, 2002; Hewings, 1992; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Mackey, 2006) and in non-language classrooms (Burnett, 2002; Chin, 2006; Hattie & Timperley, 2007) has been pointed out by many researchers. The students participating in the current study also expressed the belief that the teacher's feedback and supportive responses are crucial for them since they are affected positively and their motivation increases when they get feedback and supportive responses.

The findings of the study revealed that both the female and the male teacher provided more follow-up moves to specific students than to the class as a whole. In the female teacher's class, as stated in the previous section, students responded to the teacher's initiating moves as a class more than as individuals. However, the teacher provided more follow-up moves to individuals than to the whole class. The researcher's observation was that the teacher asked relatively easier questions to the class rather than to individual students in order not to spend much time on this. In addition, she generally did not provide feedback to those questions. This may be the reason for providing more feedback to individual students than to the class as a

whole or, in other words, for providing less feedback to the class than to the specific individuals. On the other hand, both the findings of the study and the researcher's observations indicated that, unlike the female teacher, the male teacher asked most of the questions to the class as a whole without regarding the easiness or difficulty of the questions. The results also showed that his initiating moves were responded to by individual students more than by the class. Therefore, the teacher's providing more feedback to individual students can be a reflection of students' answering the questions mostly as individuals.

With respect to the distribution of teachers' follow-up moves between female and male students, the female teacher provided more follow-up moves to male students in the first two lessons while she provided more follow-up moves to female students in the last two lessons. When considering the overall results from all lessons, it can be argued that the female teacher treated female and male students equally in terms of providing feedback. Sunderland (1996) also reported that the teacher in her study paid equal attention to girls and boys in terms of amount of feedback. On the other hand, the male teacher provided more follow-up moves to female students than to male students in all of the four lessons. This finding was inconsistent with the previous research (Farooq, 2000; Sunderland, 1996). This finding can be a reflection of the female students' responding moves as the female students in the classroom responded to the teacher more than the male students did when the teacher directed his initiating moves to the class. It should be noted that, within the scope of this study, students' initiating moves were not examined. However, in both classes, teachers' follow-up moves included the ones provided to the students' responding moves as well as the ones provided to students' initiating

moves. Therefore, the number of the students' initiating moves might have affected the number of the teachers' follow-up moves.

Teachers' and Students' Perceptions on Gender and Classroom Interaction

The last research question of the study attempted to reveal the teachers' and the students perceptions on gender and classroom interaction. As for the first interview question, both the teachers and the students were asked a more general question about the factors that they think affect the classroom interaction. In both class 1 and class 2, all of the students pointed out that the teacher is the key factor affecting the interaction in the classroom as well as the students and teaching materials. As also pointed out by numerous researchers (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006; Rowe, 2003; Wright et al., 1997), the teacher can play a crucial role in students' learning and achievement. Therefore, teachers should be careful and reflect upon their teaching in order not to affect students negatively and to have an efficient teaching environment.

With respect to students' gender and their success in language classrooms, most of the students expressed the idea that a student gender is not effective in his/her success in language classrooms. In contrast to students' perceptions, both the female and the male teacher claimed that girls are better than boys at learning a language. More specifically, the female teacher put forward the idea that girls are superior to boys in verbal skills. The female teacher's perception about girls' and boys' language learning skills might have influenced her interaction with the students. That is, since she thinks that girls are more competent than boys in language learning, she might have interacted with the male students more than

female students in order to get them involved in the activities. In addition, the male teacher argued that girls are better than boys in language learning as girls are more academic and well-behaved, which in turn influences their language learning positively. The male teacher's perception about female and male students might have also influenced his teaching practice. As mentioned before in this chapter, the male teacher argued that he asked questions to the students whom he thinks are prepared to answer (Please see p. 82). Thus, since he thinks that girls are more academic, he might have directed more initiating moves to them.

As for the teachers' gender, the study showed that students' preferences differ. In the female teacher's class, in class 1, all of the female students and a male student stated that the teacher's gender does not matter to them, while two male students indicated that they prefer female teachers to male teachers. One of those male students prefers female teachers to male teachers as he thinks that male teachers are stricter, while the other male student thinks that his tendency to prefer female students might be related to the male teachers who gave more chance of participation to girls in his high school years. Students' preferences with respect to teachers' gender also differs in class 2, the male teacher's class. One of the female students and two of the male students said that they prefer to have a class with a male teacher, while the other students (one male, two female) indicated that they do not have a specific preference over teacher gender. The female student who prefers having a class with a male teacher argued that:

> To me it is better to have a male teacher in all subject classes. Because- although I am a female too I have to say this- female teachers generally have inferiority complex. They behave as if their lessons are not paid attention to…. Due to their nature, males generally do not care about such staff. They do not reflect upon what happened again and again over time in contrast to what females generally do.
>
> (Class 2, Informant 8)

This female student's claim is significant for revealing her perceptions on the "nature" of females and males. However, this should be assessed critically as to whether it is the "nature" or the "nurture" of females and males. The society that people live in may shape their ideas about the characteristics and certain roles that are assigned to females and males (Delamont, 1990). However, people should have a key role in changing society in order to avoid stereotypical generalizations. As suggested by Bağ and Bayyurt (2008), the stereotypical depictions of women and men may lead to thinking of those stereotypical characteristics or roles that are assigned to women and men as "facts" rather than "images".

