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List of abbreviations

AHS	academic secondary school (Allgemein bildende höhere Schule)
CD	closed display
CQs	closed questions
CR	closed referential
DQs	display questions
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
L2	second language
OD	open display
OQs	open questions
OR	open referential
Q1	guiding question one for the SR sessions
Q2	guiding question two for the SR sessions
Q3	guiding question three for the SR sessions
RQs	referential questions
SL	second language
SLA	second language acquisition
SR	stimulated recall

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1. Introduction

„Classroom discourse is dominated by question and answer routines” (Walsh 2011:11) and it is indeed hard to imagine a lesson without the teacher asking questions and the learners responding. In this study, the focus is especially on teacher questions in the EFL classroom. Discourse in this classroom is specifically interesting as language is both “the vehicle and object of study” (Long 1983: 67), meaning that English is not only the language of communication but acquiring English is also the goal.

Questions have a key role in EFL lessons, being one of the most common elicitation techniques (Walsh 2011: 11) that try to engage learners in the interaction. Through asking questions, teachers test knowledge, check comprehension, activate learners or stimulate practice (Walsh 2011:11). Indeed, the functions questions have are diverse. As diverse are the taxonomies that have been constructed to categorize classroom questions. In the empirical study conducted for this thesis, two commonly used taxonomies, namely those constructed by Barnes (1969) and Long and Sato (1983), are combined to analyze the way questions are used and answered in a 6th grade of an Austrian academic secondary school (AHS).

This focus has been chosen for various reasons. One reason is, as Walsh (2011: 1) puts it that “a fuller understanding of interaction is [often] [...] regarded as being central to effective teaching”. Investigating the questioning behaviour of teachers will not only lead to a closer understanding of questions in the Austrian EFL classroom and their distribution but will also help to identify areas of improvement.

Although several different taxonomies exist, a review of the available literature suggests that many of these models are quite complex and assigning questions to specific categories can be challenging, both for teachers who want to examine their questioning behavior themselves and for researchers. The distinction between open and closed questions established by Barnes (1969) and the one between display and referential questions by Long and Sato (1983) are two ways of categorizing questions that have been used by numerous researchers, possibly because these are easy to apply. Since the models proposed by these researchers have been around for more than 30 years now, various opinions on their usefulness

can be found in the literature. However, these two distinctions are only one aspect of the models and a reduction of classroom questions to one of these seems oversimplified. This can be one reason why attempts of combining these two taxonomies have been made before. In this thesis, the taxonomies are combined in a new way. The use of this combined model to analyze six lessons of an EFL classroom is expected to reveal whether a distinction between open and closed types of display and referential questions leads to new insights in the distribution of question types. Moreover, the length of learners' answers to various questions is analyzed. The idea is that some questions provide learners with more opportunities for longer speech production. Providing possibilities to practice speaking skills is seen as preferable in an output and fluency-oriented classroom since the students get to practice their speaking and communicative skills. The aim of this focus is therefore to detect tendencies of specific question types to trigger longer responses and therefore provide such possibilities to practice speaking skills.

After this introduction, chapter 2 focuses on classroom discourse in general and tries to situate teacher questions and their role in this research area. Chapter 3 discusses five question taxonomies that have been used to analyze classroom questions. Especially the sixth section of this chapter is interesting as a combination of Barnes' (1969) and Long and Sato's (1983) models, as it has been used by some researchers before, is discussed. Chapter 4 is then concerned with the empirical study conducted for this thesis. In this chapter, the framework, the research questions and the methodology are discussed. Specific attention is paid to revising the combination of the two models discussed earlier by paying attention to the integration of the other categories used in the original models and an adoption of the definitions used by Barnes (1969) and Long and Sato (1983). This new combination of the two taxonomies is then used in the study conducted for this thesis. Chapter 5 is concerned with the study itself. The findings to each research question are presented one by one, along with a discussion. In the fourth and final section, these findings are then summarized. Chapter 6 provides a discussion of the limitations of this study as well as some implications for further research. Finally, the most important conclusions are drawn in chapter 7.

2. Classroom discourse

Classrooms are unique learning environments and specifically the discourse inside them has gained interest by researchers. Although it is a complex matter, exploring the relationship between communication, teaching and learning is worthwhile, particularly for teachers. Gaining a closer understanding of their own communication can, for instance, help teachers to recognize the effect discourse has on the behavior and learning of students. These insights can lead teachers to improve various aspects of their approaches in class. According to Walsh (2011: 1), most importantly, when teachers examine their own communication behavior in class they can improve their professionalism:

[L]anguage teachers can improve their professional practice by developing a closer understanding of classroom discourse and, in particular, by focusing on the complex relationship between language, interaction and learning.

It is obviously crucial that teachers perceive themselves as professionals and thus reflect on their methods and approaches in class. In this chapter, one aspect of this professionalism, namely classroom discourse, specifically teacher-student interaction, is discussed.

Walsh (2011: 2-3) states that “communication in the classroom [...] underpins everything that goes on in classrooms”, being “both highly complex and central to all classroom activity”. This quote stresses the role communication plays in classrooms, being both important and complex. Communication, whether verbal or nonverbal, has a crucial role, especially for teachers. Most of the time the teacher is the one who “has control of the patterns of communication that occur” (Walsh 2011: 4), which is why an awareness of the teacher on how they communicate with learners is quintessential. Teachers communicate in various ways with their students and “a major part of classroom interaction is generated by the teacher asking questions” (Tsui 1995: 23). Due to the important role of questions as a form of teacher-learner interaction, this will be the focus of this thesis.

Questions often serve as tools for teachers, for instance, to control the discourse in class. Walsh (2011: 11) puts it the following: “It is by asking questions that teachers are able to control the discourse”, which is also an important “reason for the prevalence of questioning” according to Ellis (1994: 586-587). Ding (2015: 26) even states that “[t]he teacher maintains control over the content and directs the classroom talk by reserving the right to ask questions”. Questions can thus

serve to both gain and maintain control over the classroom content and manage interaction. Also Farrar (1986:98) states that in the future, questions “may remain the technique of choice because they afford a proven and successful means of managing groups of students”. Questions are indeed often used to control and manage discourse but they can also serve as a tool to improve the learners’ language skills. Hopkins (2008: 164), for instance, lists questioning as one of nine teacher behaviors which are “associated with student achievement gains”. According to him, questions do not only serve to check understanding but also to keep students active and support them in their language development. When teachers reflect on questions, this can be “their starting point of teacher’s critical reflection on their teaching” (Hopkins 2008: 65). Also Chuska (1995) stresses the role of classroom questions and the need to improve these in his book *Improving classroom questions*, devoting a whole chapter (Chuska 1995: 97-117) to strategies for question improvement that can be implemented by teachers.

The idea that questions have a key role in classrooms is not new. Wilen (1991: 8-10) described the various purposes questions in the classroom have and how teachers can improve their questioning skills in great detail more than 25 years ago. According to Wilen (1991: 13), teachers should analyze the questions they ask in class but he does not specify the benefits such an analysis can have. Other researchers are more explicit on the advantages of classroom questions. According to Caudron (1988: 126), “teachers’ questions constitute a primary means of engaging learners’ attention, promoting verbal responses, and evaluating learners’ progress”. Further, Walsh (2011: 1) writes that teachers can “develop the kind of interactional competence that will result in more engaged, dynamic classrooms where learners are actively involved in the learning process”, questioning being an essential part of this interactional competence. He believes that specifically learners can benefit when teachers pay attention to their communication and their usage of questions in class (Walsh 2011: 1).

Moreover, since the focus in the Austrian EFL classroom is on fluency rather than accuracy nowadays, it is crucial that learners are provided with possibilities for active language production. Gall (1970: 714) also agrees and lists several effects of teachers’ questions, also stating that questions are a useful tool when teachers want to encourage learners to speak. Cullen (1998: 179) states that teacher communication can be said to be effective when “[teachers] are able to facilitate learning and promote communicative interaction” in class. This is done, for instance, by asking questions. According to Ellis (1994: 587), questions are the

tools that “typically serve as devices for initiating discourse” which also stresses their effect on students’ language production. According to her, the benefits of questions for L2 acquisition are “opportunities they provide for learner output” (Ellis 1994: 590). Long and Sato (1983: 270) also state that a requirement for the language classroom must be to provide “opportunities to use the target language for communicative purposes”.

This brief introduction into classroom discourse tries to position questions in the complex area of classroom discourse. As has been shown, questions do not only serve to control and test learners but should also promote learning and activate students. Thompson (1997: 99) states that the ultimate goal when looking at questions is to “sensitize [teachers] to what they are actually doing with their questions”. This idea of investigating and analyzing the questioning behavior of a teacher in class is at the center of attention in this thesis. It tries to obtain a better understanding of classroom questions and how they can be categorized. In what follows, the topic of classroom questions is further elaborated on by giving an insight in some taxonomies which have been constructed by researchers to categorize questions.

3. Classifications of questions

Over the last decades several studies have analyzed the questioning behavior of teachers. These efforts undeniably led to a better understanding of classroom discourse and specifically of teacher-learner interaction. It also led to the construction of various question taxonomies which are supposed to help researchers and teachers when analyzing classroom questions. What becomes clear when reviewing some of these taxonomies is that although they are concerned with the same topic, they can be considerably different from each other. For instance, questions can be categorized due to their form, content or purpose (Thompson 1997: 100-101). In what follows, five commonly used models will be presented chronologically by their date of publication. The sixth model described and defined in the last part of this chapter is a combination of two of the five taxonomies presented, namely Barnes’ (1969) and Long and Sato’s (1983) distinction. This combined model has been used by other researchers before and is briefly introduced. Noteworthy is that although the same models have been combined for the empirical study conducted for this thesis, not the version

presented in section 3.6 but a newly combined model has been used, explained in section 4.1.

3.1 Bloom (1956)

Bloom's taxonomy is not only one of the oldest but also the most discussed and used model of classifying questions for classroom research. His classification of questions into seven types, depending on their purpose, is illustrated along with examples in Table 1:

Table 1 Bloom's taxonomy (1956 quoted in Brown 2007: 172) with examples

type	example
1. Knowledge	<i>What is metamorphosis?</i>
2. Comprehension	<i>Why do we use the present tense in this sentence?</i>
3. Application	<i>Can you change this passage into the past tense?</i>
4. Interference	<i>What do you think about the problem discussed in the article?</i>
5. Analysis	<i>Why can't we use the going-to-future in this example?</i>
6. Synthesis	<i>What could the children do to solve their problem?</i>
7. Evaluation	<i>What do you think should be done about refugees in Austria?</i>

Merely giving examples, as in Table 1, does not clearly distinguish and explain the categories in Bloom's model. Knowledge questions such as *What is metamorphosis?* require the learners to recall what they have learned so far. Comprehension questions are those which test whether the learner has understood the meaning of a certain issue. For instance, *Why do we use the present tense in this sentence?* could be asked by the teacher after the learners discussed the present tense and he or she now checks whether the students comprehended the grammar unit (Bloom 1956 quoted in Brown 2007: 172). Application is "the ability to use learner material such as rules, methods, concepts, principles, laws and theories in new and concrete situations" (Arman and Farzad 2013: 565). For example, after studying the past tense the teacher could ask the learners *Can you*

change this passage into the past tense? which requires the students to use the newly learned concept in a concrete situation. *What do you think about the problem discussed in the article?* is an interference question as it requires the ability of the learner to “form conclusions that are not directly stated in instructional materials” (Arman and Farzad 2013: 565). In the category analysis, students have to break down a model into its components to understand the structure on the basis of its elements (Arman and Farzad 2013: 565). Clearly, the category of analysis is highly abstract and complicated. *Why can't we use the going to future in this example?* could be seen as an example of an analysis question since the learners need to analyze the sentence and compare its elements with the knowledge of the going-to-future they have in order to find possible reasons why this tense cannot be used in this case. Synthesis is “the ability to collect different parts and put them together to create a new whole” (Arman and Farzad 2013: 565). An example would be that the teacher is reading a book with the learners until the protagonists in the literary text encounter a problem. The learners know the characters, the resources they have, the context of their situation and now the teacher asks *What could the children do to solve their problem?* and thus a synthesis question. This question requires the students to “rely on innovative and creative thinking” (Arman and Farzad 2013: 565), another characteristic of the synthesis question type, to find a reasonable answer. Finally, evaluation requires the learners to make an assessment of the value a material has as Arman and Farzad (2013: 565) formulate. The rather broad term ‘material’ could refer to written documents but also to current issues. A question such as *What do you think should be done about refugees in Austria?* requires learners to provide an “explanation to problems” (Arman and Farzad 2013: 565).

However, as can be seen from this last example, the boundaries between the seven types are not always that clear cut. *What do you think should be done about refugees?* could be seen as a combination of several types and not only as an evaluation question. For instance, it could be said to be a knowledge question since the learners can base their answer on knowledge about politics gained so far. Moreover, the question could also reasonably be classified as an application question if the learner needs to apply methods or models learned on an actual real-life example. This shows the importance that context has but also the complexity of Bloom’s model and the high degree of interpretation needed on the part of the analyst when assigning questions to one of the categories.

3.2 Barnes (1969)

Barnes' (1969) model was established in the late 1960s and has been in use ever since, although in a simplified form. He classified 'what?'-questions as factual ones and 'how?'- and 'why?'-questions as reasoning questions. He further subdivided in closed and open questions (Barnes 1969 quoted in Ellis 1994: 587), in the following referred to as CQs and OQs. Whereas CQs "are framed with only one acceptable answer in mind", OQs "permit a number of different acceptable answers" (Ellis 1994: 587). In addition, Barnes distinguishes a third category, consisting of open questions that do not require any reasoning. Finally, a fourth category encompasses social questions and thus "questions that influence student behavior by means of control or appeal" (Ellis 1994: 587). In Table 2, the taxonomy is presented along with possible example questions for each question type:

Table 2 Taxonomy by Barnes (1969 quoted in Ellis 1994: 587) with examples

type	example
1. Factual questions	<i>What is a reptile?</i>
2. Reasoning questions 2.1 Closed questions 2.2 Open questions	<i>How did Napoleon die?</i> <i>Why do you think did the dinosaurs get extinct?</i>
3. Open questions that do not require any reasoning	<i>Can you name a famous singer?</i>
4. Social questions	<i>Are you paying attention?</i>

As can be seen in Table 2, Barnes originally distinguishes between four question types (Barnes 1969 quoted in Ellis 1994: 587). A crucial aspect of these question categories is the distinction between open and closed questions which has been used by various researchers after Barnes.

With Barnes' distinction between questions that do not require reasoning versus those that do require reasoning, certain problems can exist. The question *How did Napoleon die?* could be answered with the sentence *He died of an illness*. A question that remains is whether this clearly correct answer has required reasoning on the part of the learners as the answer could also have been a lucky guess. This certainly does not change the question type this question would be

assigned to by Barnes but it shows that some questions might not trigger the desired response as the learner might not have to reason.

On the contrary, with OQs and CQs, the learners either have a restricted number of responses or not which is why it is less probable that learners give responses that do not fit in these criteria. This could be one reason why most researchers who use Barnes' model only distinguish between the categories open and closed and leave out the criterion of whether reasoning is required or not as this categorization leads to fewer problems in the categorization and evaluation of questions. The categories open and closed are simply less dependent on the context and the knowledge of the learners, only referring to the number of possible answers that the question itself allows. Interestingly, the distinction between open and closed question proved to be not entirely unproblematic as will be discussed in section 3.6 and 4.1.1.

3.3 Kearsley (1976)

Kearsley constructed his taxonomy to analyze the functions of questions in 1976 and thus earlier than Long and Sato (1983). On the basis of Kearsley's complex model, Long and Sato constructed their famous framework, which was published seven years later. Kearsley's model is illustrated in Table 3:

Table 3 Kearsley's model (1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274-275) with examples

1. Echoic	<i>Pardon me?</i>
2. Epistemic	
2.1 Referential	<i>What is your mother's name?</i>
2.2 Evaluative	<i>How many inhabitants does Vienna have?</i>
3. Expressive	<i>It is a great book, isn't it?</i>
4. Social control	
4.1 Attentional	<i>What do you think about this?</i>
4.2 Verboactive	<i>What have you been up to?</i>

As can be seen in Table 3, Kearsley's framework encompasses four question types. Category 1 are echoic questions, i.e. "those which ask for the repetition of an

utterance or confirmation that an utterance has been interpreted as intended" (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274). For instance, *What?*, *Pardon me?* or *Huh?* (Long and Sato 1983: 274) are examples for this category. Category 2 encompasses all questions that are epistemic and thus are questions which "serve the purpose of acquiring information" (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274). Here Kearsley (1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274) distinguishes between referential questions, i.e. questions that "are intended to provide contextual information about situations, events, actions purposes, relationships, or properties" and evaluative questions, i.e. those which "are asked to establish the addressee's knowledge of the answer". The latter type is what Long and Sato (1983: 274) and others refer to as display questions. However, these questions are also referred to as 'test questions' or 'known information questions' by various researchers.

The third type consists of expressive questions which are those that "convey attitudinal information to the addressee" (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 275). *Are you coming or aren't you?* is one example of an expressive question Long and Sato (1983: 275) provide. Finally, Category 4 is called social control and the questions belonging to this category "exert authority by maintaining control of the discourse" (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 275). The first question type that belongs to this last category consists of attentional questions, which "allow the questioner to take over the direction of the discourse" (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 275). An example is *What do you think about this?* since this question could serve the function to allow other participants of the conversation to lead the discourse. Finally, verbosity questions "are asked only for the sake of politeness or to sustain conversation" (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 275). Long and Sato (1983: 275) use the term "cocktail party questions" to make this concept more comprehensible. The name derived from the context in which such questions could occur. For example, the question *What have you been up to?* could easily occur in a conversation at a cocktail party where one of two or several people tries to keep the dialogue between them going.

Kearsley's model is quite elaborate and already introduces the distinction between referential and evaluative or display questions which Long and Sato (1983) adapted and are often credited for. In the next section, the revision of Kearsley's model by Long and Sato (1983) will be presented along with an

explanation of why the two researchers chose to adopt and change the model introduced by Kearsley.

3.4 Long and Sato (1983)

With the goal of investigating “the forms and functions of teachers’ questions in ESL classrooms” (Long and Sato 1983: 270), Long and Sato (1983: 276) analyzed the questioning behavior of teachers utilizing an adaption of Kearsley’s model (1976) with the distinction between echoic and epistemic questions, as illustrated in Table 4:

Table 4 Taxonomy by Long and Sato (1983: 276) with examples

1. Echoic	
type	example
1.1 Comprehension checks	<i>Did you understand?</i>
1.2 Clarification requests	<i>What did you say?</i>
1.3 Confirmation checks	<i>Did you say ‘no’?</i>
2. Epistemic	
type	example
2.1 Referential questions	<i>What is your favorite dish?</i>
2.2 Display questions	<i>What is the capital city of Sweden?</i>
2.3 Expressive questions	<i>It’s a great day, isn’t it?</i>
2.4 Rhetorical questions	<i>Don’t we all make mistakes?</i>

As can be seen in Table 4, whereas the echoic type consists of comprehension checks, clarification requests and confirmation checks, the epistemic category distinguishes between referential (in this thesis referred to as RQs), display (in this thesis referred to as DQs), expressive and rhetorical questions. Thus, Long and Sato (1983: 276) specified the echoic category, which was originally introduced by Kearsley (1979) and subdivided it into three categories allowing

distinctions to be made among acts whose functions reflect (among other things) the direction of information-flow in preceding utterance and, indirectly, the degree to which conversation is negotiated through modification of its interactional structure.

Indeed, questions such as *Did you understand?*, *What did you say?* or *Did you say 'no'?* all belong to the echoic type as they “ask for the repetition of an utterance or confirmation” (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274). Although these three types are very similar, they do not have the same function as Kearsley's framework suggests. Whereas *Did you understand?* asks for a confirmation, *What did you say?* asks the learners to repeat themselves and questions such as *Did you say 'no'?* ask for confirmation.

Category 2 is labeled as epistemic. The expressive type which was a separate category to Kearsley's taxonomy (1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274) has been integrated into the epistemic category. Furthermore, rhetorical questions were added and the fourth category of questions that serve the function of social control to Kearsley (1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 275) were left out. Initially it is important to discuss the reasons for the adaptations of Kearsley's model (1976) before looking at the four types of epistemic questions by Long and Sato (1983: 276) more closely.

Both changes besides the subdivision of the echoic type, namely leaving out the social question type and integrating the expressive question type to the epistemic category, have to do with the data Long and Sato (1983: 275) collected. They simply found no questions that serve the function of social control as Kearsley (1979) found. Another minor change which, however, was not explained by Long and Sato (1983) is the inclusion of expressive questions to the category of epistemic questions. Following the original definition of Kearsley (1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274) that epistemic questions are the ones which “serve the purpose of acquiring information”, expressive questions do not seem to fit into this category as they “convey attitudinal information to the addressee” (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 275). For instance, the expressive question *It's a great day, isn't it?* involves attitude rather than knowledge. However, as Long and Sato (1983: 276) only used the categories echoic and epistemic as hypernyms and were more concerned with the seven subcategories when analyzing their data, this terminological issue does not influence the data and its evaluation.

The taxonomy by Long and Sato (1983: 276) mentions four question types belonging to the epistemic category. Expressive questions such as *It's a great day, isn't it?* and rhetorical ones as *Don't we all make mistakes?* are two of these. The main focus, however, is on the other two categories of ‘display’ and ‘referential’ questions. This distinction has been and is still used to investigate questioning behavior in the classroom, for instance, by Shomoossi (2004) and Fakeye (2007).

This clearly shows that Long and Sato's (1983) distinction between display and referential questions has also been used in recent times which is why these will be discussed in more detail in the following.

'Display questions', also referred to as 'test questions' or 'known information questions', represent questions to which a teacher already knows the answer (Long and Sato 1983: 271). *What is the capital city of Sweden?* or *What is a mammal?* are two examples for display questions. DQs have, how Long and Sato (1983: 271) stress, a teaching or testing function. Walsh (2011: 12) lists some of their functions, including "checking understanding", "guiding learners towards a particular response" or "concept checking".

'Referential questions' are those questions to which the teacher does not know the answer (Long and Sato 1983: 276). Such questions have also been referred to as 'real questions' (Siposova 2007: 34) or 'authentic questions' (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 95) in the literature. These terms highlight that RQs are closer to the more authentic everyday interaction than DQs. Considering the definition Long and Sato (1983) provide for referential questions, a slight difference to the original one Kearsley (1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274) provides is noticeable. According to Kearsley (1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274), referential questions "are intended to provide contextual information about situations, events, actions, purposes, relationships, or properties". Long and Sato (1983: 280), however, seem to stress the fact that referential questions ask for information which is not known by the teacher. For instance, questions such as *Why do we use the present perfect tense in this context?* or *What happened in Berlin on the 9th of November in 1989?* ask the learners to provide information about a purpose and an event, i.e. fulfill Kearsley's criterion for referential questions. However, these questions could also be display questions when the teacher uses them for testing functions. Long and Sato (1983: 280) reformulated the distinction between the two terms and thus add clarity to their definitions.

The clarity Long and Sato (1983) added to the key terms and the fact that the researchers particularly focused on DQs and RQs in their study may be the reasons why Long and Sato (1983) rather than Kearsley (1976) are mentioned when reference is made to these two question types in contemporary literature.

Dalton-Puffer (2007: 94) points out that the categories display and referential were already used by Mehan (1979), who labeled them "known information" and "information seeking questions" (Mehan 1979: 195). However, as the model by Long and Sato (1983) is more elaborate, their model was used as a basis for the

study in this thesis. Noteworthy is that although the distinction between display and referential question has been used and praised by many researchers, Dalton-Puffer (2007: 124) still warns against “developing an over-simple understanding of classroom language” due to the common assumption found in the literature that there exist “‘natural, authentic and open-ended’ referential questions on the one hand, and ‘unnatural, artificial and closed’ display question on the other”. This issue will be discussed in more detail in the sections 5.2 and 5.4.

Before going into more detail, what is crucial to keep in mind is that the questions and examples in this thesis are seen in the context of classroom discourse and thus would occur in the language classroom and not outside of it. Indeed, a person could also ask *What is the capital of Sweden?* outside of the classroom. Here, however, the person does probably not know the answer and is asking a referential rather than a display question. This already shows one of the main reasons why researchers such as Lynch (1991: 202) criticize DQs and favor RQs, simply because they regard display questions as unrealistic and not authentic as they rarely occur in real life interaction. Outside of the classroom, referential questions dominate (Ellis 1994: 589).

Long and Sato (1983: 274) analyzed the questioning behavior of six language teachers by equipping them with recording devices which they were asked to carry for a complete lesson in beginners’ language classes. On the basis of those six lessons, Long and Sato (1983: 277) found that about 79% of all epistemic questions were DQs and only 21% RQs. In general, 51% of all questions, both echoic and epistemic ones, were DQs (Long and Sato 1983: 280). The relatively small number of RQs, which are far more similar to real life interaction, leads Long and Sato (1983: 280) to the conclusion that “contrary to the recommendations of many writers on SL teaching methodology, communicative use of the target language makes up only a minor part of typical classroom activities”.

3.5 Richards and Lockhart (1996)

A more recent but less influential question taxonomy has been proposed by Richards and Lockhart (1996: 186-187). In this taxonomy, the focus is on the purpose or function of questions as is illustrated in Table 5:

Table 5 Question taxonomy by Richards and Lockhart (1996: 186-187) with examples

1) Procedural questions
<i>Who wants to read the next passage?</i> <i>Can you go and get a projector?</i>
2) Convergent questions
<i>Which tense is used to talk about habits?</i> <i>Where was Mozart born?</i>
3) Divergent questions
<i>Do you think teenagers should get pocket money?</i> <i>What advantages do you think does owning a pet has?</i>

As can be seen in Table 5, the model by Richards and Lockhart (1996) consists of three different question types. Procedural questions are concerned “with classroom procedures and routines, and classroom management, as opposed to the content of learning” (Richards and Lockart 1996: 186). *Who wants to read the next passage?* is an example for this type. Convergent questions can be answered with simple sentences or with just one word. As these “often focus on the recall of previously presented information” (Richards and Lockart 1996: 187), these questions seem to be what Long and Sato (1983) called display questions, although Richards and Lockart (1996: 186) are much more specific on what the student response looks like. Divergent questions such as *Do you think teenagers should get pocket money?* require higher-order thinking on the part of the questioned learner. According to Richards and Lockart (1996: 187), these questions pose more of a challenge to the learner.

3.6 Combined model

With Bloom’s model (1959), assigning questions to one of the seven types is quite difficult. Also Barnes’ (1969) model in its original form and Richards and Lockart’s (1996) taxonomy involve a high degree of subjectivity when assigning teacher questions to specific question types. Thus, the idea arose to combine two widely used models, namely Barnes’ (1969) and Long and Sato’s (1983). Ellis (1994: 589) mentions the similarity between the two frameworks, however, “[t]he distinction [by

Long and Sato] is similar but not identical to the open/closed distinction of Barnes” (Ellis 1994: 589). In this section, a proposal to fuse the two models is presented and an explanation is provided of why such a fused taxonomy has been suggested and used by different researchers.

A combination of these two models has been used, for instance, by Al-Farsi (2014) and Sipošova (2007), although it has not actually been introduced as a new model. Pica (1983 quoted in Sipošova 2007: 34) mentions the possible combination of these two taxonomies in a lecture. An issue that arises here is that there seem to be different opinions on what the categories open and closed refer to.

When reviewing the literature, different ways of interpreting and defining the categories ‘open’ and ‘closed’ have been identified. First, there is the original distinction by Barnes (1969). According to him, closed questions “are framed with only one acceptable answer in mind” and open are those questions that “permit a number of different acceptable answers” (Barnes 1969 quoted in Ellis 1994: 587). These definitions are also used by Ellis himself (1994: 695). A second and quite different definition is given by Nunan and Lamp (1996: 84) who contrast open questions from closed ones as the latter “encourage extended student responses”.

