THE EFFECTS OF ASKING REFERENTIAL QUESTIONS
ON THE PARTICIPATION AND ORAL PRODUCTION
OF LOWER LEVEL LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN READING CLASSES

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

SEDA ÖZCAN

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN THE DEPARTMENT OF
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

MAY 2010

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

_____

Prof. Dr. Sencer Ayata

Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

_____

Prof. Dr. Wolf König

Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is adequate in scope and quality as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

_____

Assist. Prof. Dr. Nurdan Gürbüz

Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Assist. Prof. Dr. Nurdan Gürbüz	(METU, FLE)	_____
Dr. Günseli Kaçar	(METU, FLE)	_____
Assist. Prof. Dr. Cemal Çakır	(GAZİ, FLE)	_____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last Name: Seda Özcan

Signature   :

ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF ASKING REFERENTIAL QUESTIONS
ON THE PARTICIPATION AND ORAL PRODUCTION
OF LOWER LEVEL LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN READING CLASSES

Özcan, Seda

MA, Program in English Language Teaching

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Nurdan Gürbüz

May, 2010, 84 pages

This study aims at investigating the effect of asking referential questions on the oral participation and production of lower level language learners in reading classes. The main purpose of the study is to inquire whether the reticence of lower level language learners to participate in lessons due to their poor language ability could be overcome by asking questions that require their opinions and comments, rather than solely answering questions to display their comprehension.

For this purpose an action research was conducted in a lower level preparatory class at Izmir University of Economics over a 4-week period. This action research included a preliminary investigation stage to discover the reasons for low level of participation in these classes and to come up with a hypothesis to solve the problem, and 3 reading lessons to test the hypothesis. During those 3 lessons students were exposed to both display and referential questions and the number of students and responses were calculated for both question types to collect quantitative data. In addition, the mean lengths (in words) of students' responses to display and referential questions were calculated to find out the differences of students' responses in terms of length between display and referential questions.

The analysis of quantitative data indicates that lower level language learners participate more when asked a referential question. Additionally, referential

questions engender longer responses compared to the responses given to the display questions.

Key words: referential questions, display questions, student participation, oral production.

ÖZ

AÇIK UÇLU SORULARIN OKUMA DERSLERİNDE DÜŞÜK SEVİYELİ DİL ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN DERSE KATILIMLARI VE SÖZEL ÜRETİMLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ

Özcan, Seda

Yüksek Lisans, İngiiliz Dili ve Eğitimi

Tez Yöneticisi: Assist. Prof. Dr. Nurdan Gürbüz

Mayıs, 2010, 84 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, okuma derslerinde, açık uçlu soruların düşük seviyeli öğrencilerin sözel olarak derse katılımına ve sözel üretimine olan etkisini araştırmaktır. Asıl amaç, sadece metni anlayıp anlamadıklarını sorgulayan soruları cevaplamak yerine, bu sınıflarda görüş ve yorum almak amacıyla sorular sormanın, bu öğrencilerin, yetersiz dil becerilerinden kaynaklanan suskunluklarını gidermede bir rol oynayıp oynamayacağının araştırılmasıdır.

Bu amaçla dört haftalık bir zaman zarfında, İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi'nde düşük seviyeli öğrencilerin bulunduğu bir hazırlık sınıfında eylem araştırması düzenlenmiştir. Bu araştırma, bu sınıflarda görülen düşük öğrenci katılımının sebeplerini araştırmak ve bu soruna çözüm olarak bir hipotez geliştirmek amacıyla yürütülen bir ön çalışma dersi, ve geliştirilen hipotezi test etmek amacıyla gerçekleştirilen üç okuma dersinden oluşmaktadır.

Bu üç okuma dersi boyunca, öğrencilere hem açık uçlu hem de kapalı uçlu sorular sorulmuş ve bu sorulara katılan öğrenci sayısı ve verilen cevap sayısı nicel veri elde etmek amacıyla hesaplanmıştır. Ayrıca, hangi soru tipinin daha uzun cevap verilmesini sağladığını tespit etmek amacıyla, her iki soru tipine verilen cevapların uzunluklarının ortalaması alınmıştır.