As regards to students' perception about the teachers' equal treatment of female and male students in terms of his or her level of student selection, in both of the classes, all of the students stated that the teacher gave both female and male students equal chances to talk. When considering the findings of the study, in the female teacher's class, more initiating moves were directed to male students, while more initiating moves were directed to female students in the male teacher's class. Although the findings suggest that the students did not appreciate the inequality in the distribution of the teacher's initiating moves, the moves were not distributed evenly between females and males. As mentioned before, within the scope of this study, students' initiating moves were not calculated and discussed. However, they might have influenced the students' perceptions about the amount of students' talk. Moreover, as stated several times before, the male teacher directed considerably more initiating moves to the class as a whole. This might be a reason for the students', in class 2, to think that the teacher treated females and males equally. On the other hand, similar to the findings of Sunderland's (1994) study in which she explored ex-participants EFL learners' perspectives on the basis of differential

teacher treatment, some of the students from both classes stated that they had experienced unequal teacher treatment in their former schools. The findings revealed that, although they thought that they were treated in an equal way by their current teachers, students' experiences in their former educational life influenced their preferences over a teacher's gender.

Similar to the first interview question, the last interview question for students was a general one which tried to reveal whether the students think that there are certain roles for women and men in the society. All of the students in class 1, except for one male student, stated that there are certain roles assigned to women and men in society. One of the female students stated that:

> Whether you like it or not, it emerges, because there is a society to which we have been getting accustomed since our childhood, and it is a place where we live. I mean, (…) above everything, boys are raised more comfortably and free while girls grow up under more suppression. To illustrate, girls are thought to be more inclined to do housework. On the other hand, it is more impressive for boys not to do housework and such boys get more credits. [Emphasis is mine]
>
> (Class 1, informant 3)

Likewise, all of the students in class 2, except for one male student, believe in the existence of certain roles for women and men in society. One of the female students in class 2 argued that:

> It is also awkward to think that "I am a woman; so, I have to do it". However, there can be social human responsibilities, which are respected by the people around you, which may stem from gender differences. Of course, this is not a rule, but it may be an individual feeling of obligation coming from inside of a person. Simply, you might think that some others do it, but I mustn't. Therefore, you may claim that she is a female and should not involve in certain actions.
>
> (Class 2, informant 7)

These findings suggest that, although some of the participants think that there is a change in society in terms of gender roles, most of the participants believe in the

roles that were assigned to women and men by society. It can be seen in the interviews that the females are the ones who are suppressed by those roles, and their actions are restricted to some extent since they are "females".

School, as one of the social settings, may perpetuate those roles as suggested by Gök et al. (2002): "Gender roles and identity are among the primary social values that educational systems help their students develop and internalize." (p. 1). Therefore, as important agents of the schools, teachers should be aware of this factor.

In conclusion, the findings of the study suggested that, although one of the teachers indicated that she tries to pay attention to students' gender while selecting them to speak, there is not an equal distribution in terms of teacher attention in both classes. As stated above, teachers should be careful and reflect upon their teaching practices in order to treat students equally as each student in the classroom has the right to be treated equally. This is especially important in language classrooms in which the language is both the target and means of communication. Since one of the most important objectives of foreign language classrooms is to help students learn and use the foreign language, how much time they are given to speak the foreign language is important.

Implications

The findings of the present study suggested that there is not an equal distribution of teacher attention, both in the female teacher's and the male teacher's class. Therefore, one of the most significant suggestions of this study is that teachers can analyze their own classroom interaction data in order to gain insights into their classroom interaction through a process of self-observation and reflection. This may

help them see whether what they are doing is actually what they think they are doing. Any subject teacher may record her/his own classroom and see/analyze what is going on in the classroom in detail. They can see whether they or the students talk more, which students talk more, whether there is an equal selection among students in general and between female and male students.

Second, as suggested by some researchers (e.g. Jones, 1989; Kelly, 1988; Tatar & Emmanuel, 2001), it is also important to enable teachers and student-teachers to develop critical self-awareness and to gain insights into the issue of gender inequality. The trainee teacher can be provided with compulsory courses or workshops on gender and equality during their teacher training programs. Kelly (1988) reported that "the results of the meta-analysis suggest that trained teachers are much more successful than un-trained teachers in reducing sex-bias in their classrooms" (p.15).

Last but not least, it is of vital importance to analyze classroom discourse in order to see what is happening in the classroom in terms of many different aspects such as activities done in the classroom, materials used during the activities, teacher-student interaction, student-teacher interaction and student-student interaction, which in turn can help improve the learning and teaching process.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The results of the present study is significant in terms of its being the first study, to the best knowledge of the researcher, that examines the teacher-student interaction based on the transcriptions of video-taped classroom interaction data, and that reveals the perception of teachers and students on gender and classroom interaction

in an EFL context in Turkey. However, the findings of the study should be treated cautiously due to several limitations.