To obtain a clearer idea of this slight difference in interpretation, the two ways of defining open and closed type identified in the literature are illustrated in Figure 1:

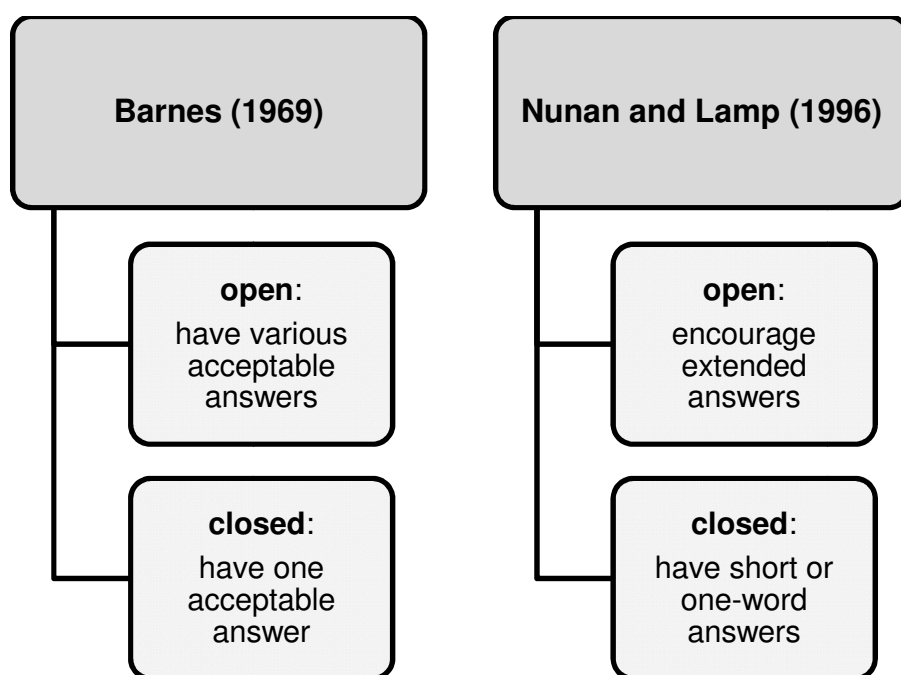


Figure 1 Different interpretations of the categories ‘open’ and ‘closed’

As can be seen in Figure 1, there is a minor difference in how the distinction between the categories 'open' and 'closed' is defined. Barnes (1969) and Ellis (1994) define the categories depending on the number of possible answers whereas Nunan and Lamp (1996) focus on the kinds of answers produced, either short or extended. For some questions, this slight difference in meaning does not affect the categorization. For instance, the question *Do you like cats?* would be categorized as closed, no matter which of the two definitions is used.

However, with the definition of open questions as those that encourage longer answers, the classification of some questions becomes more problematic for the analyst. For instance, with the question *What did you do on the weekend?* to which the learner could answer *Nothing special*. According to Barnes (1969), this rather short response changes nothing in the classification of the question as to him, open means simply that various possible answers exist. When thinking about the interpretation of Nunan and Lamp (1996: 84), the question seems to not have "encouraged extended student responses" and it could be argued that this question here is either not really an open question or, more likely, not a successful open question.

This application of the two possible interpretations serves to illustrate that the definitions used for the categories 'open' and 'closed' may vary in the literature. Also Dalton-Puffer (2007: 96) stresses the issue that different interpretations of these two categories exist. This may be due to the fact that these categories were not only used by Barnes (1969) but also in other contexts of interaction, which are not related to education (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 96). This observation has two implications for the usage of the distinction between open and closed in classroom research. First, particular attention needs to be paid on which definitions other researchers used before comparing data and findings. Second, it stresses the need to find clear definitions for categories before applying a model. The clarification of the key terms used in this study will be at the center of attention in section 4.1.2.

In this study, also Barnes' (1969) idea behind defining the categories 'open' and 'closed' depending on the number of possible answers and not on the length of the answers the questions trigger has been used due to several reasons. First, the thesis adheres to the original models by Barnes (1969) and Long and Sato (1983) and thus to their thoughts behind defining different terms. Second, the definitions by Nunan and Lamp (1996: 84) already carry an evaluation of the length of the learners' response and with some questions, classifying questions becomes therefore more problematic, requiring more interpretation and subjectivity in their

classification. Moreover, it remains questionable whether using a classification that already defines its categories on the basis of the possible answers' length to analyze response length, as it is done in this thesis, would be reasonable at all.

A possible combined model that has been mentioned by Al-Farsi (2014), Saposova (2007) and Pica (1983, quoted in Saposova 2007: 34) is illustrated in Table 6, along with some examples:

Table 6 Model combining display, referential, open and closed questions

type	example
open display question	<i>Which words signal the present tense?</i>
closed display question	<i>When was Napoleon born?</i>
open referential question	<i>What did you do over the holidays?</i>
closed referential question	<i>Did you like cats?</i>

As can be seen in Table 6, four categories are created through the merging of the taxonomies proposed by Barnes (1969) and Long and Sato (1983). The given examples are based on the definitions for the terms open and closed provided by Barnes (1969) and the definitions for referential and display given by Long and Sato (1983) (see sections 3.2 and 3.4). As stated previously, this distinction between four types has been used by several researchers, however, this version of the model does not include all types mentioned by Barnes (1969) and Long and Sato (1983), which is why a new fusion of the two models was used for the study described in this thesis (see section 4.1).

Ellis (1994: 587) notes that “[r]eferential questions are likely to be open, while display questions are likely to be closed”, which could be a reason why some researchers such as Yang (2006: 11) write about closed display questions and open referential questions but not about open display and closed referential questions. Clearly, with some studies, this distinction might be sufficient. Nevertheless, “it is possible to conceive of closed referential questions and of open display questions” in class, as Ellis (1994: 587) stresses. A teacher may also ask RQs which restrict learners to a specific answer as, for instance, the question *Do you like cats?* does. Although the teacher asks a referential question here (i.e. he or she does not ask for already known information), the possible answers are

restricted. Therefore, this question can be considered as a closed referential question.

4. Study

In this chapter, the empirical study conducted for this thesis is discussed. The first section is concerned with the framework, discussing the question taxonomy and the definitions for key terms used. In the second section, the research questions are discussed. In the final section, several methodological considerations, such as context and material, are presented.

4.1 Framework

In this section, the model used for data collection itself is discussed in the first subsection. Clearly, also definitions for key terms are crucial before conducting a study as these definitions influence the data collection and the approach taken when analyzing the data, which is why the second subsection is concerned with this issue.

4.1.1 Question taxonomy

As stated earlier, the study described in this thesis aims to newly combine Barnes' (1969) and Long and Sato's (1983) taxonomies. A combination seems worthwhile for several reasons. Ellis (1994: 588) states that a considerable problem with several questioning taxonomies is that they "often call for substantial interpretative work on the part of the analyst". With the combination of these two models, the aim is to construct a model that is easier in its application as less subjectivity and interpretative work is needed when assigning questions to categories. Although "communication in the classroom is [...] important because it underpins everything that goes on in classrooms" (Walsh 2011: 3), a serious issue is that "[i]n the rapid flow of classroom interaction, it is difficult to comprehend what is happening" (Walsh 2011: 2) which speaks in favor of a more simplistic model.

Walsh's two statements quoted here also hint that a contradiction seems to exist which also highlights the problematic nature of analyzing teacher questions as part of classroom discourse. On the one hand, interaction carries a crucial role in class. On the other hand, when considering the rapid flow interaction can reach,

highly complex question taxonomies are difficult to use, both for researchers and teachers. The distinction between DQs and RQs by Long and Sato (1983) and the one between OQs and CQs by Barnes (1969) have been used ever since the 1980s and late 1960s.

Both models presented here stand out in their simple usage in the classroom when categorizing questions. The combined taxonomy, which will be elaborated on in this section, is well-structured for the purpose of analyzing classroom questions. Although having a very broad view, it is easy to apply in class due to little need for interpretation on the part of the analyst (either a teacher or a researcher) when assigning questions to categories.

In Table 7, the distinctions in open and closed by Barnes (1969) and referential and display by Long and Sato (1983) are combined but the other question types that occur in their original models (see section 3.2 and 3.4), in contrast to the combined model presented earlier in section 3.6, are also included:

Table 7 Extended version of the combined model of Barnes' (1969) and Long and Sato's (1983) taxonomies

1	1.1	open display questions (OD questions)
	1.2	closed display questions (CD questions)
	1.3	open referential questions (OR questions)
	1.4	closed referential questions (CR questions)
2	2.1	comprehension checks
	2.2	clarification requests
	2.3	confirmation checks
3	3.1	rhetorical questions
	3.2	expressive questions
4		social questions

As can be seen in Table 7, the extension of the combined model results in four question groups. The numbers assigned to the categories and the order in which the types are given do not represent their importance. Rather, the table is merely meant to help to attain a straightforward and logical framework.

Group 1 consists of four main types, which will also be the focus of the empirical study described in this thesis. As shown in Table 7, these four question types are referred to by using the abbreviations OD (open display), CD (closed display), OR (open referential) and CR (closed referential). Although the original definitions or slight adaptations of these were used for the key terms, there is certainly a need to clarify the definitions used for the key terms in Table 7 once again. Thus, a discussion of the terms and definitions follows in the next section (see section 4.1.2).

In Group 2, the echoic questions which Long and Sato (1983) adopted from Kearsley (1976) and their subcategories are listed. What these question types have in common is that they “ask for the repetition of an utterance or confirmation that an utterance has been interpreted as intended” (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274). Group 3 includes the rhetorical and expressive questions mentioned by Long and Sato (1983: 276). Whereas rhetorical questions are “asked for effect only [and] no answer [is] expected from the listeners” (Long and Sato 1983: 276), expressive questions “convey attitudinal information to the addressee” (Kearsley 1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 275). Social questions, which are “questions that influence student behavior by means of control or appeal” (Ellis 1994: 587), form Group 4. These social questions were part of Barnes’ (1969) model but questions with the function of social control were also used by Kearsley (1976 quoted in Long and Sato 1983: 274) and only left out by Long and Sato (1983: 275) in their model as none of these questions occurred in their data.

When comparing this new combined model with the original ones, what becomes apparent is that two of Barnes’ (1969) four categories are not explicitly mentioned: Factual questions and open questions that do not require reasoning (Barnes 1969 quoted in Ellis 1994: 587). Factual questions such as *How many planets does our solar system have?* or *What is a mammal?* would be regarded as display questions as the learner has to display his or her knowledge. Thus, this category was seen as the same as DQs. As stated earlier, determining whether a question required reasoning is difficult which is why this criterion has been left out and ‘open questions that do not require any reasoning’ were counted to Category 1 as well.

As discussed previously, Al-Farsi (2014) and Siposova (2007) also mention the four question types illustrated in Table 6. However, their taxonomies only partially combine the two models by Barnes (1969) and Long and Sato (1983) in the sense that other categories such as rhetorical or social questions, which were

included in the original articles, were not included by Al-Farsi (2014) and Siposova (2007). It could be argued that an extension from one to four groups is unnecessary. In comparison to Category 1, the other question types do not serve to test knowledge or to express opinions as DQs and RQs, whether open or closed, do. They serve to express the teacher's opinions, to exert control or to check understanding. The main interest of researchers who want to analyze classroom questions will therefore be on Category 1 questions. Although it is a common practice to reduce the two models to the distinctions open/closed and referential/display, applied either on their own or in combination, other questions which cannot be assigned to these four categories should not be left out due to various reasons.

First of all, when analyzing questions, leaving out Group 2 to 4 could lead the analyst to assign questions to the wrong category. For instance, a question such as *Do you need help with this exercise?* could erroneously be assigned to the category of CR questions, although it is in fact rather a comprehension check than a referential question and thus belongs to Group 2.

Second, leaving out other question types that naturally occur in the classroom could tempt the analyst to generalize results, especially when percentages are used. For instance, Fakeye (2007: 130) states that "[d]isplay questions accounted for about 85% of the *total questions* [my emphasis] asked". Also Qashoa (2013: 57) states that "62% of the *total questions* [my emphasis] were display" questions. What remains unclear from the two articles, however, is whether other questions which would belong to Category 2 to 4 occurred as well but were not counted. Although it is more likely that the researchers referred to the category of display and referential questions when using the wording 'all questions', counting and mentioning other questions can prevent such ambiguity.

Thus, the model illustrated in Table 7 has been used for the empirical study in this thesis. Although in the research to be presented the focus is on Group 1, it is worth counting other questions as well simply because not all questions that occur in the EFL classroom can be assigned to the four categories of Category 1 and ignoring other types of questions could lead to distorted findings.

Finally, it is noteworthy that the terms 'echoic' and 'epistemic' used by Long and Sato (1983) were left out in this combined model due to several reasons. First, as Long and Sato (1983: 276) only used these categories as hypernyms and were more concerned with the subcategories, they serve no central function and do not influence the data and its evaluation. Another reason is certainly that, as explained

earlier, certain problems exist when trying to describe some of the question types as either 'echoic' or 'epistemic' (see section 3.4). Finally, Barnes (1969) does not use such a distinction, which is why leaving out these terms also simplifies the fusion of the two models.

4.1.2 Term definitions

As has been stated previously, various definitions and interpretations of the key terms in the used model exist. Especially when it comes to the categories 'open' and 'closed', quite different opinions on how these should be defined can be found in the literature. The aim of this section is therefore to discuss and define all key terms that were used in this study. In what follows, specific attention is paid to first clarify what has been regarded as a 'question' and a 'response', as the study analyzed classroom questions and the responses these received. Next, the categories in the combined model are once again discussed and clear definitions are provided.

As this study focuses on classroom questions and the responses to these, a clarification and definition of two key terms is required: question and response. Before moving on to classroom questions in particular, it is crucial to obtain an idea on what a question is in general. Two sources were chosen, the Merriam Webster Dictionary and the Cambridge Dictionary as these are two widely used dictionaries. Both provide a similar definition: According to the Merriam Webster Dictionary a question is "a sentence, phrase, or word that asks for information or is used to test someone's knowledge". In comparison, the Cambridge Dictionary defines a question as "a sentence or phrase used to find out information". Two main differences exist between the definitions in these two dictionaries.

First, the Merriam Webster Dictionary also explicitly states that a single word can function as a question. Considering that *What?* can certainly be regarded as a question as well, this addition in the definition is reasonable. The second difference is that the Cambridge Dictionary appears to split up Webster's definition. Whereas the Merriam Webster Dictionary includes the possibility of using questions to test in their main definition, the Cambridge Dictionary lists this function as another definition of a question, namely as "a problem that tests a person's knowledge or ability" (Cambridge Dictionary). Questions that could occur in everyday life are, for example, *What time is it?* *What did you say?* or *When is your birthday?*, which fit in both of the definitions presented above. As the definition provided by the Merriam

Webster Dictionary seems more detailed than the one provided by the Cambridge Dictionary, it has been decided to use the former definition. However, as this thesis focuses on classroom discourse, it is worthwhile to test whether the definition also applies for some examples from the collected data or whether the definition should be revised.

When looking at several example questions from the collected data, the definition applies for most of them. For instance, *Can you read us the sentence?* (Transcript 1) or *And?* (Transcript 5) certainly fit in the description that a question is “a sentence, phrase, or word that asks for information or is used to test someone's knowledge” (Mirriam Webster Dictionary). However, considering the question *Am I death today?* (Transcript 3), which is a rhetorical question, it does not fit in the definition above. The Mirriam Webster Dictionary defines questions like these as a special case. These questions are “not intended to elicit an answer but asked for rhetorical effect”. Further, questions such as *Hmm?* or *Huh?* are utterances which are commonly used as questions in and outside of the classroom and are rather noises than words. Using therefore the term ‘utterance’ instead of ‘sentence, phrase, or word’ in the definition is a broader term but still narrow enough to make the focus of this study clear.

To summarize, as also rhetorical questions and sounds are used as questions in and also outside the classroom, the definition by the Mirriam Webster Dictionary is slightly adapted for the purpose of this thesis: In this paper, a question is any utterance that asks for information, tests knowledge or has a rhetorical effect.

As this study also focuses on learners’ responses to questions, what is considered as a response needs to be discussed as well. Brock (1986), Shomoosi (2004), Siposova (2007), Qashoa (2013), Al-Farsi (2014) as well as Youngju and Kinzie (2012) all analyzed responses to teacher questions in their studies. Interestingly, out of these researchers, only Brock (1986: 52) defines what she considers as a response:

For the purpose of this study, the response was considered as only that turn immediately following (and responding to) the teacher’s turn containing the question; once the teacher spoke again or another student spoke, the response was considered to have ended.

Using this definition clearly has advantages and disadvantages. An argument in favor of considering only the turn immediately following a question as a response is that the analysis of the collected data is less subjective. Only the response immediately following the question asked by the teacher is seen as the response

and all other utterances by learners are ignored. This is reasonable as other turns that follow might be a statement already concerned with a different topic. Moreover, it could also be less of a reaction to what the teacher asked but rather a comment on what other students have responded to the teacher's question before.

On the other hand, when teachers ask a general question, for example, *Would you like to visit Dubai?* (Transcript 6), several learners may raise their hands and two or three learners respond to the question. In this case, the statement of the third student responding is as much of a response to the teacher's question as the one of the first student.

In this study, a response was considered as that turn that responded to a teacher's question. This definition may increase the amount of subjectivity needed by the researcher when analyzing the collected data. However, the lessons were recorded on video and also personally observed, which made it easier for the researcher to determine which responses are indeed reactions to the teacher's question.

Finally, the definitions used for the different key terms in the combined model outlined in the previous section and used in this study are presented in Table 8:

Table 8 Term definitions used in this study

question	Any utterance that asks for information, tests knowledge or has a rhetorical effect.
response	A turn that responds to a teacher's question.
open questions	Those questions that have various acceptable answers.
closed questions	Those questions that have one or a limited number of acceptable answers.
referential questions	Questions to which the teacher does not know the answer.
display questions	Questions to which a teacher already knows the answer.
comprehension check	Questions that check comprehension.
confirmation check	Questions that ask for confirmation.

clarification request	Questions that ask for clarification.
rhetorical question	Questions that do not expect an answer and are asked for a rhetorical effect.
expressive question	Questions that convey information on attitude.
social question	Questions that exert some authority or maintain control of the discourse.

As can be seen in Table 8, the definitions used for the terms ‘question’ and ‘response’ are those that have been formulated after a consultation of the literature and the review of studies with a similar focus. The definitions of the terms referential question, display question, comprehension check, confirmation check, clarification request and rhetorical question are those provided by Long and Sato (1983) and thus the original definitions for these question types (see section 3.4). The categories social question, open question and closed question were adopted from Barnes’ (1969) model. As stated earlier in section 3.6, the distinction between open and closed questions is slightly problematic and different interpretations exist. As this study aims to combine Barnes’ (1969) and Long and Sato’s (1983) models, an attempt was made to use their definitions as well. However, with the category of ‘closed’ questions as defined by Barnes (1969), some problems existed which is why a revision of the category has been attempted.

In section 3.2, it has been stated that Barnes (1969 quoted in Ellis 1994: 587) defines closed questions as those that “are framed with only one acceptable answer in mind” and open questions are those that “permit a number of different acceptable answers”. However, Dalton-Puffer (2007:97) stresses that closed questions are not only those that can be answered with ‘yes’ or ‘no’ or ‘true’ and ‘false’ (and thus have one acceptable answer as Barnes states) but also where one of a limited number of options has to be chosen by the questioned person. This extension of the definition is necessary when considering a question such as *Which do you like better: cats or dogs?* This question does not allow only one answer but two possible answers but still restricts the learner. These questions where it is arguable whether they are open or closed might be a reason why Dalton-Puffer (2007: 96) adds that the categories ‘open’ and ‘closed’ are not only about whether one or several answers are possible but about the “amount of built-in freedom or scope which the questioner gives the respondent for her/his answer”. For instance,

the question *Which do you prefer: dogs or cats?* restricts the learners in the number of possible answers (i.e. it reduces the amount of ‘built-in freedom’) and is therefore a closed question whereas the question *Which book did you like best?* has several possible answers and is therefore open.

The definition used for closed questions in this study still adheres to Barnes’ (1969) original idea as the categories ‘open’ and ‘closed’ are defined depending on the number of possible answers and not on the length of the answers the questions trigger since the latter approach is slightly more problematic (see section 3.6). However, the definitions of closed questions as ‘those that have one acceptable answer’ has been extended with Dalton-Puffer’s (2007: 97) remark as this makes it possible to also clearly categorize questions such as *Which do you prefer: dogs or cats?* or *Which words signal the present tense?* as closed since these only have a limited number of possible answers. A closed question is therefore one that has ‘one or a limited number of acceptable answers’. The revision of the category ‘closed’ adds clarity to the definitions by adding the idea that those questions can be described as ‘closed’ which do not have a “built-in freedom” (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 96). However, the definition of ‘closed’ still focuses on the nature and not the length of the answers, as Barnes (1969) did.

Since the categories open and closed as well as referential and display were combined in the taxonomy used in this study (see section 4.1.1), the definitions used for these categories are listed in Table 9:

Table 9 Term definitions for OD, CD, OR and CR questions used in this study

OD question	A question that has various acceptable answers and to which the answer is already known by the teacher.
CD question	A question that has one or a limited number of acceptable answers and to which the answer is already known by the teacher.
OR question	A question that has various acceptable answers and to which the answer is not known by the teacher.
CR question	A question that has one or a limited number of acceptable answers and to which the answer is not known by the teacher.

As can be seen in Table 9, the definitions used for the categories of OD, CD, OR and CR questions are the original definitions provided by Long and Sato (1983) combined with the adaption of Barnes' (1969) definitions.

4.2 Research questions

The study conducted for this thesis is guided by three research questions. First, the differences in the occurrence of the question types in an Austrian EFL classroom are analyzed. Second, the study investigates whether there are differences in the length of the learners' responses to the questions the teacher asks. Finally, it provides an insight in the opinions of both teacher and learners on the questions the teacher asks in class. In what follows, these three research questions are discussed in more detail. Moreover, an explanation is provided of why there was no additional research question focusing on the quality of learner's responses.

The first research question is concerned with the distribution of the four question categories in an EFL classroom. The aim is to find out how the question types are distributed in class and whether there is a preference of the teacher for one type noticeable. Besides an analysis of the general distribution of all ten types, specifically Group 1 questions are analyzed. Moreover, the outcome is compared to the findings of other researchers to find out what differences and similarities exist in the distribution of the questions. Also each individual lesson is analyzed. The aim here is to investigate the relationship between a lesson's content and the question types most often used by the teacher. With this research question, the focus is on quantity solely at first as this type of research "involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods" (Dörnyei 2007: 24).

The notion that "[t]he type of question that the teacher asks affects the kind of response that the students produce" (Tsui 1995: 23) is not new. In the literature, researchers often describe referential questions as more preferable to be used in the classroom than display questions. One common reason provided is that referential questions trigger longer responses than display questions (Caudron 1988: 127,173; Lynch 1996: 109; Yang 2006: 10; Walsh 2011: 129). This assumption is described more closely by Walsh (2011: 12) who states that "[r]esponses [to DQs] tend to be short, simple, restricted, often comprising one or two words". In contrast, RQs "promote discussion and debate, engage learners and produce longer, more complex responses" (Walsh 2011: 12). This may be due to

the fact that with RQs, “learners have more interactional space and freedom in both what they say and when they say it” (Walsh 2011: 13). The fact that this oversimplification of considering RQs as good and DQs as bad questions is a problematic one and that RQs do not necessarily trigger longer responses will be addressed again in section 5.2 and 5.4.

However, considering these arguments in favor of RQs presented by researchers, longer learner responses seem especially worthwhile in an output and fluency-oriented classroom. Questions that trigger longer responses could be seen as preferable here as the students get to practice their speaking and communication skills. Due to this notion, it has been decided to focus on the length of the learners’ responses to each of the four question types in the second research question. The aim is to find out whether the common assumptions about the length of a response to a specific question type are in fact correct. Noteworthy is here that most researchers only wrote about display and referential questions in general so far but did not further subdivide into OD, OR, CD and CR questions. The categories closed and open could also affect the length of a learner’s response, which is why specific attention will be put on these categories. In order to measure the length of a response, the word number of each response to a Group 1 question was counted. Also hesitation markers such as ‘ehm’ and ‘uh’ occurred, which are an “inherent characteristic of spontaneous conversation” (Gilquin 2008: 122). As these markers occur in conversation outside of the classroom as well and serve a pragmatic function (Gilquin 2008: 121), they were counted to the word number as well.

Finally, the third research question adds a qualitative component to the study by focusing on the opinions learners and teachers have about classroom questions. Qualitative research “involves data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analysed primarily by non-statistical methods” (Dörnyei 2007: 24). The qualitative method chosen was that of stimulated recall sessions, also known as retrospective interviews (Gass and Mackey 2000: xi) and in the following referred to as SR sessions. The result is a mixed method approach as both qualitative and quantitative research methods are combined. The usage of video sequences should activate the memory of the participants and enrich the data collected as both teachers and learners re-experience specific classroom situations and can reflect on their behavior and thoughts in these.

Previously, it has been stated that this thesis aims to construct a model that is, in contrast to more complex taxonomies, easy in its application. It could be

argued that an addition of SR sessions makes the process more complicated in this study which is why this issue needs to be discussed. When constructing this new taxonomy, the idea was not that these reflective interviews are a necessity when using the combined model. These interviews primarily serve as an addition to the model in this study to determine whether the data gathered in the SR sessions shows fits with the other numerical data. This could speak in favor or against the combined model described in section 4.1 and its possible usage in research on classroom discourse.

Discussing the reasons for focusing on the participants' opinions and the length of learner's responses and not on the quality of responses is important as well. Many studies mention that responses to RQs are not only longer but "more complicated" (Walsh 2011: 12) than those to DQs and are therefore higher in quality. Before looking at the problems that occur when evaluating the quality of spoken responses, a review of several studies on teacher questions will be useful. Here, the aim is to obtain an idea of the common practices which have been applied by other researchers.

When reviewing nineteen studies on teacher questions in EFL or CLIL classes performed between 1983 and 2014, the aim was to find out whether these studies also focus on the length (as done in this study) and/or on the quality of students' responses. A variety of different studies was selected and thus not solely those which have a focus on DQs and RQs or OQs and CQs as the study in this thesis has. Besides two studies by Long and Sato (1983) and Brock (1986), which are commonly discussed and therefore also integrated in this review, the other studies analyzed all took place after 2000 and are thus more recent.

Depending on whether the studies focus on the length and/or quality of students' responses, an x (×) or a check mark (✓) was entered in the corresponding box next to the researchers. What needs to be added is that these symbols are not supposed to provide a comment on the quality of a specific study. Thus, two x marks do not indicate that a study was not profound. All of the studies reviewed in Table 10 have a focus on classroom questions and possibly also other areas, for instance, modifications techniques or syntactic structure of questions. However, as these areas are not at the center of attention in this study, these were not listed in the table. The review should only help to gain a better understanding of the amount of research done so far on learners' responses to teachers' questions in the EFL classroom, independently of the question taxonomy applied. Nineteen studies are illustrated in Table 10 and enumerated by their publication year:

Table 10 Review of studies focusing on teachers' question between 1983 and 2014

	researchers	year of publication	focus on the length of students' responses	focus on the quality of students' responses
1	Long and Sato	1983	x	x
2	Brock	1986	✓	✓
3	McCormick and Donato	2000	x	x
4	Boaler et al.	2004	x	x
5	Shomoosi	2004	✓	x
6	Ho	2005	x	x
7	Fakeye	2007	x	x
8	Siposova	2007	x	✓
9	Albergaria-Almeidaa	2010a	x	x
10	Yang	2010	✓	x
11	Hamiloglu and Temiz	2012	x	x
12	Farahian and Rezaee	2012	✓	x
13	Meng and Zhao	2012	x	x
14	Shakibafar and Bajalan	2012	x	x
15	Youngju and Kinzie	2012	x	✓
16	Arman and Farzad	2013	x	x
17	Pham and Hamid	2013	x	x
18	Qashoa	2013	✓	x
19	Al-Farsi	2014	✓	x

As can be seen in Table 10, only six out of the nineteen studies focus on the length or learners' responses, which is at the center of attention in this study. Of course, there are a variety of other studies focusing on teacher questions but this brief overview seems to suggest that learners' responses to teacher questions are in general a less well-examined area. Interestingly, the two most recent studies by Qashoa (2013) and Al-Farsi (2014) both focus on the length of the learners' responses, which could indicate a growing interest in this area. When it comes to

quality, even fewer studies have a focus on this area as only three out of nineteen studies paid attention to the quality of learners' responses. Before discussing some possible reasons why this research area is less examined, the approaches taken by these three researchers to analyze quality is briefly discussed.

