

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

There has been much research on the teacher talk in recent years. This interest reflects the importance of such talk in language teaching. Issues related to the teacher talk are, among other things, number and type of questions asked and speech (question) modification made by teachers, quantity of speech, error correction, feedback, instructions and explanation (Chaudron, 1988). It lies in the fact that “second language learning is a highly interactive process (Richard and Lockart, 1994) and the quality of this interaction is thought to have a considerable influence on learning” (Ellis, 1985). In other words, Ellis (1985) argues that successful language learning is found to depend as much on the type of interaction triggered by teachers’ questioning behaviors that takes place in the classroom as on the method used. Subsequently, prompting students to be more actively engaged in learning is pedagogically valuable, for their active involvements will promote substantial learning regardless of well-designed method that the teacher use (Nystrand and Gamoran, 1991). If teacher’s questions triggers students to initiate the prolonged interaction, there should be enhanced students’ comprehension as well as more production of outputs by them (Pica *et al.*, 1987; Ellis, 1993)

The various question types play a pivotal role in students’ language production and acquisition. Brock (1981) cited by Chaudron (1988) states that teachers’ various

question types affect the quantity and complexity of students' TL use in spoken discourse. Furthermore, Nunan (1989) citing Pica and Long (1986) asserts that teachers' modifying speech –among other things, questions- improves the comprehensibility of the input to the students, resulting in acquiring TL.

Subsequently, the utility of teacher questions needs to be measured against three inter-dependent restricting factors (Gabrielatos, 2001): (1) the need to *minimize teacher talking time*, so that the teachers do not dominate the lesson, (2) the importance of *involving learners and eliciting/generating* as much learning thinking and talk as possible, and (3) the need for *time effectiveness*, since a common complaint of teachers is that there never seems to be enough time to deal with the set syllabus.

However, concerning the teacher's *minimal talking time*, it is inevitably influenced by the students' current language proficiency as stated by American Scholar Wong-Fillmore (Xiao-yan ,2006). She views that two conditions have to meet if the teacher talking time is minimized. The first circumstance is that the students must have possession of high level language proficiency. Consequently, they can communicate with their teacher and among themselves. The second one is that there must be sufficient pupils who feel like communicating in the class. As a matter of fact, teacher talking time should not be minimized blindly (Xiao-yan, 2006). The teachers are pedagogically aware of when and how much they spend the time talking in TL during

the language instruction. In other words, using their common sense and experience, good teachers get the balance right (Harmer, 2000).

Eventually, Richards and Lockhart (1994) assert that questions, in educational terms serve a number of purposes, most notably (a) encourage student involvement in learning, (b) help weaker students participate, (c) help elicit particular structures and vocabulary, (d) stimulate thinking, and (e) enable teachers to check student understanding.

1.2 The problem

Classroom is the prime place for foreign language learners in which they are frequently exposed to the target language. The kind of language by the teacher for instruction in the classroom is known as teacher talk (TT). It, as a matter of fact, is a special communicative activity whose goal is to communicate with students and develop students' foreign language proficiency (Ellis, 1985). It involves such aspects as the amount of teacher talk, teachers questioning; teachers' assessment, etc.

The problem which is going to be investigated here is teachers' questioning. It deserves to be considered as asking question is one of numerously common ways where L2 teachers interact with learners (Holland & Shorthall, 1997). In addition, questioning is one of the most typical techniques used by teacher (Richards and Lockhart, 1994). Even, in most classroom discourse studies, questions frequently derive from the teachers in teacher-fronted nature (Boyd & Rubin, 2002). No wonder, in some classrooms question-and-answer exchanges take up half of class time

(Richards and Lockhart, 1994). Therefore, exploring it as one of common ways in which L2 teachers engage in interaction with learners is expected to show useful findings. Later, they will contribute the deeper insights about the ways the practices of teachers' questioning in the real fields and student learning.

The present study concerns teacher talk, particularly teachers' questioning in practice. It investigates question types that the teacher employs in the classroom. Also, it searches for modification techniques that the teacher uses as students experience communication breakdowns. Furthermore, it finds out the effects of comprehended questions on students' oral production. Finally, it seeks out teacher's reasons for using a particular question type the most frequently.

1.3 Statements of the problems

On the basis of problem and background study previously imparted, there appear some following questions in the present study:

The present study tries to answer the following questions:

1. What types of question does the teacher use in teacher-student interactions?
2. What question modification techniques does the teacher employ when communication breakdowns occur?
3. How does each question type affect students' oral production?
4. Why does the teacher use a particular question type the most frequently?

1.4 Aims and justification

The present study aims

- 1) to find question types that the teacher employs in teacher-student interactions.
- 2) to find the teacher's question modification techniques when communication breakdowns occur.
- 3) to find out the affects of teacher-posed questions to students' oral production
- 4) to find out the reason(s) why the teacher employs a particular question type the most frequently.

Teacher questioning is chosen to be the focus of the present study because it is common for teachers to pose questions to students in teacher-student interactions. Broadly speaking, teachers may pose a question that he knows the answer (display) or the one that he does not know the answer (referential). For elicitation purpose, teacher may vary question types : choice elicitation ; product elicitation ; process elicitation, and meta process elicitation (see chapter 2 Question Taxonomy). Later, unintelligible questions may cause communication breakdowns. Students' responses are contrary to teachers' expectation since they are unable to respond to teachers' questions. Hence, teacher's questioning behaviors emerge. They modify their questions in such a way so that their inputs to student turn out to be comprehensible ones, resulting in students' oral production.

1.5 Significance of the study

The present study makes contributions to enrich the literature in teacher questioning behaviors in EFL settings. In addition, the participant – the teacher- will self-reflect her questioning behaviors employed in the classroom as to promote continuously personal development. Moreover, any teacher handling students with identical characteristics will benefit to the results of the study. Finally, it is expected that teacher training departments may obtain pedagogical inputs in terms of incorporating necessitated questioning skills in their training syllabus.

1.6 Scope and delimitations

As mentioned in chapter 3, this study is aimed at adding the researcher's knowledge about teachers' questioning behaviors in the instructions in one EFL class. In particular, the occurrences of teacher-student interactions are substantially examined. Equally, the focus of the study is not on the studies of pair work but on the teacher-fronted occasions, when a teacher was staying in front of a classroom or was standing in before a group of students, which the typical events took place during the instructions. Also, it just investigates teacher questioning which influences students' talks and involvement in learning instead of students' promoted critical thinking. At last, the researcher merely seeks in-depth insights of teacher-practiced questioning in a class with distinctive characteristics accordingly.

Also, out of a number of question taxonomies in the literature, the present study focuses on the types of questions which promote students to get involved in learning and to generate talks. These are under the framework of Michael long and Charlene Sato (1983), Pica (1999), and Redfield and Rousseau (1981). The question types are categorized as follow: Echoic (comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks), Epistemic (closed and open display, closed and open referential, expressive, rhetorical), Convergent and Divergent Questions.

Furthermore, it is the fact that the researcher is inexperienced in employing the real utilization of complicated observation instruments. Overtly, the researcher has no adequate trainings in intricate classroom observation techniques , like BIAS (Brown Interaction Analysis System), or even more complicated one, like COALA (Computer Aided Linguistic Analysis). Consequently, the researcher owns limited resources and knowledge. Thus, an adapted FLINT (Foreign Language Interactions) system is intentionally selected , for it seems the least complex observation scheme with the liable employment of a tally in transcriptional results.

1.7 Clarification of terms

Several terms that require clarification as to avoid ambiguity, misinterpretation, or misunderstanding are used in the present study; these are questions, interactions and oral production, and wait time.

First of all, the Longman Dictionary of English Language defines a question as to an utterance that is addressed to a listener and is used to elicit information or a response or to test knowledge. Besides, a question is defined as a semantic class which is used to seek information on a specific subject (Lynch, 1991). Particularly, *questioning techniques* are relative to the different procedures that teachers use in posing questions and the different questions they ask.

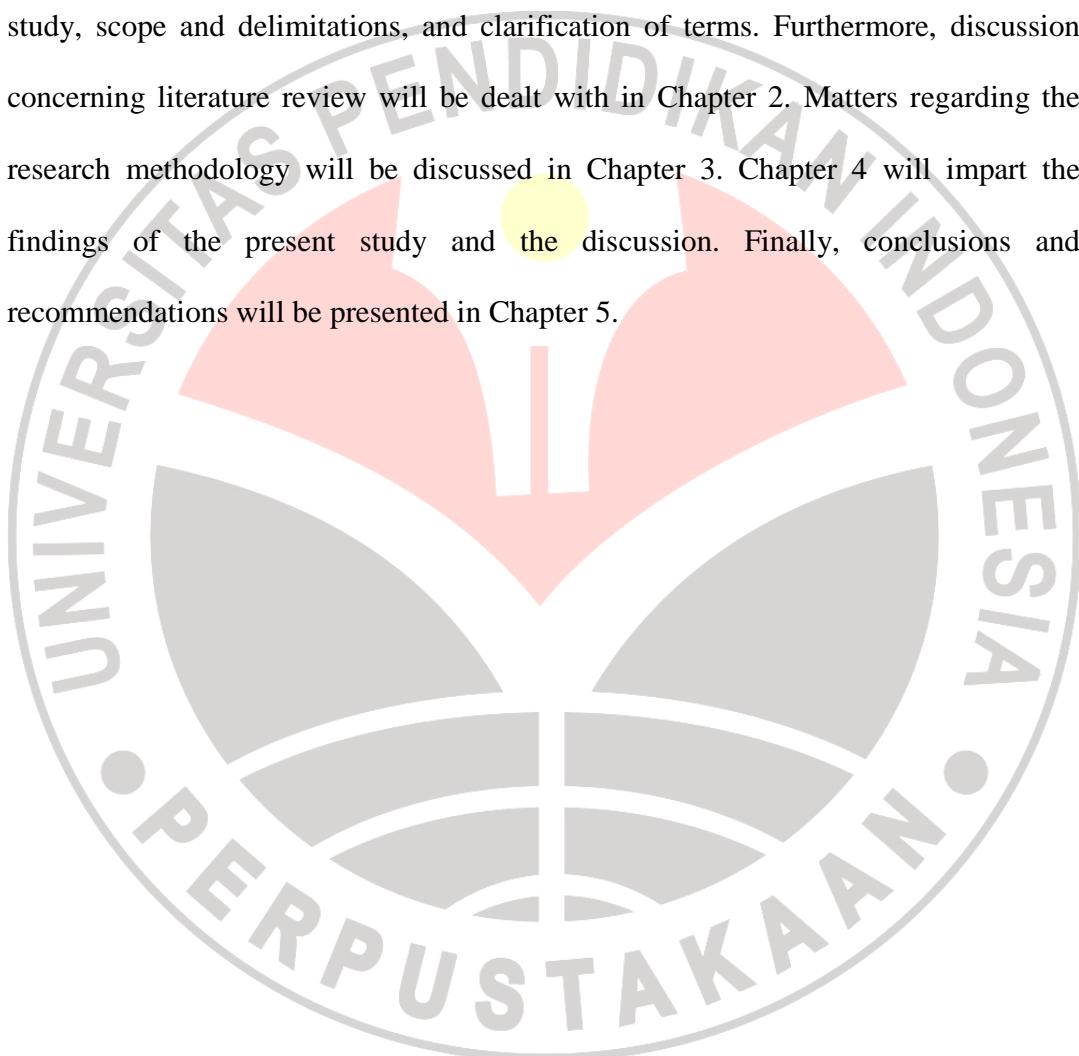
Later, interactions are the collaborative exchanges of thoughts, ideas, or feelings between teacher and learner or learner and learner, which result in a reciprocal effect on each other (Malamah-Thomas, 1987). In this study, classroom interactions refer to three types of communication, i.e. *one-way communication* (the learner listen to the target language (TL) but he doesn't response), and *full-two way communication* (the learner speaks in the target language) (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982).

Subsequently, oral production is the spoken linguistic realization of the attempts while answering teacher questions during classroom instructions. In particular, the researcher merely focus phonological words on students' oral production

Eventually, wait time is the time that teachers allows students to answer questions, before, for instance, asking another student (redirecting the questions), repeating the questions, rephrasing the questions, code-switching the questions, or even answering their own questions themselves (Thornbury, 2001)

1.8 Summary

This chapter discussed the background information to the present study, the problem, statements of the problems, aims and justification, significance of the study, scope and delimitations, and clarification of terms. Furthermore, discussion concerning literature review will be dealt with in Chapter 2. Matters regarding the research methodology will be discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 will impart the findings of the present study and the discussion. Finally, conclusions and recommendations will be presented in Chapter 5.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Various question types and functions posed by a teacher are pedagogically pivotal to develop students' language proficiency. In classroom discourse modes, as interacting with the students, teachers are dealt with the questions that puzzle learners, leading to communication breakdowns. Thus, the repertoire of question modification techniques is in the urgent need as comprehensible questions embark valuable inputs and outputs for students. As a matter of fact, students acquire the target language (TL) by understanding the questions that the teacher conveys. Also, their TL acquisition is enhanced by their endeavors to answer the intelligible ones. One of the teacher's roles as a facilitator via his or her questioning is undoubtedly beneficial for student language learning, accordingly. All related theories and studies, therefore, will be substantially highlighted below.

2.1 Question taxonomy

Questions that Bernadowski (2006) affirms as "an essential component of classroom discourse across grade/ability levels and content areas have numerous classification based on their forms and functions. Questions are classified by the type of response they solicit and the functions they serve. In fact, there has been numerous development of question categories since 1970's. Kearlsey (1976) cited by Chen (2001) proposed a question taxonomy that questions were categorized

according to their functions, namely *echoic*, *epistemic (referential and evaluative)*, *expressive*, and *social control*. In addition, Long and Sato (1983) modified inadequate Kearsley's taxonomy regarding the data they encountered in their study. The Long and Sato's taxonomy has seven sub-categories under two heading types: "1 Echoic Types: a. comprehension checks, b. clarification requests, c. confirmation checks, 2. Epistemic types: a. display,b. referential, c. expressive, d. rhetorical.

Some studies have identified two types of questions that are broadly classified as *display* and *referential* (Chaudron 1988; Holland and Shortall 1997). Display questions are those to which the answers are known, designed to elicit or particular structure. Such questions as stated by (Richard and Lockhart, 1994) function as follow:

Display questions serve to facilitate the recall of information rather than to generate student ideas and classroom communication. Since convergent [focus on a central idea] questions require short answers, they may likewise provide limited opportunities for students to produce and practice the target language.