Firstly, the present data can be analyzed by focusing on different areas such as student-teacher talk and student-student talk in order to gain a more comprehensive view on gender and classroom interaction in an EFL context in Turkey.

Secondly, the data can be analyzed in terms of a) wait time given to female and male students given by the teacher; b) the type of teachers' questions, and c) the type of teachers' feedback provided to female and male students by the teacher.

Thirdly, carrying out the research with different grade-level students and different ages might yield different results. Moreover, since the examined classrooms in the present study are language classrooms, there are two languages that the students and teachers use in the classroom. The results should be considered within the scope of language classrooms by taking this fact into consideration. In other subject areas, the students only use their native language (L1), which in turn may have an impact on the amount and type of the language used in the classroom.

Lastly, the study can be employed for classes that have larger samples in order to examine the interaction between teacher and students, which in turn may help to have more general and detailed view about the issue.

Conclusion

This study was an attempt to examine classroom interaction in terms of teacher's attention given to female and male students in two EFL classrooms in Turkey and to examine the teachers' and the students' perceptions about gender and classroom interaction. In order to examine the teacher-student interaction—more specifically—, the teachers' initiating moves (both A and NA), the distribution of A and NA initiating moves, and follow-up moves (feedback) directed to female and male students were examined using Sinclair and Coulthard's classroom discourse analysis model.

The results of the study partially confirm the previous research. The findings of the study indicated that both the female and the male teacher directed more initiating moves to the class as a whole. With respect to the distribution of teachers' initiating moves between female and male students, it is found that the female teacher directed more initiating moves (both A and NA) in general, and more A initiating moves to male students than female students. In terms of NA initiating moves and follow-up moves, there was no unequal distribution between female and male students. On the other hand, the results of the study showed that, although the male teacher directed more initiating moves (both A and NA), more A initiating moves and more follow-up moves to female students, he directed more NA moves to the male students. However, it was pointed out that, in the male teacher's class, there were far more initiating moves directed to the class as whole rather than specific female or male students.

The findings of the interviews show that, in both of the classrooms, all of the students expressed the belief that the teachers (both the female and the male teacher)

gave equal opportunities to female and male students in their classes to talk. However, the findings of the study demonstrate that there are inequalities in the number of teacher's initiating moves that were directed to female and male students. As for the teacher interviews, both the female and the male teacher indicated that there are certain factors they paid attention to while calling on students.

In conclusion, based on the findings of the study, it is suggested that both in-service and pre-service teachers should pay special attention to the equal treatment of students in the classrooms as each student has the right to be treated equally and to have equal access to learning opportunities and that teachers should pay attention to avoiding stereotypical views about females and males in order not to perpetuate stereotypical representation of women and men in the society.

Appendix A

Research Questions of the Study

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the level of a female teacher's student selection in an intermediate level EFL classroom in a preparatory school of a university in Turkey?

Specific research questions:
A) How many of the teacher's initiating moves are directed to female students?
B) How many of the teacher's initiating moves are directed to male students?
C) How many of the teacher's initiating moves are directed to the class?

2) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the level a male teacher's student selection in an intermediate level EFL classroom in a preparatory school of a university in Turkey?

Specific research questions:
A) How many of the teacher's initiating moves are directed to female students?
B) How many of the teacher's initiating moves are directed to male students?
C) How many of the teacher's initiating moves are directed to the class?

3) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the number the female teacher's academic (A) and non-academic (NA) initiating moves directed to female students and male students?

Specific research questions:
A) How many A and NA initiating moves are directed to female students?
B) How many A and NA initiating moves are directed to male students?
C) How many A and NA initiating moves are directed to the class?

4) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the number of the male teacher's academic (A) and non-academic (NA) initiating moves directed to female students and male students?

Specific research questions:
A) How many A and NA initiating moves are directed to female students?
B) How many A and NA initiating moves are directed to male students?
C) How many A and NA initiating moves are directed to the class?

5) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the amount of teacher's feedback provided by the female teacher to female students and male students?

Specific research questions:
A) How many times are female students provided with feedback by the teacher?

B) How many times are male students provided with feedback by the teacher?

6) Are there any similarities and/or differences in the amount of teacher's feedback provided by the male teacher to female students and male students?

Specific research questions:
A) How many times are female students provided with feedback by the teacher?
B) How many times are male students provided with feedback by the teacher?

7) What are the perceptions of teachers and students about gender and teacher-student interaction in an intermediate level EFL classroom in a preparatory school of a university in Turkey?

Appendix B

Participant Demographic Information Form

1) Name-Surname:

……

2) Gender:

.....

3) Age:

……

4) Place of Birth:

……

5) Department:

…….....

6) E-mail:

……

7) High School

…….....

8) Your mother's educational background

PhD () MA () BA () High School () Secondary School () Primary School ()

9) Your mother's job

……

10) Your father's educational background

PhD () MA () BA () High School () Secondary School () Primary School ()

11) Your father's job

……

12) How long have you been learning English?

……

13) Do you speak any foreign language(s) other than English?

…….....