Brock (1986) analyzed quality in terms of the syntactic complexity of learners' responses. Siposova (2007: 35) arguments strongly in favor of RQs as according to her, learners are not only "passive responders to teacher's questions" and can "practice taking the initiative in speaking". Her approach is different from Brock's (1986) as she looks at quality from the participants' point of view. The idea that the participants' opinions are of considerable importance is also embraced in this study when the learners' and the teacher's opinions on classroom questions are discussed in the SR sessions. Youngju and Kinzie (2012) analyzed the quality of responses, again using a different approach than Brock (1986) and Siposova (2007), namely by looking at vocabulary and syntax. Although Youngju and Kinzie (2012) write in favor of RQs, as far as the syntactic features of learners' responses are concerned, no real information on how the researchers analyzed the responses is given in the article. This brief review shows that various opinions exist on how the quality of a response can be determined. This diversity in defining and testing quality of responses could be one reason why only three out of nineteen studies focused on the quality of learner's responses.

Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 139-164) look at the issue of quality in more detail and state that the concept of quality encompasses aspects of accuracy, complexity as well as fluency. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 150, 153-154, 157) list 22 ways of measuring these three areas in spoken language which have been presented by various researchers. The fact that, for instance, the eight criteria that show the complexity of a response were formulated by eight different researchers indicates again that researchers are not always concordant on what is considered as a crucial characteristic that shows accuracy, complexity or fluency.

In what follows, the three areas of accuracy, complexity and fluency as indicators for quality are discussed and reasons presented why these were not selected as a way of assessing quality in this study. Specifically when looking at accuracy, it is questionable whether an analysis of the accuracy of learners' responses is worthwhile. Some factors that are listed by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 150) are, for example, the number of errors or the usage of target vocabulary by the learner as an indicator of high accuracy. Analyzing these features in learners' responses would help to obtain an insight in how accurate the

response is on its own but this could have more to do with the language skills of the individual learners themselves and not with the type of question asked by the teacher. Clearly, this argument can also be brought against analyzing the length of a learner's response. However, some questions might force the learner to produce a longer response as they simply cannot be answered with a short response. In the case of accuracy, however, it seems less likely that questions can force the learner to produce a more accurate response. An exception might be questions such as *Can you rephrase that?* which particularly ask for more accuracy. Thus, analyzing accuracy to measure the quality of responses caused by a specific question may not be very useful, especially as the participants are intermediate language learners.

Complexity is "the extent to which learners produce elaborate language" (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 139) and features are, for instance, the number of subordinates or the use of different verb forms (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 153). Complexity as a feature of quality could also be strongly related to the individual learners' skills and less to the teacher's questions.

Finally, the third characteristic of quality presented by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 139) is fluency. Questions asked by the teacher in the EFL classroom should "have an impact on students' interaction [...] and communication" (Qashoa 2013: 56) and thus trigger output production. The idea behind this quote is a focus on fluency rather than the accuracy or complexity of a response. Clearly, it therefore is preferable to pay particular attention to fluency when analyzing learners' responses. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 139) state that fluency "is the production of language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation" and list eight areas that can be analyzed to obtain an insight in the fluency a learner has acquired. Among these characteristics are the length and number of pauses in a response or the length of the response itself (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 157). As far as the latter is concerned, this will be analyzed in this study as well. Other characteristics listed by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 157) belong to the area of hesitation phenomena such as repetitions or reformulations. Again, it can be argued that these characteristics have to do with the learners' skills and that with an analysis of questions in the EFL classroom, the focus should be more on the opportunities learners receive to talk and practice their skills rather than how complex or accurate their responses already are.

To conclude, there are indeed various ways to measure the quality of a response. The review of several studies and the information presented by Ellis and

Barkhuizen (2005: 150, 153-154, 157) on various ways how quality can be analyzed shows the complexity of this issue and that researchers are not always concordant on what is considered as a crucial characteristic that helps to determine the quality of a response. Moreover, it seems that most of the characteristics Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 150, 153-154, 157) mention, such as the vocabulary used or the syntactical complexity, have more to do with the learners' language competence and not with the question asked by the teacher. Indeed, "[f]or many SLA researchers the goal of SLA is the description and explanation of SL learners' competence and how this develops over time" (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 5) and learner competence is also a focus of this study. With a focus on the response length rather than quality of the response, this study investigates whether certain questions trigger longer responses. The idea behind this focus is also that learners can work on areas such as accuracy, complexity and fluency indirectly when they answer questions of certain categories as these provide opportunities for longer speech production. Clearly, longer responses are also related to individual differences between learners and not solely to the question asked itself but the aim of the study described in this thesis is more to detect certain tendencies of specific questions to trigger longer responses.

Although response length with a detailed analysis of pause rate or pause length is often regarded as a marker of quality (Ellis and Barkhuizen 2005: 157), this will not be the case in this study. By analyzing the length of a response, the aim is rather to find out what question types tend to trigger extended learner-talking time. Rather than assessing the accuracy or complexity and to a great extent also the fluency of learners' responses, this study chose to look at the length of responses as the participants are learning English as a second language on the level B1 and the focus should be less on how advanced their skills are but whether they can practice their speaking skills in teacher-learner interaction. However, what should be mentioned is that although this study does not focus on the quality of the learners' responses, a qualitative method is still integrated in the study with the SR sessions.

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Context

The data was collected in an AHS in Lower Austria. Six lessons were observed in a 6th grade EFL classroom. As the class is divided in two groups, there were only eight female and seven male learners present during the lessons. All lessons took place over the course of two weeks and were taught by the same teacher, a female with six years of teaching experience. The lessons dealt with one unit from the textbook used in class (Gateway B1+ by Spencer 2011) and thus focused on one topic, namely 'city life'. Therefore, these lessons can be regarded as representative for the common practices in class as over the course of one unit, various tasks and practices such as reading, listening and speaking, which are commonly used in the EFL classroom, occurred.

4.3.2 Lesson materials

Apart from the textbook used in class, the teacher also provided handouts from other resources and made use of the smart board, blackboard, laptop and projector in class. All the materials used, such as video clips and handouts, were concerned with the topic 'city life'. Selected topics were, for instance, cities the learners would like to visit, living in Dubai or presenting tourist information about London to the class. Information on the six EFL lessons and a detailed description of the lessons' content is attached in the form of narrative descriptions in appendix A.

4.3.3 Methods for data collection

As stated earlier, for research questions 1 and 2, a quantitative method was chosen as the lesson recordings were used to extract numerical data. On the basis of the definitions listed in Table 8 and Table 9, all questions and their responses were identified and transcribed from the audio data using the transcription conventions of the Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English (2007). The qualitative method used for research question 3 is called retrospective interview or stimulated recall (SR). Since this method is rather complex, it is discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

In SR sessions, interviewees "verbalize their thoughts after they have performed a task or mental operation" (Dörnyei 2007: 148). In order to activate memories, SR sessions use some form of stimulus. The underlying idea is that the

stimulus “reactivate[s] or refresh[es] recollection of cognitive processes so that they can be accurately recalled and verbalized” (Gass and Mackey 2000: 53). For the SR sessions in this study, eight sequences were selected from the video data in which questions from the teacher and corresponding responses of the learners occurred. These were then played to the teacher as well as to six learners, three female and three male students, from the observed class. The aim was to gain an insight in what the learners and teachers thought in these particular situations, what they think about the questions that occurred, the questioning techniques usually applied in class and also what level of motivation the learners had or the teacher believed her students to have in relation to a specific question.

The usage of SR sessions in classroom research has a variety of advantages. One argument in favor of SR sessions is that it uncovers “processes that are not evident through simple observation” (Gass and Mackey 2000: 20). SR is a method where the reflection of mental processes leads to higher engagement of participants (Gass and Mackey 2000: 170). In contrast, questionnaires, which are also a common practice in classroom analysis, usually give a smaller insight in the exact nature of issues (Gass and Mackey 2000: 170). However, the participants’ responses are highly subjective and possibly require more interpretation from the researcher than the data gained from questionnaires.

In relation to the issue of subjectivity, Gass and Mackey (2000: 171) stress that SR sessions serve to “add flesh to the bones”, meaning that the data gained from SR add to other quantitative data collected. Thus, the data collected from SR sessions does not stand on its own, it is supposed to add information to other numerical data, which is why subjectivity is less of an issue. In order for this method to be successful, researchers list several aspects that need to be adhered. In what follows, the process of choosing video sequences, making a plan and implementing the sessions is briefly illustrated and also explanations are provided for the approaches taken.

The SR method chosen in this study is the so called ‘delayed recall’ as the interviews occurred after the performance of the interviewees (Dörnyei 2007: 50). The learners were not informed about the SR sessions that would follow the recording of the six lessons. This is also what Dörnyei (2007: 149) suggests, as the learners should not alter their behavior because of possible interviews afterwards. Due to the fact that the SR sessions were on a voluntary basis, the learners could decide on their own whether they wanted to take part in the retrospective interviews.

Due to the fact that the school lessons were 50 minutes long, each SR session could not last longer than this amount of time. Thus, the number of video sequences which were shown to the participants as a stimulus needed to be small so that the participants are free to discuss a specific question in more or less detail without being under time pressure. Nevertheless, the sequences needed to be well chosen and should be rich in both stimulus and information (Dörnyei 2007: 50). In the eight sequences chosen, different question types occurred which should give an overview of the types of questions used by the teacher. On this basis, the participants were supposed to be able to reflect on the questions that occur in class.

Another important decision concerns the structure of the SR sessions, as these can be either highly or barely structured. In this study, three SR sessions were held, each having a length of approximately 50 minutes. One was held with the teacher, the second with three male learners from the observed class and the third with three female learners. The sessions were structured in the sense that the instruction in the beginning as well as all questions asked after each sequence were the same and read to all participants in order for the data collected in the three sessions to be comparable (Gass and Mackey 2000: 58).

Another principle of SR sessions provided by Dörnyei (2007: 150) is that the questions in these sessions should ask for “information [...] rather than explanations or interpretations”. Each sequence was followed by the same six questions. The first two were *What comes to mind when you think of this situation?* and *What were you thinking when your teacher asked this question?*, which both ask for information. The next questions were *Do you feel inclined to answer?* and *Why do you (not) answer?*, which ask for an explanation rather than information. The final two questions were *Do such questions occur often?* and *Why do you think does your teacher ask this?*, of which the former can be seen as asking for information but the latter indeed asks for interpretation. As can be seen, the questions used in this study indeed required explanations and interpretations as well and do not solely ask the participants for information. Reasons for including also questions that ask for explanation and interpretation were to gain an insight in the ideas learners have and to see if the reasons why the teacher asks a specific question or asks in a specific way vary from the ones learners believe to be the reasons.

Nevertheless, the sessions were not entirely highly structured. The participants had relative freedom as the questions asked were all open-ended

(Gass and Mackey 2000: 52) which allowed them “to specify what they verbalize, when they verbalize it, and how much they verbalize” (Gass and Mackey 2000: 89). The participants were also not forced to provide an answer. If they perceived they were not able to answer one or more of the questions, the session continued to the next sequence.

A last principle taken into consideration when it comes to structure was the issue of researcher interference. In order to reduce the influence of the researcher on the participants, they “should not give concrete reactions to participants’ responses”, meaning that “backchanneling or non-responses are preferable” (Gass and Mackey 2000: 60) as responses to the interviewees’ statements. This method was also applied in this study by not reacting at all or using words such as ‘mhm’ or ‘okay’ to react to participants’ utterances.

Another often described principle of SR sessions is that participants should not perceive the tasks as unnatural (Gass and Mackey 2000: 62). This principle and the one presented before seem to contradict each other. Clearly, the idea of minimal reaction on the part of the interviewer can be highly unnatural in comparison to interaction outside of the classroom. Hedge (2000: 271) notes that phrases such as *Right* or *I see* are crucial to keep a conversation going. Thus, it could be the case that participants feel reluctant to continue talking when such phrases on the part of the researcher are missing. When the researcher only provides minimal feedback, participants could feel uncomfortable. This can be prevented when the interviewees are told that in order to reduce the researcher’s influence on them, comments to their statements will be reduced to minimal responses, as was done in this study. Specifically for learners, who probably have never participated in a retrospective interview, this new situation can be challenging and also intimidating when they are not informed about the procedure in detail.

The three SR sessions were held on two days and took place in a separate room during English lessons. The session with the teacher was also held in a separate room. The retrospective interviews were again recorded on camera. As Dörnyei (2007: 150) suggests, the SR sessions were held in the native language of the learners, which is German, as it is easier for the learners to communicate and express their thoughts in their L1 than in their L2 English, which is at the level of B1. As far as the SR session with the teacher is concerned, it was also held in German. This decision has not to do with the English skills of the teacher but with the fact that comparisons between the teacher’s and the learners’ responses are

easier to draw when the sessions are held in the same language as also similarities in the wording can be taken into consideration when analyzing the data.

Usually, the interval between observation and SR session should be as short as possible. Unfortunately, the SR sessions in this study were held one week after the last lesson was recorded. Interviews could not be conducted earlier as the class had an exam. Although there was a gap of one week, the participants were most of the time able to remember the exact situations which are shown in the sequences. If this was not the case, the participants could also state that they cannot remember the situation and thus are not able to comment on the stimulus. As far as the latter case is concerned, this seldom was the case.

To summarize the discussion of the research questions in this section, for this survey, a mixed method approach has been chosen. In Figure 2, this mixing of methods also known as 'methodological triangulation' (Dörnyei 2007: 42) is illustrated:

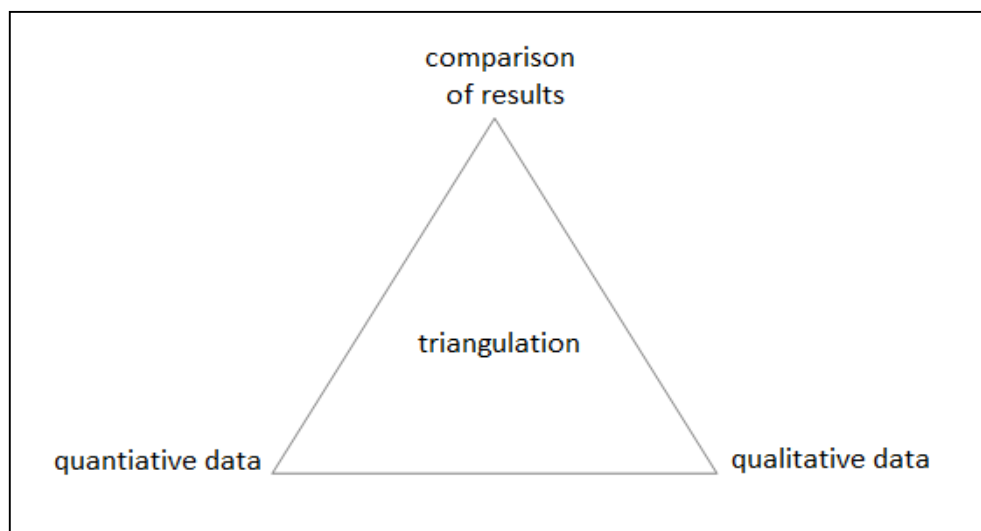


Figure 2 Methodological triangulation

As can be seen in Figure 2, the research design aims to combine three areas: qualitative data collection, quantitative data collection and a comparison of the gained data. This aims to “[reduce] the chance of systematic bias” (Dörnyei 2007: 61). A strong argument for triangulation is that “the strengths of one method can be used to overcome weaknesses of another method” (Dörnyei 2007: 45).

In addition, the integration of a quantitative method in the form of SR sessions also has another beneficial effect. As “[w]ords can be used to add meaning to numbers” (Dörnyei 2007: 45), this triangulation contributes to the validity of the

collected data. The verbalized thoughts of the teacher and of several learners add to the numerical data. SR sessions “provide valuable information about some of the complex processes involved in learning second languages” (Gass and Mackey 2000: 132) and therefore can also shed light on a complex topic as classroom questions.

4.3.4 Implementation and analysis

First, two meetings were held with the teacher where the procedure of the study was discussed and dates for the class observation found. The teacher and the class were informed that the focus will be on classroom discourse but that the explicit focus will be explained after the observation so that the participants will not alter their behavior due to an awareness that the main interest is on the teacher’s questions and the students’ responses.

As stated earlier, six EFL lessons were recorded which were held in two different rooms. In order to keep the results clear and comparable, each learner received a number from one to fifteen and had an assigned seat in each room. Due to this method, the learners remained anonymous in the transcripts but when later analyzing and comparing the data, it is clear which responses are made by the same learner. In Figure 3 and Figure 4, the seating arrangements in room A and room B are illustrated:

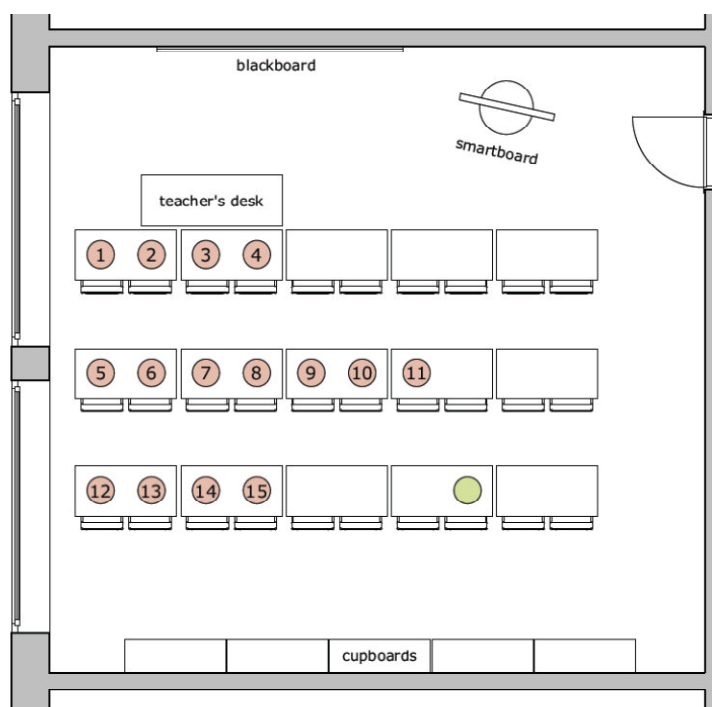


Figure 3 Seating arrangements in room A

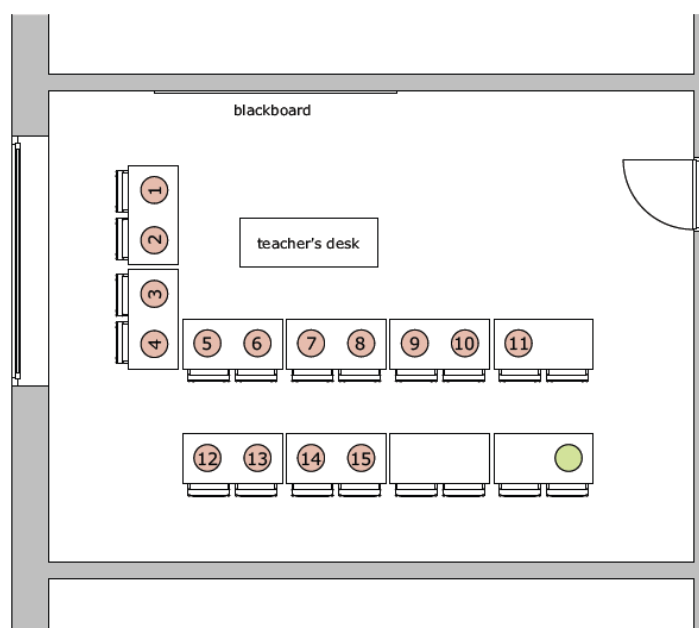


Figure 4 Seating arrangements in room B

The seating arrangements illustrated in Figure 3 and Figure 4 show the general arrangements in class as well as the seats taken by each learner. While the red circles represent one learner each along with their number, the green circle indicates the position of the researcher in each lesson.

The lessons were recorded with a CANON 600D camera. By using a wide-angle lens (Tokina 11-16mm f/2.8 ZOOM H4N), all learners were visible on the video files, which simplified the transcription process as each utterance could easily be assigned to the correct learner. Further, an additional microphone (Rode VideoMic Pro) has been attached to the camera with which even silent utterances could be recorded. A further audio recorder was positioned at the back of the classroom in case a response from a learner sitting in a back row was not audible on the video file. However, the recordings from the audio recorder were not necessary as the camera provided clear and audible recordings. For the SR sessions, the same camera and microphone were used.

Besides the audio and video recordings, notes on the content covered and materials used were made during the lesson by the researcher as an aid when transcribing the questions and their responses as well as when writing the narrative descriptions of the EFL lessons. The lesson transcripts only cover the teacher's question and the learners' responses as these are the focus of this study. Both the narrative descriptions and the transcripts from lesson 1 to 6 are attached in appendix A and B.

5. Findings and Discussion

In the following chapter, the data collected to answer the three research questions that guided this study is presented. The gathered data is illustrated, findings are discussed and conclusions drawn. Specific attention is paid to the effect the findings have on the EFL classroom as well as theoretical and practical considerations that result from these findings. The three research questions will be presented one by one with two subsections each, one on findings and one on the discussion of these. In the fourth and final section, the most interesting findings are summarized.

5.1 Research question 1

The first research question aims to find out how the ten question types and specifically the Group 1 questions, which result from a combination of Barnes' (1969) and Long and Sato's (1983) models presented in Table 7 (see section 4.1.1), are distributed in an Austrian EFL classroom. After a general analysis, the main focus is on questions that belong to the four question types of Group 1 and their distribution in general as well as in each of the six individual lessons. In the first subsection, the numerical data gathered is presented in the form of tables and figures.

In the second subsection, these findings are then discussed and analyzed. Comparisons to findings of other researchers are drawn. Further, insights gained on what these findings tell about the teacher's approach towards questions are discussed. It is also investigated whether common assumptions about the distribution of the different question types that can be found in the literature are true for this study.

5.1.1 Findings

First, the questions asked by the teacher in each of the six lessons were identified. Next, these questions were assigned to one of the ten categories of Group 1 to 4. The number of questions in each lesson as well as the distribution among the different types is represented in Table 11:

Table 11 Overview on the distribution of all questions asked in lesson 1 to 6 as well as the total results

	lesson 1	lesson 2	lesson 3	lesson 4	lesson 5	lesson 6	total
1.1 OD questions	1	5	3	1	0	2	12
1.2 CD questions	1	11	3	0	3	15	33
1.3 OR questions	6	6	5	2	8	4	31
1.4 CR questions	12	14	12	28	21	18	105
2.1 comprehension checks	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
2.2 clarification requests	1	0	3	0	1	2	7
2.3 confirmation checks	1	0	0	4	4	0	9
3.1 rhetorical questions	2	0	1	3	1	0	7
3.2 expressive questions	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4. social questions	3	1	1	3	2	3	13
total	29	37	28	41	40	44	219

As can be seen in Table 9, a total of 219 questions were asked in the six EFL lessons observed. This amounts to an average of 36.5 questions asked by the teacher in each lesson. The majority, namely 181 questions, belong to Group 1. 38 questions were assigned to the other three groups.

The teacher most commonly asked Group 1 questions, followed by social questions. Confirmation checks were the third biggest question type, followed by rhetorical questions and clarification requests. Comprehension checks rarely occurred and as far as expressive questions are concerned, none were found in the collected data.

The teacher asked 181 Group 1 questions, of which 45 questions are DQs and 136 are RQs. Thus, 75% are RQs and 25% DQs. The usage of a chi-square test in this study ($p < 0.05$, $df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 45.75$) showed that the teacher asked significantly more RQs than DQs.

To obtain a closer idea on the overall distribution of teacher questions among Group 1 to 4, the numerical data is given in the form of a pie chart in Figure 5:

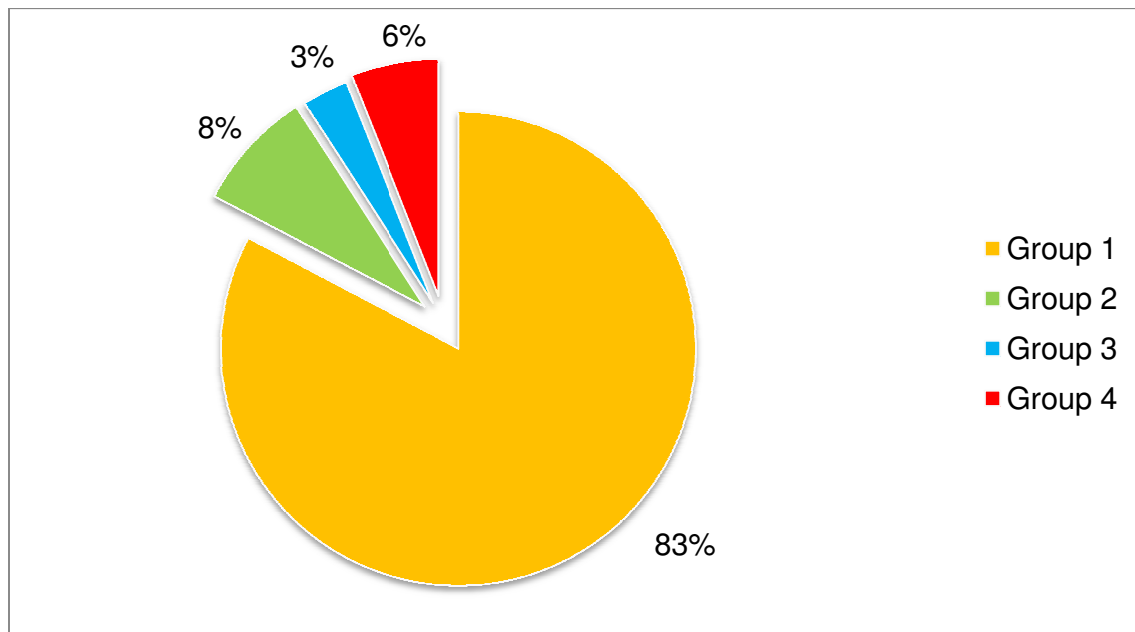


Figure 5 Number of questions belonging to Category 1 to 4 in percentages

As illustrated in Figure 5, 83% of all questions the teacher asked belong to Group 1 of the combined model. The second biggest question type are Group 2 questions, followed by Group 4 and Group 3.