Moreover, Chaudron (1988) views,

Aside from the possibility that display questions tend to elicit short answer, learners supply the information for didactic purposes only, so it is plausible that they would have less communication involvement in producing a display response, and thus less motivational drive for using the target language.

So, teachers posing display questions frequently may generate students' short responses, like one-word answers. Besides, it is likely to cause the reduction of motivational drive for students to communicate in the target language as the teacher keeps supplying the correct answers.

On the contrary, according to Nunan (1989) referential questions conceive a greater attempt and depth processing on the part of the learner. Consequently, it is not inconceivable that this in turn, may stimulate language acquisition more greatly than the answering of display questions. However, he argues that such variables as the topic area, the learner's background knowledge, context will be operating in the contribution of responses.

Brock (1986) as cited by Nunan (1989) concludes from her study:

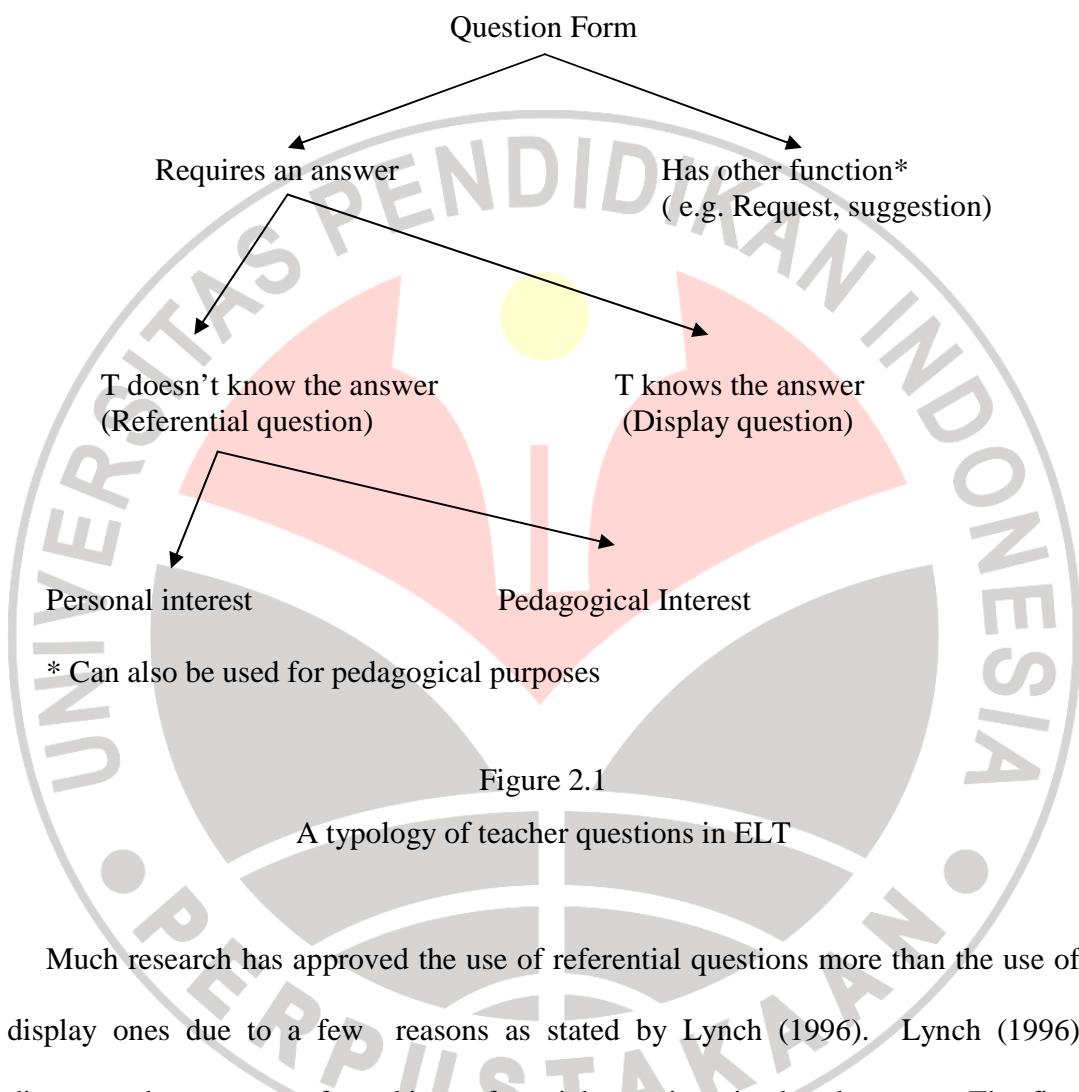
That referential questions may increase the amount of speaking learners do in the classroom is relevant to at least one current view of second language acquisition (SLA). Swain (1983) in reporting the results of a study of the acquisition of French by Canadian children in elementary school immersion classrooms, argues that output may be an important factor in successful SLA.

Van Lier (1988), however, argues that the distinction between display and referential questions are of essence. Both are aimed at encouraging the learners to generate the target language as pointed out below:

Such (display) questions have the professed aim of providing comprehensible input, and of encouraging 'early production'. I suggest that, by and large, what give such question series their instructional, typically L2-classroom character is not so much that they are display rather than referential, but they are made with the aim of eliciting language from the learner.

Thus, referential questions intended to get the learners produce the language endorse language acquisition more profoundly than display questions. Students' familiarity with the topic area, their schemata and the context contribute to their responses, though.

The broad classification of question is illustrated by Gabrielatos (2001) as follow:



Much research has approved the use of referential questions more than the use of display ones due to a few reasons as stated by Lynch (1996). Lynch (1996) discusses three reasons for asking referential questions in the classroom. The first reason is a quantitative one: students tend to give longer responses to referential questions than when teachers ask them display questions. The second reason is a qualitative one: if students are only responsible for giving the teacher answer he/she

has in mind, they can never practice initiating interactions. The last reason is that Lynch believes that testing students' knowledge , rather than allowing them to express what they know, can have a negative effect on students' desire for wanting the answers. If they ever choose to answer teacher's questions, students my feel the need to think twice to see if their answers are what teachers have in mind.

Subsequently, Pica (1999) as cited by Chen (2001) suggests that both referential and display questions can be further divided into the *open* and closed type. The extended categorization is in the need as the broad question distinction is inadequate to account the types of questions beneficial for students' language learning. Therefore, within the referential/display questions, there are four types of questions:

(1) *Open referential questions:*

Questions which are information-seeking in nature and also elicit linguistically

Complex answers, e.g. "Can you tell me how to make chocolate chip muffins?"

(2) *Closed referential questions:*

Questions which are information-seeking in nature and result in simple elicitations of factual information, e.g. "What's your name?"

(3) *Open display questions:*

Questions which teachers know the answers in advance, but elicit linguistically complex answers, e.g. “Can you summarize the five ways to get to the airport?”

(4) *Closed display questions:*

Questions which the teachers know the answers in advance and results in short answers, e.g. “What’s the opposite of “up”

Other studies have looked at subtypes of display question and referential questions in term of *knowledge, comprehension, application, inference, analysis, synthesis and evaluation* (Brown 1994). *Procedural questions* is also introduced by Richard and Lockhart (1994) which is relative to classroom, lesson and student control process in sequences of classroom organization and management. Furthermore, Redfield and Rousseau (1981) as cited by van Lier (1988) divided questions into two groups: higher and lower cognitive questions. The two types of questions were defined as follows:

...higher cognitive or divergent questions (are) those requiring that the student mentally manipulate bits of information previously learned to create or support an answer with logically reasoned evidence.

Lower cognitive or convergent questions are defined as those calling for verbatim recall or recognition of factual information previously read or presented by a teacher.

Convergent questions encourage similar student response or responses which focus on a central theme. *Divergent* ones are designed to determine the on-going of the

planned lesson but to give the learners the possibility to establish real personal involvement in the course of the lesson and thus to address the learners' potential as an individual and to strengthen intrinsic motivation. This is called "affective activities" (Richard and Lockhart 1996).

Additionally, three additional types associated with the concept of *negotiation* or *modification of meaning* between interlocutors (Chaudron 1993) or *modified interaction* are *comprehension check*, *clarification request* and *confirmation check*. The following excerpt is an example of how a question-answer may be modified in the process of negotiation (Carter, 2001; Tsui, 1995) :

- Teacher : ...what other advantages do you think you may have, if you were
the only child in the family? (question)
- Student : I'm sorry, I beg your pardon (request for repetition)
- Teacher ; Er, if you were the only child in your family , then
what other advantages you may have? What points,
what other good point you may have?
(followed by lexical modification)
- Student : It's quieter for my study. (answer)
- Teacher : Yes, it is quieter for your study. Yes? Any other?
(confirmation check)
- Student : No more

Eventually, *instructional questions* are any questions presented in the classroom, which are intended to solicit learner production (Mehan, 1979; van Lier 1988). Relative to elicit students' utterances, Mehan (1979) distinguishes three types of initiations: elicitation, informative and directive. Moreover, Mehan (1979) differentiates four types of elicitation:

Choice elicitation: ask for agreement or disagreement (yes/no) or choice from a list provided by the teacher;

Product elicitation: requires a factual response such as a name, date, color, place;

Process elicitation: asks for respondents' opinions or interpretation;

Meta process elicitation: asks students 'to be reflective about the process of making connections between elicitations and responses

Yes-No Questions, *Choice-questions* and *WH short-answer questions* are designed to trigger short-answer elicits. *Yes-No Questions* are answered with a monosyllable, a nod, a shake of the head or by raising a hand.

Choice- questions include the word or giving an option. *WH short-answer questions* include all the following: Why, What, What for, When, Where, Who, Whose, How. Most are answered by a short phrase. These three forms of questions are ideal for beginners and for comprehension work.

Cross (1995) citing Mehan (1979) later says that questions eliciting longer answer are *Inverted WH-questions* such as "Tell me *what* the children were doing". Such question resembles the **prompts** – they are not question, but they do get the student talking-, *WH* longer-answer questions require students answer in a longer phrase, though not necessarily a full sentence.

Mehan in Cross (1995) further enumerates *Inferential questions* (Hypothetical, Personal, and general) and *Tag Questions*. *Hypothetical questions* call students for making speculative answers or guesses about the topic, even or character in the text such as “*Can you think of any possible explanation for...?*”. Personal questions result students in giving their opinions or imagine those of their family or friends. For example, teachers pose a question: “*What is the attitude of your parents to...?*”. *General Questions*, which are more educational in nature, encourage students to relate an issue to the wider world. So, it’s likely that teachers delivery such a general question as “*What other countries share similar advantages?*”.

To summarize a taxonomy of questions, table 1.1 is exhaustively depicted below:

Table 2.1
An Exhaustive Taxonomy of Questions Types

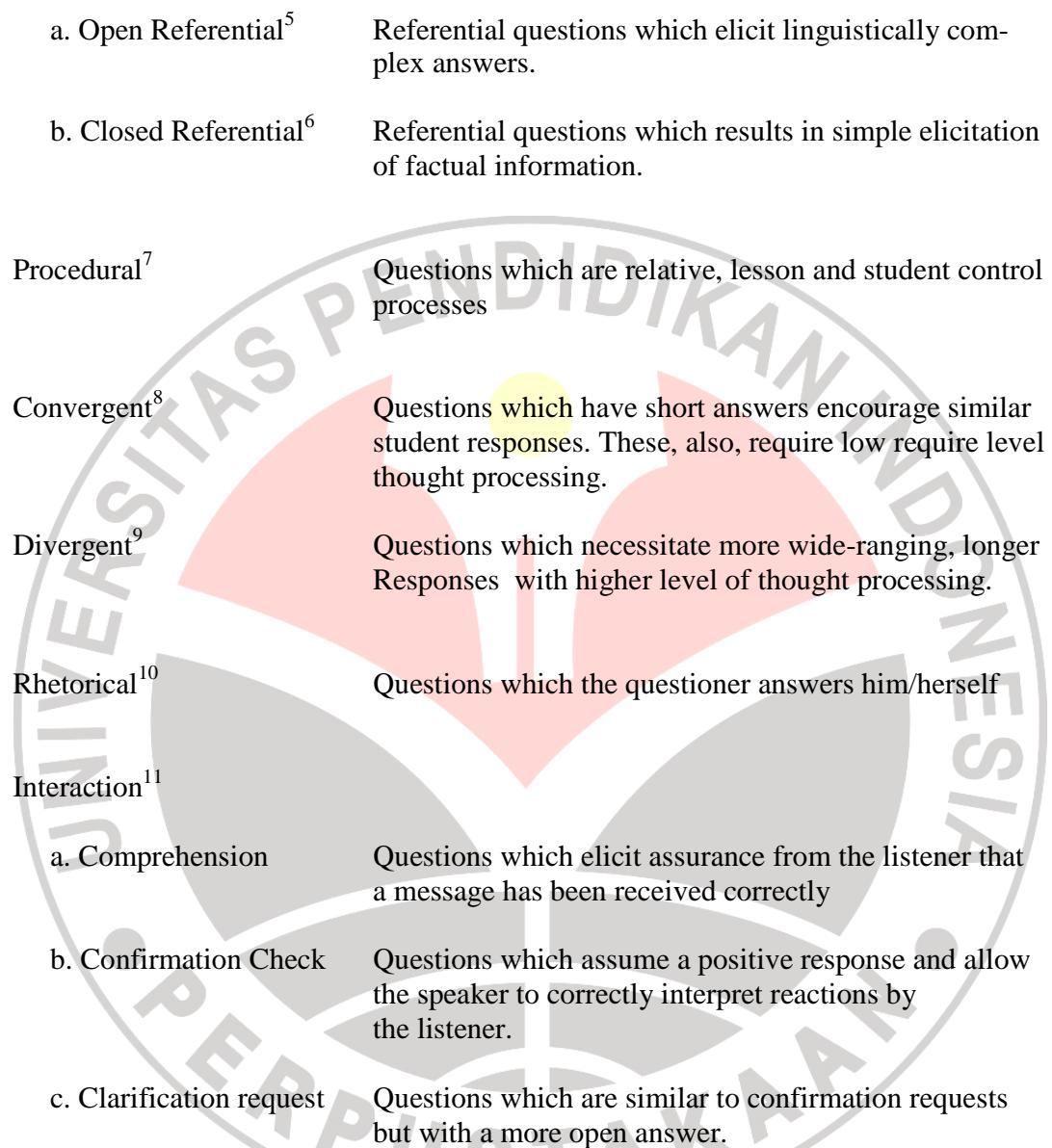
Question Type	Brief Explanations
Display¹ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Open Display² b. Closed Display³ 	<p>Questions that teachers know the answer.</p> <p>Display questions which elicit linguistically complex answers.</p> <p>Display questions which results in short answers</p>
Referential⁴	<p>Question which seek information in nature and teachers doesn’t know the answers.</p>