Appendix C

Student Interview Questions

1) Do you think that there are any factors affecting classroom interaction? (Both academically and socially) If yes, what are they?

2) Do you think that teacher's feedback and "backchannel (supportive) responses" are effective in your interaction?

3) Do you think that a student's gender has an effect on his/her success and interaction in the foreign language classroom?

4) Does your teacher's gender have any effects on in-class interaction? Do you prefer male teachers to female teachers or vice versa?

5) Do you think that your teacher selects female and male students to participate in the classroom interaction equally?

6) Do you think that there are certain roles assigned to women and men in the society?

Appendix D

Teacher Interview Questions

1) Do you think that there are any factors affecting classroom interaction? (Both academically and socially) If yes, what are they?

2) Do you think that your feedback and "backchannel (supportive) responses" are effective in students' interaction?

3) Are there any criteria that you pay attention to while selecting (picking out) students to talk?

4) Do you think that a student's gender has an effect on his/her success and interaction in the foreign language classroom?

Appendix E

Figures presenting a diagrammatic representation of Sinclair-Coulthard's (1992) Model

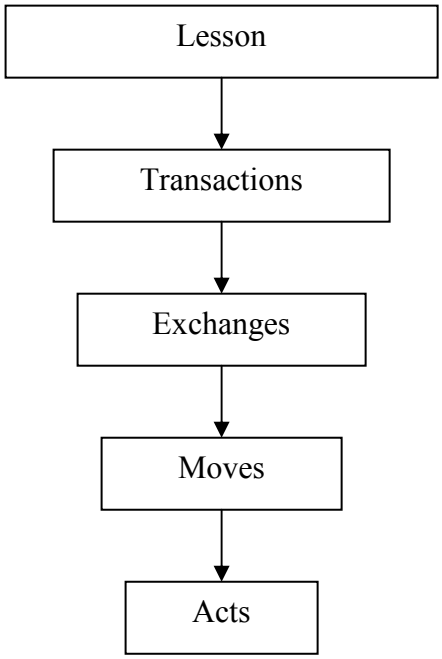


Figure 1: An adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical "lesson-transaction-exchange-move-act" system.

Appendix F

Figures presenting a diagrammatic representation of Sinclair-Coulthard's (1992) Model

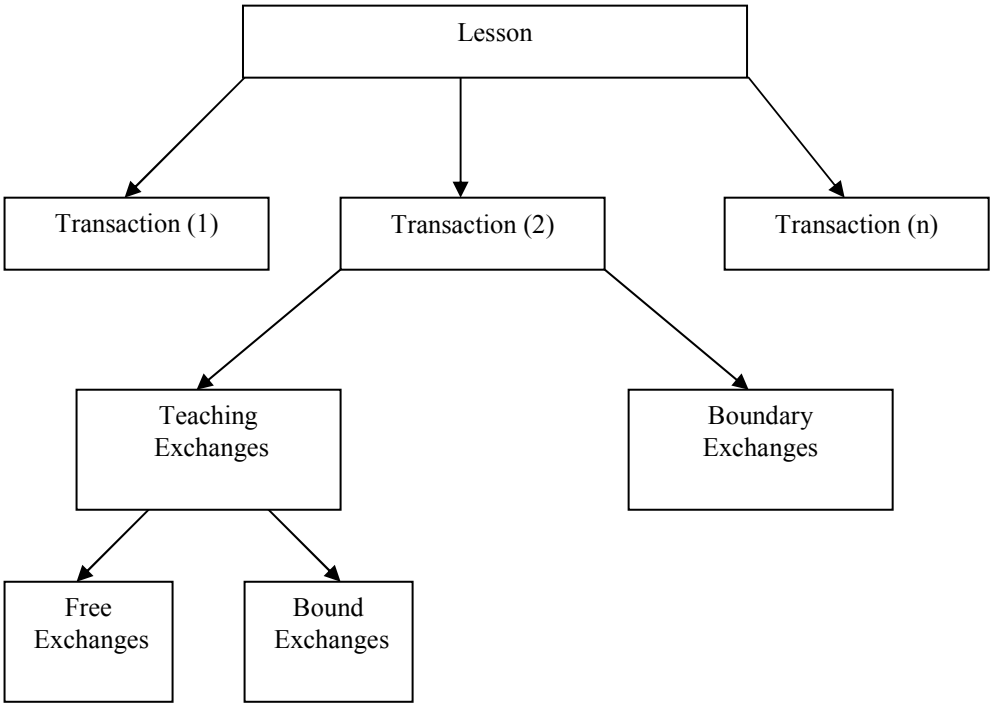


Figure 2: An adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical "lesson-transaction-exchange-move-act" system: Types of exchanges.