As the main focus is on the questions that belong to Group 1, the subcategories of OD, CD, OR and CR questions are presented individually and all questions that belong to Group 2, 3 and 4 are presented together in Figure 6:

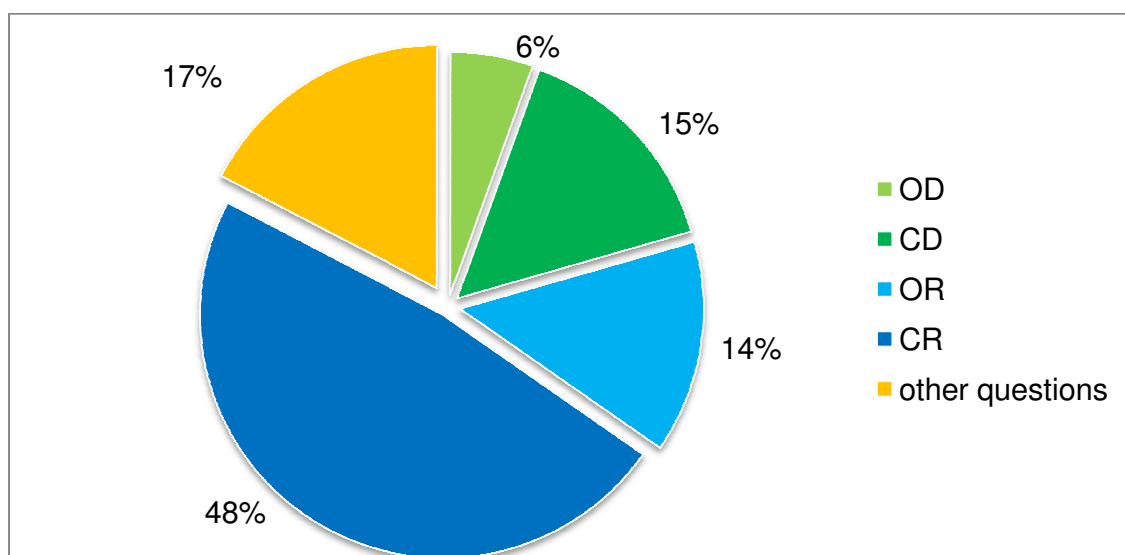


Figure 6 Distribution of OD, CD, OR, CR and other question types in class

As can be seen in Figure 6, the most commonly asked questions are CR questions, followed by questions of Group 2, 3 and 4. Almost as many OR as CD questions

were asked. OD question hardly occurred, only amounting to 6% of all teacher questions.

The distribution of the four Group 1 question types is illustrated in the form of a pie chart in Figure 7:

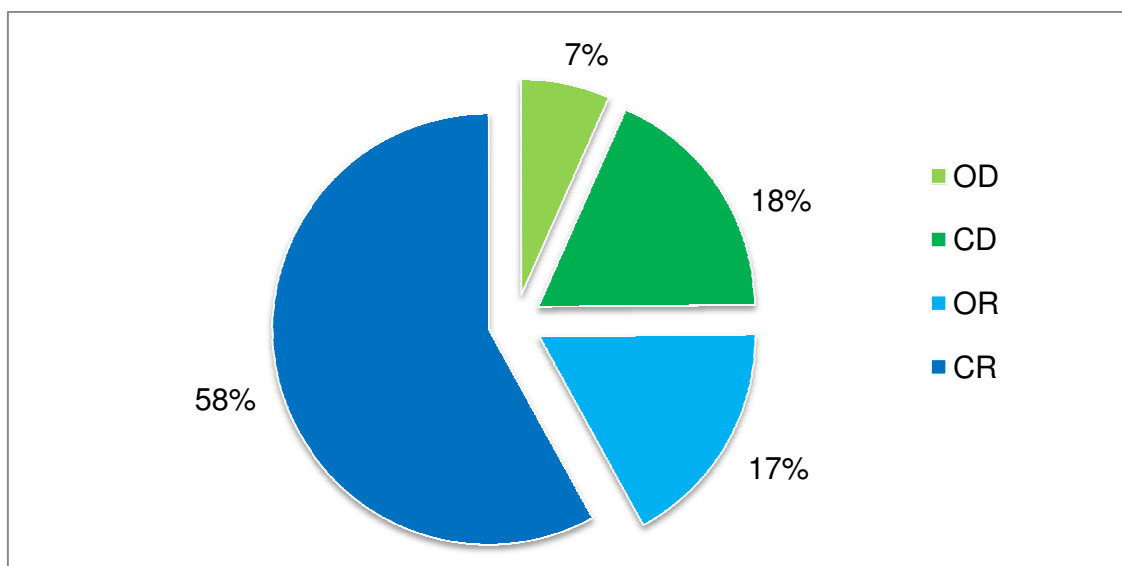


Figure 7 Distribution of the four question types inside of Group 1

As illustrated in Figure 7, more than half of all questions that belong to Group 1 are CR questions, namely 58%. Another 17% are OR questions. Display questions only account for a quarter of all Group 1 questions asked by the teacher, 18% being closed and 7% being open. The usage of a chi-square test ($p > 0.05$, $df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 0.28$) showed that these results are not significant.

The representation of the categories CD, OD, CR and OR in relation to the other question types in Figure 6 as well as the distribution of the Group 1 questions shown in Figure 7 illustrate the previously discussed issue that when assigning percentages to these question types, attention should be paid to whether the other categories are taken into consideration as well since this can change the distribution percentage-wise considerably. In the case of this study, three times as many RQs as DQs occurred, i.e. 62% are RQs and 21% are DQs on the whole, whereas 75% are RQs and 25% are DQs when analyzing only Group 1.

It is worthwhile to illustrate the distribution of Group 1 questions in each individual lesson as well to correlate the collected numerical data with the lessons' content and activities in the following discussion. This enables an investigation of the relationship between question type and task type. The number of OD, CD, OR and CR questions asked in each of the six lessons is represented in Figure 8:

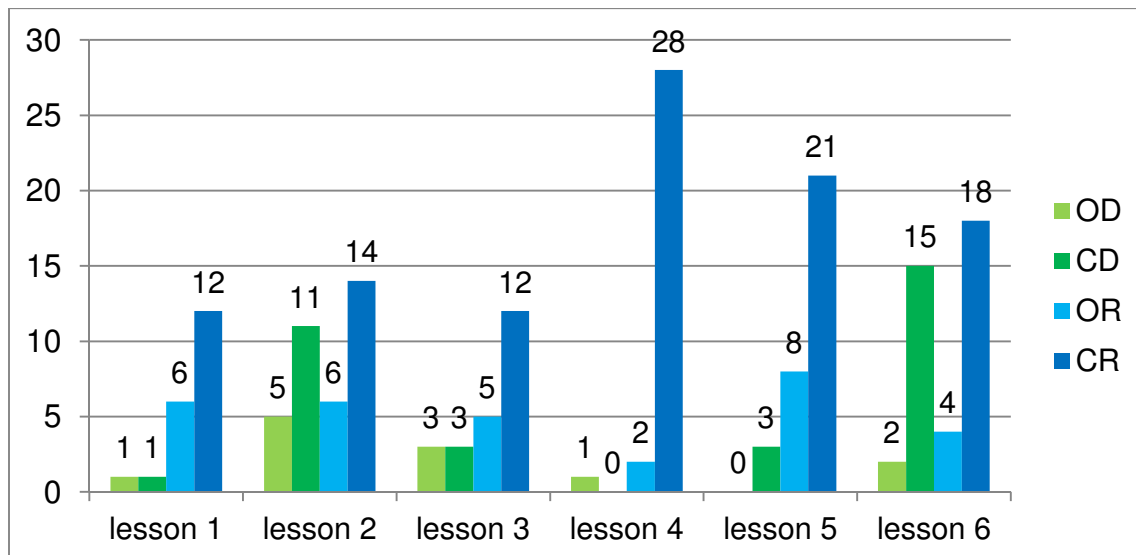


Figure 8 Number of OD, CD, OR and CR questions asked by the teacher in lesson 1 to 6

As can be seen in Figure 8, CR questions dominated in each of the six lessons. In lesson 4, even all Group 1 questions except for three asked by the teacher were CR questions. In the other lessons, CR questions did not outnumber the other types as heavily. The second biggest group are OR questions in lesson 1, 3, 4 and 5 and CD questions in lesson 2 and 6. Most of the OD questions occurred in lesson 2 but otherwise, these questions were hardly asked by the teacher. Interestingly, whereas RQs occurred in every lesson, this was not the case with DQs as in lesson 4 no CD questions and in lesson 5 no OD questions were asked.

5.1.2 Discussion

In the present subsection, the collected data in relation to research question 1 is discussed, interpreted and compared to findings of previous studies. Before turning to the main focus of this study and thus to the Group 1 question types, the other three categories and the questions that occurred in the collected data are discussed.

The classification of teacher questions presented in Table 11 also lists those questions that belong to Group 2, 3 and 4. Group 2 questions amounted to about 8% of all questions asked. As far as Group 3 questions are concerned, no expressive questions but several rhetorical questions occurred. As stated earlier, *It's a great day, isn't it?* would be an example of an expressive question. Whether a teacher uses these questions or rather declarative sentences instead to convey information about their attitude clearly is related to the teacher's own preferences

and personality and the same reasoning can be applied to rhetorical questions. This assumption is supported when looking at the findings of Long and Sato (1983). These researchers observed six lessons by six different teachers. Whereas in the lessons of three teachers no expressive questions occurred, one, two and even five expressive questions occurred in each of the lessons of the other three teachers observed (Long and Sato 1983: 277). The fact that preferences and personality play a crucial role will be further discussed in section 5.3.

Another interesting finding is that in contrast to Long and Sato's (1983) original study, where no social questions were found, 13 of these questions occurred in this study. For instance, *S15, can you comment or ask something?* (Transcript 5) or *S11, could you find some way to- like an eraser?* (Transcript 6) were some of these questions asked by the teacher. Both these questions clearly "influence student behavior by means of control or appeal" (Ellis 1994: 587) and are therefore social questions. The teacher could have also phrased these utterances in the form of an imperative sentence by saying *Please comment or ask something* or *Go and find an eraser*. Both formulations presented here serve as commands, either phrased in an interrogative form or in a declarative form. These social questions are indirect speech acts, both serving the function to command or request but having different forms. Unfortunately, Long and Sato (1983) do not further elaborate on the issue of missing social questions in their study and it remains uncertain whether requests or commands were simply not formulated as questions but, for instance, as imperative sentence that still fulfilled the function of commanding. As far as this study is concerned, the teacher indeed made use of various social questions. Personal preferences but also politeness could be two possible reasons for choosing the interrogative form.

Previously, reasons for choosing to also integrate Group 2 to 4 questions in the analysis, although the main focus is on Group 1, have been provided. Considering the other question types in the analysis as well can prevent mistakes when assigning questions to a certain category. This is supported when looking at some examples from the collected data. Especially social questions might be wrongly assigned to the category of RQs. For instance, the question *What about the comments on 'Virgins'?* (Transcript 3), which is again an indirect speech act. It rather served to get the learners to hand in their homework than asked for information which is not known by the teacher. Therefore, this question is a social and not a referential question.

After this discussion and analysis of the three other question types, the focus is on Category 1. First, DQs and RQs are discussed separately and the findings are compared to those of other researchers. Next, the OD, CD, OR and CR questions are closer examined.

In this study, 21% of all questions are DQs and 62% RQs. An overview on the distribution of DQs and RQs in seven other studies is given in Table 12:

Table 12 Distribution of DQs and RQs in seven studies

researchers	year of publication	DQs in percentages	RQs in percentages
Long and Sato	1983	79	21
Shomoosi	2004	82	18
Yang	2006	20	80
Fakeye	2007	85	15
Behnam and Pouriran	2009	51.60	48.40
Qashoa	2013	62	38
Al-Farsi	2014	95	5

As can be seen in Table 12, in five of these seven studies, more DQs than RQs occurred. Only Yang (2006) found considerably more RQs than DQs. As far as Behnam and Pouriran's (2009) study is concerned, there were almost as many DQs as RQs although there were slightly more teacher questions that belonged to the former type. In the study described in this thesis, 75% of all Group 1 questions were RQs and 25% were DQs. Thus, the teacher asked three times as many RQs than DQs. Unfortunately, only Shomoosi (2004: 99) ($p < 0.05$, $df = 1$, no value χ^2 value given) and Long and Sato (1983: 277) ($p < 0.0005$, $df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 199.35$) used a chi-square test and found that teachers asked significantly more DQs than RQs. The usage of a chi-square test in the study conducted for this thesis showed a quite different result as the teacher asked significantly more RQs than DQs (see section 5.1.1).

In what follows, two possible reasons for this outcome are discussed: the language level of the learners and the observed teachers. However, there are certainly other factors such as the nature of the classroom, the content and activities as well as the approach to teaching which could have had an effect on the outcome.

One reason for the prominence of RQs in this study in comparison to other studies can be differences that exist on the language level of the learners that attended the classes observed. Information on the language level of the learners in the seven studies mentioned above is illustrated in Table 13:

Table 13 Additional information on the learners' language levels in seven studies focusing on DQs and RQs

researchers	year of publication	language level of the learners
Long and Sato	1983	elementary
Shomoosi	2004	upper-intermediate
Yang	2006	intermediate
Fakeye	2007	various levels
Behnam and Pouriran	2009	intermediate
Qashoa	2013	intermediate/upper-intermediate
Al-Farsi	2014	elementary

As can be seen in Table 13, the language levels of the learners in the different studies vary between elementary and upper-intermediate. Long and Sato (1983) and Al-Farsi (2014) both analyzed teacher questions in classes where learners had an elementary language level and both found considerably more DQs than RQs. Yang (2006) and Behnam and Pouriran (2009), who found more RQs than DQs, focused on learners at an intermediate language level and thus a higher level. Shomoosi (2004) and Qashoa (2013) analyzed classes with an upper-intermediate or almost upper-intermediate language level. However, Shomoosi (2004) found only slightly more DQs than Long and Sato (1983), in comparison to Qashoa (2013), whose findings were less straightforward. Fakeye (2007) analyzed twenty different teachers with classes of various levels but only provided overall results, which is why his findings cannot be taken into account here. Although some researchers such as Shu (2014: 10) and Fakeye (2007: 130) are of the opinion that the higher the level of the learners, the more RQs are asked by the teacher, such a relationship was not found in all studies. For instance, Long and Sato (1983) and Al-Farsi (2014) both observed learners with an elementary language level and

found more DQs than RQs which also Shomoosi (2004) did, who analyzed upper-intermediate learners.

Another possible reason for a different outcome than in most other studies can be the teachers that were observed. In Table 14, information on the number of teachers and lessons observed in each study is illustrated:

Table 14 Additional information on the number of lessons and teachers observed in seven studies focusing on DQs and RQs

researchers	year of publication	number of lessons observed	number of teachers
Long and Sato	1983	6 lessons	6 teachers
Shomoosi	2004	5 lessons	5 teachers
Yang	2006	2 lessons	2 teachers
Fakeye	2007	- (timeframe: 6 weeks)	20 teachers
Behnam and Pouriran	2009	6 lessons	6 teachers
Qashoa	2013	3 lessons	3 teachers
Al-Farsi	2014	4 lessons	4 teachers

As can be seen in Table 14, except for Fakeye's (2007) study, where no information on the exact number of observed lessons is provided, all other researchers analyzed one lesson for each teacher they observed. On the one hand, this method allows the researchers to cover a wide range of teachers and different questioning behaviors. On the other hand, the results on which question types are most commonly asked do allow only limited conclusions on the individual teachers' preferences to be drawn as it could be argued that one observed lesson for each teacher is not sufficient to really obtain an insight in their questioning behavior. Clearly, the personality and approach of the teacher can be a reason why more RQs than DQs were asked in this study which will be discussed in section 5.3.

In Brock's (1986: 53) study, two teachers received specialized training in order to ask more RQs and their questioning behaviors were then compared to those of two other teachers who had had no specific training. Whereas in the control group 17% of the questions were RQs and 83% were DQs, teachers in the treatment group, the group that received specialized training, asked 89% RQs and 11% DQs. Further, teachers in the treatment group asked 53 questions more than the other teachers, which amounts to an increase of 27% in the number of questions asked (Brock 1986: 53). This shows that when teachers are aware of the question types they ask and receive training on which questions are preferable, they can adapt their behavior in class accordingly. In the case of Brock's (1986) study, RQs were perceived as favorable and thus the focus was put on increasing the number of these questions and reducing the number of DQs. The fact that such perceiving RQs as good and DQs as bad can be problematic was mentioned previously in section 3.4 where it was discussed that specifically Dalton-Puffer (2007: 124) criticizes the common assumption found in the literature that there exist "natural, authentic and open-ended" referential questions on the one hand, and "unnatural, artificial and closed" display question on the other", which leads to the development of "an over-simple understanding of classroom language". However, the idea of personal preferences seems to play an important role in Brock's (1986) study. The teacher's own personality and preferences clearly shape a teacher's questioning behavior and whether the teacher observed in this study is aware of her own questioning behavior and whether she pays particular attention to asking specific questions will be discussed under research question 3 where a SR session was held with the teacher.

Wu (1993 quoted in Ellis 2012: 124) and Ding (2015: 27) found in their studies that more RQs than DQs were asked but no information on exact percentages is provided. Behnam and Pouriran (2009: 127) analyzed the questioning behavior of six teachers. Although on a general level almost as many DQs as RQs were asked, half of the six teachers observed asked more RQs than DQs which supports the idea that teachers can have preferences for one type. Also Shomoosi (2004: 101) states that it is simply natural for teachers as "not all [...] [teachers] think alike, or teach in the same way". Lynch (1996: 109) states that many teachers still have internalized the traditional role of a teacher who has to control and organize. Relaxing the control the teacher has over the class and allowing learners to talk freely (Lynch 1996: 110), as for instance OR questions allow them to do, can be problematic for these teachers and could be one reason

why several teachers ask more DQs than RQs. Walsh (2011: 39) also discusses another reason why RQs are less common. According to him, these questions “require greater effort and depth of processing on the part of the teacher” (Walsh 2011: 39), which causes many teachers to prefer DQs.

After this review and discussion and before turning to OD, CD, OR and CR questions, two problems that occurred when it comes to the categories open and closed need to be discussed. The first issue is related to the questions themselves. One issue also mentioned by Barnes (1969 quoted in Ellis 1994: 587) is what he calls ‘pseudo-questions’. These are questions that appear to be open but are rather closed. An example from the collected data would be *Why do we confuse [present simple] with present continuous in German?* (Transcript 2). This question might seem open at first as there is not one fixed answer to this question and it does not limit the learner to a certain set of possible answer that obviously as, for instance, the question *Do you like cats?* does. Still, the learners only have a limited number of possible answers to choose from which is why it is rather a closed question. Thus, particular attention needs to be paid to this issue when assigning the teacher’s questions to the different question types.

The second issue, which has partially been discussed previously, is that some questions are more difficult to be assigned to the categories open and closed than others. An example from the collected data is when the teacher talked to S7 about the videos on three different cities the class saw. S7 informed her that he did not enjoy the videos on New York, Sidney and Belfast as he does not want to go there. The teacher therefore asked *Not to New York not to Sidney?* (Transcript 1). This question seems to limit the learner’s response to a restricted number of possible answers, namely *Yes (I do not want to visit either of these places)*, *No (I want to visit both these places)*, *I would like to go to New York but not to Sidney* or *I would like to go to Sidney but not to New York*. The learner responded to the teacher’s question with the words *Well (.) at least not to Belfast (2) maybe for the pubs*. He therefore provides information on the reasons why he still might go to Belfast as he would be interested in the pubs there. It seems as if the learner has interpreted the intention behind the question differently. Rather than choosing from a set of possible answers, this question appears to encourage the learner to provide some reasons for his opinion or to elaborate on it. Clearly, this does not change the classification of the question but these special questions carry a certain potential for some considerations about the nature of the classroom.

First, it shows that some questions might be rephrased by the teacher in order to make them more clearly recognizable as open. For instance, the question *Not to New York not to Sidney?* (Transcript 1) could be rephrased to *Why do you or do you not want to go to New York and Sidney?*, which would ask the learner for more details. Although the learner in this study apparently interpreted the question as an open one anyway as he did not choose from a set of possible answers, other learners might have responded with 'yes' or 'no'. This is also stressed by Musumeci (1996: 307), who states that the response does highly depend on the individual learners themselves. Thus, when the goal is to trigger longer responses with a specific question, paying attention to ask questions that are clearly open is preferable since some learners might otherwise only give short responses.

As this example shows, there were indeed some opportunities when the teacher could have rephrased or clarified a question, although these cases were rare. Wu (1993 quoted in Ellis 2012: 124) also addresses this issue, mentioning rephrasing such questions as one strategy for teachers to change their questioning behavior. He suggests that teachers pay attention to questions that do trigger long responses and stresses the need to rephrase these in class.

Finally, the four categories OD, CD, OR, CR and thus the main focus of research question 1 are discussed. In this study, the teacher showed a preference for RQs and CQs, 58% being CR, 17% OR, 18% CD and 7% OD questions. A chi-square test ($p > 0.05$, $df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 0.28$) showed that these results are not statistically significant. Al-Farsi (2014) also analyzed teacher questions on the basis of these four categories. In his study, 15.27% were CD questions, 2.96% were OR questions, 1.97% CR and the majority were OD questions with 79.80%. The most common question type in Al-Farsi's (2014: 4) study was the smallest in this study. One reason why more DQs than RQs in general were asked could be that in Al-Farsi's study (2014), learners attended a fourth grade and not a sixth as it was the case in this study.

Yang (2010) as well as Farahian and Rezaee (2012) did not focus on all four types of Group 1 questions but on CD and OR questions along with a separate category for yes/no questions. An overview on the results of these researchers is given in Table 15:

Table 15 Distribution of question types in Yang's (2010) and Farahian and Rezaee's (2012) studies

researchers	year of publication	CD	OR	yes/no questions
Yang	2010	41.52%	11.07%	47.40%
Farahian and Rezaee	2012	38.12%	10%	51.88%

As can be seen in Table 15, the majority of questions were yes/no questions in both studies. Questions with one-word responses were therefore separated from CD and OR questions. However, yes/no questions can also be CD questions, which makes the boundaries between the different types less clear. As far as the study described in this thesis is concerned, the four types are indeed differently distributed than in the studies conducted by Al-Farsi (2014), Yang (2010) and Farahian and Rezaee (2012). Still, a chi-square test ($p > 0.05$, $df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 0.28$) did not confirm a significant difference in the distribution of the four types.

In order to find out how a lesson's content correlates with the questions asked by the teacher, each individual lesson observed will be discussed in the following. As can be read in the narrative descriptions attached in Appendix A, lesson 1 observed was the introductory lesson to the topic 'city life'. After several vocabulary exercises, three videos were shown to the learners. Interestingly, only two DQs occurred, namely *What is a suburb?* (Transcript 1) and *How can you explain the term suburb in English?* (Transcript 1). This shows that the DQs in this lesson were only related to the vocabulary exercises. The majority of questions, 60%, are CR questions and most of them were of organizational nature. For instance, *Which [sheets of paper] are missing?* (Transcript 1) or *Who was correct?* (Transcript 1). Another 30% are OR questions such as *What did you think about the videos?* (Transcript 1). In fact, all OR questions that were asked are related to the video clips shown to the learners. A review of the first lesson observed shows that the teacher asked few DQs and these exclusively served to check understanding. OR questions solely occurred when the videos were discussed, which shows the potential such activities have for open questions. Clearly, the need to differentiate between the open and closed type of RQs becomes apparent here as most of the CR questions are of organizational nature and thus probably do not trigger long responses. However, the issue of the response length to different questions is discussed in section 5.2.

Lesson 2 started with a discussion in pairs about the cities the learners would like to live in. After some learners held presentations, the rest of the lesson was concerned with a revision of four tenses. At the end of the lesson the learners discussed the three cities they saw in the videos. Lesson 2 is specifically interesting as 36 out of all 37 questions asked in this lesson are Group 1 questions. About 44% of these are DQs and 56% RQs. Lesson 2 thus has the highest number of DQs in all six lessons observed. Some examples are *Do you know how we call these things in English?* (Transcript 2), *Which tense do you use in German for that [example]?* (Transcript 2) or *Can someone give me [...] a sentence with another tense?* (Transcript 2). The latter example is an OD question, which make up only a minority of all DQs, namely 14%. Almost 11% of all questions are OR questions and all of them except for one occurred when the videos were discussed. The only exception is the question *Is there something interesting you haven't thought about that much?* (Transcript 2) which the teacher asked after the learners read the handouts on the tenses. About 38% of the questions are CR questions, for instance, *Which [approach] would you prefer?* (Transcript 2) or *Is there someone who really [...] wants to present his or her own idea [...]?* (Transcript 2). The review shows that again, the discussion of the videos primarily triggered RQs, both open and closed. The DQs asked all occurred in relation to the grammar task.

In lesson 3 the exercises the learners had to do as their homework assignment were compared. The rest of the lesson the learners continued with their presentations on which city they would like to live in. In this lesson, 74% of Group 1 questions are RQs, 26% DQs. Again, all questions of the latter category occurred during the grammar task. RQs were asked almost exclusively in relation to the presentations. However, rather than asking questions such as *What do you like most about New York City?* or *Could you imagine living there your entire life?*, the teacher encouraged the learners to ask questions like these themselves after each presentation. This was done by asking, for instance, *Who wants to say something?* (Transcript 3) or *Any other questions [about the presentation of your colleague]?* (Transcript 3). Such a behavior is described by Dalton-Puffer (2007: 94) as a shift towards a student-focused classroom where “some of the question-asking [is shifted] from the teacher to the students”. A tendency to let learners ask RQs rather than the teachers asking such questions themselves was also observed in the lessons analyzed in this study.

In the fourth lesson the learners finished holding their presentations. Afterwards, the learners worked in groups and prepared their presentation in which

they should present tourist information on London to their classmates in the following lesson. 30 out of 31 Group 1 questions are RQs. The only DQ that occurred is an open one, when the teacher *said Guys you need to find a way to convey [...] the notion you have finished your presentation, how can you do this?* (Transcript 4) after the presentations were held. Again, several RQs the teacher asked served to encourage the learners to comment on the presentation of their colleagues.

During the first half of the fifth lesson the learners presented the tourist information they prepared. Next, the students performed a speaking activity and then a listening comprehension. Almost 91% of the Group 1 questions asked by the teacher in this lesson are RQs, about 66% of which are closed. Lesson 5 also has the highest number of OR questions. Most of these again ask for the opinions of the learners on the presentations held. The only exception is the OR question *Any [...] difficulties with particular words?* (Transcript 5), which the teacher asked after the listening comprehension.

The final and sixth lesson started with a reading comprehension and finished with short presentations the learners first prepared alone, then in groups and which were eventually presented to the class. With 43% DQs and 57% RQs in Group 1, the second highest number of DQs occurred in this lesson. All four OR questions occurred before the reading comprehension on Dubai when the teacher asked various learners whether they would like to visit this city or not. During and after the reading comprehension the teacher primarily asked DQs such as *How do you write skim?* (Transcript 6), *[W]hat is the 8th wonder?* (Transcript 6) or *[H]ow do you write [Iceland]?* (Transcript 6).

A review of the six observed lessons showed that the teacher has a preference for referential and closed question types. DQs, both open and closed, were hardly asked. These occurred almost exclusively in connection with vocabulary and grammar tasks as well as listening and reading comprehension tasks. With RQs, the connection between task type and questions asked was not always as clear as with DQs. CR questions were often related to organizational issues, OR questions often tried to encourage learners to ask questions themselves after presentations. Besides, RQs frequently asked for learners' personal opinions on an issue.

To summarize, a detailed analysis of the distribution of the ten and specifically the four Group 1 question types in a teacher's EFL classroom showed that her questioning behavior is different from what other researchers found as

considerably more RQs than DQs were asked. Possible reasons for these differences lie in the nature of the study itself as well as in the individual teachers' preferences and personalities. Interestingly, most of the questions asked are closed and not open and thus restricted the learners to a certain number of possible responses. Moreover, the teacher also tried to encourage learners to ask questions.

As explained earlier, various researchers stress that RQs trigger longer responses than DQs (Caudron 1988: 173; Lynch 1996: 109; Yang 2006: 10; Walsh 2011: 129) which is why more RQs in the classroom seem preferable. In this respect, the teacher in this study shows good questioning behavior. Numerous RQs were asked, which according to the researchers, would trigger long responses from learners. However, the results of this study showed that when subdividing these two categories into four subtypes, considerably more closed than open questions were asked. Since responses to closed questions are restricted, this could indicate that the majority of questions, although they are RQs, do not trigger longer responses. Whether this is true will be discussed in the next section, section 5.2, which analyzes the length of learners' responses to CD, OD, CR and OR questions.

5.2 Research question 2

Research question 2 aims to investigate whether RQs triggered longer responses than DQs in this study, as many researches (Caudron 1988: 173; Lynch 1996: 109; Yang 2006: 10; Walsh 2011: 129) state that this is the case. In addition, a closer look will be taken at the length of the responses to closed and open types of DQs and RQs. In the first subsection, the findings are illustrated and in the second, these are discussed as well as compared to the findings of other researchers.