¹ Long and Sato (1983) in Chaudron (1988)

² Pica (1999) in Chen (2001)

³ Pica (1999) in Chen (2001)

⁴ Long and Sato (1983) in Chaudron (1988)



⁵ Pica (1999) in Chen (2001)

⁶ Pica (1999) in Chen (2001)

⁷ Richard and Lockhart (1994)

⁸ Redfield and Rousseau (1981) in van Lier (1988)

⁹ Redfield and Rousseau (1981) in van Lier (1988)

¹⁰ Long and Sato (1983) in Chaudron (1988)

¹¹ Long and Sato (1983) in Chaudron (1988)

Instructional ¹²	Any questions which are presented in the classroom. These are presupposedly intended to elicit learner production.
	a. Yes-No Questions b. Choice Questions c. WH short-answer Questions d. Wh longer answer Questions e. Inferential Questions e.1 Hypothetical e.2 Interpersonal e.3 General f. Taq-Questions
Conversational ¹³	Any questions asked outside the classroom

2.2 Teacher questions in classroom discourse modes

Teacher questions taking place in classroom are defined as instructional cues or stimuli, communicating to the students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it (Cotton, 1988). A way of looking at them is described by Walsh (2001) as cited by Nunan (2003). It really assists us to figure out the discourse – in particular, the teacher questions - occurring between teachers and students in teaching-learning process. Walsh classifies four modes of classroom discourse :

¹² Mehan (1979) in Cross (1995)

¹³ Van Lier (1988)

1. Managerial mode: It occurs most often at the beginning of the lesson. The teacher-posed questions are aimed at directing students to the intended topic of the lesson.
2. Material mode: Pedagogic goals and teacher-learner discourse flow from the material being used. The questions that the teacher poses evolve around the materials taught.
3. Skills and systems mode: The teaching goals are related to language practice (phonology, grammar, vocabulary) or language skill (reading, listening, writing, speaking). The teacher questions get the learners to manipulate the TL systems in which his/her pedagogic goals focus on accuracy rather than fluency.
4. Classroom context mode: Opportunities for genuine, real-world type discourse are frequent. The teachers plays less a dominant role. Principally, the teacher questions promote real life conversation as it is taking place outside of the classroom. She or he shifts the focus on content rather than forms of students' language oral production.

Some scholars corroborate the effectiveness of teacher questions, posed in any modes of classroom discourse, to enhance student learning. Teachers should phrase the questions clearly, plan, sequence, write into lesson plans prior to class (Brophy and Good, 1986; Ellis, 1993). Also, teachers should give students time to think when responding (Rowe, 1986; Ellis, 1993). Regarding the time allotted so as to wait

students for responding i.e. pauses - one of teacher's question modification techniques-, further details are presented in a sub-chapter 2.8 in this thesis. The distributed questions involving wide student participation is encouraged so that proportional balance responses from volunteers and non-volunteers (Ellis, 1993).

Generally, in English classroom, teachers always allow students answer their question in four ways: (1) nominating; (2) chorus-answering; (3) volunteering; (4) teacher self-answering. Each brings about respective teachers' reasons and consequences.

2.3 Functions and purposes of teacher questions

Questioning is one of the most mundane techniques employed by teachers Richard and Lockhart, 1994) and serves as the foremost way in which teachers manage the classroom interaction. The tendency for teachers to ask numerous questions has been looked on in many investigations (Chaudron, 1988). In some classrooms over half of class time is occupied by question-and answer exchanges (Richard & Charles Lockhart, 1994).

The occurrences of teacher questions in the classroom can be clarified by particular function they perform. Christenbury and Kinsella (1983) state that questioning fulfills a number of diverse functions;

1. Questioning gives the students the impetus and chances of producing language comfortably without having to initiating language themselves.

2. Questioning can serve to initiate a chain reaction of student-teacher interaction and student interaction among themselves.
3. Questioning gives the instructor the immediate feedback about student comprehension.
4. Questioning provides students with the opportunities to find out what they think by hearing what they say.

Much research pinpoints the importance of questions as the main instructional tool to foster student achievement. Gall and Rhody (1987) summed up research enlightening the reasons that lead to student learning gains. They drew a conclusion:

1. If the student answers a question correctly, that is reinforcing, the teacher may further reinforce the answer by praising or acknowledging it. On the contrary, the teacher may reteach the material by if the student answers a question incorrectly.
2. Questions elicit further content curriculum practice.
3. Questions are motivating. Thus, they keep students on task. Also, Questions keep students focus on the materials being learned.

Furthermore, the function of questions can be categorized into three broad areas: diagnostic, instructional, and motivational (Donald and Eggen, 1989).

As a diagnostic tool, classroom questions let the teachers to glimpse into the minds of students to find out not what they are familiar or unfamiliar with a topic but also how they consider it. Recent research on the scheme theory suggests that the

structure of students' existing knowledge is a powerful determinant of how novel information will be learned, and frequent student misconceptions and previous beliefs impede with the learning of new material (Donald and Eggen, 1989). Through strategic questioning, the teacher can access the present state of student thinking, recognizing not only what student know but also gaps and misconceptions.

A second essential function that questions conduct is instructional. The instructional function concentrates on the role that questions play in bailing out students learn new material and incorporate it with the old one. Questions avail the practice and feedback important for the development. Questions draw students' attention to the information in a lesson. Questions are also beneficial in the learning of integrated bodies of knowledge. Toward this aim, questions can be utilized to review earlier learned material to set up a knowledge base for the new material to be learned. Additionally, as the new material is being expanded , questions can be used to elucidate relationships within the content being discussed.

A third function that classroom questions perform is motivational. Through questions teachers can involve students actively in the lesson at hand, challenging their thinking, presenting problems for them to think about. From a lesson perspective, a question at the beginning can be used to attain students' attention and provide a focus for the lesson. In addition, frequent and periodical questions can aid active participation and make available opportunities in the lesson for continued student engagement. Research in this area confirms that student on-task behaviors are

highest during teacher-led questioning sessions. Eventually, at the individual level, questions can be applied to draw wandering students back into the lesson or to stand a chance of “shining” for one student.

In classroom settings, questioning also carries out some different purposes. It encourages students to get their thinking skills promoted (Klinger and Rauphin, 1996). Furthermore, teacher-posed questions are intended to arouse student interest and curiosity about the topic being learned (Turney, 1973; Brown and Edmonson, 1984). In addition, teacher can find out how much students are familiar with the topic presented so that teacher can diagnose their strengths and weaknesses so as to adjust their teaching (Heaton, 1981). Chun-miao (2007) as cited by Safrizal (2009) affirms that questions posed by the teacher during the lesson fulfill a number of purposes:

1. Allowing students to present information like facts, idea, and opinions.
2. Making examination about learners' understanding, knowledge, or skills.
3. Getting learner engaged actively in learning participation.
4. Stimulating thinking or probing more deeply into issues.
5. Getting students to review and practice previously learnt materials.

The previously elaborated corroboration of question functions and purposes from a number of scholars leads us to draw a conclusion that teacher's awareness of this area is valuable for student language learning.

2.4 Teachers as a controller in language instructions

Teachers own numerous metaphors to describe what they do during classroom instructions, shifting from one role to another depending on lesson stages they are engaged. Their roles constitute “teachers as a controller, organizer, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor and observer (Wright, 1987).

Specifically, teachers as a controller take the role to tell the students things, organize drills, read aloud , pose topic-leading question , nominate certain students to answer questions, and other various classroom activities, exemplifying the qualities of a teacher-fronted classroom (Harmer, 2001).

In addition, teachers frequently self-describe as “actors” (Hammer, 1995). In particular, teachers often take a role as teaching aid: they manipulate mime and gestures, facilitate students with language models, and provide comprehensible inputs (Hammer, 2001).

Related to the present study, it is inevitably valuable for the teacher to role as a controller. The teacher controls the inputs via posed questions in that making sure they are well understood by the students. Also, the teacher control the inputs through posed questions so as to stimulate them to expand their talk. As presented later in chapter, comprehensible questions are essential in language learning as they promote inputs for students, thus endorsing favorable outputs i.e. the time as they generate talk as much as possible. Similarly, facilitating students with comprehensible inputs

stemming from intelligible questions is pedagogically valuable, for it may promote language acquisition (see figure 2.3).

Pertaining to comprehensible inputs, Krashen (1985) defines comprehensible inputs as language that students understand the meaning of, but which nevertheless slightly above their own production level. In classroom settings, a good teacher is even characterized as the one who is able to make learners understand the inputs as stated by Krashen (1982):

“...the defining characteristic of a good teacher is someone who can make input comprehensible to a non-native speaker...”

Moreover, the requirement that inputs must be comprehensible has several implications for classroom practice:

- It implies that whatever helps comprehension is important;
- Vocabulary is important. With more vocabulary, there will be more comprehension, and there will be more acquisition;
- In giving inputs, in talking to students, the teacher needs to be concerned primarily with whether the students understand the message (Krashen & Terrel, 1988)

Thus, teachers acting as a provider of comprehensible inputs denote their awareness of the effective teacher-talking time (TTT). In fact, this requires them, among other things, to have a pedagogical ability in posing variously intelligible question types (see table 2.1) as language inputs and employing speech – particularly question - modification techniques (see table 2.3) as. Such abilities are

very vital to anticipate students' communication breakdowns when teacher-student interaction occur during language instructions communicatively.

Nunan (1991) characterizes five features of Communicative Language Teaching: (1) an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language; (2) the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation; (3) the provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself; (4) an enhancement of the learners' own personal experiences an important contributing elements to classroom learning; (5) an attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside of the classroom.

Subsequently, Brown (1994) summarizes other perspectives under a framework of CLT: first, learner-centered instruction; second, cooperative and collaborative language learning; third, interactive learning; fourth, whole language education; fifth, content-based instruction; fifth, task-based instruction.

Interactive learning is essentially interactive nature of communication (Brown, 2000). Classes in which teachers underscore an interactive course or techniques are found:

- performing a substantial amount of pair work and group work.
- putting oral communication into practice via the give and take and spontaneity of authentic conversations.
- accepting genuine language inputs in authentic world-contexts.
- producing language for authentic, meaningful communication.

In the classroom settings in which learning participants are adults, Brundage and Mackeracher (1980) identify a number of principles of adult learning in a concept of learner-centered instruction. One of them imparts the notion that adults are more concerned with whether they are changing in the direction of their own idealized self-concept than whether they are meeting standard and objective set for them by others.

The theoretical foundations of interactive leaning derives from the interaction hypothesis of second language acquisition theorized by Michael Long (1985). Long and other proponents of interaction hypothesis (see section 2.4) have disclosed the significance of inputs and outputs to develop learners' language proficiency when interactions - especially teacher-student ones - take place in the classroom.

2.5 Input Theory and Output hypothesis

2.5.1 Krashen's Input theory and Long's Input Hypothesis

Comprehensible questions as inputs play a pivotal role in language learning so that no learning occurs without inputs. Krashen (1985) maintains that learners' interlanguage develops only when learners are exposed to 'comprehensible input' that contains linguistic features 'a little beyond' their level of competence. Input is made comprehensible through learners' use of context, knowledge of the world, and other extra linguistic cues directed to them.

Afterward, Long (1983) proposed that input is made comprehensible as a result of modification of the interactional structure in conversation when communication

problems arise. It's plausible that teacher does not rigidly use I-R-F patterns in a straightforward way. There must modified structure of interactions as to result in comprehensible inputs i.e. understandably posed-questions.

Furthermore, both Krashen (1985) and Long (1983) emphasize that two way-interaction is a particularly favorable way of catering comprehensible input since it facilitate the learner with an ability to attain additional contextual information and optimally modified input when meaning has to be negotiated owing to communication problems.

So, when teacher-student interactions take place, teacher-posed questions actually serve as main sources of input in classroom learning. Teachers make the questions comprehensible by employing modification techniques on the spot.

2.5.2 Swain's Output Hypothesis and Hatch's collaborative discourse hypothesis

Krashen's Input Theory and its key notion of 'comprehensible input' have been criticized. One core objection is relative to the fact that despite the pivotal role of comprehensible inputs in language learning, it is not sufficient. Swain (1985) asserted that in order to develop native-speaker levels of grammatical proficiency, 'comprehensible input' by itself is not enough. The learners need the opportunity for meaningful use of linguistic resources for accurate 'comprehensible input'.

Swain attributes three roles to output: 1) output provides contextualized 'pushed language use' through the process of negotiating meaning, which encourages the

learner to develop grammatical competence; 2) output provides the learner with the opportunity to test out hypothesis about the TL; 3) production may help learners to move from a purely semantic analysis of the language to a syntactic analysis of it.

Therefore, a comprehensible question conveyed by a teacher triggers learners to produce the language. When using the language, they are actually examining whether their produced language is understood by other(s). In other word, learners “try out means of expression and see if they work”. Also, learners exert themselves to practice combining words into sentences as well as governing the formation of possible sentences in a proper context.

Eventually, from the view point of cognitive psychology, Hatch (1978) argued that learners can produce new syntactic structure in two-way interaction. Learners can expand discourse with the help of ‘scaffolding’ provided by interlocutors. As a matter of fact, teacher scaffold learners to generate more prolific utterances by utilizing, among other things, to slow down the dialogue between teacher and student. Slowing down can be achieved by two ways (Gibbons, 2002): First, teacher can increase wait-time – the time you wait for the learners to respond. Second, teacher can allow more turn before he evaluates or recasts (rewords) what the learner said. Thus, teacher employs a simple strategy to ask students for clarifying meaning by saying such expressions as:” *Can you explain that a bit more?*” , “*What do you mean?*” , “*Can you tell me that again?*” Etc.

In brief, teacher should have an ability to pose comprehensible questions as accessible language inputs so that students are ‘pushed’ to produce oral TL. In addition, teacher should self avail themselves with strategies to help out the learners to expand their utterances. In so-doing, teacher facilitates students with the enhancement of language acquisition.