Appendix G

Figures presenting a diagrammatic representation of Sinclair-Coulthard's (1992) Model

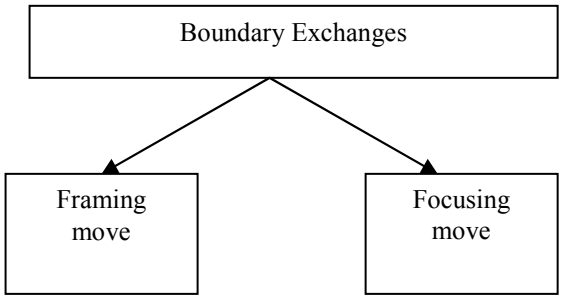


Figure 3: An adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical "lesson-transaction-exchange-move-act" system: "Boundary Exchanges" composed of Framing (Fr) and Focusing (Fo) moves.

Appendix H

Figures presenting a diagrammatic representation of Sinclair-Coulthard's (1992) Model

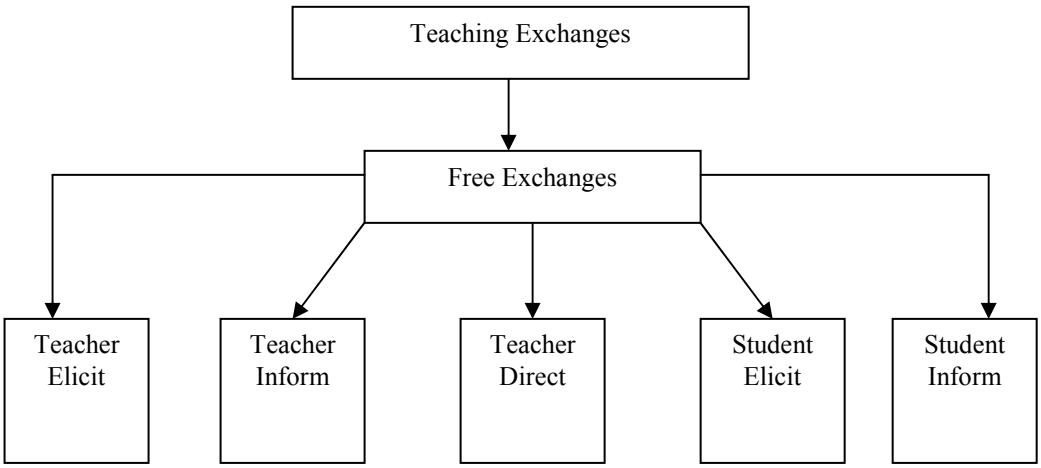


Figure 4: An adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical "lesson-transaction-exchange-move-act" system: Free Teaching Exchanges.

Appendix I

Figures presenting a diagrammatic representation of Sinclair-Coulthard's (1992) Model

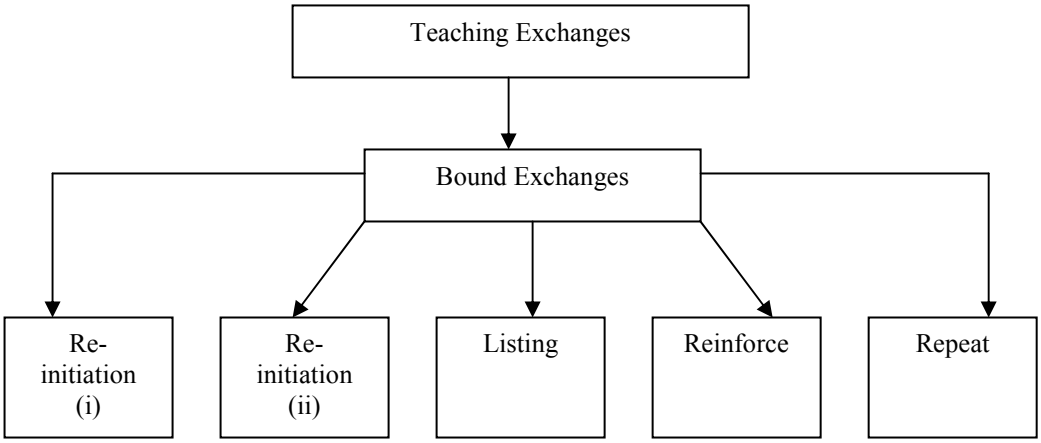


Figure 5: An adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical "lesson-transaction-exchange-move-act" system: Bound Teaching Exchanges.

Appendix J

Figures presenting a diagrammatic representation of Sinclair-Coulthard's (1992) Model

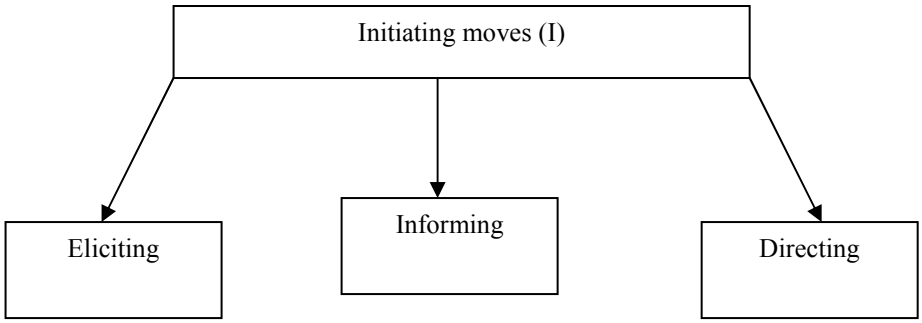


Figure 6: An adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical "lesson-transaction-exchange-move-act" system: Teacher's initiating moves.