5.2.1 Findings

The findings in relation to the length of learners' responses are presented in this subsection. First, a general overview on the results is provided. The length of the responses to RQs and DQs as well as to OQs and CQs are illustrated separately. Next, the focus shifts to the four Group 1 question types and the length of the responses to these questions. A more detailed analysis of each individual lesson and of the length of the responses to CD, OD, CR and OR questions follows.

Finally, some additional information is provided on the number of unanswered questions, how many questions in each category were directed towards specific learners and how many were answered in German, which should provide useful information for the following discussion.

Figure 9 illustrates the average word number the learners' responses to RQs and DQs had:

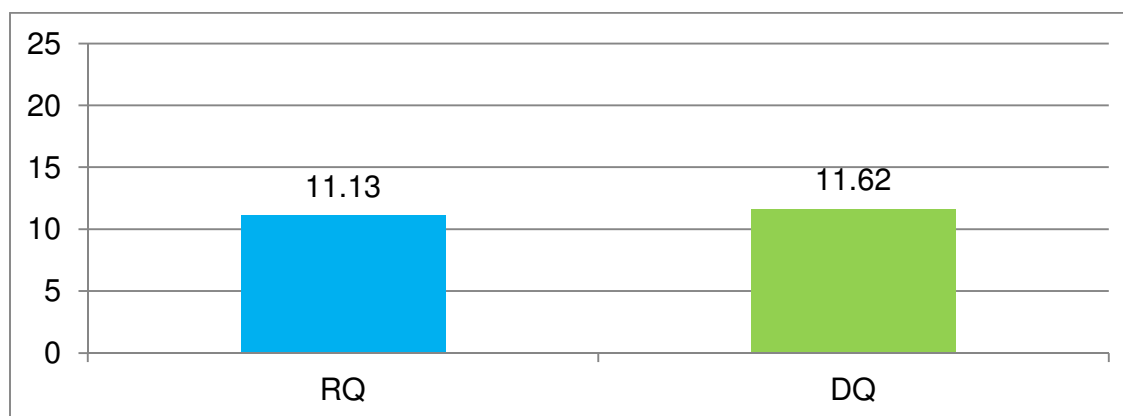


Figure 9 Average word number of the learners' responses to RQs and DQs

As can be seen in Figure 9, the responses to DQs and RQs were of about the same length. The mean length of the former type was slightly higher (11.62 words) than the one of the latter (11.13 words). Thus, the responses to DQs were on average 0.49 words longer. The usage of a t-test ($p > 0.05$, $df = 150$, $t\text{-value} = 0.184$) showed that this difference is not significant.

The responses to open and closed question were analyzed as well, regardless of whether these were RQs or DQs. The average length of the responses to open and closed question types is illustrated in Figure 10:

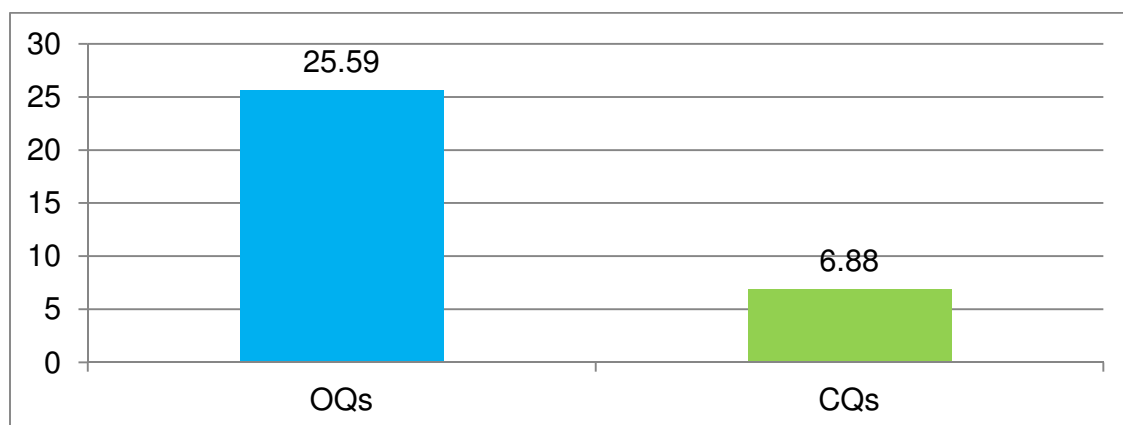


Figure 10 Average word length of the learners' responses to OQs and CQs

Figure 10 shows that compared to RQs and DQs, the difference in the word number between responses to OQs and CQs is more severe. Whereas the responses the learners gave to open questions were on average 25.59 words long, those to closed question only had a mean length of 6.88 words. Thus, the difference in response length was 18.71 words on average. Responses to open questions were therefore almost four times as long as those to closed questions. Also the usage of a t-test ($p < 0.05$, $df = 150$, $t\text{-value} = 7.746$) showed that there was indeed a statistically significant difference in response length between OQs and CQs in this study.

Noteworthy is, as stated earlier, that the definitions used for the categories 'open' and 'closed' were those provided by Barnes (1969) in a slightly adapted form and not the definitions that Nunan and Lamp (1996) provided. Thus, open questions were not those that encourage extended responses but where a number of acceptable responses existed. Therefore, the question *Which book did you like best?*, which is likely to trigger a short response, would be categorized as open using Barnes' (1969) definition. This makes it quite interesting that although the categories 'open' and 'closed' were related to the number of possible responses, open questions triggered longer answers on average.

The length of the responses to all four Group 1 question types is illustrated in Figure 11:

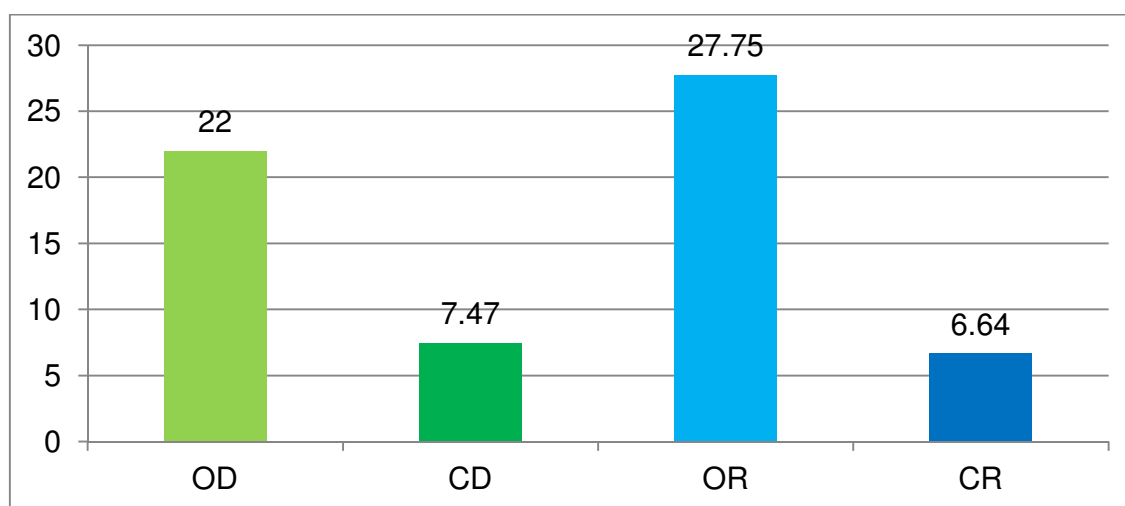


Figure 11 Average word length of the learners' responses to OD, CD, OR and CR questions

As shown in Figure 11, the responses to CD question were on average 7.47 words long, those to CR questions 6.64. Thus, both CD and CR questions triggered quite

long responses in comparison to the findings of other researchers, as will be discussed in section 5.2.2 and thus the following section. The responses to OR questions were on average 27.75 words long and those to OD questions 22 words.

The usage of two t-tests ($p > 0.05$, $df = 150$) showed that the difference between OD and OR questions as well as between CR and CD questions is not significant. On the contrary, two t-tests ($p < 0.05$, $df = 150$) showed that OD questions indeed triggered significantly longer responses than CD questions and the same is true for OR and CR questions. This suggests that the categories closed and open indeed had a stronger effect on the response length than the categories display and referential in this study.

In Table 16, the length of the responses to the four Group 1 question types in each of the six individual lessons is illustrated along with the number of OD, CD, OR and CR questions that were asked:

Table 16 Number of OD, CD, OR and CR questions along with average response length in lesson 1 to 6 as well as overall results

		OD	CD	OR	CR
lesson 1	number of questions	1	1	6	12
	average response length	12	1	22.5	3
lesson 2	number of questions	5	11	6	14
	average response length	25.6	15	39.7	8.4
lesson 3	number of questions	3	3	5	12
	average response length	32.3	11.7	0	7.2
lesson 4	number of questions	1	-	2	28
	average response length	5	-	4	5.7
lesson 5	number of questions	-	3	8	21
	average response length	-	2	15.2	8.1
lesson 6	number of questions	2	15	4	18
	average response length	11	2.5	36.8	7.4
overall	average response length	22	7.47	27.75	6.64

Table 16 provides a more detailed analysis of the response length. Whereas a minus indicates that no question of this type occurred in the corresponding lesson, a zero indicates that questions occurred but none of these received a response. Except for two lessons, OR questions always triggered the longest responses. In all five lessons where OD questions were asked by the teacher, these triggered the second longest responses and once, in lesson 3, these questions even triggered the longest responses. Except for lesson 3, CD questions led to the shortest answers. Noteworthy is that in several lessons, very few questions of a particular type, especially of CD and OD questions, occurred, which causes the data gained on the response length to be less reliable here.

In order to calculate the average response length presented so far, only those questions that triggered a response were taken into consideration. Including the unanswered questions when calculating the average response length would have distorted the findings as especially the number of unanswered OR and CR questions was high. Nevertheless, in order to find out which questions trigger long responses, it may be worthwhile to look at how many questions in each of the four Group 1 question types remained unanswered, as this adds useful information for the discussion and conclusion.

An overview on how many questions in each lesson were not answered is provided in Table 17:

Table 17 Number of unanswered questions in each of the four categories and overall result

		OD	CD	OR	CR
lesson 1	number	0	0	2	3
lesson 2	number	0	0	0	6
lesson 3	number	0	0	5	1
lesson 4	number	0	-	1	5
lesson 5	number	-	0	3	8
lesson 6	number	0	2	0	6
overall	number	0 out of 12	2 out of 33	11 out of 31	29 out of 105
	percent	0%	6%	35.5%	27.6%

As illustrated in Table 17, there are considerable differences in the number of unanswered questions in each of the four types. Both the OD and CD questions showed a very low number of unanswered questions. Whereas none of the OD questions remained unanswered, only two of the CD questions were not answered which amounts to only 6% of unanswered questions in this category. Far more RQs remained unanswered, more than one third of all OR questions received no response and slightly more than one quarter of CR questions did.

Clearly, there are various reasons why a question might not be answered. For instance, it could have been unintelligible or simply too broad. Another reason for a high number of answered or unanswered questions could be that questions are or are not addressed towards a specific learner. Information on the latter is presented in the following. The four Group 1 question types were analyzed to ascertain whether specific question types are more often addressed towards specific learners. The number and the percentages of questions directly addressed to a learner in each of the four question types is shown in Table 18:

Table 18 Number and percentage of questions in the categories OD, CD, OR and CR directly addressed to a specific learner

	OD	CD	OR	CR
number	6 out of 12	22 out of 33	9 out of 31	52 out of 105
percentage	50%	54.55%	29.03%	49.52%

Table 18 shows that besides OR questions, about half of all other questions were directly addressed towards a learner. Directed towards a specific learner means in this analysis that the teacher addressed a question to a specific person and that a learner did not respond on a voluntary basis. Especially the two closed types and OD questions showed a high number of questions that were addressed to specific learners.

The previous analysis has discussed the length of the learners' responses. The idea behind such an analysis was to find out which questions provide learners with better opportunities to practice their English speaking skills. German responses might therefore be regarded as not acceptable. Still, these completely or partially German responses were counted as they were accepted by the teacher.

This is of course related to the fact that not all questions shared the same function. Clearly, not all of them had the goal to get learners to produce responses completely in the target language English. Whereas one question might aim to engage learners in a discussion so that they practice their English speaking skills, other questions simply tested knowledge which is why German responses might be more acceptable in the latter than in the former case. Nevertheless, as the idea is that long responses mean that learners practice their speaking skills, German responses are less preferable. Thus, it is investigated which questions triggered German answers in the following. The number and overall percentage of questions that were completely or partially answered in German are illustrated Table 19:

Table 19 Number and percentage of questions answered in German in the four Group 1 categories as well as in the categories DQs and RQs in general

	OD	CD	OR	CR
number	5 out of 12	6 out of 33	0 out of 31	20 out of 105
percentage	41.7%	18.2%	0%	19%
	30%		9.5%	

As Table 19 shows, almost one third of all DQs and only about 10% of all RQs were answered in German. When considering the four separate categories, specifically OD questions were answered in German. Also CD and CR questions showed a relatively high number of German responses. Interestingly, responses to OR questions were solely answered in English.

5.2.2 Discussion

In what follows, findings are discussed, insights that can be gained from the data are presented and also comparisons to the findings of other researchers are drawn. Figure 9 shows the findings on the average length of learners' responses to RQs and DQs. Various researchers such as Caudron (1988: 173), Lynch (1996: 109), Yang (2006: 10) and Walsh (2011: 129) state that RQs trigger longer responses than DQs. As far as this study is concerned, this has not been the case as both DQs and RQs triggered responses of about the same length and no statistically significant difference was found.

For a more detailed discussion, the findings of four researchers are given in Table 20:

Table 20 Average length of responses to DQs and RQs in four studies

researchers	year of publication	responses to DQs	responses to RQs
Brock	1986	4.2 words	10 words
Yang	2006	2 words	7 words
Qashoa	2013	2.9 words	4.5 words
Al-Farsi	2014	2.2 words	1.7 words

As can be seen in Table 20, apart from Al-Farsi's study, RQs triggered longer responses than DQs in the studies of the other researchers. In Al-Farsi's study, only 10 out of 203 observed questions were RQs. According to him, "[t]he limited number of referential questions in this study does not allow any conclusions [about the relationship between question type and response length]" (Al-Farsi 2014: 5). Unfortunately, he does not provide a statistical analysis here. Particularly interesting is that in the study conducted for this thesis, DQs and RQs triggered responses of about the same length and also the statistical test showed that there is no statistically significant difference between DQs and RQs. Furthermore, both groups triggered responses that were on average longer than the findings of all other researchers reviewed in Table 20.

Two other studies reviewed did not look at the word number of the responses but the amount of interaction generated. Shomoosi (2004) measured the duration of the discourse that followed a question. In her study, responses to DQs had an average duration of 0.625 min and those to RQs an average duration of 2.833 min (Shomoosi 2004: 99). Shomoosi (2004: 99) therefore states that "the amount of classroom interaction caused by RQs is much greater than that caused by DQs". Behnam and Pouriran (2009: 128) also measured the interaction specific question types triggered. Using a chi-square test, both Shomoosi (2004: 99) ($p < 0.05$, $df = 24$, $t\text{-value} = 3.82$) and Behnam and Pouriran (2009: 128) ($p < 0.05$, $df = \text{not given}$, $t\text{-value} = 2.735$) found that RQs triggered significantly more interaction than DQs.

In this study, the word number of the learners' responses was counted instead of measuring the duration of an answer due to the fact that two problems

were encountered when trying to apply the latter method. First, learners have different speech rates. Thus, two responses that have the same length in terms of word number can be quite different in terms of duration. For instance, the question *What did you think about the videos?* (Transcript 1) received the answer *<soft> very informative </soft> (.) and (.) good* (Transcript 1) which had a duration of 2.7 seconds. In comparison, the response to the question *Why is that incorrect?* (Transcript 2) was *Because it sounds repulsive* (Transcript 2), which only had a duration of 1.5 seconds. Both responses consisted of four words but they had not the same duration.

Second, the use of pauses caused uncertainties in how the response length should be measured. Measuring the duration of all responses by stopping the time from the moment the learners start to when they finish speaking proved to be not reasonable in all cases. For instance, S8 responded to the question *Not to New York not to Sidney?* (Transcript 1) with the words *Well (.) at least not to Belfast (2) maybe for the pubs* (Transcript 1). The learner made one short and one longer pause and thus the whole response took about 9.11 seconds. In comparison, when the teacher asked several learners whether they would like to visit Dubai, S13 raised her hand and said *I would like to visit it because I think it's a really modern city (.) and I also heard that it has the biggest shopping center worldwide* (Transcript 6). This response had a duration of 7.41 seconds and is thus almost two seconds shorter than the former example. In terms of word number, the latter response was almost three times as long as the former. The first question was addressed directly to S8, who first said a few words, paused and finished his response. In contrast, S13 was not addressed directly and probably thought about what she wants to say before responding and thus only made one small pause in the response.

The discussion of these two examples is expected to show that the two methods yield different results. Certainly, there are reasons for measuring the duration of a response, for instance, to analyze how student-talk and teacher-talk are distributed in a lesson. Counting the word number appeared to be the better method in this study as the focus was on how much target language the individual learners produce. Moreover, questions were almost exclusively followed by only one response which is why there was no necessity of measuring the duration of discourse generated, as for instance Shomoosi (2004) as well as Behnam and Pouriran (2009) did.

In comparison to responses to DQs, those to RQs were more than twice as long in Brock's (1986: 55) and three times as long in Yang's (2006: 8) study. In the study conducted for this thesis, the average length of the responses to RQs and DQs was of about the same length. With an average length of 11.88 words, the responses to DQs in this study were even longer than the longest response to RQs observed by other researchers illustrated in Table 20. Clearly, there are several reasons why in this study, both the responses to DQs and RQs were considerably longer than those found by other researchers. The level of the learners probably does not play a crucial role as also in the studies by the researchers illustrated in Table 20, all learners except for those that participated in Al-Farsi's study had an intermediate to upper-intermediate language level. However, one reason could be that the teachers in the above-mentioned studies asked more closed than open questions in general. Unfortunately, none of these researchers, again except for Al-Farsi (2014), used a model that distinguishes between CD, OD, CR and OR questions, which is why the distribution of open and closed question types in these studies is unknown and cannot be taken into consideration.

The findings in this study suggest that the categories open and closed indeed have a considerable effect on the length of the responses. As shown in Figure 10, open questions were on average 25.59 words long and those to closed questions 6.88 words. The usage of a t-test ($p < 0.05$, $df = 150$, $t\text{-value} = 7.746$) showed that this difference is indeed significant. Also Musumeci (1996: 307) found that the categories open and closed rather than the categories display and referential seem to have an effect on response length.

The analysis of the four Group 1 question types provides a more precise insight: OR questions triggered the longest responses with an average word number of 27.75. Particularly surprising when considering the findings of other researchers is that the second longest responses with an average word number of 22 words were those given to OD questions. Both closed question types had the shortest responses with an average word number of 7.47 and 6.64. Interestingly, the responses to the display type of closed questions were slightly longer. The usage of a t-test (see section 5.2.1) showed that this difference between OQs and CQs is significant in contrast to the one between RQs and DQs. The only comparable study found here is Al-Farsi's (2014) study, as he also analyzed the word length of learners' responses to the four Group 1 question types. His results are illustrated in Table 21:

Table 21 Number of questions and response length found by Al-Farsi (2014: 4)

	CD	OD	CR	OR
number of questions observed	162	31	6	4
response length	2.11 words	2.32 words	1.17 words	2.25 words

As Table 21 shows, Al-Farsi's (2014) study yielded quite different results. Whereas the responses to CD, OD and OR questions triggered responses of about the same mean length, CR questions triggered much shorter responses. Clearly, the number of questions observed as well as the elementary language level of the learners are two possible reasons why Al-Farsi's results considerably differ from those in this study. Unfortunately, AL-Farsi (2014) does not provide more detailed information on the samples which is why the statistical significance of the findings cannot be calculated.

An overview on the average response length to questions of the four Group 1 question types in the six individual lessons was shown in Table 16. Interestingly, only the average response length in lesson 1 and 6 is concordant with the general distribution found. In both lessons, OR question triggered the longest responses, followed by OD, CR and finally CD questions. In lesson 2 and 3, responses to CD questions were longer than those to CR questions. Although five OR question occurred in lesson 3, none of these were answered. Certainly, OR questions were not the only unanswered questions but the only type where all questions remained unanswered. This fact could be of great significance when trying to draw conclusions on the meaning the findings have for the preferable questioning behaviors of teachers in the EFL classroom, which is why the issue of unanswered questions will be discussed in more detail later on. Interestingly, the responses to CD questions in lessons 5 and 3 were quite long. This could be due to the fact that CD questions often required the learners to explain more complex grammatical matters, leading to longer responses.

In lesson 4, the longest responses were those given to CR questions. What needs to be taken into consideration here is that only three questions were asked that were not CR questions. The issue that sometimes very few questions of one question type occurred was the case in several lessons. Striking is specifically the small number of CD and OR questions. This also means that the gathered data

needs to be treated with caution when making assumptions about the responses' length in these lessons as the data found is limited. Clearly, measuring the average response length to questions of a specific type where only one or two questions were recorded in a single lesson provides less meaningful data than when analyzing a more frequent question type.

This brief review of the responses in the six individual lessons served to show that the overall results found do not always reflect the reality in each individual lesson. It also stresses that when data is limited, this can have an effect on the reliability of the conclusions drawn from an analysis of the data. The usage of several t-tests ($p > 0.05$, $df = 150$) showed that the difference between OD and OR questions as well as between CR and CD questions is not significant. This shows that CR questions did not necessarily trigger longer responses than CD questions. The difference between OD and OR was bigger than the one between CD and CR questions (see Figure 11) but still not statistically significant. On the contrary, t-tests ($p < 0.05$, $df = 150$) showed that OD questions indeed triggered significantly longer responses than CD questions and the same is true for OR and CR questions. Thus, both OD and OR questions triggered significantly longer responses than their closed counterparts. This also suggests that the categories closed and open had a stronger effect on the response length than the categories display and referential in this study.

The data presented so far has shown that responses to RQs and DQs were on average of about the same length and that the categories open and closed should be taken into consideration as well. Before, the focus was solely on questions that received a response. Table 17 has shown that all of the OD questions were answered, while CD questions received a response in 94% of all cases. However, in the case of RQs, 35.5% of all OR questions and 27.6% of the CR ones received no response. It seems that although RQs trigger longer responses, these are less frequently answered than DQs. An interesting example is when the teacher asked *Some other comments? (.) Homework (1) <singing> yay. </singing>* (Transcript 1), where no responses of the learners followed. This could be due to the fact that the teacher immediately continued with explaining the homework task. Thus, the wait-time, meaning "the amount of time a teacher allots for student reflection after asking a question and before a student responds" (Albergaria-Almeida 2010a: 306), was highly reduced. Brualdi et al. (1998) suggest that teachers "allow three to five seconds of wait-time after asking a question" so that the learners receive a chance to think and give a response.

Clearly, also the fact that the question was simply too open could have been a reason why questions like these often received no response. Beside this, another reason for a high number of unanswered questions can be that questions did not directly ask a specific learner for a response.

Detailed information on whether a question was addressed to a specific learner was provided in Table 18, which shows that there were considerable differences between the four question types. 50% of OD questions and about 55% of CD questions were addressed to specific learners. Almost half of all CR questions asked specific students for a response. Some examples from the collected data are *S14, do you need more time?* (Transcript 1) or *What do you [S7,] like most about Belfast?* (Transcript 2). CR questions were also often related to organizational issues. For instance, *Do you [S9,] need more time for it?* (Transcript 4). Clearly, when the teacher directly addresses the learner, a response is more likely to be given.

The category of OR questions stands in sharp contrast since only about one third of these questions were addressed to a specific learner. One reason why OR questions remained most frequently unanswered could be that these questions were often not addressed to specific learners and thus no one felt inclined to answer. Certainly, there are also a number of other possible reasons, as previously discussed, such as wait-time or questions that were simply too open. The focus of this thesis is not on unanswered questions and reasons why they do not receive a response but mentioning this issue should stress that there are several factors besides the question types themselves that should be taken into consideration when trying to elicit long responses from the learners.

A final issue that needs to be discussed here is that the learners not always used the target language English but their native language German to respond to the teachers' questions. In the beginning of this study, it was decided that the German responses should also be counted and considered in the analysis of the response length as these answers were still acceptable. Nevertheless, as the idea is that long responses mean that learners practice their speaking skills, German responses are less preferable. The analysis of German responses in Table 19 has shown that about 42% of the OD questions were answered in German. However, some of these questions that were answered in German were related to grammar and the teacher explicitly asked the learners to relate the usage of specific tenses in German with tenses in English. For instance, *Can you give me examples? In (1) German? No problem, and <moves hands> then translate. </moves hands>*

(Transcript 2). Thus, the fact that these DQs were answered partially or solely in German does not allow for the conclusion that these questions in general trigger German responses as, for instance, Caudron (1988: 173) states. He writes that with DQs, learners have “less motivational drive for using the target language” (Caudron 1988: 173).

More interesting is that about 20% of CD and CR questions were answered in German and that all OR questions were answered in English. A reason could be that since DQs ask for information that is already known by the teacher, these often test learners’ knowledge which could lead them to respond in German. Although they probably covered the topic before in English, the fact that the aim of the question seems to be that learners prove that they have understood something and not that they practice language skills could lead them to respond in German rather than the target language. In comparison, OR questions tend to ask for opinions and thus the learners might adhere to the language of communication used in class, namely English.

To summarize, the findings show that RQs and DQs triggered responses of about the same length and a more detailed analysis showed that the distinction between open and closed question needs to be taken into consideration as well. The collected data suggests that open questions trigger significantly longer responses than closed ones (see t-test in section 5.2.1). Teachers thus need to pay attention to whether the questions they ask are open when their aim is that learners produce long responses and practice their speaking skills.

Interestingly, OR questions triggered the longest responses but also had the highest number of unanswered questions and the lowest number of questions that were addressed to specific learners. These findings can clearly have implications for the EFL classroom. First, it suggests that an increase in open questions, especially RQs, is preferable when the teacher’s aim is that learners produce long responses and practice their speaking skills. However, unless RQs are addressed to a specific learner, there is a considerable chance that they remain unanswered. Thus, these questions can still fail to provide these desired opportunities for extended language production. It appears that in order to guarantee that learners practice their speaking skills, questions should be addressed to specific learners. Clearly, this means less freedom for the learners, which is an issue that will be discussed in section 5.3.

Further, unanswered questions have shown to be related to the wait-time, “the amount of time a teacher allots for student reflection after asking a question

and before a student responds” (Albergaria-Almeidaa 2010a: 306), teachers allow in class. There seems to be a need of teachers to provide enough time after each question so that learners get to think about their response and whether they want to answer. The analysis has shown that there were indeed OR questions to which the learners did not get enough time to think about their responses.

The aim of research question 2 was to find out which questions trigger longer responses and surprisingly, these were not RQs, as several researchers state, but OQs, either referential or display ones in this study. What remains questionable is whether RQs are more preferable than DQs since both OD and OR questions triggered quite long responses. Dalton Puffer (2007: 124) and Shomoosi (2004: 103) stress that it is “dangerous to generalize that RQs are more useful for language learning or display ones are useless” (Shomoosi 2004: 103) and this view is also supported by the findings of this study. What has often been left out in research so far are the personal opinions and preferences the teacher and the learners themselves have about questions. In order to obtain an insight in these opinions and to find out how they relate to the findings so far, three stimulated recall sessions were held. This issue will be at the center of attention in the following section on the third and last research question.

5.3 Research question 3

The following section will present and discuss the findings in relation to research question 3, which is concerned with the opinions learners and teachers have about classroom questions. As stated earlier, this adds a qualitative component to the study, which has so far almost exclusively relied on numerical data. The three recorded SR sessions encompass statements made by three female and three male learners from the observed class as well as statements made by the teacher who taught all six lessons observed. In total, the three interviews lasted about 150 minutes. Due to this fact but also because the participants repeated themselves, only the most interesting statements were transcribed and not the whole interviews.