Nicel verilere göre, fikir ve görüş elde etmek amacıyla açık uçlu sorular sorulduğunda, düşük seviyeli öğrencilerin derse katılımında artış gözlenmiştir. Aynı zamanda bu tip sorular kapalı uçlu sorulara göre öğrencilerden daha uzun cevaplar alınmasını sağlamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: açık uçlu sorular, kapalı uçlu sorular, öğrenci katılımı, sözel üretim.

To my dear mother, Ayşe Özcan

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Presentation

The background to the study, the setting and the purpose of the study, the research questions, the significance and the limitations of the study as well as the definitions of terms are all dealt with in this chapter.

1.1 Background to the Study

The most important factor within any effective language learning environment is that students are enabled to do most of the talking. However, in many language classrooms it is the teacher who does most of the talking whilst students remain silent (Walsh, 2002). An ideal classroom situation is one in which students are actively involved and both able and willing to participate in the lesson. Student participation is more beneficial if the students are productive rather than purely receptive. Nevertheless, in order for the students to participate actively, they need to be stimulated. This stimulation can arise as a result of the implementation of appealing activities or through the use of thought provoking questions.

One popular method of involving students in a lesson and facilitating student participation used by many language teachers is asking questions. In some classrooms, over half of the class time is taken up with question-and-answer exchanges (Gall, 1984). The majority of the questions that teachers ask in these exchanges are display questions (Long & Sato, 1983; Thornbury, 1996), or questions which are intended either to prompt the learners to display comprehension and/or command of accurate English (Lynch, 1991; Thompson, 1994; Thornbury, 1996). Display questions can be defined as questions to which teachers already know the answers (Thompson, 1994; Thornbury, 1996). In addition, they seem to be favoured by most teachers, as Thompson (1994) argues "teachers are one of the few professional groups who routinely spend their lives

asking questions to which they know the answer..." (p. 101). These questions make any classroom discourse less communicative as Kumaravadivelu (1993) argues:

In theory, a communicative classroom seeks to promote interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning… [Learners] should be encouraged to ask for information, seek clarification, express an opinion, agree and/or disagree with peers and teachers…In reality, however, such a classroom seems to be a rarity. Research shows that even teachers who are committed to communicative language teaching can fail to create opportunities for genuine interaction in the classroom (Kumaravadivelu, 1993, as cited in Cullen, 1998, p. 180).

In EFL reading classes, where the students are often silent and inactive due to the receptive nature of this particular skill, asking display questions engenders little production on the part of the students, since the answers are in the text. These questions are usually in the form of comprehension questions provided by the textbook itself. As a result, students tend to just read the sentence or phrase from the text which is the specific answer to the question posed. The students do not have any role in the production process, instead solely repeating the information that is contained in the text. In reading lessons which consist mostly of display questions that interrogate students' comprehension, there are long question-and-answer exchanges of classic IRF type. This is the most common interaction between the students and the teacher in which the teacher initiates the exchange by asking a question, student responds and teacher follows up/gives feedback (Thornbury, 1996; Ellis, 1985). IRF, or according to Ur (1991) "closed-ended teacher questioning", is an exchange which allows only one correct response and is sometimes cynically referred to as the "Guess what the teacher wants you to say" game (p. 228). In such exchanges, although students seem to be active participants in the classroom interaction, this type of exchange is insufficient, resulting in minimal communicative intercourse and student productivity, since the students only repeat what the text has already provided as an answer.

One effective way to increase oral participation in reading classes is to ask referential questions creating propitious circumstances enabling students to be more productive.