2.6 The place of comprehensible questions in classroom interaction

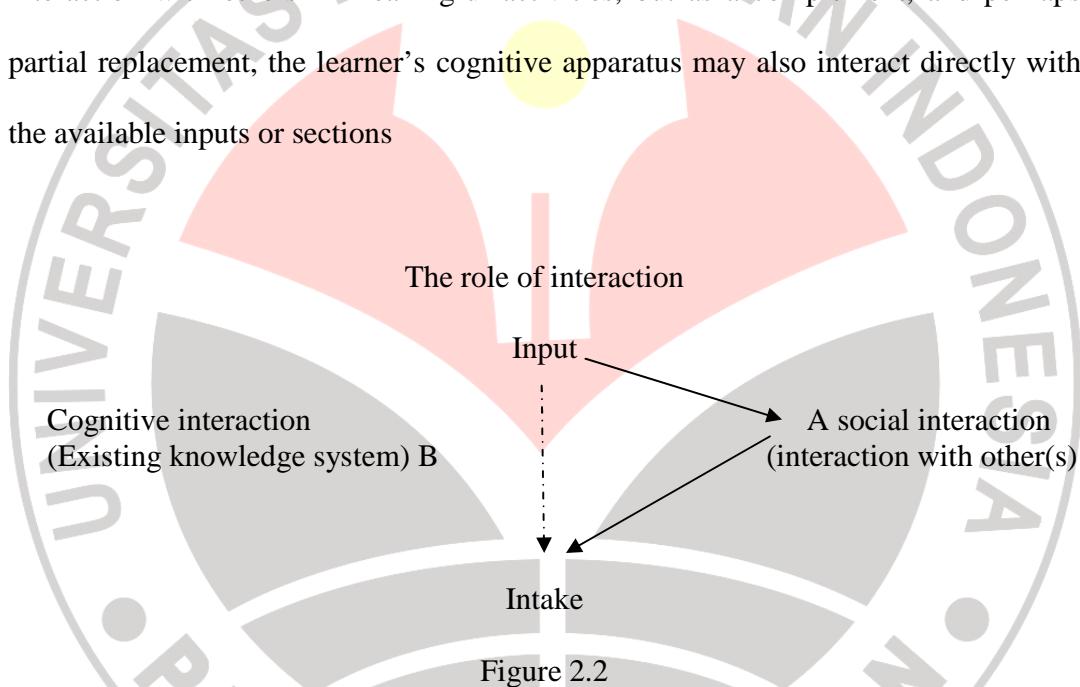
Comprehensible questions are favorable in language learning as they initiate interactions: Teacher-student or student-student interactions. Subsequently, Ellis (1990) pointed out that that interaction can be hypothesized to contribute to learning in two modes: (1) by the learner’s reception and comprehension of the L2, and (2) by the learner’s attempt to produce samples of the L2. According Ellis, classroom interaction entailing both input and output is very pivotal to trigger TL acquisition. Also, other researchers (Allwright, 1984; Long, 1983, Swain, 1985) emphasize the importance of interaction process that acquisition takes place. Learners acquire through talking with others (Johnson, 2002).

In particular, Van Lier (1988) points out:

If the keys to learning are exposure to input and meaningful interaction with other speakers, we must find out what input and interaction the classroom can provide... we must study in detail the use of language in the classroom in order to see if and how learning comes about through the different ways of interaction in the classroom.

He, later, revealed that interaction is indispensable for language learning which occurs in and through participation in speech events, that is, talking to others, or making conversation (Van Lier, 1988).

Additionally, Van Lier (1988) illustrates the role of interaction which mediates between input and intake in the below diagram. Most important and central is the interaction with others in meaningful activities, but as a complement, and perhaps partial replacement, the learner's cognitive apparatus may also interact directly with the available inputs or sections



A question as an input can initiate an interaction among students or between teacher and student(s). Also, teachers' understandable questions bring about a meaningful activity for students so that they endeavor to generate the language they are learning. Students, similarly, are encouraged to practice TL. Likewise, proper questioning is facilitating for students' learning.

2.7 The interactional approach of communication strategies to teacher questions

When teachers interact in the target Language (L2), communication breakdowns are likely to occur due to interlocutors' constraints of having the unavailability of certain linguistic items in the linguistic systems which are demanded to get the message across. Varadi (1980) cited by Lukmana (1996) is the first attempt to investigate communication strategies in L2 communication in the interactional framework. His study was later modified by other researchers such as Tarone et al. (1976) and Tarone (1977). Tarone (1980, 1981) cited by Lukmana(1996) mentions the necessary criteria for the occurrence of communication strategies as follow:

- (1) a speaker desires to communicate meaning x to a listener;
- (2) the speaker believes the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure desired to communicate meaning x is unavailable, or is not shared with the listener; thus
- (3) the speaker chooses to
 - (a) avoid – not attempt to communicate meaning x – or
 - (b) attempt alternate means to communicate meaning x. The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to speaker that there is share meaning.

Tarone (1981) proposes a taxonomy of communication strategies (see table 2.2) ,which are classified under five heading: paraphrase, borrowing, appeal for assistance, mime and avoidance. Even though Kellermean (1991) as cited by Lukmana (1996) criticizes it for being product oriented but this taxonomy triggers the development of other typology of communication strategy.

Table 2.2

A Typology of Communication Strategies in Interactional Approach

Communication strategies	Description
Paraphrase Approximation	use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e.g. pipe for water pipe)
Word coinage	the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e.g. airball for balloon)
Circumlocution	the learner describes the characters or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure (“She is, uh, smoking something. I don’t know what’s its name. That’s, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot.”).
Borrowing* Literal translation	the learner translates word per word from the native language (e.g. “He invites him to drink” for “They toast one another.”).
Language switch	the learner uses the native language (NL) term without bothering to translate (e.g. balon for balloon or tirtil for caterpillar).
Appeal for assistance	the learner asks for the correct term (e.g. “What is this? ”What is called?”)
Mime	the learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action (e.g. clapping one’s hands to illustrate applause).
Avoidance Topic avoidance	the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known

Message abandonment

the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance.

* Note: Previously, Tarone (1977, 1980) used the terms *conscious transfer* and *transfer* respectively in place of *borrowing*.

2.8 Teacher's question modification

It is pedagogically valuable for students to be exposed teacher questions that they understand. In fact, teachers modify their speech - among other things, questions- so as to turn them into comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). The teacher-student interactions (Long, 1991) occur during question-answer exchanges, then, promote language acquisition. The diagram below summarizes Krashen's Input Hypothesis showing relationship Long's interaction hypothesis:

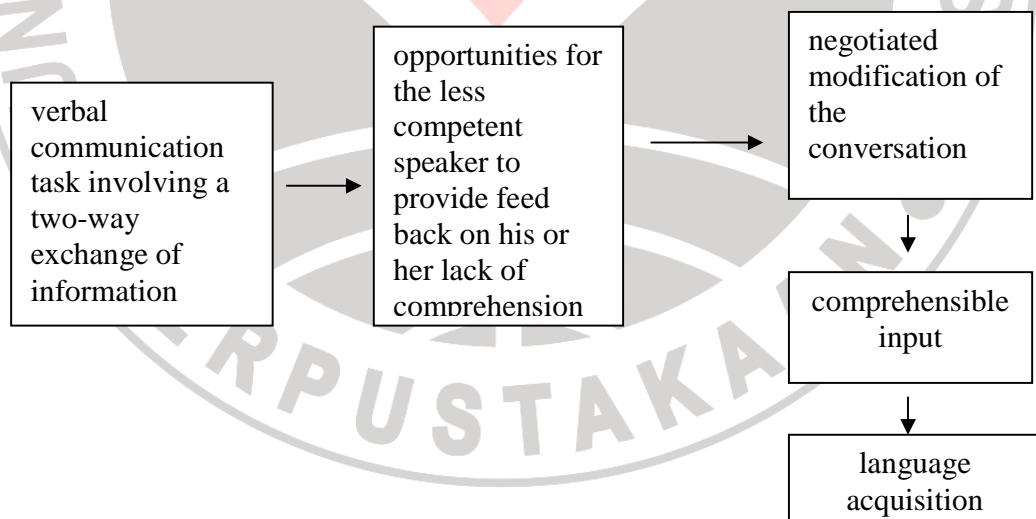


Figure 2.3

Long's Model of the relationship between type of conversation task and language acquisition

Furthermore, the taxonomy for teacher's modification of questions based on the framework of Chaudron (1988):

- are the questions merely repeated? If so, are there repeated more slowly/with different (unnatural) intonation or stress patterns?
- Are they rephrased?
- Does the teacher employ additional questions to clarify the initial one (cited in Holland and Shortall, 1997)
- How long is the wait time?

One of modification techniques under the domain of discourse is self-repetition (Chaudron 1988). Repetition of an utterance (either unchanged or rephrased) is assumed to give learners more chances to process the input by providing another opportunity to comprehend words they didn't catch the first time. It was found to aid immediate recall (Cervantes 1983; Chaudron 1988), though immediate recall may not equate to comprehension.

It may also aid comprehension by giving the learner more time – a pause – to process the input (*ibid*). The occurrence of pauses in teacher talk (TT) and the reasons for the occurrence are both very interesting topics. As Chaudron points out, pauses may be brought about for various reasons:

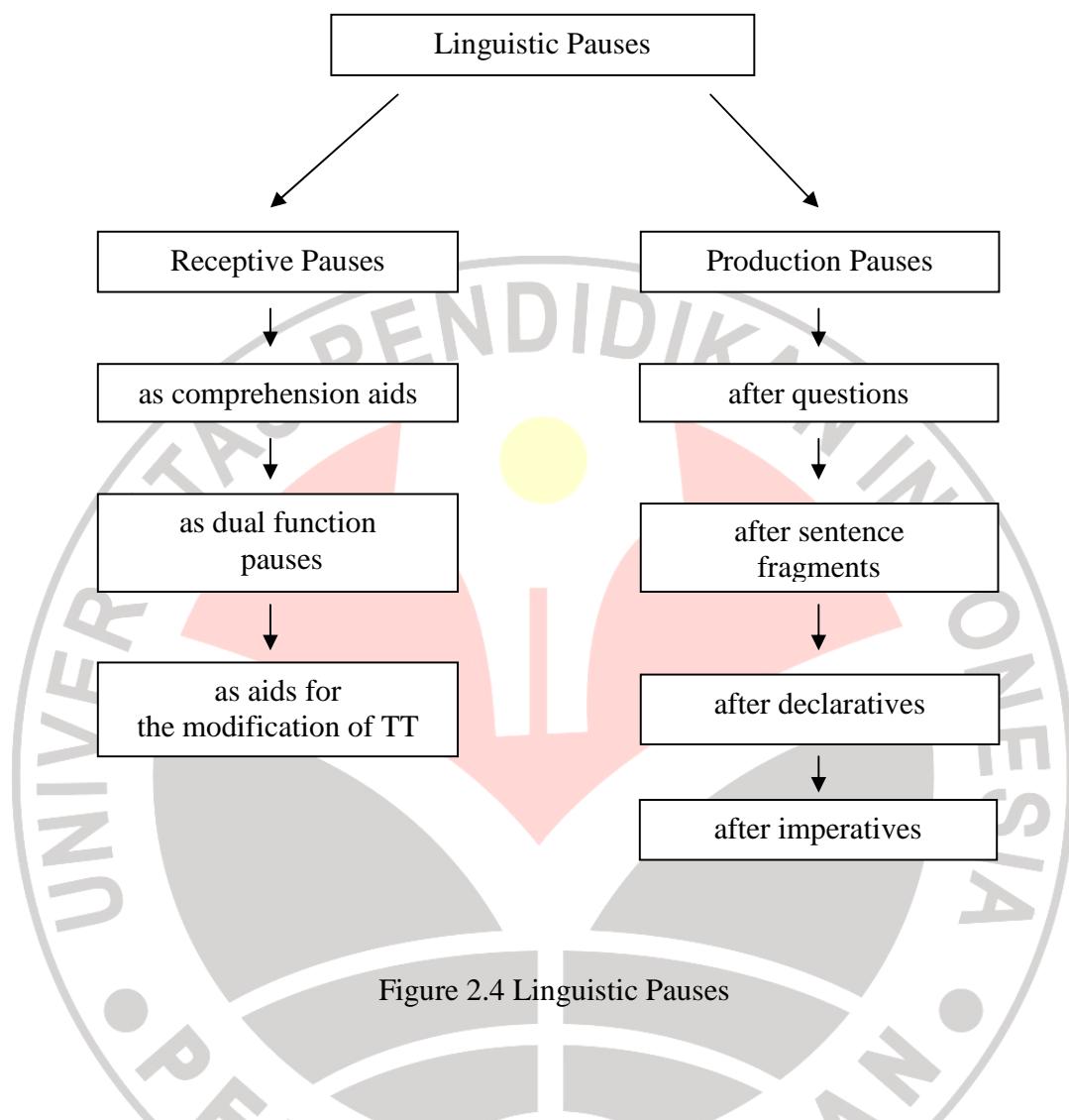
- a) as a result of a more careful articulation of speech
- b) because teachers spend time planning how to modify their speech to the competence and needs of their students.
- c) as a comprehension aid, giving students more time to process the input from TT.

(Chaudron 1988: 69-70)

The analysis of the corpus suggests that pauses can be placed into one of the two different categories according to their function. Firstly, there are pauses which take place as a result of teachers managing and/or using their teaching materials and resources or when the students use the teaching materials or need to reposition themselves in the classroom. Due to their function, these may be termed Organizational Pauses and as such pauses are primarily concerned with the non-verbal behavior of both teacher and students, they did not form part of this analysis.

Secondly, there are pauses whose chief function is either to facilitate student with comprehension or to permit for modification by their teachers to their TT and such they may be termed Linguistic Pauses. Such linguistic pauses can usefully be subcategorized into receptive pauses or production pauses. Receptive pauses function mainly to help the reception of the target language –performing as comprehension aids or as aids for the modification of TT or as both.

Production pauses function to assist learners in the production of the TL and are most commonly encountered after the teacher has asked a question or has used a sentence fragment. Such productive pauses can be analyzed according to whether they occur after declaratives or imperatives as well as after sentence fragments or question. The following diagram functions to summarize the classification of linguistic pauses described above.



Wait time is a type of pause in the teacher's discourse and research has found that increased wait time can be beneficial. Firstly Chaudron (1988) states that learners have more time to process the question and to formulate a response. Secondly, Richard and Lockhart (1994) assert that more learners attempt to respond. In addition, Nunan (1991) citing Holley and King (1971) claims that the length and

complexity of the responses increases. Similarly, Richards, J.C., Platt. & Platt, H (1992) suggests that:

Increasing wait time both before calling on a student and after a students' initial response (i.e. before the teacher comments on the response) often increases the length of the students' responses, increases the number of questions asked by students, and increases student involvement in learning.