The first subsection is again concerned with the findings. In the following subsection, these findings are analyzed, compared and discussed. Noteworthy is that although several quotes from the findings are repeated in the section on the discussion, the sections 5.3.1 and 5.3.2 were not fused. This is due to the fact that section 5.3.1 should provide a broader idea of the SR sessions and not only list

those statements that were then as support for the conclusions drawn there in the discussion.

5.3.1 Findings

This subsection follows the structure of the retrospective interviews. As stated earlier, three SR sessions were held, starting with an introduction. In SR sessions, interviewees “verbalize their thoughts after they have performed a task or mental operation” (Dörnyei 2007: 148). In order to activate memories, SR sessions use some form of stimulus. For the SR sessions in this study, eight sequences were selected from the video data in which questions from the teacher and corresponding responses of the learners occurred. The sequences were between 10 seconds and 1 minute and 26 seconds long. In the SR sessions, these were shown to the participants and questions followed each of the video sequences. Finally, some general questions were asked in the end of the sessions.

In this section, the findings are presented by discussing the most interesting comments to each video sequence one by one. It is indicated when participants agreed with each other instead of providing individual utterances at times. Attention was paid to avoiding repetitions and leaving out statements that were not directly related to the sequences and questions. Before focusing on the most interesting statements made to each of the eight sequences, the guiding questions previously discussed that were asked after each sequence are once again mentioned. All questions are referred to by a means of an abbreviation, shown in Table 22:

Table 22 Guiding question and corresponding abbreviation

abbreviation		
Q1	guiding questions for the learners and teacher	
	English	<i>What comes to mind when you think of this situation? What were you thinking about this question?</i>
	German	<i>Was fällt dir zu dieser Stelle ein? Was hast du dir gedacht bei der Frage?</i>
Q2	guiding questions for the learners	
	English	<i>Do you feel inclined to answer? Why do you (not) answer?</i>

	German	<i>Fühlst du dich angesprochen zu antworten? Warum antwortest du (nicht)?</i>
	guiding questions for the teacher	
	English	<i>Do you think the learners feel inclined to answer? Why (not)?</i>
Q3	German	<i>Glaubst du fühlen sich die SchülerInnen angesprochen zu antworten? Warum (nicht)?</i>
	guiding questions for the learners	
	English	<i>Do such questions occur often? Why do you think does your teacher ask this?</i>
	German	<i>Kommen solche Fragen öfter vor? Warum glaubst du fragt eure Lehrerin das?</i>
	guiding questions for the teacher	
	English	<i>Do such questions occur often? Why do you think do you ask this?</i>
	German	<i>Kommen solche Fragen öfter vor? Warum glaubst du fragst du das?</i>

As shown in Table 22, the three question pairs were the same for teacher and learners, using only different wordings. Q1 encourages the participants to reflect on a situation and to express their thoughts on this situation. Q2 tries to obtain an insight in the level of motivation. It asks the learners whether they felt inclined to answer and whether the teacher believed her students to be motivated. Q3 asks for the frequency of specific questions, the reasons the teacher had to ask them and the reasons the learners believed their teacher to have. The three female learners that participated in the SR sessions were S2, S9 and S13. S8, S11 and S14 were the three male learners that participated. In what follows, the most interesting comments to the eight video sequences are discussed. The quotations provided are in German; the corresponding English translations follow each of them. As stated earlier, the transcription conventions used in the following are those provided by the Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English (2007), which are also listed in appendix B.

The first sequence showed the question “Do you know the song ‘Downtown’ by Macklemore?” (Transcript 1) to which S9 replied, “Yes (.) <spel> EMAs </spel>”.

S14 started to sing the song and various other learners laughed. This question was chosen for two reasons: First, it is a CR question and second, it seems to be not really concerned with the topic of the lesson ('city life'). S9 responded to Q1 "Es gehört halt nicht zum Unterricht (2) ist halt eine Spaßfrage" (i.e. "It does not belong in the lesson (2) it is simply a fun-question") to which S13 and S2 agreed. The teacher said to Q1 that she thought of the song when they discussed the meaning of the word 'downtown' and was thinking about integrating the song in a later lesson as a listening activity. In relation to Q2, S13 and S8 responded that they did not know the song and felt inclined to answer. The teacher said that she believes the learners feel motivated to answer when she asks a personal question but noted, "Es antworten aber sicher nur die die ohnehin extrovertiert sind (.) introvertierte werden mir keine Antwort geben" (i.e. "For sure, only extroverted learners answer (.) introverted learners won't give me an answer"). As far as Q2 and the reasons for asking this question are concerned, S9, S2 and S14 stated that the teacher wants to reduce stress and tensions. S8 described the question as one that has "persönlichen Wert" (i.e. "personal value") and he and S11 stated they think the teacher is also interested in the learners, which is why she asks such questions. The teacher provided a more detailed response and the most interesting statements here were the following: "[Diese Frage] macht ein familiäres Klima", "Mir ist eine persönliche Beziehung wichtig" and "Ich glaube ein lockeres Arbeitsklima steigert die Produktivität" (i.e. "[This question] creates a familiar atmosphere", "A personal relationship is important to me" and "I think a loose atmosphere increases the productivity").

The second sequence showed the OR question "What did you think about the videos? Comments?" (Transcript 1) to which S9 answered, "<soft> very informative </soft> (.) and (.) good" and S8 said, "I think the first two videos were very very positive and the last one uh <makes hand movements> does like uh about the <spel> IRA </spel> (.) I mean also about <moving hands> the place of Titanic and things </moving hands> (.) not <louder> that </louder> positive". S2 made an interesting comment to Q2 and said, "Natürlich denkt man sich 'bitte nicht mich fragen (.) was sag ich (.) ich muss irgendwas sagen'" (i.e. "Of course one thinks 'please do not ask me (.) what do I say (.) I have to say something')") to which S13 and S9 agreed and laughed. All learners except for S8, who also answered in the original sequence, said they did not know what to say. S9 said she did not really feel inclined to answer but still decided to give a response as no one else said something. S8, however, said he did not agree with what S9 said, namely that the

videos were informative, which is why he felt inclined to respond. S9 also said that there is a certain fear at times that what one wants to say is not good or productive enough, meaning the content lacks quality to which also S2 agreed. In relation to Q3, all learners agreed that such questions are frequent. As reasons why the teacher asks such question S11 said, "Man soll lernen auf Meinungen einzugehen" (i.e. "One should learn how to respond to opinions"). S14 believed the goal to be to learn how to provide a quick-witted answer, S8 said it is more about forming one's own opinion. S9 said, "Sie will, dass jeder mal nachdenkt (.) aber nicht unbedingt eine Antwort sagen muss" (i.e. "She wants everybody to think about it (.) but not necessarily for everyone to give an answer"). The teacher herself said, "Das Ziel ist, dass sie zum Reden kommen" (i.e. "The aim is that the learners get to speak"). She also stated that these questions provide the learners with the opportunity to talk about their personal opinion which she is indeed interested in.

The third sequence consisted of the CD question "What's the problem? Why do we confuse it [present continuous] with present simple in German?" (Transcript 2). S9 answered, "Because in German present simple is like our (.) now (.) tense. Like everything we do now is in German the present simple but in English it is present continuous" (Transcript 2). In the SR sessions, specifically the responses to Q2 and thus whether the learners felt inclined to answer are interesting. S2 said, "Ich habs mir gedacht zu antworten aber war zu feig aufzuzeigen (.) wie immer" (i.e. "I thought about answering but I was too much of a coward to raise my hand (.) as always"). S13 and S2 said they felt inclined to answer. S9 added, "Bei so einer Frage ist man auf der sicheren Seite weil sie nicht nach unserer Meinung fragt sondern wirklich nach einem Fakt" (i.e. "With such a question one is on the safe side because she does not ask for our opinion but about a real fact"). She also added that this is the reason why she prefers such questions. Also S11 agreed, stating that she likes these 'precise' questions. The boys said they also like these questions as they make them think about what they had learned. To Q3 S9 responded, "[Die Lehrerin] macht immer einen Mix zwischen allen Fragen, einmal kommt so eine Meinungsfrage und dann wenn wir Stoff also Grammatik oder so machen kommt so eine Frage mit Fakten". (i.e. "[The teacher] always mixes all questions, one time a question asks for our opinion and then, when we discuss content, meaning grammar or something like that she asks a question about facts"). As far as Q2 is concerned, S13 said, "Sie will, dass wir alle mitdenken und fragt niemanden bestimmten sonst denkt keiner mit" (i.e. "She wants all of us to think and thus does not ask anyone in particular because then no one thinks") to which

S9 and S2 agreed. S8 states it appears to him that she wants to reduce the amount of frontal teaching and wants the learners to think about problems. The teacher said, "Ich möchte ihnen die Möglichkeit geben sich frei zu melden (.) ich will sie nicht bloß stellen" (i.e. "I want to give them the possibility to answer on a voluntary basis (.) I don't want to expose them"). The teacher said about questions like the one in the sequence: "Da ist mir ob sie Englisch oder Deutsch sprechen gar nicht so wichtig. Mir ist wichtig, dass sie Grammatik verstehen" and "Erst dann wenn man es selber erklären kann hat man es wirklich verstanden und deshalb frag ich solche Fragen" (i.e. "It is not that important to me whether they speak English or German here. It is important to me that they understand grammar" and "Only when one can explain something, one has really understood it which is why I ask such questions"). She also added that she believes that when she asks questions that ask for opinions, she more often asks specific learners for an answer than when she asks for knowledge.

The fourth sequence showed the CD question "When do we use present perfect simple?" (Transcript 2) to which at first no response was given. Only S8 raised his hand but the teacher said that she wants someone else to answer. S14 then responded, "Things that started in the past and continued to the present" (Transcript 2). To Q1 S13 said, "Es ist ganz typisch, dass [S8] aufzeigt und nicht dran genommen wird" (i.e. "This is typical that [S8] raises his hand but does not get picked"). S8 also said something similar: "Das ist auch wieder klassisch, dass sie versucht auch die dran zu nehmen die nicht oft oder überhaupt nichts sagen" (i.e. "This is also classic that she tries to pick those that often say nothing or nothing ever"). In relation to Q2, S13 said she did not respond because she did not know the answer and S9 did not know how to express herself in English. S11 says that there are learners such as S1 that know the answer for sure but are just too shy to answer. The teacher herself said to Q2 "Ich glaub, dass alle die Antwort auf die Frage mehr oder weniger kennen [...] es [die Antwort] wird mehr oder weniger perfekt sein was wahrscheinlich der Grund ist, dass sie nicht aufzeigen" (i.e. "I think that everybody more or less knows the answer to the question [...] it [the response] will be more or less perfect which is probably the reason why they do not raise their hand"). She also added that she did not pick S8 as she also wants others to answer. The responses to Q3 were similar to those given to the sequence before. The learners agreed that these questions occur often. The teacher herself said, "Ich möchte sehen, dass sie es verstanden haben und es auch erklären können" (i.e. "I want to see that they have understood it and can explain it").

Sequence five showed the OD question “What can she do better? S7?” (Transcript 5) which the teacher asked after a presentation of S12. S7 responded, “Well ehm taking your stuff eh in front because you left your stuff behind=” (Transcript 5). The teacher immediately reacted and said, “=Come on (.) so (.) what can she seriously do better than forgetting two sheets of paper bringing to the way?” (Transcript 5), meaning that it is not important that the presenter forgot the sheets of paper she needed for her presentation on her desk. S7 added, “<soft> No it was pretty fluent so (.) I think (.) it was good” (Transcript 5). The teacher then asked S8 who said, “Just a few small things about pronunciation. For example every. Y- I think you said evEry. It’s not not like entirely like false but it does not sound like naturally English, you know? I mean it was okay just some small” (Transcript 5). Particularly interesting here is that the teacher first asked a specific learner twice and then someone else also responds voluntarily. In relation to Q1 and also Q2 S9 said, “Sie hat ja den S7 gleich dran genommen da konnten wir gar nicht über unsere Antwort nachdenken” (i.e. “She asked S7 right away so we could not think about our answer”). All girls stated that they think the reason the teacher asked S7 is because he did not pay attention during the presentation before. S11 said he also had raised his hand and that he indeed wanted to answer. He also provided a reason why he felt inclined to answer and said, “Es sind Kleinigkeiten die mich dann stören [bei den Präsentationen]” (i.e. “There are trivial things that bother me [in the presentations]”). S11 also added, „Ich find das unangenehm wenn ein Schüler die Antwort nicht weiß und der Lehrer so lange fragt bis er was richtiges sagt” (i.e. “I don’t like it when a student does not know the answer and the teacher asks him until he says something correct”). S8 said this was also the reason why he made a response as S7 did not know what to say. In relation to Q3, the girls said that the teacher wants them to learn how to give feedback. S11 said it is more about hearing the opinion of learners who never participate and S14 said it is more about practicing speaking. The teacher herself said she asked S7 for the following reason: “Ich wollte, dass S7 aufhört zu reden und sich beteiligt” (i.e. “I wanted S7 to stop chatting and to participate”). As a reason for asking questions that ask for feedback she said, “Ich möchte, dass sie sich gegenseitig Feedback geben können und das üben” (i.e. “I want that they can give each other feedback and practice this”). As a reason for not asking other learners the teacher said, “Ich nehm den S11 oft nicht dran weil er sicher der ist der am meisten redet (.) ich ignorier ihn bewusst” (i.e. “I often don’t pick S11 because he is for sure the one who

talks the most (.) I ignore him consciously”). She also stated that she hopes more introverted learners would respond to such questions.

Sequence six also showed an OD question, namely “Shall I give another presentation about studying abroad? Would you be interested? Did you like it?” (Transcript 4). In contrast to the sequence before, this question is not related directly to the lesson’s content and it triggered a long dialogue between the teacher and S11 (see Appendix B – Transcript 4). All learners said they liked being asked this question, adding they enjoyed the presentation last year. Also the teacher said she believes they feel inclined to answer. S8 said she liked the question because: “Da geht es wirklich darum was wir wollen” (“Here, it is really about what we want”). All participants stated that these questions seldom occur but the learners agreed they appreciate it when the teacher asks about their interests. S9 said, “Sie bringt schon oft etwas Persönliches ein” (i.e. “She often brings in something personal”).

Sequence seven was concerned with an OR question which was related to the reading comprehension that preceded the question. The teacher asked, “Would you like to visit Dubai? Why? Why not?” (Transcript 6). S9 responded, “I do not want to visit it because it’s too hot there and it’s just one big city without any [...] historical meaning (3) like <fast> the background. </fast>” (Transcript 6). S13 said, “I would like to visit it because I think it’s a really modern city (.) and I also heard that it has the biggest shopping center worldwide” (Transcript 6). In relation to Q1, the learners either agreed or disagreed with the two responses. The teacher herself said she immediately asked S13 as she liked that she raised her hand voluntarily. The boys said to Q2 that they would have liked to express their opinions. In contrast, the girls all said they also think about their oral participation in class when they raise their hands. Although S9 and S13 both said they wanted to say something in this case, they also noted that their oral participation is important to them as they want good grades. As far as Q3 is concerned, all learners agreed that questions of this type occur frequently. S11 noted, “Wenn sie unsere persönlichen Meinungen einholen kann dann macht das die Frau Professor schon” (i.e. “When she can get our personal opinions our professor does it”). S11 also said he particularly likes questions like these. Whereas the boys felt the teacher is indeed interested in their opinions and that the possibility to practice English is more of a side-effect, the girls felt that their teacher is not really interested in what they think.

Sequence number eight was the final one used in the SR sessions and showed the question “How do you write skim?” (Transcript 6), which was addressed to S11. He said, “<L1de> <spel> s c i m </spel> </L1de>” (Transcript 6).

The teacher reacted with the words “No. In English?” (Transcript 6) which triggered the response “<spel> s k i m </spel>” (Transcript 6). The sequence showed two CD questions which have been addressed to a specific learner. S11 said to Q1 “Ich hab gedacht im Englischen schreibt man fast nichts mit k (.) ist ja egal, dass es falsch war” (i.e. “I thought one hardly writes anything with a k in English (.) but it does not matter that it was wrong”). In relation to Q2, the teacher said it was not really a difficult question. Except for S8, the learners all said they were unsure what the correct answer was and they did not feel inclined to answer as the question was addressed to S11. S8 stated, “Ich hab schon den Drang verspürt es zu sagen aber ist halt komisch immer aufzuzeigen” (i.e. “I felt the urge to say something but it is simply strange to raise one’s hand all the time”). S9 said she likes these questions as they are good for her oral participation to which S2 agreed. They also noted that they think the number of times they respond to the teacher’s questions are average.

The eight sequences that were shown to the participants served to give them an insight in the various questions asked in class. In the end, two general questions were asked. The first asked the participants what question types are asked in class and whether they noticed differences. The teacher said, „Bewusst weiß ich gar nicht was für Fragen ich stelle (.) ich versuche aber schon offene Fragen zu stellen und nach Meinungen zu fragen” (i.e. “Consciously I don’t know what questions I ask at all (.) but I try to ask open questions and to ask for their opinions”). She added, “Fragen sind oft Mittel zum Zweck (.) man kann auch nicht immer über Themen reden die sie interessieren” (i.e. “Questions are often means for a purpose (.) one cannot always talk about topics that are interesting to them [the learners]”). S11 said he thinks the teacher mostly asks questions about the learners’ opinion as there are no right or wrong answers to which S14 and S8 agreed.

The second question asked the learners which questions they feel inclined to answer and why. The teacher said she has no idea whether the learners prefer specific questions but added, “Schüler lieben es über sich selbst zu reden deshalb geht das vielleicht leichter hier eine Antwort zu bekommen als wenn ich zu einem konkreten Thema was frage” (i.e. Students love to talk about themselves which is why it is maybe easier to get an answer here than when I ask about a concrete topic”). S11 said he himself does not like questions that ask for knowledge. S8 stated when the teacher asks about opinions there are less risks as there is no right or wrong. He also added, “Man kann sich selbst einbringen (.) deshalb sind die Fragen [über persönliche Meinungen] vielleicht auch interessanter” (i.e. “One can

bring oneself in the debate (.) this is maybe why these questions [about personal opinions] are more interesting”). In contrast, the girls said they are afraid to say something wrong when they are asked for their opinions. S2 also added, “Ich glaube es interessiert sie nicht wirklich unsere Meinung” (i.e. “I don’t believe she is really interested in our opinion”). The teacher herself said she prefers questions about opinions for two reasons: “Ich möchte, dass sie reden aber andererseits interessiert es mich auch wirklich wirklich was sie denken” (i.e. “I want them to talk but on the other hand I am also really really interested in what they think”).

Before continuing with the discussion of the findings, some additional data is presented. As the teacher has often talked about specific learners and their participation in class and since the students commented on the frequency at which they respond to a question as well, this information was also collected. Figure 12 shows the number of times each learner responded to a question asked by the teacher in all six lessons observed:

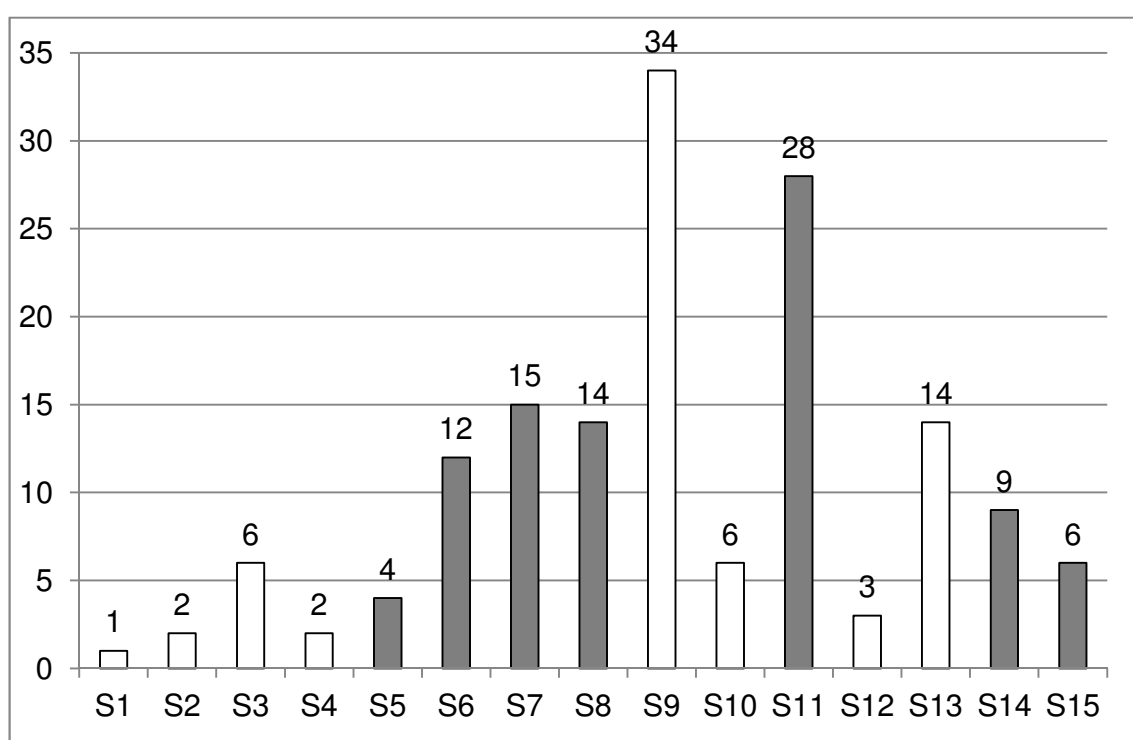


Figure 12 Number of times S1 to S15 verbally responded to a question of the teacher in the six observed lessons

As can be seen in Figure 12, there are considerable differences between the individual learners. On average, learners responded 10.4 times. A white bar stands for a female learner, a gray one for a male learner. Whereas girls responded on

average 8.5 times, the boys responded on average 12.6 times in the observed lessons. Thus, although S9 most often responded to a question of the teacher, most girls were below average. This data gives some insights in the behavior of the individual learners and information on the differences between them. This additional information will be used for the following discussion in section 5.3.2.

5.3.2 Discussion

The SR sessions gave insights in the thoughts and opinions the teacher and six learners had on the questions asked in class. Clearly, as each SR sessions had a time span of about 50 minutes, the content had to be reduced to the most interesting statements. In what follows, instead of discussing each sequence after each other, each paragraph is concerned with one issue that the SR sessions provided information on.

Insights were gained on the thoughts learners have on the reasons why the teacher asks specific questions and what the teacher's actual reasons were. Neither the teacher nor the learners were told about the question taxonomy used. All terms that were used by the participants to describe questions in the SR sessions were chosen by them. The question "Do you know the song 'Downtown' by Macklemore?" (Transcript 1), for instance, was described by S9 as a 'fun-question' and all learners felt it was not really related to the lesson's content. As the interview with the teacher has shown, she had a reason for asking this question and it was somehow indeed related to the lesson's content as she thought about integrating the song in a later lesson. Although this reason for asking such a question was not clear to the learners, they said they think their teacher also asks such questions to reduce stress. She herself also stated that creating a personal and informal atmosphere is important to her. The teacher stated several times that she wants the learners to talk, which is a reason for asking specifically RQs to her. The learners also often believed this to be the reason, stating that their teacher also wants more introverted learners to talk. An interesting insight was gained when it comes to OR questions. Whereas the reasons for asking questions that require the learners to provide feedback were clear to all of the students, namely to practice giving feedback, this was considerably different when OR questions were concerned with the learners' opinions. The teacher herself felt she had two main reasons to ask such questions: The learners should practice speaking and she is interested in their opinions. Whereas the boys felt the teacher is indeed interested

in their opinions and that the possibility to practice English is more of a side-effect, the girls felt that their teacher is not really interested in their opinions. As far as DQs are concerned, the teacher stated she mainly asks such questions to check whether the learners have understood what has been said, which was also stated by the learners.

Besides the reasons the teacher has for asking specific questions, the reasons why learners responded or did not respond to specific questions were interesting as well. The learners themselves expressed four reasons in the SR sessions why they responded to specific questions. The first reason was that the learners indeed wanted to say something as they were interested. For instance, S8 and S11 both said that they feel the urge to express their opinions at times when the teacher asks an interesting question. In contrast, none of the three female learners made such a statement in relation to the questions in the eight video sequences but noted that when a topic is interesting to them, they also want to express their opinion. Another reason for responding was the desire to have a good oral participation grade, which was not stated by the boys. The learners also stated that they enjoy when a question requires them to talk about themselves. Third, the learners stated that they tend to respond to a question when either no one reacts or when someone else has been asked who does not know the answer.

When the learners did not respond to a question, four main reasons for this behavior were expressed by them. The most obvious reasons were that they either did not know the answer or did not have an opinion about something. They also stated that they believe they lack the English skills needed to express themselves at times. The fourth reason provided was particularly interesting, as several learners stated they were afraid to say something. Specifically S2 made two interesting comments in the SR session, describing herself as often being “too much of a coward to raise [her] hand”. Also her statement that “Of course one thinks ‘please do not ask me’” seems to indicate a certain fear of talking in front of others. On the contrary, other learners such as S11 do not seem to be afraid to talk in front of the class although their answers might be wrong. He said, for instance, that to him it did not matter that his spelling of ‘skim’ was wrong. As can be seen in Figure 12, S2 indeed hardly ever answered to the teacher’s questions, in contrast to S11, who had the second highest number of spoken responses in the observed lessons. Also S9, who often responded to the teacher’s questions in the observed lessons, said that there is a certain fear that one’s statements are not good or detailed enough. The teacher herself showed high awareness of the fact that there are also

more introverted learners, who do not feel comfortable answering questions. She also stated that the students may fear their answers are not good enough, which could be a reason why they do not respond.

Another complex issue was related to the learners that responded and to the frequency at which the teacher asked specific learners. Some of the learners stated that when the teacher asks a general question and does not address a specific learner, she wants all of them to actively think and participate. The teacher also stated this reason but she also said she tries not to expose anyone by directly asking them for a response. An interesting issue in relation to this was that some learners, such as S8 and S11, often want to say something but the teacher does not allow them to answer. This was also confirmed by the learners and the teacher. All participants stated that this is done to distribute speaking time more evenly between the learners. The teacher seems to wait for more introverted learners to raise their hand before asking others. An alternative method would certainly be to ask specific learners directly, which is less often the case. Table 22 has shown that while there are only three boys that are below average when it comes to responding to the teacher's questions, only two girls were above average and half of the girls only responded between one to three times in all lessons observed.

Although the six observed lessons only provided a small insight in the EFL classroom and the number of responses made by each individual learner does not necessarily represent their oral participation in class, it shows that there are clearly differences between the learners and tendencies are noticeable. With this in mind, several strategic considerations are worthwhile to motivate more introverted learners to respond as well. As the interviews have suggested, being directly addressed can be uncomfortable and it is questionable whether directly asking the more introverted learners would trigger long responses. Integrating topics which are interesting to the students could be one method to motivate them, as several of the interviewees stated that when they are interested in a topic, they also want to express their opinion.

When we look at DQs and RQs, the attitudes of the learners were considerably different from each other. S9, for instance, stated that she prefers questions where she has to express her knowledge as "one is on the safe side because [the teacher] does not ask for our opinion but about a real fact" to which both S2 and S13 agreed. The female learners also said that answers to questions about opinions can be wrong as well. In contrast, S11 said he himself does not like questions that ask for knowledge and S8 stated that when a question asks for

opinions there are fewer risks as there is no right or wrong answer to which S11 and S14 agreed. Specifically interesting was the less negative image the participants had about DQs, as some even favored these over questions that ask for opinions (i.e. RQs). Lynch (1996: 109) states that when teachers ask questions that test students' knowledge (as DQs do), instead of letting learners say what they want to say (as in the case of RQs), this "can discourage them from wanting to answer, even in that limited way". As the findings show, this is not the case with the six questioned learners. Siposova (2007: 35-36) found that specifically passive learners, in contrast to enthusiastic or active learners, do not like RQs and vice versa. In this study, this was not confirmed. S8, who is an active female student as Figure 12 has shown, favors DQs over RQs in comparison to S14, who seems less active but favors RQs over DQs. Clearly, the six learners interviewed do not reflect the opinion of everyone in class but this shows that simply stating that RQs are favored by all active learners is clearly not true and that also other character traits and preferences of individual learners play a crucial role.