Referential questions have no one specific answer, and are therefore used to instigate genuine communication. The purpose behind asking this type of question is to allow students to express opinions and exchange information (Ellis, 1994; Thompson, 1997; Thornbury, 1996; Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Posing referential questions makes any discourse in the classroom more natural, since in real life we do not have any need to ask questions to which we already know the answer, and therefore refrain from doing so. (Long & Sato, 1983; Lynch, 1991). Asking students referential questions, or in other words subjecting them to a catechism in order to elicit opinion and support for arguments, will increase their participation and enable them to think outside the often limited scope of the text, since as Nunan (1989) suggests, "it is not inconceivable that the effort involved in answering referential questions prompts a greater effort and depth of processing on the part of the learner" (p. 30). In addition, rather than reading the text passively, a good question requires the student to process the text actively and reassemble it in terms meaningful to him or her (Ellis, 1993).

It is suggested by some researchers that (Allright & Bailey, 1991; Hickman, 2004, as cited in David, 1997, p. 130; Shomoossi, 2004) since referential questions query learners' opinions and require information that is not worded within the text itself, or can be reached through reasoning, they do not lead to the desired level of participation in lower level classes due to these students not having enough language to express their opinions etc. Therefore, it is suggested they are more appropriate for higher-level students. This research is designed to investigate whether, contrary to the aforementioned finding, low level language learners will participate more in lessons where they are not solely asked to display comprehension of the text, but are involved in question-answer exchanges where they can comment on the text and express their opinions; therefore, becoming more communicative and productive than they would be in IRF type interaction.

1.2 Setting

Izmir University of Economics is a private university. Since it is an English-medium university, enrolling students have to pass the proficiency exam held in October in order

to start the academic year in their departments within the faculty. Those that fail yet still wish to attend the institution are submitted to an intensive one-year English course in the preparatory section of the School of Foreign Languages. The preparatory department uses a modular system of teaching English, and there are 5 basic modules starting at beginner level, progressing through the common stages, and ending with the completion of upper-intermediate. Students have up to three opportunities to fail a single module, necessitating the need for new terminology to differentiate between students who are starting a level for the first time and those that may have failed once, twice or three times previously. The students who start a module for the first time, and have therefore achieved the requisite entry qualifications, are called 'starters'. Those who have failed and are doing the course for a second time are described as 'runners'. Should they be doing the same module for a third time, they are deemed 'chasers' and for a fourth time 'catchers'. Teachers dealing with 'chaser' and 'catcher' classes state that students have particular difficulty in producing coherent responses, generally failing to produce at all. 17 lower level chaser students are the participants of this study.

At beginner, elementary and pre-intermediate levels, the schedule provides the students with 26 hours of exposure to English in the classroom. Currently, this 26-hour block is divided into two groups: one of 20 hours which is assigned to the study of a course book, and a second of 6 hours allocated to the study of an integrated skills pack specially designed by the members of the Material Development Unit of the department. At intermediate and upper-intermediate levels, the students have 30 hours of language practice each week, split 20 and 10. Each module lasts for 7 weeks during which time the students have to carry out two assessment tasks in order to qualify to take the end of module exam. If they pass the end of module or "Gateway" exam, they can start the following module.

Izmir University of Economics is one of the rare institutions in Turkey that hires both native and non-native instructors to teach second languages. There are 40 native and 70 non-native teachers working at the school of foreign languages. The university has a communicative approach to language teaching which is objective driven. Each class is assigned two or more teachers who are expected to ensure that the objectives are

covered.