Moreover, White and Lightbown (1984) cited by Chen (2001) advocate the importance of longer wait time in the following passage:

If we want more than automatic responses from our students, then we should not expect them to have the answers to our questions on the tips of their tongues. If we want them to think, then we must give them *time* to think. How much time is enough? We can say that 2 seconds is too little....If we truly want answers, then we have to wait longer than that. It seems that five seconds to ten seconds might be a reasonable wait time, considering the needs of both teachers and students.

This does not mean that that lengthening wait time necessarily improves students' responsiveness. In a study of teachers' action research, it was found that excessive lengthening of wait-time exacerbated anxiety amongst students (Carter 2001).

Furthermore, one technique, which is not classified, is to translate the questions into L1. Such modification technique, as Chaudron (1988) citing Bruck and Schultz (1977) notes:

a gradual tendency for a teacher to use her dominant language for instructional tasks (whether the L1 or L2) will result in a similar shift in the learners' preferences for language use.

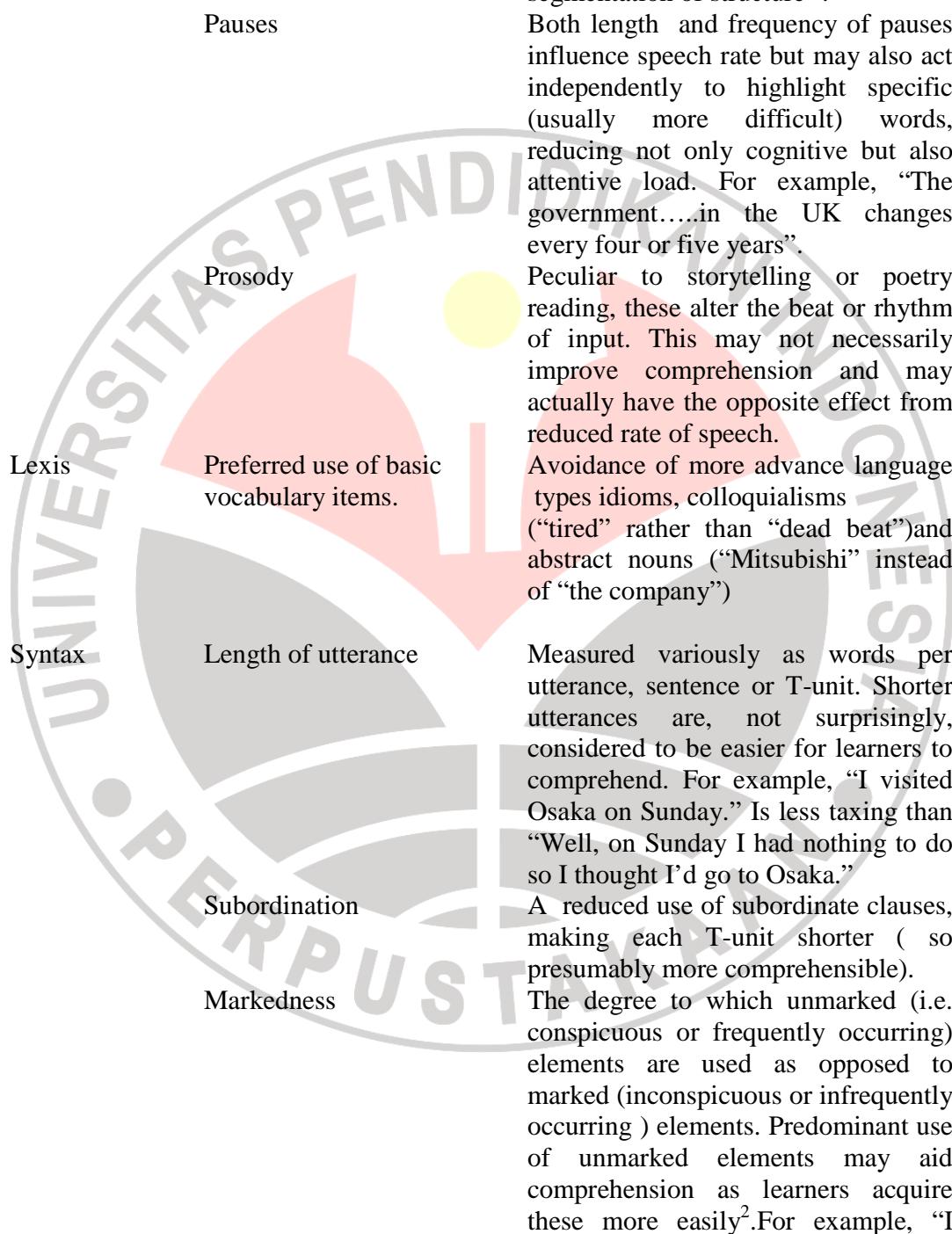
Teacher's preferences for using L1 influence students to tend use L1 in English language classroom , leading to students' wrong habits of word-to-word translation. Such students' drawbacks hinder their autonomy in TL communication. Hence, it undeniable that the benefits of TL exposure and practice are prevalent.

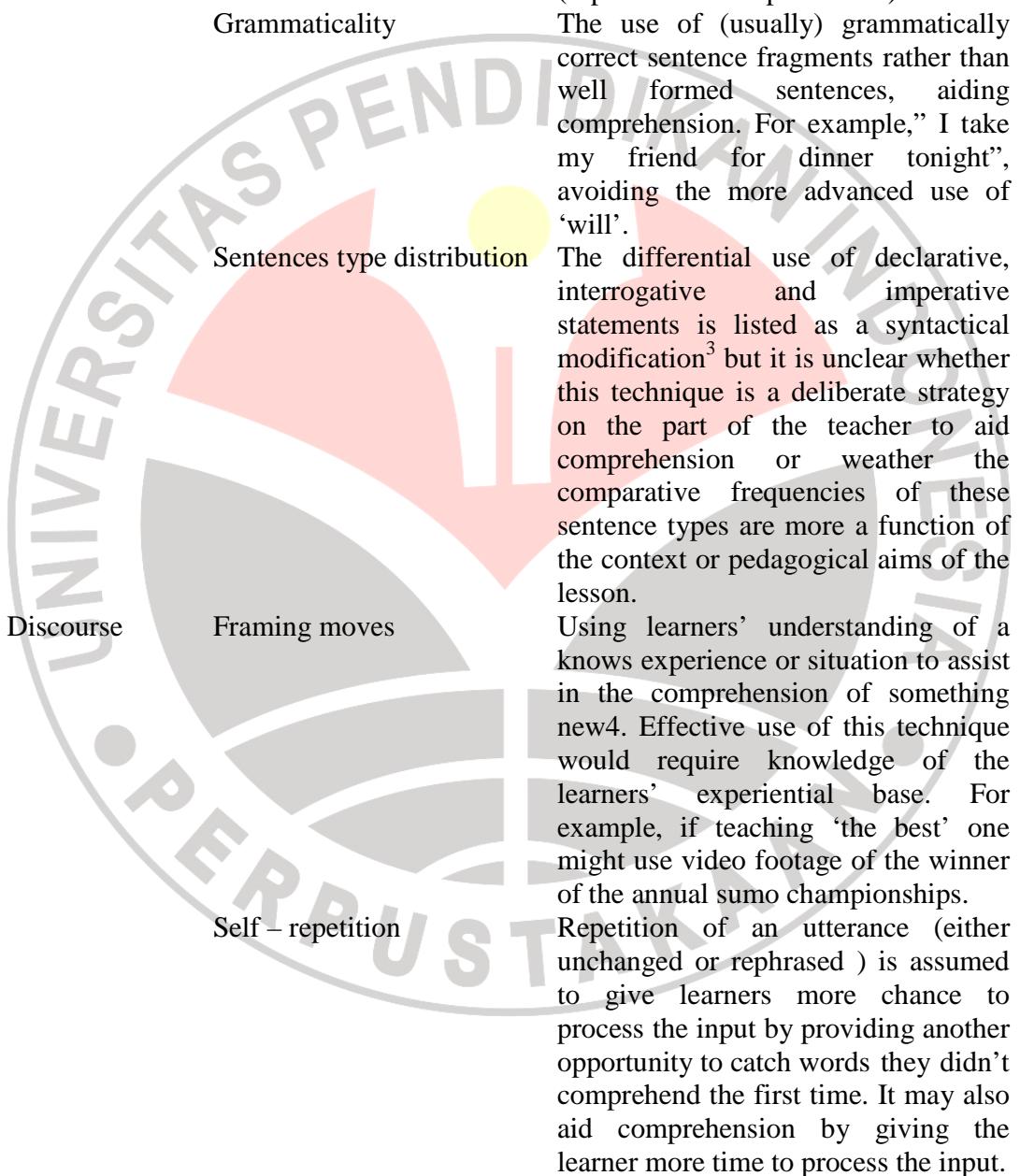
However, L1 use in English language classes, in terms of translating the questions into mother tongue, is still advantageous, provided that the teacher bears in mind its *judicious use* (as defined by Atkinson, 1993, quoted in Mattioli, 2004). The teacher is responsibly and sensibly aware about using L1 questions for the sake of affective and practical reasons. Pertaining to affective reasons, it denotes an imposition for socio-political issues. L1 use, in such cases, causes students conscious that their mother tongue and their own cultural values are as equally important as FL ones (Schweers, 1999). Among the practical issues the most essential is the teaching of grammar, spelling and phonology, vocabulary, language similarities/differences and cultural issues (Schweers, 1999).

The table 2.3 imparts the taxonomy of modification techniques. Despite not all of those listed modify questions, they are included for completeness.

Table 2.3 A taxonomy of speech modifications

Domain	Technique	Explanation
Phonology	Modified pronunciation	Use of a simplified, standard or even exaggerated with fewer contractions and reductions reducing the attentive and cognitive loads ¹ for learners. For example, “Tomorrow is a holiday. What will you do tomorrow ?”, rather than “Tomorrow’s a holiday. What ya gonna do tomorrow ?”
Timing	Rate of speech.	Measured in words per minute (wmp), reduced rate of speech is assumed to enhance comprehensibility by reducing cognitive load, giving learners more time to process the





2.9 Studies of teacher questions and modification techniques

Teacher's questions are one of the major interactional features in teacher talk. The seminal work by Long & Sato (1983) found that language teachers use the kind of questions whose answers by the teacher – display questions – much more than the kind of question whose answer was not known by the teacher – referential questions. Similarly, Xiao-yan (2006) in the research of teacher talk in reading class pointed out there is a preference for the subject teachers for display questions over referential ones. The used display questions are intended to check or test understanding, knowledge or skills, or to get students to review and practice previous learnt materials. On the contrary, Farooq (2007) revealed that the subject teacher poses referential questions more frequently than display ones in spoken English Classes.

The subsequent study by Brock (1986) revealed that students talked longer and used more complex sentences if they were asked by referential questions than display questions. In his study, it revealed that the responses of university-level students averaged 10 words in the case of 'referential question,' and only 4.23 words in the case of the 'display questions'. Ellis (1984, 1986) argued that it is likely that learner's contributions will be more ample and syntactically complex if they have topic control. Teachers should bear in mind that it is not only kinds of questions embarking students to talk in a long and complex sentences, but also the learners' familiarity with the topics delivered.

Pertaining white time, Chen (2001) citing White and Lightbown's study (1984) of three ES classroom, the average white time was only 2.1 seconds and 41 questions went unanswered. According to them, teachers' "rapid pacing" can be explained in three reasons. One is that teachers need to control the time carefully so that they can cover all the materials in syllabus. Secondly, a longer wait time may bore some students. As a result, some students may stop attention may stop paying attention , some may even feel uncomfortable or impatient with the waiting. Finally, many ESL teachers as White and Lightbown suggest are influenced by the Audiolingual Approach to language teaching which stresses automatic responses. Therefore, many teachers look for quick, automatic responses from students. When students are, for whatever responses, unable to produce such responses, teacher themselves often rush to answer the questions or ask the next question. In a Moritoshi's study (2001) disclosed that wait time is longer, namely 8, 59 seconds, due to students' lower level. Also, the subject teacher in Farooq's study (2007) spends 5.4 seconds to wait students for answering the posed questions.

In line with modification techniques, in particular modified teacher questions, Moritoshi (2001) found out a few employed techniques: self-repetition, pauses, rephrasing and translation into Japanese (code-switching). Furthermore, he probed that 82 % of teacher-delivered questions are repeated as to aid students' comprehension, which is a predomination modification technique employed by the teacher.

Teacher questioning as classroom discourse takes place in different learning phases that different types of questions own different functions. In fact, comprehensible questions as a product of teacher's role, promoting teacher-student interactions, enhance students' learning substantially. Otherwise, the proper employment of question modification techniques is so urgently demanded that students, therefore, are exposed to comprehensible inputs, encouraging them, in turn, to generate outputs, i.e. oral language production. Meanwhile, particular teacher questions scaffold students to speak longer. As attempting to produce an output , learners may experience to practice some strategies to communicate their ideas. Such processes are vital in language learning and acquisition.

3.0 Summary

The study of teacher talk, in particular teacher questioning, links to a number of facets. The modes of classroom discourse in which teacher questionings occur were elaborated. The metaphoric descriptions of teacher's roles during instructions were dealt with as well. Question taxonomy termed by a number of researchers has been presented, such as Epistemic and Echoic Questions (Long and Sato, 1983; Chaudron, 1993), Closed-Open Display and Closed-Open Referential Questions (Pica, 1999), Divergent and Convergent Questions (Redfield and Rousseau, 1981), and Elicitation-intended Questions (Mehan, 1979). The above all different termed

questions have three broad functions: diagnostic, instructional, and motivational (Donald and Eggen, 1989).

Typology of communication strategies employed by the students was , among other things, developed by Tarone (1981), particularly in oral product orientation. Speakers – the students – may experience communication breakdowns as they communicate with interlocutors in time of attempting to answer teachers' questions. The teacher, on the contrary, may encounter that their posed questions are not understood by the students. Hence, question modification techniques under the framework of Chaudron (1988) are crucially employed.

Various empirical studies related to the present studies have been conducted by various researcher. The results of these studies will be compared to the findings of the present studies.

The discussion concerning the research methodology of the present study will be presented in the next chapter.

1. Attentive (linguistic) load is the volume of input to which the learner must attend. Cognitive load is the mental effort required by the learner to understand the input, (from Nunan, 1991 : 191).
2. Hatch (1983:183) in Chaudron (1988:154).
3. From Edwards et al (1999:74-76).
4. Chaudron (1988:82-4)
5. Based on Minkey's 'frame' theory or Widdowson's (1983) use of 'schema', both cited by Nunan (1991:67-9).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

After elaborating a number of related theories previously, this chapter concerns about research methodology trying to answer (1) the types of question the teacher uses in teacher-student interactions, (2) the teacher's question modification techniques when communication breakdowns happen, (3) the affects of each question type on students' oral production, (4) the teacher's reason(s) for using a particular question type the most frequently. As to answer the four previous research questions, the participants, data collection procedures, the instruments, materials, and data analysis are appropriately imparted.