Finally, the participants were directly asked which questions they prefer and why. What all participants stated was that they enjoy personal questions. Using the questioning taxonomy applied in this study, these questions would also referential ones but obviously, there is a difference for some students whether they should talk about their opinions or about themselves. Interestingly, also Özcan (2010: 63) made this observation, stating that about 83% of the learners he observed favor personal questions. As stated earlier, some learners enjoy RQs the most as they allow them to talk about their opinions. In the literature, it is often stated that RQs are more natural (Tsui 1995:28; Shomoosi 2004 96; Lightbown and Spada 2007: 102; Siposova 2007: 34). Although this may be correct, none of the participants mentioned this as a reason for favoring RQs.

A final point that is discussed here are the questions the teacher herself prefers and the reasons for this. The learners stated that their teacher mixes various types of questions, asking for opinions and knowledge but also asking personal questions in the classroom. The teacher herself stated that she tries to ask open questions and to ask for the learners' opinions but that she is unsure what her questioning behavior looks like in reality. She also added that she herself prefers questions about opinions. The findings in relation to research question 1 indeed have shown that the teacher asks more RQs than DQs, most of them being closed. Just like the learners, the teacher seemed to have a less negative image on DQs than the one that can often be found in the literature (as previously discussed

in the sections 3.4 and 5.1.2). For instance, when the teacher asked the learners to explain tenses and their usage she stated that the reason for doing so is that she believes that when the students can explain something themselves, they also have understood it. Thus, DQs do not necessarily serve solely as a way of testing knowledge but also, for instance, to check whether a learner has understood a concept. As mentioned earlier, Dalton-Puffer (2007: 124) warns against “developing an over-simple understanding of classroom language” and thus dividing between good RQs and bad DQs. An aim for teachers must therefore be to use question types that are appropriate for the goal they have. Walsh (2011: 12) stresses the importance of “the relationship between a teacher’s pedagogical goal and choice of question”, adding that what is important is “the extent to which a question serves its purpose at a particular point in a lesson”. From the gathered data it seems as if also DQs are necessary tools in the EFL classroom and what should be criticized is when the questions in class are reduced to this type. Thus, not the usage of DQs should be deplored but an infrequent use of OQs when the aim is that learners produce long responses.

To summarize, the SR sessions indeed provided valuable information. The eight sequences shown to the participants of course only gave a small insight in the EFL lessons observed. Nevertheless, it was an attempt to cover various question types, both OQs and CQs, both RQs and DQs as well as both related to the lessons’ content and other topics which hopefully helped to gather information on various issues that are related to classroom questions. The discussion has shown that the learners are often aware of the reasons why a teacher asks specific questions. Especially the three female learners felt their teacher is not really interested in their opinion and they were also more fearful to talk about their opinions in front of the class. This already suggested that there are considerable differences between the individual learners. Besides the preferences for specific question types, learners also had different reasons for responding. Whereas the girls also thought about their grade for oral participation, the boys more often expressed an interest in a question as the reason why they responded. An analysis of the number of responses each learner provided to the teachers’ questions has shown that whereas some learners respond quite often, others, especially female learners, hardly responded in this study. As both the teacher and the learners argued against asking specific learners, trying to choose interesting topics or asking personal questions could motivate also more introverted learners to respond.

5.4 Summary

The usage of a model that combines the taxonomies constructed by Barnes (1969) and Long and Sato (1983) to analyze the questioning behavior of a teacher in an AHS 6th grade allowed a number of insights. Research question 1 investigated the distribution of the different question types to gain an insight in the types of questions asked in an Austrian EFL classroom. Group 1 questions dominated the classroom with 21% of all questions being DQs and 62% being RQs. Only 20% of these were OQs and the majority, namely 63%, were CQs. When analyzing the four Group 1 question types, CR questions were most common and almost as many OR as CD questions occurred. OD questions occurred least often. A chi-square test has shown that the teacher asked significantly more RQs than DQs which stands in contrast to the findings of other researchers, who usually found a strong prominence of DQs.

The aim of research question 2 was to find out which questions trigger longer responses. The idea was that when the focus is on fluency rather than accuracy in the EFL classroom, learners need opportunities for extended language production. Surprisingly, these were not RQs, as several researchers suggest (Caudron 1988: 127,173; Lynch 1996: 109; Yang 2006: 10; Walsh 2011: 129), but OQs, either referential or display ones in this study. Both OD and OR questions triggered significantly longer responses than their closed counterparts. Thus, OD questions triggered on average longer responses than CR questions in this study. Barnes' (1969) definition of 'open' and 'closed' does not refer to the length of the response but to the range of possible answers a question allows. Still, it seems as if the fact that several possible answers existed caused learners to produce responses that were on average longer than when they were asked a closed question where only a limited number of answers existed. This leads to the conclusion that although the usage of a distinction between RQs and DQs to analyze classroom questions may be easy to apply, when the focus is more on the response length, a distinction between open and closed types as well is preferable since this also allows conclusions to be drawn on how many opportunities learners obtain to produce extensive responses.

The fact that one aim was to find out which questions trigger long responses led to an analysis of the unanswered questions. It seems that although RQs triggered the longest responses in this study, it happens more often than with DQs that they remain unanswered. Whether questions were or were not addressed to specific learners was analyzed as one possible reason why questions remained

unanswered. However, also questions that are too open, are intelligible or do not allow enough wait-time could remain unanswered. About half of all OD, CD and CR questions were addressed to specific students but only about 30% of OR questions were. When the teacher directly addresses a learner, a response seems probably more likely. It is possible that the high number of unanswered OR questions is related to the high number of these questions that were not addressed to specific learners.

In the analysis, a look was also taken at the questions that were answered in German. Again, OR questions stood in sharp contrast to the other three Group 1 question types, as none of these questions were answered in German. OR questions thus triggered the longest responses but also had the highest number of unanswered questions, the lowest number of questions that were addressed to specific learners and triggered solely responses in the target language. These findings suggest that asking open questions, especially OR, is preferable when the aim is that learners receive opportunities for extended speech production and produce responses in the target language.

Research question 3 focused on the opinions of teachers and learners and the SR sessions with seven participants provided useful information. Some learners described DQs as precise and safe whereas others said they enjoy RQs more than DQs as the learners can express themselves and there are no right or wrong answers. Interestingly, as far as the latter point is concerned, there were learners who disagreed and stated they believe that responses to RQs can indeed be wrong or at least can be not good or productive enough. Both the learners and the teacher had a less negative opinion of DQs. Interestingly, all six learners enjoyed personal questions. When using the combined question taxonomy, these questions would be categorized as OR questions but obviously there is a difference for some students whether they should talk about their opinions or about themselves, to which the teacher should pay attention.

An analysis of the number of responses each learner provided to the teachers' questions has shown that whereas some learners responded quite often, others hardly responded. Interestingly, both the teacher and the learners argued against asking specific students as a method of motivating less active learners to respond. The teacher and the learners stated that the students enjoy personal questions or favor questions that are related to topics that are interesting to them. Possibly, asking such questions could also motivate more introverted learners to respond.

6. Limitations and implications for research

In this final chapter, the limitations of the study conducted in this thesis as well as the implications for further research are discussed. One issue is certainly the limited number of teachers and learners observed. Only one teacher was observed and also the number of learners was quite small with fifteen students. Thus, the findings cannot be regarded as representative for the Austrian EFL classroom in general.

Another limitation is related to the SR sessions. Although the usage of video sequences helped to activate memories and made the participants' responses more accurate, they certainly only allowed a small insight in the opinions of teachers and learners on classroom questions. Also the fact that the interviews were held face to face could cause some participants to be more reluctant with their answers than a questionnaire would have been.

In this study, all lessons that were taught in relation to the unit 'city life' were observed with the aim to cover various task types. By observing the teaching of one complete unit, the lessons should be as representative as possible of the common practices in class over the course of a school year. However, the SR sessions have shown that the personal interest in a specific topic has an effect on the learners' motivation to respond to a question or to express their opinions. Observing a longer period in which several different units are covered along with questionnaires that survey the individual learner's interest in the taught topic could be used for further research. The number of times the learners respond to questions could be brought in relation to their interest in a topic. This could also provide more information on whether it is the topic or the question type that is more related to the learners' motivation to answer.

In what follows, some implications for research are discussed. What has not been taken into consideration in this study are the reactions of the teacher to the learners' responses and the effect these have on the responses of the learners. This feature of classroom discourse is known as IRF and has a three-part structure: "a teacher Initiation, a student Response, and a teacher Feedback" (Walsh 2011: 17). Qashoa (2013: 55) and Shomoosi (2004: 101) found that the response of a learner is also influenced by the reaction and feedback of the teacher. Further studies could pay particular attention to teachers' reactions and the effect this has on the speech production. According to Shomoosi (2004: 99), not the individual responses but the duration of classroom interaction that was caused by specific

questions was interesting, which would be an interesting investigation for the Austrian EFL classroom as well.

In this study, the questioning behavior of a teacher has been analyzed. The advantage of open questions to trigger longer responses has been identified. However, it is questionable whether such an analysis is sufficient for teachers to adapt their questioning behavior correspondingly. Lynch (1996: 109) states that even when teachers want to implement changes, “it can be hard for [them] to move away from [their] traditional roles of controller and organizer”. Walsh (2011: 37) also sees difficulties when teachers try to change their behavior, stressing that questioning is “one of the most difficult skills to master” for teachers. In the case of classroom questions, awareness that too many CQs are asked when the aim is that learners practice their speaking skills, for instance, does not automatically help the teacher to adapt or alter their questioning behavior. A closer analysis of questioning improvement strategies and their application in the Austrian EFL classroom would be a worthwhile investigation.

As shown in Table 14, in most studies reviewed in this thesis, researchers analyzed one lesson for each teacher they observed, which allows the researchers to cover a wide range of teachers and different questioning behaviors. In this study, six lessons taught by one teacher were observed, which allowed conclusions on the individual teachers’ preferences to be drawn. It seems reasonable to conduct a larger study that focuses on the questioning behavior of several Austrian English teachers. Thus, an insight in their questioning behaviors can be gained to ascertain which features are more related to the individual teachers’ preferences and personalities and which features can be found in the lessons of various teachers.

Another issue is certainly that in the study conducted for this thesis, only an AHS 6th grade was observed. A broader study could analyze teachers’ questioning behaviors and the learners’ responses in classes with various language levels. This could provide insights in how the questioning behaviors depending on the level of the learners differ. Moreover, such a study could also show differences in the length of learners’ responses. Also differences in the preferences for specific question types learners of various English levels have would be a worthwhile investigation.

Finally, in this study, it was only tested which questions trigger longer responses. OQs were shown to trigger significantly longer responses than CQs and whether these were RQs or DQs played a minor role. Thus, the commonly found notion that RQs trigger longer responses than DQs (Caudron 1988: 127,173; Lynch

1996: 109; Yang 2006: 10; Walsh 2011: 129) was not confirmed. However, other reasons why some researchers believe RQs to be still preferable, for instance, that they are supposed to “promote discussion and debate” or trigger “more complex responses” (Walsh 2011: 12) was not tested. Thus, an investigation of other effects RQs have (besides the length of the responses these trigger) as well as a discussion of beneficial effects DQs can have seems worthwhile.

7. Conclusion

As this thesis has shown, questions play a crucial role in classroom discourse, serving as tools to control discourse, manage groups, check understanding, promote learning or encourage language production. Five question taxonomies were reviewed in order to give an overview on the variety of models that have been constructed over the last decades and are still frequently used. Particular attention was paid to Barnes' (1969) and Long and Sato's (1983) models due to their simple application. Models that only partially combined the two models have been used before. The combination has been revised for the study described in this thesis as the new combination should pay attention to not only the categories open and closed as well as referential and display, as other combinations did, but also take the other categories mentioned in the original versions of the taxonomies into consideration. Although these have a negligible role in this study, these types also occur and ignoring them could lead to distorted findings. Other combinations did also use definitions of terms different to the ones in the original studies. In this thesis, an attempt was made to adhere to the original definitions of the key terms used by Long and Sato (1983) and a slight adaption of Barnes' (1969) definition of closed questions due to its problematic nature. A detailed explanation of the study's methodology served to contextualize it but also provided information on the reasons for the research questions and methods chosen.

The study itself allowed a number of insights. It showed that the dominance of DQs found in classrooms by other researchers has not been the case in this study. In fact, significantly more RQs were used. The categories open and closed were shown to have an effect on the length of learners' responses. It was concluded that when the teacher aims for extended learner speech, OQs are preferable. OR questions were the questions that triggered the highest number of responses in the target language English. However, a further analysis of the number of unanswered questions showed that OR questions are also the one of the four Group 1 questions which had the highest number of unanswered questions and the highest number of questions which were not directed at a specific learner. A possible relationship between these two findings would suggest that the teacher addresses OR questions at specific learners to make sure that the question is successful in triggering long responses.

However, the SR sessions have shown that both the learners and the teacher argue against directly addressing specific learners as this means less freedom and

some learners might feel exposed and uncomfortable. As all six learners stated they enjoy talking about topics they are interested in and also personal questions, these could be two other ways of engaging learners so that more of them feel inclined to respond.

This study has shown that DQs do not necessarily trigger short responses. Some learners also stated that they feel more inclined to respond to questions that ask for knowledge (i.e. DQs) rather than opinions (i.e. RQs). An analysis of a teachers' questioning behavior utilizing this combined model should broaden the view on RQs and DQs as whether these questions are open or closed has a considerable effect on the response length. Open questions were shown to be preferable when the aim is to trigger long responses. Nevertheless, taking the learners' opinions and preferences into consideration as well proved to be particularly worthwhile, as not all learners favor the same questions and thus feel not as inclined to answer to specific questions as others might do.

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9. Appendix

A) Narrative descriptions

Lesson 1

Date:	Wednesday; 28th of October, 2015
Time:	9:00 – 9:50
Room:	A
Number of students:	15
Students missing:	-

The lesson starts with some organizational matters such as collecting homework. This lesson introduces the topic of the new unit, namely city life, to the learners. First, the students are asked to do a matching exercise in their course books. Here, different types of houses need to be matched to the correct terms. The solutions are then compared by listening to the correct terms on a sound file. In the repetition of the listening, the learners are asked to repeat the terms aloud. Two further matching tasks follow in which descriptions of words in English have to be matched to the correct terms and pictures. These are terms that can be used to describe a city or different buildings. After the comparison of the results, the students receive a sheet of paper. Three video clips are shown to the learners which are taken from the YouTube channel of a travel company. Each video is about one city, namely New York, Sydney and Belfast. The learners are asked to make notes while they are watching the videos. Finally, the teacher assigns the homework for the next day which is to write a short text explaining which of the three cities from the videos they would like to visit. Further, until next week, the learners should send a picture of a city they would like to live in to the teacher.

Lesson 2

Date:	Thursday; 29th of October, 2015
Time:	12:00 – 12:50
Room:	B
Number of students:	13
Students missing:	S11, S15

As their homework assignment, the students had to take notes for an in-class presentation explaining which of the three cities they saw in the videos the day before they would like to visit. First, the learners discuss their notes in pairs. Next, the teacher selects three students who have to present their opinion in front of the class. Afterwards, the learners receive a handout on the tenses present simple, present continuous, present perfect simple and present perfect continuous. The teacher lets the students decide whether they want to work on the different tenses in groups and present them to the class or whether she should teach it and the learners participate actively. The class decides on the latter approach. Together the handout is read. Three further handouts are handed out, two of which the students are asked to do as their homework assignment for next week. Finally, the class gets together in groups depending on which of the three cities they would like to live in. In these groups, the learners are asked to discuss why they chose a specific city.

Lesson 3

Date:	Wednesday; 4 th of November, 2015
Time:	9:00 – 9:50
Room:	A
Number of students:	13
Students missing:	S1, S10

The learners are asked to compare their homework in which they had to fill in exercises on the tenses present simple, present continuous, present perfect simple and present perfect continuous. Meanwhile, the teacher prepares the laptop and connects it to the class' smart board. The homework is briefly discussed with the class. Next, the teacher opens a power point presentation in which she has put together all the pictures of cities the learners sent to her. Six students are asked to hold their presentations on the cities they would like to live in. After each presentation, some students are asked to comment on the presentation and ask questions. As their homework task, the learners should find some kind of tourist information for London.

Lesson 4

Date:	Monday; 9 th of November, 2015
Time:	9:00 – 9:50
Room:	A
Number of students:	13
Students missing:	S1, S11

The lesson starts by finishing the student presentation from the last lesson. Next, the learners are asked to take out the tourist information on London they were supposed to gather as their homework assignment. In groups of two to four the learners should have a look at the pictures, information and texts they brought and discuss them. For the next lesson, the learners should prepare a two-minute talk in their groups as if they were a company trying to sell tourist tours in London. As a homework task, each learner should write a text for a brochure of about 200 words of length. The lesson finishes with the teacher reminding the learners that there will be a vocabulary test on Thursday.

Lesson 5

Date:	Wednesday; 11 th of November, 2015
Time:	9:00 – 9:50
Room:	B
Number of students:	13
Students missing:	S1, S5

The teacher hands back the homework of the learners. Some organizational issues follow. As the learners say that half of the group will be missing tomorrow, the teacher moves the vocabulary test from Thursday to Monday. The learners receive five more minutes to organize their two-minute talks they were supposed to prepare for today. All five groups hold their presentations. Next, the learners open their books and describe pictures to each other in pairs. A listening task follows. The learners listen to the file twice and then the results are compared. Last week the learners received several worksheets on the tenses which they are supposed to finish until tomorrow. Further, the reading “An old English town in Germany” is assigned to them as a homework task.

Lesson 6

Date:	Thursday; 12 th of November, 2015
Time:	12:00 – 12:50
Room:	B
Number of students:	9
Students missing:	S1, S2, S4, S6, S8, S14

The teacher writes down what the learners have to do until the next Monday. The learners have to prepare for the vocabulary test on Monday, download the app 'Kahoot', hand in the brochures they had to write and bring a green folder for the exam. A reading exercise follows. The text consists of five sections that describe attractions in Dubai and the learners have to answer six questions on the text. After they compared the results, another reading task follows. The learners have to skim through a text to find specific numbers and find out what these numbers refer to. While the learners are performing the reading tasks, the teacher hands out two slices of paper to each learner. The answers to the reading task are compared. Now, the teacher explains the next task. On one paper slice each learner can read his or her topic, for instance, 'family' or 'shopping', which they are supposed to talk about for one minute. On the other slice an adjective is written on, for example, 'angry', 'nervous' or 'tired', which tells them how they should present their topic. The learners have about five minutes to prepare their short presentations on their own. Next, they get together in small groups of two to three and practice their short presentations. Finally, the learners perform the speaking exercise in front of the class.

B) Lesson transcripts

The transcriptions were made utilizing the conventions of the Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English (2007). In what follows, a list of the conventions used for this study along with examples from the collected data is provided in Table 23:

Table 23 Transcription conventions based on the Vienna Oxford International Corpus of English (2007) and used in this study

convention	explanation
S1, S2, S3,...	speakers (each student received a number in this study, see Figure 3 and Figure 4)
SS	used when an utterance can be assigned to several speakers
T	abbreviation used for the teacher
?	indicates a rising intonation <u>example:</u> <i>T: S10 (.) when you are done, can you collect them?</i>
.	indicates a falling intonation <u>example:</u> <i>S7: Yes.</i>
(.)	brief pause in speech (about 0.5 seconds)
(1) (2) ...	longer pause in speech (number indicates duration of pause in seconds) <u>example:</u> <i>T: Which one do you mean? (1) Number D?</i>
=	indicates that a turn is immediately followed by another <u>example:</u> <i>S3: <L1de> Das ist das was ich=</L1de> S9: =[S10].</i>
EVERYday	capital letters indicate that emphasis has been put on certain syllables, words or phrases <u>example:</u> <i>T: okay nobody WANTS to, who WILL read the questions?</i>
:	indicates that a sound is lengthened <u>example:</u> <i>S11: one, two a:nd virgins.</i>

@	<p>indicates laughter, number of @ indicates number of syllables (e.g. @@ = haha)</p> <p><u>example:</u></p> <p>S11: <i>Because of the already @@.</i></p>
<@> </@>	<p>indicates that utterance was spoken laughingly</p> <p><u>example:</u></p> <p>S12: <@> <i>I'm loving it?</i> </@></p>
<L1de> </L1de>	<p>indicates that an utterance was made in German,</p> <p><u>example:</u></p> <p>S8: <L1de> <i>Mir fehlt das mit A.</i> </L1de></p>
<1> </1> <2> </2> ...	<p>indicates an overlaps (simultaneous utterances get the same number, overlaps are numbered consistently and marked in blue)</p> <p><u>example:</u></p> <p>S9: <i>learning violin</i><4> <i>and</i> </4></p> <p>T: <4> <i>playing the violin</i>= </4></p>
<soft> </soft> <loud></loud> ...	<p>Descriptions of the speaking modes are put in tags and indicate that an utterance has been spoken in a particular way and is different from the rest of the utterance</p> <p><u>example:</u></p> <p>T: <i>How can you explain the term <singing> suburb </singing> in English?</i></p>
<nods> <sighs> ...	<p>Descriptions of nonverbal behavior are added in tags to the text.</p> <p><u>example:</u></p> <p>T: <to S11> <i>He told YOU <pointing at student>? </to S11></i></p>
<spel> </spel>	<p>Indicate an utterance was spelled out</p> <p><u>example:</u></p> <p>S11: <spel> <i>s k i m.</i> </spel></p>
<pvc> </pvc>	<p>indicates striking variations in phonology (a phonetic representation is added in <ipa> </ipa>)</p> <p><u>example:</u></p> <p>T: <i>Could you try to use a <loud> more </loud> Austrian accent than (1) <pvc> bungalOW <ipa> 'baŋgalo <ipa> </pvc></i></p>

<to X> </to X>	<p>indicates that an utterance was addressed to a specific person, <u>example</u>:</p> <p><i>T: <to S6> <@> And it (.) doesn't sound aggressive to you? </@> </to S6></i></p>
<un> xx </un>	<p>indicates that an utterance was intelligible, utterance itself is represented in x's and indicates approximate syllable number <u>example</u>:</p> <p><i>S14: An area <un> xxx </un> town at <un> xx </un> city but not at the center.</i></p>
[first name1] [place1]	<p>places and names are put into square brackets and anonymized <u>example</u>:</p> <p><i>S11: <raises hands> I (.) <loud> Maybe he talked to ehm Mr. [name 1].</i></p>
t- t- to to Di- did	<p>repetitions and false starts are represented as well <u>example</u>:</p> <p><i>T: <L1de> Welch- </L1de> Which tense do you use in German for that one?</i></p> <p><i>T: Was it difficult for you to to do this exercises? THESE exercises?</i></p>

Transcripts lesson 1

1.	T: Ehm (2) Next one. Who will write Unit 3? City life (2) Who will? S9: <L1de> Ja [name1] und ich. </L1de>
2.	T: <to S10> [S10], do you have time to talk after the lesson? </to S10> S10: <nods>
3.	T: Is someone missing (.) today? (2) What about [first name1], is he (1) in school? S7: <soft> No. </soft>
4.	T: S10 (.) when you are done, can you collect them?
5.	T: Guys (.) Do y- do all of you have (.) actually two sheets of paper? Cause I still have to many <loud> copies= </loud>. SS: =ah
6.	T: Which ones are missing? Is is this one missing or? S8: <L1de> Mir fehlt das mit A.</L1de>
7.	T: Some of you could you open the window?
8.	T: Which one do you mean? (1) Number D? S9: yes.
9.	T: Ready? (2) Everybody? SS: <some nod>
10.	T: Who needs more time? (.) [S14], do you need more time? S14: <shakes head>
11.	T: Who was correct? (.) Nobody?
12.	T: Which one? S13: Suburb.
13.	T: What is a suburb? S9: <@> Vorstadt. </@>
14.	T: How can you explain the term <singing> suburb </singing> in English? [S14]? S14: An area <un> xxx </un> town at <un> xx </un> city but not at the center.
15.	T: Do you need help with any of the terms?
16.	T: Can you read us the sentence?
17.	T: You know the song 'Downtown' by Macklemore? S9: <1> Yes </1> (.) <spel> EMAs </spel> S14: <singing> <1> downtown </1> (1) downtown </singing> SS: @@

18.	T: Ready? (1) <loud> guys </loud>, ready? SS: <nod> S14: <screaming> Yes. </screaming>
19.	T: What did you think about the videos? (1) Comments? S9: <soft> very informative </soft> (.) and (.) good.
20.	T: yes? S8: I think the first two videos were very very positive <2> and the </2> last one uh <makes hand movements> does like uh about the <spel> IRA </spel> (.) I mean also about <moving hands> the place of Titanic and things </moving hands> (.) not <louder> that </louder> positive. T: <2> mhm </2>
21.	T: What else? (.) Other comments?
22.	T: Did you like the videos or not? S7: Yes.
23.	T: You don't like them? S7: Well (2) IF I'd like to go there I would watch them but (.) I don't think I am going <fast> ever </fast> going to go there.
24.	T: Not to New York not to Sidney? S7: Well (.) at least not to Belfast (2) maybe for the pubs.
25.	T: What else? Maybe the girls in the (.) front row want to (.)<louder> say </louder> something? [S10]? S10: I liked the first to MORE than the last one because it did not say much (1) ehm and it wasn't (.) <L1de> ja </L1de> (.) it didn't say anything (.) informative.
26.	T: Do you have a comment?
27.	T: Some other comments? (.) Homework (1) <singing> yay. </singing>
28.	T: <@> Should we leave the room so you can discuss? </@>
29.	T: Could you try to use a <loud> more </loud> Austrian accent than (1) <pvc> bungalOW <ipa> 'baŋgalo <ipa> </pvc> (1)<pvc> block of flATS <ipa> flets <ipa> </pvc>? SS: @@

Transcripts lesson 2

1.	T:Did you uh (.) bring the bag of <loud> cloth </loud>?
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	S8: Yeah <points at teacher>
2.	T: Who is taking the sheets for [S11]? S9: <raises hand>
3.	T: So, (.) is everyone prepared? SS: <look up from their notes>
4.	T: Everybody's ready? SS: <some nod>
5.	T: Yeah but (.) but what about Ireland? You said like (.) yeah. S9: Well(.) I hate the music they (.) <3> produce </3>. My my mother is (.) ehm (2) learning (...) violin <looking at teacher>= SS: <3> @@ </3> T: =mhm S9: learning violin<4> and </4> T: <4> playing the violin= </4> S9: =she's playing the violin and she always plays Irish music and (.) I HATE it. It is SO annoying to hear it (.) EVERYday.
6.	T: S7? S7: Well (.), out of these three I chose Belfast because (.) I'm not a fan of big cities because (.) <moves hands> people.</moves hands> <5> Not reasons. </5> People. Uh I I don't like a crowd places and as we could see in the video, New York is FULL of them. But Belfast uh seemed kind uh like S8 said <@> HOMELY </@> so uh I'd choose Belfast. SS: <5> @@ </5>,
7.	T: S12? Oh I think I know which one you choose= S9: =<shakes head> T: No? S9: No. I chose Sidney because there are a lot of beaches and I think (3) Okay because there are a lot of beaches and I think it is cool that you can go to the beach every day and it also offers a lot of free-time activities <fast> for example </fast> you can go snorkeling or (.) visit the zoo or (.) sea life museum. And (.) I also like the people who live in Australia because I think they are easy-going and more relaxed <fast> yeah. </fast>
8.	T: Is someone who really really REALLY wants to present his or her own idea (.) or? S7: <soft> Did you really just ask this question? </soft>

9.	T: Although people say it's it's BETTER if you work it out on your own, which one would you prefer? Should I talk about (.) tenses= SS: =yes.
10.	T: Who can explain to me in (.) <points with pen> when do you use present simple </points with pen> (.) you can <fast> first </fast> explain it in English AND <points with pen> I want you to explain it in German </points with pen> (.) and also try uh get the connections right, okay? So, when do we use present simple, (2) HOW would we use this kind of present simple in OUR German language? <fast> Because </fast> (.) this is the problem you usually have when we are writing texts you translate from German to English (.) <fast> and this is the reason </fast> why you make these <singing> silly mistakes </singing> (1) Okay, so when do you use present simple? S3: We use it to talk about things that are always true or about <fast> habits </fast> ehm I'm thinking conversations like (.) ehm <loud> 'I always walk to school' </loud> we often use it with <moves hands> always, never </moves hands> (.) about some (.) yeah
11.	T: What's the problem? Why do we confuse it with present continuous in German? S9? S9: <gestures with hands> Because in German present simple is like our (.) now (.) tense. Like everything we do now is in German the present simple but in English it is present continuous. </gestures with hands>
12.	T: Can you give me examples? In (1) German? No problem, and <moves hands> then translate. </moves hands> S9: <L1de> Ich sitz hier. </L1de> @@ and in English I sit in here 'cause present continuous is what you are doing now.
13.	T: Ehm (1) Is there something interesting you haven't really thought about that much? S10: Ehm (.) In the continuous type with always it is like (.) ehm (.) confusing 'cause always is a signal word for simple.
14.	T: Do you know how we call these things in English? I said it a few times? S9: <un> xx? </un>
15.	T: WHO of you has done mistakes in these tenses (.) in your last homeworkS? SS: <Some raise their hands.>
16.	T: When <slow> do we use present perfect simple? </slow>
17.	T: The people in the back <points to the back with hand>? S13?