The School of Foreign Languages at Izmir University of Economics promotes professional development through the provision of an in-service training program and by offering support to teachers wishing to improve their qualifications and skills externally. The in-house training includes monthly workshops, focusing on a variety of techniques, and including reflective teaching. The current reflective teaching training programme is run concurrently with the modules and lasts 5 weeks. The training starts with a general meeting in which teachers, whose participation is voluntary, are informed of the reasoning behind RTL and the steps taken in the course. Each week, one of the teacher's sessions is videotaped and observed by a teacher trainer. Each observation has a focus but the teacher is not made aware of the focus so as not to influence the natural flow of the lesson. After the session, the teacher is given an observation/ reflection sheet, effectively a tool, encouraging the teacher to reflect on his performance, and only now having been made aware of the observation focus, the teacher is required to fill in the tool based on his recollection of the lesson. Having completed the form, the teacher is given a video recording of the lesson and, while or after watching the CD, he or she fills in the observation form again. Soon afterward, the teacher trainer and the teacher have an input session during which the teacher reflects on his/her own teaching, weaknesses and strengths of the lesson according to the target focus and in general. The reflective teaching sessions are the starting point of this study. During those sessions, it was found that the students in lower level classes, especially in reading lessons, were unwilling to participate in the lesson. In order to discover the reasons of the students' reticence, the researcher conducted a preliminary investigation. Having discovered the reason and formed a hypothesis, three 50-minute reading lessons were implemented to test the hypothesis. The data collected were analyzed and interpreted to reach a conclusion.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Teachers of foreign languages usually promote classroom interaction and student participation through questioning. As Brock (1986) puts it, questions may be an

essential input feature facilitating language development, since it is through questions that language learners are empowered to practice the target language especially in an EFL setting which is generally the only environment where students are exposed to the language regularly. However, as many researchers have demonstrated, the questions asked in language classes do little to afford the aforementioned empowerment, being mostly display questions (David, 2007; Thornbury, 1996) which do not give learners the chance to experiment in the language. Especially in reading classes in which display questions are an inseparable part of the instruction (Shomoossi, 2004), students are left silent. What little production the students make is generally confined to parroting language contained in the text in order to answer the comprehension questions.

In lower level language classrooms, teachers tend to avoid asking questions which cannot be answered by lifting phrases or sentences from the reading passage, believing that those students would be unwilling or unable to talk due to their low level of proficiency in the language and resultant lack of confidence. This ideology prompts standard question-and-answer exchanges (IRF), and consequently results in few students producing, large chunks of teacher talk time and many periods of silence. However, students can only transfer their received knowledge into practice if they speak and produce. In reading lessons, students are generally passive and answering comprehension questions is often the only time students are afforded an opportunity for oral production. Unfortunately, what they say is mostly taken directly from the text, with no or little chance for them to demonstrate their own knowledge of the language as the display nature of comprehension questions in general only requires students to show whether or not they comprehend the text. It is the language teacher's responsibility to create an environment in which student participation and oral production in reading classes is encouraged and facilitated and students are both effective readers and active participants.

One way to increase student talk time and participation in reading classes is through asking more referential than display questions. Lynch (1991) argues that teachers should increase the proportion of questions to which they do not know the answer for several purposes, one of which is to increase participation. When students are asked a display

question, a minimal number of students respond, since there is only one correct answer for such question, therefore, once the correct answer has been provided, the remaining students have no need to provide the same information. On the other hand, with referential questions, more student participation is facilitated, due to the fact that there is more than one answer to this type of question allowing students to produce without artificially repeating a classmate. Additionally, referential questions require students to reason out side the scope of the text, meaning that answers students offer will be produced by themselves as opposed to being taken from the reading passage. However, it does not mean that teachers should not ask display questions at all, as it has been suggested by some researchers (Thompson, 1997), it would be more effective if teachers started by asking display questions to confirm that students have fully comprehended the text before moving onto referential questions.

In addition, separate studies carried out by Alright & Bailey (1991), David (2007) and Shomoossi (2004) concluded that asking display questions is more beneficial and effective than asking referential questions in terms of facilitating student participation in lower level language classes, minimal production notwithstanding, since the students' language level is not appropriate to answer a higher order question and they will be more confident to answer a display type question. Contrary to the aforementioned findings, the purpose of this study is to investigate whether asking referential questions will increase student participation and talk time with longer responses during reading lessons in lower level classes at Izmir University of Economics. The only obstacle that those students face when asked a question that requires their opinions and demands that they think critically is the language barrier. In other words, they do not have enough chunks of language in their repertoire to respond to such questions. In this study, in order to facilitate more student participation two strategies will be used for referential type questions. Structures and chunks of languages will be provided to the students when necessary after the question is asked and students will be given a certain amount of time to think over the question and discuss it in pairs.