3.1 Participants

A female Indonesian teacher was involved in the present study, holding a master's degree in English Education from a well-reputable Graduate School. She is an experienced teacher, having been teaching for 8 years at her present well-known university located in Bandung. Also, she's been teaching in an English Course for 12 years. So, she's quite experienced in teaching English in both formal and non-formal settings. To complete her formal education, she got a number of trainings, for example *Trend and Techniques in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language* (T3E) issued by a nationally leading English Course. In general, she's very understandably familiar with her university students' typical characteristics in terms

of their wide-gap English ability, their learning preferences, and, in particular, their generally weak in oral proficiency.

Also, there were 20 students, 6 males and 14 females, selecting English Department on account of their failure to be admitted at a state-owned university as their first choice for further study. Aged between 18 – 19 years old, they took up the second semester of their academic year. As freshmen, previously they neither conduct an oral test nor a TOEFL test as requirements to be accepted in Language Faculty of this private university. Hence, their current oral proficiency and language competence were not yet predicted..They were not, additionally, grouped on the basis of their present language proficiency.

3.2 Data collection procedures

Data were collected in two stages: observation of an EFL class in *English Speaking Two* lasting 90 minutes per session and a semi-structured or a guided-interview with the teacher after the completion of lesson transcripts. The researcher as a non-participant observer employed a program of observing , recording/video-taping, and transcribing (van Lier, 1998). Two sessions were fully video-taped. Soon, the recordings were transferred into CDs so that the researcher transcribed the freshness of the data.

The researcher set up tri-pod to video-tape the two sessions at a strategic place, on the left side of the class. For the sake of practicality, the researcher took a seat at

the back row of the classroom. An observer's presence observing and involving video equipment to record any classroom emerging utterances would not yield unnatural and distorted data as no such thing as natural speech in any absolute sense. In other words, in all situations, people are aware of being monitored to some extent by others present (Wolfson, 1976).

Two sessions were considered an adequate number of observations as they revealed the data needed. Subsequently, two video-taped sessions were transcribed employing the adapted transcript conventions from van Lier (1988) and Wells (2003). However, some unnecessary details were omitted for the convenience for the present study. The transcription system is attached as Appendix C of this thesis.

Eventually, on the basis of transcribed data which emerged the most frequent use of question types, a guided-interview was conducted. Prior to the interview, the researcher informed the interview about(i) what was going to be talked over (ii); the release of pseudonyms in the research report; the fact that the conversation would be tape-recorded to prevent from the loss of the data as well as to enable the researcher to transcribe later. Consequently, the researcher had an ability to analyze the interview's verbatim statements in depth. The interviews was carried out in Indonesian Language in order to find out the teacher's reason(s) for using a particular question type the most frequently in depth.

3.3 The instruments

Regarding with the actual classroom observations, an adapted Flint System together with Ethnographic approach was opted. Actually, there has been a number of so-far developed and complicated instruments to describe or classify all types of verbal interactions. As a matter of fact, Chaudron (1993) reported and imparted a detail description of numerous instruments. Owing to researchers' inexperience and lack of observational skills, the FLINT system was deliberately employed. Such instrument , as cited by Nunan (1989), has a scheme which doesn't entail numerous categories, high-inference items and manifold coding. Besides, personally the researcher once experienced to be observed by the supervisor utilizing such instrument. For a novice researcher, familiarity with the instruments prior its actual utilization seems essential in that it may affect the reliability of the collected data (Farooq, 2007).

The FLINT system whose scheme copes with both low inference items and the categories overtly avail the required classroom data such teachers' questions, the number of distinctive students' responses, and students' language production. Nevertheless, the system does not cater all the required data for this study such as the preponderant question types, modification techniques, and the quantity of students' language production. An option is to obtain such information from the textual analysis of the transcript attained from a recorded classroom (Nunan, 1989).

Transcribing from the video-taped teacher-student interaction, a kind of ethnographic record, is undoubtedly a strenuous and time-consuming task. Yet, it provides a few benefits: the preserved data can be made use of validating and verifying the findings, for reliability purposes, either by independent reviewer/s or by the researcher him/herself (Seliger and Shohamy, 1995), examined other observational schemes. In particular, it really bails out an unskilled researcher to familiarize him/her with unclear concepts systematically. At the same time, this guides him/her to proceed the process of the research.

3.4 Materials

The subject-compiled hand out is “Spoken English 2”. Its materials are referred to “Speaking 3” by Collie and Stephen (1993) and “Speak for Yourself Book 1” by Fein (1984). The hand-out is prescribed for first year students majoring English in the second semester. There were no prior assignments for students to study the materials before they had the class. As a matter of fact, omit and adaption of materials were implemented in that the teacher did not just follow the number and the activities in the exercises. Suiting students’ current language proficiency and possible student interest, on the contrary, were intentionally practiced.

The compiled hand-out materials instructed in the classroom are quoted from textbooks which have communicative characteristics (Grant, 1987). In actual fact, they emphasize the communicative functions of language – the jobs people do using

the language - not just the forms. Also, they try to reflect the students' needs and interests, encouraging the emphasized skills in using the language fluently. Therefore, the materials are activity based. In line with the objectives of the course, later, they may emphasize listening and speaking skills more than writing and reading ones. Lastly, their contents reflect the authentic language of everyday life, encouraging group and pair work.

The specifically employed materials which are aimed at developing students' speaking ability during the class were exercises 1 and 4 of unit 7 (Appendix B). The first session was about the introductory topic of *Perfume*, the work of exercises numbered 1 and 4: *Roses and Rubbish Heaps*, and *good characteristics of advertisements* prior to the discussion of advertisements displayed on the book. The second one was about students' presentation in a group of three, presenting the perfume advertisements based on the proper characteristics of advertisements previously discussed. They made up and prepared them collaboratively beforehand.

3.5 Data Analysis

Referring to the transcribed data, the researcher read the lesson transcripts frequently in order to aid the fullest comprehension of the purposes of posed questions in context. Also, all questions were cautiously categorized so that they were well classified under the framework of Pica, Long and Sato. Regarding the framework of Redfield and Rousseau, the total number of close and open display questions were categorized into convergent questions. Meanwhile, the total number

of close and open referential questions were classified into divergent questions (see table 2.1) The percentage of respective question type was calculated by dividing each question type by the total number of intelligible transcribed questions. These steps were conducted as to answer research question 1. Thus, all intelligible questions were put on the right column as the following grid:

Question Types and Wait Time (The framework of Long and Sato, Pica, Redfield and Rousseau)

TYPE	SUB-CATEGORY (Number of Questions)	EXAMPLE (Wait Time)
1. Echoic	a. comprehension checks	
	b. clarification requests	
	c. confirmation checks	
2. Epistemic	a. close display	
	b. open display	
	c. close referential	
	d. open referential	
	e. expressive	
	d. rhetoric	
3. Convergent		
4. Divergent		

To obtain the answer of research question 2, the researcher examined the lesson transcripts cautiously and categorized the techniques of question modification under the framework of Chaudron and Bruck and Schultz. The teacher employed-techniques were put on the right column in the grid below:

The teacher's question modification strategies (the framework of Chaudron and Bruck and Schultz)

Question Modification Strategies	Simply repeated	Rephrased	Additional question	(Pauses) Wait-time	Code-switching
Teacher					

Concerning the wait-time, the overall coded pauses were sought their length of wait-time in second by using stop-watch. Later, all written seconds were divided by the number of pauses.

Regarding the answer of research question 3, the obtained phonological words were tallied and counted. After that, the total number of phonological words was divided by the number of utterances – the number of questions. So, the Mean of Length Utterance (MLU) of respective question type was identified. The percentage of each question type was gained by dividing its number of phonological words by the total number of phonological words. To have a clearer insight, let's see the formula of MLU (Mean of Length Utterance) as follow:

MLU = the number of phonological words/ the number of utterances

= the number of phonological words/the number of questions

= N phonological words/ N questions

For example, to figure out the MLU of close display (CD), the calculation was conducted as follow:

The MLU of CD = N its phonological words/ N its questions

$$= 70/65$$

$$= 1.1$$

In correspondence with research question 4, the most frequently used question type was revealed as referred to research question 1. Subsequently, a guided-interview was employed in order that the researcher obtained the subject's in-depth reasons for utilizing a particular use of question the most frequently.

3.6 Summary

This chapter dealt with the research questions reminded, the subject involved, the procedure of data collection, the instruments employed, and the data to be analyzed. The findings of the present research and the discussion will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Teaching questioning which takes place during instructions is valuable in student learning . Teacher-posed questions which have distinctive reasons can turn out to an input as they are comprehended by the students. Also, they trigger students to exert themselves to respond verbally. As attempting to answer the teacher's questions, they are not only practicing but also examining the Target Language they produce. Some particular questions may expand their talk. The research findings which are elaborated below are imparted as to find out the beneficially existent questions that the teacher puts forward in an EFL speaking class observed.

4.1 Use of Teacher's Question Types

The teacher has posed 198 questions in two sessions. The percentage of respective question type informs how many times each occurs in two sessions of speaking class. For a reminder, the first session is the time as teacher introduces the topic *Perfume* and works on exercises 1 and 4 (see Appendix B) and the second one is about students' presentation, presenting a week-prepared perfume advertisement in a group of three .The gained questions are deliberately categorized in the framework of Pica, Long, Sato and Redfield and Rousseau (see table 2.1). The complete question categorization of the present study can be seen in Appendix E. The obtained teacher's questions in the present study are revealed at the following table:

Table 4.1 Distribution of Question Types in Two sessions

Question Types	Percentage
comprehension checks	0 %
clarification requests	6.6 %
confirmation checks	2.0 %
closed display	32.8 %
open display	0 %
closed referential	38.4 %
open referential	16.2 %
expressive	2.5 %
rhetorical	1.5 %
convergent	32.8 %
divergent	54.6 %

n Questions= 198

The table 4.1 informs that the subject teacher never checks whether her imparted questions are comprehended by the students or not. It is revealed by the fact that comprehension check questions does not occur at all (0%). Later, the subject teacher seldom encourages the students to try expanding their utterances by employing questions seeking for clarification owing to the fact that the frequency of clarification requests is quite low, simply 6.6 % out of the total percentages of all

questions. The questions which assume a positive response from a listener ,confirmation check question, just take place barely as its low frequency (2.0%). Such echoic questions, actually, are vital to promote longer interaction between teacher and students in which negotiation of meaning occurs (Chaudron, 1993), yet such question types rarely happen.

Later, pertaining to the questions looking for facts that the teacher knows the answers, closed display questions are practically superior to open display ones. It is disclosed by the fact that plain fact-seeking questions are much more frequently posed (32.8%) than detailed fact-seeking questions , which is not existent at all (0%) during instructions. Meanwhile, the convergent percentage (32.8%) is the sum of closed display and open display percentages as they are identical in nature.

Finally, the most dominantly posed question type is divergent question (54.6%), which is naturally intended to seek information that the teacher doesn't know the answer. Its percentage is the sum of closed referential percentage (38.4%) and open referential one (16.2%) as divergent questions are identical with referential ones in nature. Such obtained percentages mean that the teacher often gives the learners a chance of personal involvement in the course of the lesson, addressing their potential as an individual in order to boost intrinsic motivation. Moreover, in particular, closed referential questions, intended to elicit simple answers from students naturally, is more frequently posed (38.4%) than open referential ones aimed at eliciting students' elaborated answers naturally (16.2%).

In the observed speaking class, divergent or referential questions are more frequently imparted to students than convergent or display ones in that teacher encourages students to get involved in the on-going lessons. The teacher's tendency to employ referential questions more frequently than display ones is also influenced by the instructional materials that the students use as well. The compiled materials are quoted from various resources in which the writers characterize the books with features enabling teachers to set classroom activities based on the premises of Communicative Language Teaching. For instance, the writers try to revive students' own personal experiences when they are assigned to do a quiz 'Garden of Rose' (see appendix B). It is one of many characteristics of communicative text-books/hand-outs (Grant, 1987).

In addition, the teacher has practiced the perspectives of CLT frameworks, namely interactive learning (Brown 1994). As a matter of fact, the teacher's class is characterized by a substantial amount of group work i.e. the time spent to prepare a perfume advertisement. Subsequently, as presenting the advertisement in front of the class in Classroom Context Mode, students were 'forced' to produce for authentic and meaningful communication. Moreover, the teacher tries to relate the content of the lesson to the students' own life so as to result in "immediately apparent effect" (Nunan, 1987). These support the output hypothesis (one of production-based theories) as asserted by Swain (1985). By so-doing, language production is likely to

endorse the learners' to shift from a merely semantic analysis of TL to a syntactic analysis of it.

Meanwhile, the frequently posed referential questions do not often trigger the emerging follow-up of comprehension check, clarification request and confirmation check questions (8.6%). As stated by Brock (1986), the occurrences of echoic questions owing to teachers' referential questions would lead to more negotiation of meaning, which is crucial to the target language acquisition. Before elaborating the possible reasons, let's take a look at the extracts quoted from lessons transcript found in Appendix D below, showing how a referential questions result in the following echoic question types:

- Line 1 T : Do you like perfume? (closed referential)
S1 : No
T : No? (confirmation) Why not? (clarification) Or
- Line 309 T : ...From the ad we can see...what else? (closed referential)
S12 : Controversial
T : In what way? (clarification) In what way is it controversial?
(clarification)

The fact that echoic question types rarely occur can be explained by the following causes: First of all, it may be caused by the fact that the teachers stands a favorable

chance of students' self-selections (79.1 %). They volunteer to answer the teacher's questions as they comprehend and feel more able than other students as responding to teacher exposed-language inputs i.e. questions. On the contrary, it is a rare occasion when the teacher nominates a particular student, probably weak in English competence, to practice language in a contextual moment (9%). Hence, the teacher neither checks nor confirms students' comprehension. Therefore, it is much possible that a few students are simply actively engaged in the lessons. Equally insight, there are just several students who are facilitated to develop their language competence. As verified with these facts, the teacher confesses that:

“Nominating students who, later, are proven unable to answer the questions only humiliates them. So, let them volunteer to answer.”

The teacher seemingly avoids the moment in which no responses coming up from the students questioned as the sample extract below (see appendix D)

- Line 108 T : You like the smell of food and drink... Why flower, girls?
Ss : (Silent)

T : Dini? Imelda? 5:82

S5-6 : (Silent)

T : Why you choose flowers? 9:33

S5-6 : (Silent)

T : Dini?