Appendix K

Figures presenting a diagrammatic representation of Sinclair-Coulthard's (1992) Model

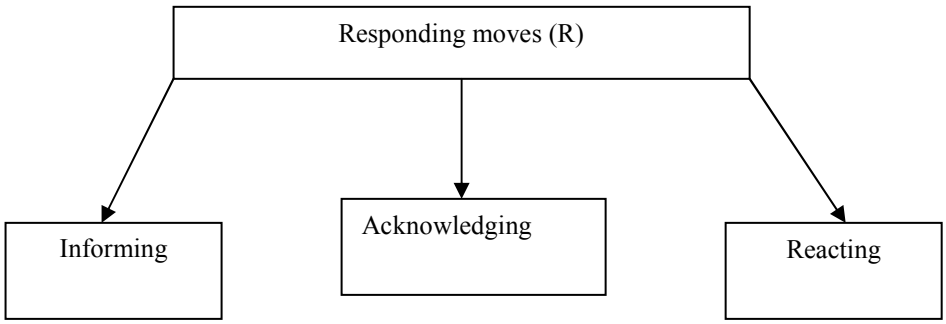


Figure 7: An adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical "lesson-transaction-exchange-move-act" system: Students' responding moves.

Appendix L

Figures presenting a diagrammatic representation of Sinclair-Coulthard's (1992) Model

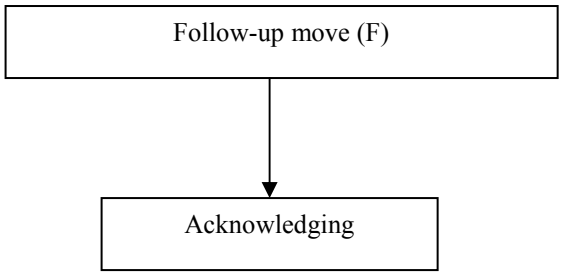


Figure 8: An adaptation of Sinclair and Coulthard's hierarchical "lesson-transaction-exchange-move-act" system: Teacher's Follow-up move.

Appendix M

Summary of Acts

Reference number	Act's label	Symbol	Function	Realized by
01	marker	m	to mark boundaries in the discourse	a closed class of items-"well", "OK", "now", "good", "right", "alright". When a marker is acting as the head of a framing move it has a falling intonation, [1] or [1+], as well as a silent stress.
02	starter	s	to provide information about or direct attention to or thought towards an area in order to make a correct response to the initiation more likely.	a statement, question or command
03	elicitation	el	to request a linguistic response	a question
04	check	ch	to enable the teacher to ascertain whether there are any problems preventing the successful progress of the lesson.	a closed class of polar questions concerned with being "finished" or "ready", having "problems" or "difficulties", being able to "see" or "hear". They are "real" questions, in that for once the teacher doesn't know the answer.
05	directive	d	to request a non-linguistic response.	a command
06	informative	i	to provide information	a statement
07	prompt	p	to reinforce a directive or elicitation by	a closed class of items "go on", "come on", "hurry up",

			suggesting that the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting or even demanding one.	"quickly", "have a guess".
08	clue	cl	to provide additional information which helps the pupil to answer the elicitation or comply with the directive	a statement, question, command or moodless item.
09	cue	cu	to evoke an (appropriate) bid.	a close class of exponents such as "hands up", "don't call out", "is john the only one"
10	bid	b	to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse	a close class of verbal and non-verbal items- "sir", "miss", teacher's name, raised hand, heavy breathing, finger clicking.
11	nomination	n	to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse.	a close class consisting of the names of all the pupils, "you" with contrastive stress, "anybody", "yes", and one or two idiosyncratic items such as "who hasn't said anything yet".
12	acknowledge	ack	to show that the initiation has been understood, and, if the head was directive, that the pupil intends to react.	"yes", "OK", "cor", "mm", "wow", and certain non-verbal gestures and expressions.
13	reply	rep	to provide a linguistic response which is appropriate to the elicitation.	a statement, question or moodless item and non-verbal surrogates such as nods.
14	react	rea	to provide the appropriate non-	a non-linguistic action.

			linguistic response defined by the preceding directive.	
15	comment	com	to exemplify, expand, justify, provide additional information	a statement or tag question
16	accept	acc	to indicate that the teacher has heard or seen and that the informative, reply or react was appropriate.	a closed class of items – “yes”, “no”, “good”, “fine”, and repetition of pupil’s reply, all with neutral low fall intonation.
17	evaluate	e		statements and tag questions, including words and phrases such as “good”, “interesting”, “team point”, commenting on the quality of the reply, react or initiation, also by “yes”, “no”, “good”, “fine”, with a high-fall intonation, and repetition of the pupil’s reply with either high-fall (positive), or a rise of any kind (negative evaluation).
18	silent stress	^	to highlight the marker when it is serving as the head of a boundary exchange indicating a transaction boundary.	a pause, of the duration of one or more beats, following a marker
19	metastatement	ms	to help the pupils to see the structure of the lesson, to help them understand the purpose of the subsequent exchange and see	a statement which refers to some future time when what is described will occur.