	S14: Things that started in the past and continued to the present.
18.	<p>T: What's the problem with <hitting on table> this </hitting on table> in German? You can ex- uh try it first in English but then (.) tr- you can also switch to German cause I want you to really (1) <slow> inherit </slow> the thought of present simple in your brain.</p> <p>S13: <L1de> Darf ichs in Deutsch sagen?= </L1de></p> <p>T: <L1de> =Ja. </L1de></p> <p>S13: <L1de> Okay. Also in Deutsch wärs hald so, dass zum Beispiel wie also (.) Sie hat ihr Motorrad schon seit uh seit über sechs Jahren. </L1de></p>
19.	<p>T: What's the tense in German? <L1de> Sie hat ihr Motorrad schon seit sechs Jahren. </L1de> (.) Which tense would that be? In German?</p> <p>S13: <L1de> Naja das is ja eigentlich Gegenwart weil sie hat es. </L1de></p>
20.	<p>T: What about the other two? <pointing back> <fast> Because you said you also have mistakes? </fast> Can you give me another German sentence where you SHOULD use (.) <fast> present perfect simple? </fast> S11?</p> <p>S11: <L1de> ehm (.) Zum Beispiel bei 'Have you ever flow in an helicopter' das is (.) ob mans <fast> überhaupt </fast> schon mal gemacht hat. (.) Und da verwendet man die <soft> Zeit auch. </soft> </L1de></p>
21.	<p>T: <L1de> Welch- </L1de> Which tense do you use in German for that one?</p> <p>S11: <L1de> (1) Auch Gegenwart <soft> Bist do schon mal (.) </soft> mit einem Helikopter geflogen (.) <fast> aso nein </fast> Vergangenheit. </L1de></p>
22.	<p>T: Can someone of you give me another te:nse (.) in GERman which is also used for <fast> present perfect simple </fast>? A sentence (1) with another tense?</p> <p>S8: <raises hand></p> <p>T: YeS you can say something.</p> <p>S8: <L1de> Ehm (.) <clears throat> Zum Beispiel hh (1) also manchmal ehm gibt's das mit dem <fast> Präteritum= </fast> </L1de></p> <p>T: =mhm=</p> <p>S8: <L1de> =dass es verwechselt wird weil WIR oft uh unser Perfekt statt dem Präteritum einsetzen also praktisch is es im Deutschen eigentlich egal ob man sagt ehm ,Ich GING gestern einkaufen' oder ,Ich bin gestern einkaufen gegangen'= </L1de></p> <p>T: <L1de> <loud> =ja </loud></L1de></p> <p>S8: <L1de> und das kann <moves hands> im Prinzip uh auf beide Arten</p>

	verwenden im <loud> Deutschen </loud> (.) und im Englischen <puts hands on desk> in diesem Fall nicht die present perfect weil man weiß, dass es Yesterday war.</L1de>
23.	T: But <gestures with hands> who can give me an example where you use <L1de> Präteritum </L1de> (.) and you <fast> in German </fast> and you should use <fast> present perfect simple </fast> in English? (2) You can also look at your examples (2) if you can't think of a sentence. S8: <L1de> Ich war schon mal in der Schweiz.</L1de> I've been to Switzerland.
24.	T: Any comments? (.) How (.) how did I say the last time we talked about present perfect simple how to <waving with pen> remember </waving with pen> like in German or or or in English <soft> I would prefer </soft> the use of this tense? S9: <L1de> Wenn ma die Zeit betont. </L1de>
25.	T: Who wants to read to me? (.) The watch out? (1) Who wants to read watch out? S9: <raises hand>
26.	T: Who remembers what are <loud> stative </loud> words? Who remembers? S9: I think uh (.) those are words which are not normally (.) used in the ing-form <fast> in the continuous form. </fast>
27.	Who remembers which sentence I hate? S12: <@> I'm loving it? </@>
28.	T: Why is that incorrect? Why is this incorrect? S9: Because it sounds repulsive.
29.	T: Maybe some of <slow> you </slow> give examples for static verbs (1) which do not usually have an ing-form? (.) present participle is also the name for the ing form. S2: Want?
30.	T: Who is taking the sheets for S11 and S15? S1: <L1de> Ich hab für S11 schon genommen Frau Professor Ich hab schon für S11 genommen (.) Ich hab schon für S11. </L1de>
31.	T: S11, Would you participate? Or (1) What do you want to (.) Is it has it a meaning to what we are saying? S11: S12 asked me why thinking (.) think is on the stative verbs list.
32.	T: Is someone missing twelve to fifteen?

33.	T: Do you want to get started with the homework or would you like some talk (.) time? S8: Talk.
34.	T: Who of you chose New York by the way? S3, S4, S9, S10, S14: <raise hand>
35.	T: What do you like most about Belfast? S7: Well ehm the video itself wasn't really <un> xx </un> it said well how the the <un> xx x </un> but the pictures they showed so how the <un> xx </un> it was more like home than huge cities.
36.	T: Dou you feel it was a mixture between Austrian cities and Belfast was this one of the reasons? S7: Well Austrian cities (.) If you take Belfast it is like <L1de> Dorf </L1de>
37.	T: You think Belfast is like <L1de> <@> Dorf </@> </L1de>? S7: No (.) it's closely than New York you could say (.) so (.) yeah. It's a nation like Austria.

Transcripts lesson 3

1.	T: So which one do you want? S8: Ah (1) one of them.
2.	T: You want both of them? S8: Just pick one of them.
3.	T: So which one do you want?
4.	T: Was it difficult for you to to do this exercises? THESE exercises? S9: <L1de> C. </L1de>
5.	T: What was the problem with that?
6.	T: Can you give me an example? S9: Uh (2) 'I have been trying to get in touch with Jen this morning but <7> I can't uh (.) find her anywhere'. </7>
7.	Which number is that? S9: Six.
8.	Why is 'I have been trying to get in touch with Jen this morning but <7> I can't uh (.) find her anywhere' (2). </7> Which which tense did you use? S9: <7> I don't know I have </7> Present perfect.
9.	T: Who can explain why we should use 'I have been trying'? In (1) num- ehm

	(.) section C (.) sentence six (2) and it is 'I have been trying to get in touch with Jen this morni-', yeah <pointing at student> S12: Ehm (.) Maybe because you still try to (.) find her?
10.	T: S7? S7: Maybe you tried (2) all morning <gesturing with hands> <looking at S9> who did not understand the example>. If you tried it ONCE you tried it but you haven't been trying it ALL morning </looking at S9 who did not understand the example>.
11.	Other examples?
12.	I can't understand you guys (.) Am I death today or is it you?
13.	T: Why S11? S11: Because of the already @@.
14.	T: What about you S15? Which section was difficult for you? S15: <L1de> Ich hab's ja nicht mal bekommen, was soll ich machen? </L1de>
15.	T: Who took th- the exercise sheets for L15? <soft> Did you- did you gi- did you give it to him? </soft> S14: <L1de> Ich hab's auf seinen Platz gelegt. </L1de>
16.	T: Who else hasn't done <drumming pen on table> the exercise by the way? S5: <raising hand> I've lost (.) sheets.
17.	T: Any other questions? S8: eight three. Because uh (.) The right option is uh (.) 'We aren't ea- eating any meat at the moment as we both are on a diet' (.) I don't quite understand that because of course it's uh <gesturing with hands> at the moment </gesturing with hands> I think but a DIET isn't that a general thing (1) over a longer time?
18.	T: Any other questions? S8: There it says 'My mom calls me every weekend without fail' But what if it ehm some sort of sounds annoying (2) <loud> 'My mom is calling me every weekend without fail' </loud> and I thought that's a- T: -yeah then it's possible.
19.	T: Any other questions? S14? S13? S13: I had something wrong at G.
20.	T: G? S13: J (.) But I think I understand it now?
21.	T: What about the comments on 'Virgins'? Any comments on the absence ON

	the comments on 'Virgins'?
22.	Who is on? S13: <L1de> Frau Professor kann ich als zweite? </L1de>
23.	T: Do you have any comments? Who wants to ask something or who wants to comment on something?
24.	T: S15, Do you know a question you can ask?
25.	T: Any other comments?
26.	T: Do you have a comment?
27.	T: Ehm (.) Were you nervous because of the cameras or because of me? Or because you didn't prepare? S15: <nods> <L1de> Das war a 10 Minuten G'schicht </L1de>
28.	T: Who wants to say something?

Transcripts lesson 4

1.	T: Ehm (1) Any questions?
2.	T: You know that in two weeks we will have our (.) English EXam? SS: Yes.
3.	T: S9, Could you at least TRY to talk in English? S9: Yes Okay.@@
4.	T: <to S9> Do you need more time for it? </to S9> S9: Yes.
5.	T: Is the Latin test tomorrow? SS: Yes.
6.	T: Do you know the answer? S8: I got a dictionary.
7.	T: Ehm (.) S15? (.) Are you prepared today? S15: <looking at teacher and nods>
8.	T: Comments? Oh wait (.) Who is Who was the last comment (.) or the last person to ask? Do you remember? S14: <raising hand> <L1de> ich. </L1de> </raising hand>
9.	T: You? S14: <nods>
10.	T: Questions about [place1]? S7: <@> On the <un> xx x.</un> </@>

11.	T: Okay (.) Did you PRActice? S11: YES (.) but I forgot everything.
12.	T: When did you practice? S11: I've sent you the picture on (.) Thursday and then I practice on Thursday.
13.	T: Next ONE (.) Who is up?
14.	T: Maybe it is [S10]'s? S9: Ehm.
15.	T: Not yours? S6: <shakes head>
16.	T: Who is Amsterdam? S9: <L1de> Das ist glaub ich die [S11] hätt ich gesagt</L1de>
17.	T: Is there a reason why everybody talks to me in German today? S3: <L1de> Uh Montag? </L1de>
18.	T: Who's picture is this? S9: [S10]. S3: <L1de> Das ist das was ich=</L1de> S9: =[S10].
19.	T: Questions? Who hasn't asked anything yet? S3: <raises hand>
20.	T: Okay, questions? [S6]? S6: I was looking for the picture but I <soft> couldn't find it. </soft>
21.	T: Any other questions? [S13]? S13: <mourns>
22.	T: What is the problem? S3: E:hm (2) I forgot like (.) every single fact I s- found out and so ehm T: Guys, you annoy me today.
23.	T: Which was your picture? S13: Los Angeles.
24.	T: Where is the (1) I don't know about your Los Angeles picture? S12: <L1de> Haben sies nicht gekriegt? </L1de>
25.	T: Which river? <scrolling through the pictures> S6: A bit further (.) you passed.
26.	T: That one? Amsterdam? S6: No (.) <fast> no no. </fast>
27.	T: That's a river?

	S6: Yes.
28.	T: Is that your town? S6: I have NO idea. I I don't think so because it's the sea and=
29.	T: =Which city did you choose? S6: Perm (.) In Russia.
30.	T: So (2) Which one? S13: Ehm (2)<L1de> es ist nicht dabei. </L1de>
31.	T: So (.) [S15], can you comment or ask something?
32.	T: You mean the Hollywood the Hollywood sign? S13: Yes.
33.	T: What about you [S6]? What are we doing now? S6: Look up for a picture and=
34.	T: =Which Russian city would you like? S6: Perm (...) or Molotov.
35.	T: Molotov? S6: Yes, it is now called Perm but it was called Molotov.
36.	T: Guys you need to find <gestures with hands> a way (.) to to convey like the notion you have finished your presentation how can you do this? </gestures with hands> S8: Thank you for your attention?
37.	T: <fast> [S14] can you ask a question or comment? </fast> S14: Ehm T: <soft> Well not can you but will you (.) please. </soft>
38.	T: <to S6> <@> And it (.) doesn't sound aggressive to you? </@> </to S6> S6: Well (.) not aggressive like (.) other languages. I I have no example there but (1) German @@
39.	T: Were you nervous [S6]? S6: YES I was.
40.	T: Why are you nervous? This is what I do not get.
41.	T: [S5], can you ask him a question?

Transcripts lesson 5

1.	T: <to S11> He left? </to S11> S11: Yes.
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2.	T: Did he did he tell a teacher? S11: No he only told me.
3.	T: <to S11> He told YOU <pointing at student>? </to S11> S11: ME and S8.
4.	T: Yeah but why didn't he talk to a teacher? S11: <raises hands> I (.) <loud> Maybe he talked to ehm Mr. [name 1]. (.) Maybe but I don't know but I don't know <fast> because I'm not interested. <fast>
5.	T: So which vocabulary do you need to know tomorrow? S11: one, two a:nd virgins.
6.	T: And? S11: Three?
7.	T: Who is taking the PISA test? S2, S4, S6, S8, S14: <raise hands>
8.	T: On Monday? Asking when the math exam will be S11: Yes.
9.	T: So, do you know when your test will be? S14: <soft> <L1de> dritte vierte. </L1de> <soft>
10.	T: Are you sure? S11: Yes.
11.	T: Where are the spare copies? S12: <L1de> Die hab ich der S4 gegeben. </L1de> S4: <L1de> Ich hab die vorne hin. </L1de>
12.	T: Another thing she could improve?
13.	T: Are you ready? S9: <L1de> Na eigentlich nicht. </L1de>
14.	T: You don't know what the London Eye is? S11: Yeah I know what the London Eye is but she says the biggest (.) what did she say? gi- ah GIANT (.) giant. <pvc> Chaim </pvc> like <pvc> chaim </pvc> <L1de> <spel> c h i e m </spel> </L1de>
15.	T: What can she do better? What can she do better? S7? S7: Well ehm taking your stuff eh in front because you left your stuff behind=
16.	T: Come on (.) so (.) what can she seriously do better than forgetting two sheets of paper bringing to the way? S7: <soft> No it was pretty fluent so (.) I think (.) it was good.

17.	T: S8? S8: Just a few small things about pronunciation. For example every. Y- I think you said evEry. It's not not like entirely like false but it does not sound like naturally English, you know? I mean it was okay just some small.
18.	T: <L1de> Kannst du machen oder kannst du nicht machen? </L1de> S14: <L1de> Naja ich würds eher ablesen (.) als frei sprechen. </L1de>
19.	T: S15, Can you talk freely? S15: <L1de> Nein (.) Wissen Sie warum weil ich war gestern nicht da und hatte den Zettel auf meinem Platz und dann wurde er bald (.) umgeräumt und dann war der Zettel weg. </L1de>
20.	T: Two things he can improve?
21.	T: <to S7 and S8> Didn't you prepare at all? <to S7 and S8>
22.	T: Two things he can do better? S13? S13: Maybe make more eye contact?
23.	T: Other things? S3? What do you think? S3: Maybe (.) Speak a little louder?
24.	T: Did you not do (.) your homework? S6: We did we just didn't write down.
25.	T: S11, What is up with you today?
26.	T: S15, Can you read the instructions of the next exercise, please?
27.	T: I wanted to ask you do- shall I shall I give another presentation about studying abroad? Would you be interested? SS: Yes.
28.	T: Who- you were there. Did you like it? Should we do it the same way or should we change it? S11: I think maybe the first information was a little too much.
29.	T: Which one? S11: The first information. Until you came to Erasmus.
30.	T: Who can answer? S11: <raises hand> T: S11 you have a break now.
31.	T: Any any difficulties with particular words? SS: <shake heads>
32.	T: S7, Can you read the whole text to me please?
33.	T: Did you have anything else ehm apart from 'make a dish' I think you said eh

	in G? S9: dinner?
34.	T: Who is missing again? S2, S3, S4, S6, S8, S14: <raise hands>
35.	T: Why- six? Why is it you? S3: <L1de> Keine Ahnung </L1de> S4: <L1de> Zufall </L1de> S8: I guess we were drawn.
36.	T: Do you remember these pages I told you you don't have to do <holds two worksheets up>?
37.	T: S13, do you have them? S13: <nods>
38.	T:<to S15> Dou you need them? </to S15> S15: <nods>
39.	T: What is a nonsense presentation? S6: We get a topic which is useless (.) or (.) say something about anything. It does not have to make sense.
40.	T: Any other question?

Transcripts lesson 6

1.	T: Did you get my e:mail? SS: Ye:s.
2.	T: S11, Could you find some way to- like an eraser? S11: <gets up>
3.	T: Would you like to visit Dubai? Why? Why not? S9? S9: I do not want to visit it because it's too hot there and it's just one big city without any <soft> <un> xx xx. </un> </soft>
4.	T: Without any what? S9: <loud> without any (.) historical meaning (3) like <fast> the background. </fast>
5.	T: S13? S13: I would like to visit it because I think it's a really modern city (.) and I also heard that it has the biggest shopping center worldwide. T: The important things in life. @

	SS: @@
6.	<p>T: What about you S15, would you like to go to Dubai?</p> <p>S15: I don't think so because I think it is too hot there and a friend of mine was there and he said when you go into a shop there has only 20 degrees in it and when you go out the (.) heat is (.) <L1de> ins Gesicht schlagen hald </L1de>.</p>
7.	<p>T: How could you express that?</p> <p>S15: it slams in your face.</p>
8.	<p>T: What else could you say S15? (1) Or was that all?</p> <p>S15: <nods></p>
9.	<p>T: S11?</p> <p>S11: I don't want to go to Dubai because I think it's like very expensive (.) and ehm it's not a really ehm <loud> beautiful </loud> city. It's more like there <moves hands> is a big tower (.) maybe I want to visit the ehm biggest </moves hands> in Dubai there is the the biggest=</p> <p>S9: =Burj Khalifa?</p> <p>S11: yeah the Burj Khalifa</p>
10.	<p>T: No you do not mean the name of the tower but how do yo- what's the term in English to to say that?</p> <p>S11: It's the biggest <@> skyscraper </@>.</p>
11.	<p>T: So hands up, who would like to go to Dubai?</p> <p>S3, 10, S13: <raise hands></p>
12.	T: Who wants to read the questions to me?
13.	<p>T: okay nobody WANTS to, who WILL read the questions?</p> <p>S9: <raises hand></p>
14.	<p>T: How do you write skim?</p> <p>S11: <L1de> <spel> s c i m. </spel> </L1de></p>
15.	<p>T: No. In English?</p> <p>S11: <spel> s k i m. </spel></p>
16.	<p>T: S7, do you have it?</p> <p>S7: Yes.</p>
17.	<p>T: S15, do you have it?</p> <p>S15: <L1de> Nein ich bin noch nicht so weit. </L1de></p>
18.	<p>T: S5, do you have the next one?</p> <p>S5: <nods></p>
19.	T: If you ehm if you are interested in buying English books for a very cheap

	price, on the 21 st of November there will be the Christ Church bazaar, have you heard of it? Have I told you about it? S7: I think you told S8.
20.	T: Do you know Urania? S9: What?
21.	T: Do you want it tricky or easy? Tricky or easy? S9: tri- ehm easy.
22.	T: What is it about? S9: So it is about ehm you have cards where there is a (.) gap in which you can give another word and you have some words and the (1) <L1de> Spielleiter= </L1de> S11: =game master= S9: =game master has the card and you lay funny words.
23.	T: You said like it refers to the number of cranes which is in Dubai but what do you really mean? In comparison to what?
24.	T: S15, do you have 8 th ? S15: <shakes head>
25.	T: Who has 8 th ? S10: <raises hand>
26.	T: Which- what is the 8 th wonder? S10: ehm the <ipa>ði: </ipa> palm.
27.	T: Do you know what it is? S10: Yeah.
28.	T: What is it? S10: The (...) island of the (.) world (.) the world (.) <L1de> das ist doch so oder wie heißt die? </L1de> mushroom city.
29.	T: Is it the precise number o:r is it (.) what does it say in the text? S5: Ehm how much they (.) cost.
30.	T: Is it precisely one point one point five million? S5: ehm <reads in the text>
31.	T: <soft> <to S15> Do you want to do the next </soft> or do you want to do this one? S15: <L1de> Mir is egal </L1de>
32.	T: You know what I mean? S5: No

33.	T: The way how you said it (.) what would it be? Like he said Iceland. S9: <L1de> Island </L1de>
34.	T: Yeah but how do you write it? S9: Like the ice.
35.	T: Can you spell it? S9: <spel> i c e l a n d </spel>
36.	T: A:nd 18? Who wants to? S7: <raises hand>
37.	T: How many kilometers per hour is that? S8: <mumble>
38.	T: So it's like around 72? 70? S11: Yeah 70.
39.	T: Is the PISA test for for for mathematics? S11: No it's ehm (.) for everything (1) it's the PISA test is more like ehm you get questions (...) its like ehm you have a a cube and the cube is <L1de> aufgefaltet </L1de>
40.	T: Ehm like f- i don't know <L1de> aufgefaltet? </L1de> Is tha- I know what you mean but is that even a German word? S11: <L1de> Aufgefaltet? Ja sicher, der aufgefaltete Würfel. </L1de>
41.	T: How do numbers work in in English? We have BILlion, what would that be in German? S10: <L1de> Millio- nein oder doch ja Millionen. </L1de>
42.	T: Yeah so when I want to say b- I have- yeah I say it in German. <loud> <L1de> Ich habe eine Billionen Euro. </L1de> </loud> How would you call it in English? S7: Trillion.
43.	T: Let's do it like this. Who volunteers? S9: S11.
44.	T: Do yo- Do you feel embarrassed? Is this the reason why you cannot feel like? S11: No it's (1) difficult because like annoyed is a stage what you have in your (.) <gestures with hands> <L1de> Alltag </L1de> ehm but in love is like <moves hands>

C) English abstract

This thesis examines a teacher's questions in the EFL classroom of an Austrian AHS 6th grade and the learners' responses. It first discusses the key role of questions in the classroom as well as several question taxonomies that have been constructed. It then fuses two of the presented models, Barnes' (1969) and Long and Sato's (1983) taxonomies, in order to investigate the distribution of different question types in an Austrian EFL classroom. Furthermore, it analyzes the length of learners' responses to the teacher's questions in order to investigate which of these provide possibilities for extended speech production to the learners. It also discusses stimulated recall sessions that were held with six students from the observed class as well as with the teacher, who taught the observed lessons, to provide an insight in their opinions on classroom questions. It therefore combines both quantitative and qualitative methods. The study conducted for this thesis shows a preference of the teacher for referential and closed questions. It also shows that no significant difference in the average response length of answers to display and referential questions existed but that the categories open and closed had a severe effect on the response length. It shows that open display and open referential questions triggered significantly longer answers than their closed counterparts. The study also analyzes and discusses responses that are not in the target language as well as unanswered questions. Further, it takes a look at whether questions were addressed to specific learners. It argues in favor of asking open questions, specifically open referential questions, when the aim is that learners receive opportunities for extended speech production and produce responses in the target language. However, due to insights gained from the stimulated recall sessions held, it also stresses the importance learners' personal preferences have for the decisions on classroom questions the teacher makes.

D) German abstract

Diese Diplomarbeit untersucht die Fragen einer Lehrerin im Englischunterricht einer 6. Klasse einer österreichischen AHS sowie die Antworten der Schüler/innen. Zunächst wird die Schlüsselrolle von Fragen im Unterricht behandelt sowie mehrere Klassifizierungen von Fragen besprochen. Schließlich werden zwei der vorgestellten Modelle, jene von Barnes (1969) und Long und Sato (1983), kombiniert, um die Verteilung der verschiedenen Fragetypen in einem österreichischen Englischunterricht zu untersuchen. Des Weiteren werden damit die Länge der Antworten der Schüler/innen auf diese Fragen der Lehrerin untersucht, um herauszufinden welche Fragen der/m Schüler/in Möglichkeiten zum ausgedehnten Sprachgebrauch bieten. Darüber hinaus werden retrospektive Interviews, welche mit sechs Schüler/innen aus der beobachteten Klasse sowie mit der Lehrerin, welche die beobachteten Stunden gehalten hat, diskutiert, um einen Einblick in die Meinung der Teilnehmer/innen über die Fragen im Unterricht zu erlangen. Die Arbeit kombiniert somit sowohl qualitative als auch quantitative Methoden. Die Studie, welche im Rahmen dieser Diplomarbeit durchgeführt wurde, zeigte eine Präferenz der Lehrerin für authentische und geschlossene Fragen. Desweiteren zeigte sich, dass kein signifikanter Unterschied in der durchschnittlichen Länge der Antworten zu testenden und authentischen Fragen existierte, jedoch dass die Kategorien offen und geschlossen einen deutlichen Einfluss auf die Antwortlänge haben. Es wurde herausgefunden, dass offene, testende Fragen und offene, authentische Fragen zu signifikant längeren Antworten führen als ihre geschlossenen Gegenstücke. Die Studie analysiert und diskutiert des Weiteren jene Antworten, welche nicht in der Zielsprache formuliert wurden sowie unbeantwortete Fragen. Darüber hinaus wurde ein Blick darauf geworfen, ob Fragen an bestimmte Schüler/innen gerichtet waren oder nicht. Die Arbeit spricht sich für das Fragen von offenen Fragen aus, speziell von offenen, authentischen Fragen, wenn das Ziel ist, dass Schüler/innen Möglichkeiten für ausgedehnten Sprachgebrauch bekommen und dass sie Antworten in der Zielsprache formulieren. Allerdings wird aufgrund der in den retrospektiven Interviews gesammelten Daten auch die Bedeutung der persönlichen Präferenzen von Schüler/innen für die Entscheidungen bezüglich Unterrichtsfragen der/des Lehrers/in betont.

E) Curriculum Vitae

Personal information

Name: Nadine Schütz, BA

Date of birth: 05.03.1992

Nationality: Austria

Education

2011 - 2016	Teacher training program (Lehramtsstudium) - English, Psychology and Philosophy at the University of Vienna
2015 - 2016	Bachelor studies (Bachelorstudium) - English and American Studies at the University of Vienna
2006 - 2011	BAKIP Ettenreichgasse (Bundesbildungsanstalt für Kindergartenpädagogik) in Vienna
2002 - 2006	Lower Secondary School (Hauptschule) Groß-Enzersdorf in Lower Austria
1998 - 2002	Primary School (Volksschule) Groß-Enzersdorf in Lower Austria

Qualifications and Work Experience

Since 2012/2	English teacher at the Kindergarten Glinzendorf in Lower Austria
Since 2011	coaching English (privately)
2011/7	Kindergarten teacher (Wiener Kinderfreunde)
2010/8	entertainer (STEINER Familyentertainment)
2010	Oxford Cambridge – FCE (First Certificate in English)