S5 : (Silent)

T : Which one do you prefer...the smell of flower or food
or drink?

Lastly, the teacher may not be used to employing expressions which exert students to expand their answers. The teacher may feel contented to have got the simple answers from the students. Similarly, it is not necessary for the teacher to explore students' simple responses. Some expressions like *can you tell me more about it* scaffold students' utterances, though (Gibbon, 2001).

Concerning the sub-types of display questions, it is the fact that the teacher employs closed referential questions (38.4 %) more frequently than open referential ones (16.2). Students answer plain fact-seeking questions which demand them to exert simple linguistic construction (Pica, 1999). In a mix-English speaking class ability - students having very heterogeneous English proficiency - such questions seem easy enough for students to understand, thus directly answer them. The teacher stands all students an equal chance of answering such questions.

Unlike the seminal work conducted by Long and Sato (1983) and the study of Xiao-yan (2006), the findings of the present study discloses that the teacher has employed more referential questions (54.6%) than display questions (32.8%). Likewise, the teacher prefers posing divergent questions (54.6 %) to convergent ones (32.8 %). However, it must be pointed out that all long and Sato's researches were carried out in teacher-dominated classrooms. Equally important to know, Xiao-yan's

study were carried out in reading classes in which the subjects teachers tend to emphasize on test-oriented teaching. Consequently, there is less two-way flow of information in the classroom.

It is the fact that the results of the present study are consistent with those of research conducted by Xing & Yun (2002) as cited by Xiao-yan (2006): In student-centered language classrooms, proportionately more referential questions were asked than display questions. Also, in the study of a speaking class carried out by Farooq (2007), the frequency of referential questions posed by the subject teacher is higher than that of display or echoic questions.

4.2 Teacher's question modification techniques

As presenting the new material : *Perfume and the characteristics of quality perfume advertisements* , on exercises No.1 and 4 (see appendix B) and attending students' presentations, the subject teachers deals with students' incomprehension on the questions. Thus, employment of question modification techniques under the framework of Chaudron , Bruck and Schultz is found out, that is *simply repeated, rephrased, additional questions, and pauses*. Let's take a look at the grid showing the detailed distribution of teacher-employed techniques attained from the two sessions that the teachers undertook on the next page:

Table 4.2 The teacher's question modification techniques

Question Modification Techniques	Simply repeated	Rephrased	Additional question	(Pauses) Wait-time	Code-switching
Teacher	1.4 %	6.1 %	13.0 %	79.5 %	0 %

The table 4.2 informs that the most frequent question modification technique is pauses (79.5%). Mostly, the subject teacher simply waits for students' spontaneous answers just after the questions are posed. The time allotment in seconds is spent by the hope that students are able to comprehend the questions. Otherwise, the subject teacher employs other three other techniques: *Simply repeated, rephrased (the questions) and additional question*. The subject teacher prefers adding the questions (13.0%) to just repeating ones (1.4%). Occasionally, the subject teacher attempts to shift particular words in order to aid student comprehension (6.1%). One thing for sure is that the subject teacher blindly avoid translating the questions into L1 (0%) as they are not comprehended at all.

In principal, the previously displayed question modification techniques at table 4. 2 are aimed at facilitating students with comprehensible inputs as one of teacher's pivotal role (Harmer, 2001). It is a pity, though that the teacher just relies on a single question modification technique too much, while overlooking the values of the others. Ellis (1993) states that student learning is substantially enhanced by teachers' carefully phrased questions. Proper question phrase, in fact, increase student

understanding. Even, the ability to provide students with comprehensible language inputs - in the forms of comprehensible questions - is considered as a determining aspect of teacher quality (Krashen, 1982). Moreover, providing to get students to talk owing to teacher's comprehensible questions is another teacher's important role (Hammer, 2000) .Comprehensible questions as asserted by swain (1985) are intended to trigger the students 'to push' the language use' contextually so that students' grammatical competence develops. Besides, such opportunity to produce TL benefits students to both tests their hypothesis about the language, or "to try out means of expressions and see if they work" and force them to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing (Swain, 1985).

Unlike the findings of Moritoshi's research (2001), the teacher does not self-avail with *Code-switching*. Moreover, while in Moritoshi's study (2001), the teacher was probed to repeat the questions (*simply repeat*) as a technique more dominantly than any others (82%), the present study reveals the predominant teacher's modification technique is *pauses* (79.5%) (see table 4.4).

Referring to table 4.2 which reveals that the teacher never utilizes the one proposed by Bruck and Schultz, that is *Code-switching* (0%). Dissimilar to Moritoshi's study (2001), the teacher absolutely avoid translating incomprehensible questions to students' mother tongue. Possibly, the teacher expects all students to immerse into the extensive practices of TL so that the restrictions of using *bahasa* are fully implemented. Students' are inevitably exerted to care for using TL as the

teacher prefers communicating in TL to mother tongue (Chaudron, 1998; Bruck and Schultz, 1977). Besides, The teacher may not favor to use such technique as the teacher perceives grammar, vocabulary items, difficult concepts are not being explained (Burden, 2001).

The following extract exemplifies another technique (see Appendix D) in which the teacher rephrase the unintelligible questions by shifting words:

Line 116 T : Which one you prefer...the smell of flowers or food or
drinks? 3:00 Which one do you like more flower or food and
drinks?
S5 : Food and drinks

Here, the teacher substitutes the word *prefer* to *like more* so that the student (S5) comprehends and responds to the teacher's rephrased question directly. The success of the technique is pedagogically favorable as comprehensible inputs i.e. understandable questions trigger language acquisition (Krashen, 1985).

It is pretty frequent for the teacher to repeat the same question appended with another for clarity (13.0%). It is possible that the first question is too ambiguous for students at their current proficiency so that the teacher adds a second question to enhance students' comprehension.

The percentage of *simply repeated* as one of question modification technique is considered low (1.4%). The teacher rarely repeats the same question with adjustments in different intonation or stress. The adjustments are aimed at serving the temporary purpose of maintaining communication – clarifying information and eliciting students' responses (Chaudron, 1988). There has been any possibility of the fact that the teacher considers this technique unnecessary. The teacher wants to maintain 'natural, native speech' to bail students out to develop their listening skills correspondingly.

Pertaining to the wait -time, it is obvious that the teacher' overall given wait-time is much shorter than Moritoshi's study (2001), Farooq's study (2007) and its favorable length advocated by White and Lightbown (1984). In the present study, the wait-time that the teacher spends is 3.4 seconds. It is much shorter than Moritoshi's study (2001) in that the teacher spent 8.59 seconds and Farooq's study (2007) informs that the subject teacher allots 5.4 seconds in spoken English Class. Also, contrary to White and Lightbown's advocates, the 3.4 seconds of wait-time seems insufficient for students to think, then to respond in TL. They suggest as cited by Chen (2001) the reasonable wait-time for students to think range from five seconds to ten seconds. The importance of allowing students such range of wait-time lies in the fact that the raising wait-time frequently boosts the improvement of students' length utterances (Richard and Platt, 1992). In other words, students will generate more oral

productions if the teacher allots more pedagogically sufficient wait-time than 3.4 seconds.

4.3 Effects of each question type to students' oral language production

Responding to teacher's questions, students try hard to employ a number of communication strategies taxonomy (Tarone, 1981), particularly related to the present study : paraphrasing and avoidance strategies. The table below presents the findings about the effects of each comprehensible question type on students' oral language production.

Table 4.3 The effect of question types on oral language production

Question Types	Number of words	Percentage	Mean of Length Utterance
comprehension checks	0	0 %	0
clarification requests	63	11.3 %	4.8
confirmation checks	8	1.4 %	2.0
closed display	70	12.5 %	1.1
open display	0	0 %	0
closed referential	249	44.5 %	3.3
open referential	168	30.0 %	5.3
expressive	2	0.004 %	0.4
rhetorical	0	0 %	0

Convergent	70	12.5 %	1.1
Divergent	417	74.5 %	8.6

N phonological words= 560

As displayed at table 4.3, students responding to comprehensible referential or divergent questions are pushed to produce TL as much as possible. It is revealed by the fact that such question triggers the biggest Mean of Length Utterance or MLU (8.6). It means that students are encouraged to speak much as imparting their thought in detail. In other words, students produce more TL as responding to divergent or referential questions than as responding to display/convergent questions (1.1MLU).

The frequency of a particular question type does not determine the oral production that the students generate. Taking a look at table 4.3 again, an echoic question type – clarification request – spurs students to be prolific in their utterances. Its MLU is the second highest (4.8). As previously seen at table 4.1, clarification request questions (6.6) are just posed less frequently than display questions (32.8%). Yet, the former MLU (4.8) is greater than the latter one (1.1).

Taking the previous data at table 4.3 into account, the findings of the present study are consistent with those of Brock (1986) in that referential or divergent questions generate students' more ample language oral production. In the present study, it is informed that in response to referential or divergent questions, the students talk longer than (in response to) display or/convergent questions. In other words, the Mean of Length Utterance (MLU) of referential/divergent questions is greater than

that of display/convergent questions. The fact is that the prior MLU is 8.6 words, compared with latter MLU, namely 1.1 words.

It goes without saying that the abundance of utterances as students respond to teacher questions has something to do with their familiarity of the topic, their schemata and other following variables (Nunan, 1989). Yet, responding to referential questions that students understand may embark them to produce longer utterances. Hence, such practices promotes enhancing language acquisition in that comprehensible inputs (referential/divergent questions) as a result of question modification trigger language acquisition (Long, 1983; Krashen, 1985). Subsequently, these cause students to produce target language orally. In other words, the outputs may be the results of intelligible inputs, which if these occur simultaneously and frequently facilitate a stimulus for language acquisition, thus students' language development (Swain, 1985).

Pointing back to the MLU of an echoic question i.e. clarification request, it informs that such question embarks students to produce more utterance. In fact, it is the second longest utterances (4.8) that the students respond to. Making use of such questions as *can you say that again, tell me a little more, can you explain again? What do you mean? Can you expand on that a little more? I don't understand. Can you tell me again?* Etc is a valuable strategy of the teacher (Gibbons, 2002) and positively scaffold learners to expand their discourse (Hatch, 1976). Let's see the

excerpt in Material Mode 3 (see Appendix D) on the next page when the teacher scaffolds the student to be more prolific in producing utterances:

Line 307 T : Interesting lay-out meaning colors...including here...what else?

S15 : The characteristic of the product
T : The characteristic of the product...*Can you explain for that?*

S15 : The advertisement must show the character according to the product...what age...like that...for male or female

The developed discourse by teacher's employment of scaffolding expressions such as *Can you explain for that?* is likely to amplify utterances that the students generate. Learners are exerted to 'output' the language they are learning more productively so as to promote language acquisition.

4.4 Teacher's reason(s) for using the most frequent question type

Turning over to table 4.3, it is found out that the teacher employs a particular question the most frequently, namely referential or divergent question (54.6%). There are many reasons why the teachers employs more referential questions than other questions types. First of all, in beginning of the lesson or Managerial Mode 1, the

teacher just leads and involves the students in the topic by finding out how much they are familiar with it, so gets informed what to do next as she says:

"I still remember in the beginning of the lesson...I posed a question 'do you like wearing perfume?' actually I don't care whether they like wearing perfume or not...or who wears perfume or who doesn't...how many times or when...I just lead to and involve them in the today's topic ...also I find out how much they are knowledgeable about perfume...its vocabulary...so I get to know what to do next."

The subject teacher acts her role as a controller (Hammer, 2001). The teacher poses a referential question as to direct the students to the topic discussed. Later, the first function of question as a diagnostic one is implemented. (Donald and & Eggen ,1989). Similarly, one of the primary purpose of questioning is implement in that the teacher wants to find out students' familiarity with the facts, the topic (Heaton, 1983). The teacher maps students' knowledge about the topic by inviting an individual to involve in talking about *perfume* accordingly. In addition, the referential question in beginning of the lesson informs the teacher about students' schemata so that the teacher recognizes the next steps to carry out.

Secondly, the nature of the course determines the types of questions posed. As the teacher teaches in a speaking class, she sets up an objective to encourage students to involve in speaking activities. Though, the teacher confesses that thee majority of the students are considered 'weak' in oral proficiency, yet the students are intentionally endorsed by seemingly trivial questions they are probably able to respond. It is fine for the teacher have such a simple response as "yes" or "no". Specifically, it is found out that closed referential questions reaches the highest frequency of question

employment in the speaking (38.4%). Students are merely invited to personally involved by responding simple answers. Yet, most important thing, another act as a facilitator – teacher facilitates a comprehensible input – is adequately carried out. Hence, she utters:

"This is a speaking class 1...I value highly students' activeness in the class...like speaking with other students or answering my questions in English...As a matter of fact I don't care if they just respond my questions in a short answer...they say "Yes" or "No" it is okay...I do understand and know my students' responsibility...I think only 2 or 3 out of 20 students are good...others are even having difficulty in making sentences...even they are confused to make a simple sentence...The important thing...just talk...answer in English...I don't want my smart students always answer."

The second function of questions i.e. motivational one (Donald and Eggen ,1989). Likewise, teacher questions are to develop interest, thus motivating students become actively involved in lessons (Cotton, 1988). To facilitate the lesson engagement by, among other things, posing a simple question. No wonder, the question type that teacher frequently poses during the two sessions is close referential question (38.4 %). Such question simply invites students to participate in the lesson by answering “yes” or “No” or simple elicitation of factual information (Pica, 1999). According to Ellis (1993), such teacher questioning is effective in elementary settings as stated by the teacher :

“two or three students are good... others are even having difficulty in making sentences...even they are confused to make a simple sentence.”

Thus, the ability in answering questions is a motivational drive for elementary students to involve in using TL (Chaudron, 1988). Subsequently, like the study of

Farooq (2007), in the spoken English class that he researched reveals that the subject teacher employed more referential questions than displays ones.

Eventually, in particular in Classroom Context Mode, after students' presentation about an advertisement made a week ago, it is a classroom discourse mode (see appendix D) that the teacher subconsciously employs a great number of referential questions or divergent ones, particularly open referential questions (16.2%). On this learning phase, the teacher poses questions as to review and practice the previously learnt materials (Clegg, 1981). Also, the teacher really sets up a real-life situation in which she seek detailed information in nature. As a matter of fact, she states:

"They are already much familiar with the advertisement they made...so I just its target markets..for whom it is produced ...I just ask so that I really know their purposes of making up an ad...its target market is clear...real...probably they have to present a perfume product...for example...one day."