			where they are going.	
20	conclusion	con	to help the pupils understand the structure of the lesson but this time by summarizing what the preceding chunk of discourse was about.	an anaphoric statement, sometimes marked by slowing of speech rate and usually the lexical items “so” or “then”. In a way it is the converse of metastatement.
21	loop	l	to return the discourse to the stage it was at before the pupil spoke, from where it can proceed normally.	a closed class of items- “pardon”, “you what”, “eh”, “again”, with rising intonation and a few questions like “did you say”, “do you mean”.
22	aside	z	instances of the teacher talking to himself: “it’s freezing in here”, “where did I put my chalk?”	statement, question, command, moodless, usually marked by lowering the tone of the voice, and not really addressed to the class.

Appendix N

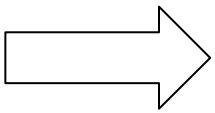
Lesson Analysis Sample (class 1, the female teacher)[6]

Line of moves	e. s.	Moves	Act	Type of move	From X to Y (T/SS/F/M) A/NA
0001	T (I)	All right	m	Framing	T-Ss (A)
0002	T (I)	Before we do anything we are going to write an essay.	ms	Focusing	T-Ss (A)
		Yes, early in the morning when you are most hopefully awake.	com		
0003	T (I)	Are you looking at me with Garfieldy eyes or are you awake?	el	Eliciting	T-Ss (NA)
0004	Ss (R)	NV (Smiling)	rep-i	Informing	Ss-T (NA)
0005	T (I)	But we could do hmm people will …	s	Directing	T-Ss (A)
		For five minutes for five minutes let's look at our erm vocabulary book, the vocabulary book	d		

[6] Pseudo names were used in the analyses.

0006	F (I) Sevda	[Hocam (Teacher) (As soon as she starts to talk Melek starts talking)	b	Eliciting	F-T (?)
0007	F (I) Melek	Which days are we expected to bring this? (showing the vocabulary book)	el	Eliciting	F-T (NA)
0008	T (R)	Everyday, everyday.	rep-i	Informing	T-F (NA)
0009	F (F) Melek	Hmm	ack	Acknowledging	F-T (NA)

Next page



Appendix O

Lesson Analysis Sample (class 2, the male teacher)

Line of moves	e. s. 2	Moves	Act	Type of move	T/ SS F/ M	Ex no	Tr no
0001	T (I)	Yeah! Fine. According to … what a belief relevant to the communication is shared by the speaker audience, what happens …?	m el	Eliciting	T-Ss (A)		
0002	Ss (R)	...	rep-i	Informing	Ss-T (A)		
0003	M (R) Yağız	When the belief …	rep-i	Informing	M-T (A)		
0004	T (F)	Good, good.	acc	Acknowledging	T-M (A)		
0005	F (I) Esin	Sadece … diye bir şey … olmaz mı? (Isn't only something like … possible?)	el	Eliciting	F-T (A)		
0006	T (R)	Yes. … Possibly.	rep-i	Informing	T-F (A)		
0007	F (Ib) Esin	"… results" dedim. (I said "…results")	i	Informing	F-T (A)		

0008	T (F)	Yeah. … results. Exactly. Good point. [ ]	acce	Acknowledging	T-F (A)

Appendix P

The Turkish Form of the (Interviews) Quotations Cited in the Main Text

Sınıf 1, katılımcı 2: Kesinlikle hocanın destekleyici tavrı çok önemli. Bir şey söylediğinde hocanın sana iyi bir şekilde karşılık vereceğini, cevap vereceğini bilmek çok önemli. Yoksa insan konuşmaya yani çekiniyor topluluk içinde olduğu için.

Sınıf 2, katılımcı 10: Birşey söylediğimizde hocamız yanlış olduğunu düşünse bile aşağılayıcı bir şekilde davranmıyor. Bu nedenle, soruyu yanlış cevaplasak bile destekleyici yanıtlar veriyor. Ve bence İngilizce konuşabilmek için bu çok önemli.

Sınıf 1, katılımcı 5: Yani hayır etkilemiyor (…). Ama mesela bir bayan öğretmen, bayan hocaların bir erkek öğretmene göre daha hareketli, daha böyle eğlenceli olabilir. Erkek hocalarda benim gördüğüm kadarıyla her zaman ciddi bir seviye yani mesafe koruma oluyor. Ama bayan hocaların da dersleri böyle daha bir eğlenceli geçebiliyor. Ama genel anlamda hayır.

Sınıf 1, katılımcı 6: Ya bayan olmasını daha çok tercih ederim. Çünkü konuşurken biraz daha kibarlık çerçevesinde konuşuyorsun bir bayanla konuştuğun için. Daha dikkatli oluyor genellikle. Ya da erkek öğretmenlerin bilmiyorum liseden kalma bir şey herhalde kızlara daha çok şans tanıdığı için olabilr.