1.4 Research Questions

The study specifically addresses the following research questions:

1. Does use of referential questions facilitate student oral participation in lower level preparatory classes?
2. Do referential questions engender longer responses from the students?
3. What are the opinions and feelings of the students about the two different question types?
4. What are the opinions of English teachers on the effects of asking referential and display questions on student participation?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Since increasing student oral participation is often the aim of language teachers, and it is important to turn receptive skills like reading into more productive ones, this study and its results can help the teachers at Izmir University of Economics and language teachers in general to increase student' participation in reading lessons.

The research findings (Allright & Bailey, 1991; Hickman, 2004, as cited in David, 1997, p. 130; Shomoossi, 2004) on the effects of question types in lower level classes addressed in this study conclude that due to the students' poor language ability in such classes, display questions are more effective in terms of involving students in the lesson although their production is minimal. The findings of this study may help teachers teaching lower ability students increase learners' oral production by enabling them to express their opinions, comment etc. through the use of referential questions. The results may encourage teachers to ask more referential questions in reading classes to enable students to get more deeply involved in the text and as a catalyst to stimulate thought and production. Therefore, the results of this study could well serve as a basis for the improvement of oral student participation in classes where students are reticent.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

The research was carried out on one group of students owing to the fact that the study was conducted in the form of an action research, therefore, requiring the researcher to interact extensively with the research group. This, coupled with the fact the institution had a limited number of classes containing students at this level, all of which have the same classroom hours, made it impractical to work with more than one group over the time period of 4 weeks.

1.7 Definitions of Terms

Display Questions: Display questions are questions to which the teacher knows the answer and which the students are asked in order to display their knowledge or to check their understanding (Long & Sato, 1983; Brock, 1986; Thompson, 1991; Thornbury, 1996).

Referential questions: These questions are asked to learners to facilitate expression of opinions, or provision of information that the teacher generally does not have. As stated in many research articles, these questions are natural and asked to engender genuine communication (Long & Sato, 1983; Brock, 1986; Thopmson, 1991, Thornbury, 1996)

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.0 Presentation

This chapter reviews the literature cited in this study and starts with the basics of classroom discourse and interaction, continues with the importance of and reasons for questioning in the classroom, introduces effective questions and questioning strategies plus a detailed description of different question types as well as the reserach done on different question types.

2.1 Classroom Discourse and Interaction

Central to classroom teaching is teacher/student interaction. As Chaudron (1988) asserts "conversation and instructional exchanges between teachers and students provide the best opportunities for the learners to exercise target language skills" (p.118). Teacher talk, giving feedback on students' performance and directing questions to the students form the basics of classroom discourse and inetarction in the classroom.

2.1.2 Teacher talk

The degree to which teacher talk dominates language lessons where students have limited amount of oral language practice time is often debated researched topic. Teacher Talk (TT) is found to be crucial by most of the scholars for the process of acquisition primarily, since in many classrooms it is the only live target input that the students are likely to receive (Nunan, 1991; Cullen, 1998). Nunan (1991) argues that in addition to providing comprehensible input for the acquisition of the language, teacher talk is also of importance for the organization of the classroom because " it is through language that teachers either succeed or fail to implement their teaching plans" (190).

In most of the language classrooms, it is the teacher who does most of the talking (Nunan, 1991; Walsh, 2002) and it makes up 70 percent of the total talk (Chaudron, 1988). However, the ideal classroom setting as Harmer (1983) defines it is the place

where student talk time (STT) is maximized and he argues that getting students to speak - to use the language they are learning is a vital part of a teacher's job. On the other hand, Nunan (1991) claims whether or not excessive teacher talk is bad or good depends mostly on the objectives of the lesson. He lists a variety of factors that teachers should take into account when determining the appropriateness or otherwise of the quantity of the teacher talk:

1. the point in the lesson in which talking occurs.
2. what prompts teacher talk, whether it is planned or spontaneous, and if spontaneous, whether the ensuing digression is helpful or not
3. the value of the talk as potentially useful input for acquisition.