Being displayed by the preponderance of sub-type of referential question i.e. closed-referential question (see table 4.1), the teacher reasons that the students' current language proficiency is very heterogeneous in that there is a very wide gap between the fast-learner and the slow learner. Also, she confesses that only a few students does she consider above basic level of English Language proficiency. As an experienced teacher, she should be tactful to pose questions so as to avoid humiliating them due to their inability to answer. Even, it is fine for her to invite students simply responds 'yes' or 'no', or even short answers. Thus, she merely waits a volunteer to respond posed questions. Her reason is in line with the question pattern figured out in the transcription, informing that the dominant teacher questioning pattern is

volunteering (79.1%), It is contrast with nominating pattern (6.3%). Ellis (1993) affirms that there should be a balance of responses from volunteers and non-volunteers, though. Otherwise, teacher questioning is not effective as it doesn't encourage wide student participation (Ellis, 1993). Referring to question pattern previously imparted, it is likely that the more able students may attempt to answer the delivered questions. Once in while, she self-answers as none anticipates the thrown questions (4.9%).

Various questions thrown up to learners are practically existent in an adult EFL speaking classroom. Anticipating the questions which are not responded by the students, the teacher is, then, spurred to modify them. Successfully comprehended ones, thus, trigger student to generate verbal responses. Meanwhile, a specific question type indisputably results students in longer oral production. Eventually, the fact that a particular question is more dominantly posed due to three causal motives.

4.5 Summary

This chapter outlined the discussion of the findings. The first finding, that there is a number of question types that the teacher employs in the speaking class. Referring to the ample question types, the divergent/referential questions are the most frequently-posed questions. In particular, it is a closed referential question type that the teacher uses the most frequently. The second finding, is that there is a number of modification techniques that the teacher makes use of as dealing with communication

breakdowns. It is a pause as a question modification technique more profoundly employed, while seemingly neglecting the optimal employment of other various techniques.

The third finding, that there is a confirmation of the previous study that divergent or referential questions trigger students to generate more ample language production. The final finding, that there are three core reasons for the teacher's employment of close referential questions the most frequently: teacher's expectation of students' involvement in speaking class, students' heterogeneous language proficiency and teacher's eagerness to bring the real-life situations occurring in the class.

These findings above are expected to provide more insights for both the researcher and the subject in one aspect of teacher talk: questioning. Likewise, anyone interested in will benefit to the values of questioning towards language learning. Also, they are hopefully revealing the real practices of teacher questioning in an adult EFL classroom.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the conclusion of the present study and proposes some recommendations. First, the conclusion is developed on the basis of research questions and its findings. Second, the recommendations are directed to the subject teacher, those who are having an interest in the issues addressed, and willingness to conduct further studies.

5.1 Conclusions

The use of teacher's question types is influenced by teacher's motives. In the speaking class observed, the teacher wants to involve students in on-going lessons as individuals by asking referential or divergent questions frequently. Also, the teacher tries to facilitate low proficient student's involvement in the class activities by posing closed-referential questions often. Finally, the teacher tries to set up a real-learning situation in that student may experience it one day.

The teacher' use of question modification technique is influenced by teacher's belief. In the speaking class observed, the teacher believes that being unable to answer teacher's questions just humiliates students. So, the teacher just poses questions to any students, and wait for their volunteer answers. Such questioning behavior causes her not to optimize the functions of other techniques and minimize the functions of echoic questions. The optimal function of question modification

techniques is favorable for students to generate oral productions as displayed at table 4.3. Meanwhile, the optimal functions of echoic questions enhance students comprehension, which may promote ample students' output.

5.2 Recommendations

Related to the conclusions of research findings, some recommendations are presented as follow:

- a. It is recommended that the teacher enhance her awareness about the functions of each question types, particularly in speaking class. The teacher should know when she poses a particular question type in a learning phase, and why a particular type is posed to students.
- b. It is recommended that the teacher improve her question modification skills, particularly in speaking class. The teacher should employ the various question modification technique better as to cause questions comprehended. Therefore, all students may actively talk in the class.
- c. It is recommended that other studies with more teacher participants at other private universities, possibly different students' majors conducted. In so-doing, more plentiful data would yield empirical findings more profoundly.

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APPENDIX A

Categories in the Flint System

The following categories were adapted in the study and will be referred to in the main text.

Teacher Talk

Indirect Influence

2. *Praises or encourages:*

Praising, complimenting, telling students why what they have said or done is valued.

3. *Uses ideas of students:*

Clarifying, using ideas, interpreting ideas, summarizing ideas. The idea must be rephrased by the teacher but still recognized as being student contributions.

3.a *Repeat student response verbatim:*

Repeating the exact words of students after they participate.

4. *Asks questions:*

Asking questions to which an answer is anticipated . Rhetorical questions are not included in this category.

Direct Influence

5a. *Correct without rejection:*

Telling students who have made a mistake the correct response without using words or intonation which communicated criticism.

6. *Gives directions*

Gives directions, requests or commands which students are expected to follow.

7a. *Criticizes students' response:*

Telling the student his response is not correct or acceptable and communicating by words or intonation criticism, displeasure, annoyance, rejections..

Student Talk

8. *Student response, specific:*

Responding to the teacher within a specific and limited range of available or previously shaped answers. Reading aloud. Giving a specific response.

9. *Student response, open-ended, or student-Initiated:*

Responding to the teacher with students' own ideas, opinions, reactions, feelings. Giving one from among many possible answers which have been previously shaped but from which students must now make a selection. Initiating the participation.

10. Silence : Pauses in the interaction. Period of quiet during there is no verbal interaction.

11. Confusion, work-oriented: More than one person at a time talking , so the interaction cannot be recorded. Students calling out excitedly, eager to participate or respond, concerning with the task at hand.

12. Laughter: Laughing and giggling by the class, individuals, and/or the teacher

13. Uses the native language: Use the native language by the teacher or the students.

This category is always combined with one of the category from 1 to 9.

14. Nonverbal: Gesture or facial expressions by the teacher or the student that communicate without the use of words.







4.1 Descriptions of Classroom Discourse

Referring to the adapted FLINT (Foreign Language Interactions) system and the frequently thorough analysis of transcription, the question patterns distributed in two sessions are found out as follow:

Table 4.1

The result of question pattern and the percentage in the total sum

Subject	Total Number of Question Pattern	Nominating		In chorus		Volunteering		Self-answer	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Teacher	144	9	6.3	14	9.7	114	79.1	7	4.9

It is obvious that the teacher does not often nominate or select students randomly.

The teacher does rely students' initiation on responding her spontaneous questions.

In other words, students self-select to try answering teachers' questions. The teacher

may have profound reasons for not appointing students directly when the questions are posed. In fact, most of the questions are put forward to the whole class. Later, students volunteer to answer the delivered questions.

Subsequently, the teacher frequently reiterates students' response verbatim (see Appendix D) (lines 15, 17, 28, 34, 44, 46, 83, 88, 90, 94, 98, 100, 102, 107, 109, 119, 125, 127, 131, 133, 165, 167, 169, 185, 187, 189, 193, 216, 227, 258, 266, 270, 289, 291, 293, 295, 297, 299, 301, 305, 311, 321, 435, and 466.). In other words, the teacher often appreciates student participation by restating the exact words or utterances that the students conveyed. In contrast, the teacher barely criticized students' responses. Students are intentionally encouraged to produce TL as much as possible without being hampered by discrete words of rejection, annoyance, displeasure or intonation criticism. In brief, the teacher truly endorses an encouraging atmosphere which is conducive to trigger students' involvement in the interaction. At the same time, prevalent anxiety resulted in during the instructions is redeemed substantially.

Additionally, by utilizing the taxonomy of Communication Strategies proposed by Tarone, it is found out that not all strategies are employed by the students. The table 4.2 displays the communication strategies that the students employs, responding to the teacher-posed questions.

Table 4.2

Distribution of Students' Communication Strategies in two sessions

Paraphrase	Borrowing	Appeal for assistance	Mime	Avoidance
4 (10.81%)	7 (18.92%)	2 (5.4%)	3 (8.11%)	21 (56.76%)

It seems that they are not used to making use of expressions of appealing for help when they are confronted with difficulties in conveying the ideas in Target Language (TL). For instance, some extracts of students' rare intention to seek an assistance in responding to teacher questions are exemplified in a number of lines (see Appendix D) (lines 61, and 276). Meanwhile, students often showed partial or not response at all responding to teacher questions (see Appendix D) (lines 31, 35, 58, 60, 86, 110, 112, 114, 116, 174, 198, 202, 206, 228, 231, 251, 263, 275, 303, 344, 349, and 448). However, the students strive for expressing what they desired to deliver by availing themselves with repertoire of L1 lexicons (see Appendix D) (lines 87, 128, 144, 146, 162, 254, and 314). In addition, they attempt to rephrase the difficult words to get the message across intelligibly (see Appendix D) (lines 149, 347, 436, 404, and 442). Apparently discovered, the students are unfamiliar with the topic presented and limited to linguistic knowledge so that avoidance is noticeably dominant (56.76%). Even, three lines (line 23, 120, and 204) displayed that some students' oral proficiency were categorized into basic level due to non-verbal responses that they present.

Various question types and functions posed by a teacher are pedagogically pivotal to develop students' language proficiency. In classroom discourse, as interacting with the students, teachers are dealt with the questions that puzzle learners, leading to communication breakdowns. Thus, the repertoire of question modification techniques is in the urgent need as comprehensible questions embark valuable inputs and outputs for students. As a matter of fact, students acquire the TL by understanding the questions that the teacher conveys. Also, their TL acquisition is enhanced by their endeavors to answer the intelligible ones. One of the teacher's roles as a facilitator via questioning is undoubtedly beneficial for student language learning, accordingly. All related theories and other related studies, therefore, will be substantially highlighted below.

What is more, each question type is exemplified from the lesson transcripts below.
(see Appendix E for completeness)

1. Clarification requests (e.g. Why not? ; Pardon? ; Can you explain for that? ; In what way? Etc)
2. Confirmation checks (e.g. No? ; Interesting? ; Strange or unique? Etc)

3. Closed display (e.g. Can you mention what kinds of fruits are usually made into perfume? ; What kind of flavor is it? What else? ; What is the smell? ; What is it? ; What kind of picture is that? ; What's the brand? ; What's next? Etc)
4. Closed referential (e.g. Do you like wearing perfume? ; Who wears perfume today? ; What is your answer, Imelda? ; Who doesn't like baby just-wash? ; Is it one of your determining factor to buy perfume? Etc)
5. Open referential (e.g. Why do you choose food and drink? ; Why flowers, girls? ; What do you think? ; Why are you interested in using Japanese Name? ; Why Rose? ; Why is it unique? ; Why did you come up with that kind of fusion? Why do you choose? Etc).
6. Expressive (e.g. Ok...the picture is very attractive, right? ; Ok...actually it is eye catching but bad thing, ya? You are going to sell your product, right? Etc)
7. Rhetorical (e.g. What is it? ... admit that they are...)
8. Convergent (e.g. Do you think perfume is classified into gender in usage? ; What is "Minyak Telon"? ; Can you guess people who live in the house from the smell of the house? ; What is moiré? ; What are the characteristics? Etc)
9. Divergent (e.g. What kinds of scent do you like? ; Which one is better do you think? ; Why young? ; Why right now is it only sold in Metro? Etc)



N modification techniques = 146

The overall wait-time : 3.4 second

According to Hatch (1978), teacher can assist learners' expanded discourse in a two-way teacher-student modified interactions. The more able interlocutor (teacher) scaffold the less able one (learner) by confirming answers that students possibly utter.



Table 4.3 Distribution of Question Types in Two sessions

Question Types	Percentage
comprehension checks	0 %
clarification requests	6.6 %
confirmation checks	2.0 %
close display	32.8 %
open display	0 %
close referential	38.4 %
open referential	16.2 %
expressive	2.5 %
rhetorical	1.5 %
Convergent	37.6 %
divergent	62.4 %

n Questions = 198

4.3 teacher's question modification techniques

The teacher's question modification strategies (the framework of Chaudron)

Question Modification	Simply repeated	Rephrased	Additional question	(Pauses) Wait-time	Code-switching

Strategies					
Teacher	1.4 %	6.1 %	13.0 %	79.5 %	0 %

N modification techniques = 146
The overall wait-time : 3.4 second

4.4 Teacher's reasons for the most frequently used questions

4.5 Effects of each question type to students' oral language production

Question Types	Number of words	Percentage	Mean of Length Utterance
comprehension checks	0	0 %	0
clarification requests	63	11.3 %	4.8
confirmation checks	8	1.4 %	2.0
close display	70	12.5 %	1.1
open display	0	0 %	0
close referential	249	44.5 %	3.3
open referential	168	30.0 %	5.3
expressive			

	2	0. 004 %	0.4
rhetorical	0	0 %	0
convergent	70	12.5 %	1.1
divergent	417	74.5 %	8.6

N phonological words= 560

Distribution of Question Types	Frequency
DQ	65
CDQ	64
ODQ	1
RQ	128
CRQ	73
ORQ	55
Comp Checks	
Clarif requests	
Conf Checks	

Table 4.6 Distribution of Mean Wait-time in
Respective Classroom Discourse Modes and Overall Mean of Wait-time

Distribution of Wait Time	Mean White Time in Second
Mean Wait Time In Managerial Mode	2.9725
Mean Wait Time In Material Mode 1	2.3989
Mean Wait Time In material Mode 2	2.7507
Mean Wait Time In Material Mode 3	2.0347
Mean Wait Time In Classroom Context Mode	2.0395
Number of Pauses	180
Overall Mean of Wait Time	2.43726

Table 4.7 Distribution of Language Production (in %)
in Broad Question Category

	CD	OD	CR	OR
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Classroom Discourse Mode				
Managerial Mode	13	0	13	23
Material Mode 1	7	0	13	19
Material Mode 2	0	0	8	0
Material Mode 3	37	0	8	49
Classroom Context Mode	16	0	100	206
Total	73 (14.36%)	0 (0%)	142 (27.73%)	297 (50.00%)

Table 4.8 Distribution of Language Production (in %) in Elicitation Question Category

	CE	PdE	PcE	MPE
Classroom Discourse Mode				
Managerial Mode	19	20	1	0
Material Mode 1	7	16	17	0
Material Mode 2	1	8	0	0
Material Mode 3	23	7	50	0
Classroom Context Mode	22	51	275	0
Total	72 (13.93%)	102 (19.73%)	343 (66.34%)	0 (0%)

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

- 5.1 Question Types
- 5.2 Questioning Teacher's Policy
- 5.3 Modification Techniques
- 5.4 Language Production