Sınıf 2, katılımcı 7: Öğretmenin cinsiyeti beni etkilemiyor. Önemli olan bizimle iletişmi. (…)

Sınıf 2, katılımcı 8: Bence erkek olması çok daha iyi yani bütün derslerde. Çünkü bayanlarda -kendim de bir bayanım ama bunu söylemek zorundayım-yani biraz böyle aşağılık kompleksi oluyor. Biraz da dersi önemsenmiyor havalarına giriyor (...). Erkekler, bir de erkeklerin yapısında hani çok fazla olayları takmıyorlar. Sonradan düşünüp düşünüp üzerinde yorum yapmıyorlar. Ama bayanlar genelde öyledir.

Sınıf 2, katılımcı 7: Ben lisedeyken psikoloji öğretmenimiz kızlara daha iyi davranıyordu (kayırıyordu). Erkek bir öğretmendi (…). Fakat erkeklere daha düşük notlar verirdi. Ama kızlar çok çalışmasalar bile yüksek not verebiliyordu. Bu nedenle erkek öğrenciler onun bu davranışından etkileniyordu. Öğretmenden nefret ediyorlardı.

Sınıf 1, katılımcı 3: İster istemez beliriyor. Çünkü küçüklüğümüzden beri alıştığımız bir toplum var, yaşadığımız yer. Yani işte. (…)Erkekler daha rahat yetiştiriliyor,

kızlar daha baskı altında yetiştiriliyor. En başta bu var. Kızlara mesela daha çok ev işine yatkın olarak bakılıyor. Erkeklerin yapmayanı makbul.

Sınıf 1, katılımcı 6: Meslek ayırımında özellikle kafamda beliriyor. Bayanların yapamayacağı meslekler olduğunu düşünüyorum. Şoförlük veya benzeri. Bu tarz şeyleri (…). Stresli ve yoğun çaba isteyen genellikle kaba insanlarla karşılaşılan bir ortam. Yani bayanların nazik ortamlara ait olduğunu düşünüyorum.

Sınıf 1, katılımcı 4: Ya böyle yirmi sene öncesinde falan kadın ev hanımıdır, çocularıyla ilgilenir falan derdim ama artık ne olduğu belli değil. Kadın da çalışıyor erkek bazen evde kalıyor falan. O yüzden yok

Sınıf 2, katılımcı 9: Yani insanların toplumda sahip olduğu belli başlı roller var. Ve insanlar, diğer insanlar o insanların ona göre hareket etmesini istiyor. Sen bayansın işte böyle olman lazım sen erkeksin böyle olman lazım. Bunlar tabiî ki var. Maalesef ki var. Ama benim görüşüm yani çok da eşit olmalarından yana değil. Herkesin kendince biçilmiş görevleri olduğunu düşünüyorum. Yani onu eşitlik terazisinde değerlendirmek biraz yanlış oluyor benim açımdan.

Sınıf 2, katılımcı 7: Ya tabi insanın kendini sınırlandırmaması gerek. Hani ben belirli rollere karışmasam,kadınsam bunu yapmak zorundasın diye bir şey yoktur.Ama insanın cinsiyet ayrımından kaynaklanan bazı sorumlulukları diyeyim yani hani kesinlikle bir kural değil de kendi içinden gelen hani bunlar yapılmamalı onlar yapabilir ama sen yapmamalısın gibi bazı şeyler olabiliyor yani.Tabi çevrenizde de bunu yapmamalılar diye hani kendi düşünceleriniz olabiliyor.Böyle şeyler yapılmamalı yani sonuçta o bir kız bu tür şeyleri yapmamalı diyebiliyorsunuz.

Sınıf 2, katılımcı 10: Kadın ve erkek üniversiteden sonra işte belli bir iş hayatına atıldığı zaman daha sonra da evlilik geliyor tabi işte erkek evin direğidir. Çalışır, evini geçindirir. Hanım önceden çocuklarına bakan bir ev kadını olaraktı hani önceden. Ama artık kadınlar da çok aktif roller almaya başladıkları için erkeklerin çoğu yaptığı işi de kadınlar yapmaya başladı. Kadınların hem sosyal olarak hem iş hayatında iyi bir gelişme içinde olduğunu düşünüyorum.

Sınıf 1, kadın öğretmen: Öğrencilere söz hakkı verirken dikkat ettiğim faktörler var. En başta, herkese eşit söz hakkı vermeye çalışıyorum ama kalabalık sınıflarda bu biraz zor oluyor. Bir alıştırma varsa soruların rastgele cevaplandırılması gerekiyor. Yoksa, öğrenciler sadece kendi sorularına odaklanıyorlar. (…) Ben bir sorunun ne kadar kolay ya da zor olduğunu bilirim. (...) Soruları öğrencilerin kapasitelerine göre sormaya çalışırım. Ve son olarak, kız ve erkekler arasındaki dağılıma dikkat ediyorum. Eğer iki kıza soru sormuşsam peşinden diğerlerini üç erkeğe sormaya dikkat ediyorum.
Sınıf 2, erkek öğretmen: Soruları cevaplayabileceğini düşündüğüm kişilere sormaya dikkat ettim.

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