Appropriate language use is more likely to occur when teachers' goal at a given moment in a lesson matches their teaching aim and their pedagogic purpose of their language use. Teachers, through the way they use the language, establish and maintain patterns of communication aimed at facilitating students' oral production and participation in the lesson (Walsh, 2002). If, for instance, the aim of the lesson is enhancing student participation or oral fluency, teachers should not intervene in students' talk, and the appropriate language use on the part of the teacher in this case is asking the right question in the right time to guide the conversation and student interaction or just remain silent. However, in traditional classes, as Mesumeci (1996) adduces, teachers speak more, more often, control the topic of conversation, rarely asks questions for which they do not know the answer.

2.1.2 Feedback

Instructing students and giving them feedback on their performance are the two common functions of language teachers (Nunan, 1991). There are two types of feedback, namely positive and negative feedback. Negative feedback is usually provided in the form of error correction in language classrooms. Positive feedback is "positive sanctions or approval of learners' production" (Chaudron, 1998, p. 132). In addition to general instruction, feedback is an inevitable aspect of classroom interaction,

as Chaudron (1998) argues "no matter what teacher does, learners drive information about their behaviour from the teacher's reaction, or lack of one, to their behaviour" (p.133).

2.2 Teachers' Use of Questioning in the Classroom

Teachers' questions constitute a primary means of engaging learners' attention, promoting verbal responses, and evaluating learners' progress. Questioning by far is the most common communication behaviour used in teaching.

2.2.1 The Importance of Questioning

Teachers' questioning has traditionally been viewed as an important component of teacher talk and the core of effective teaching in a classroom context (Walsh & Sattes, 2005). In fact, being central to learning, extensive research has been done on questions and questioning strategies within the last decade and a half (Lewis, 2006). Questioning is the major factor leading to teaching-learning situations in both content classes devoted to teaching science, maths etc. and language classes (Gall, 1986; Nunan, 1991). In the latter one, especially in EFL environments, the classroom is generally the only setting in which students have regular exposure to the target language (Brock, 1986); therefore, what is made available to the students in terms of input and interaction is of crucial importance. Questioning plays an important role in language acquisition, because, as Ellis (1994) claims, language learners mostly have the opportunity to participate when they are asked a question. Apart from its contribution to second language learning, questioning and questions that teachers ask in classroom settings also have pedagogical benefits, like stimulating and maintaining students' interest, encouraging students to think and focus on the content, enabling teachers to check understanding, elicit and clarify (Richards & Lockhart, 1998).

2.2.2 The Reasons behind Questioning

Teachers ask questions with several goals and aims. Ur (1991) lists eleven different

reasons why a teacher might ask a question in the classroom, including providing either a model for language or for thinking; checking or testing understanding, knowledge or skill and encouraging self-expression. Brown & Wragg (1993) suggest other cognitive and cognate reasons for asking questions such as stimulating recall, deepening understanding, developing imagination and encouraging problem solving. However, as it is the case in many language classrooms or in most teaching-learning settings, teachers ask questions particularly for one main reason - to check understanding and knowledge (Thornbury, 1996). In fact, in a study of 190 teachers, Pete and Bremer (1967) asked teachers to provide reasons for asking questions. They found that 69 per cent of the teachers emphasized they ask questions to check knowledge and understanding. The study indicated there were no statements suggesting questions might be used to help pupils to learn from each other (as cited in Brown & Wragg, 1993, p. 5). Overall, Brown & Wragg (1993) assert that questions are asked simply to facilitate learning.

2.2.3 Effective Questions and Strategies in Questioning

2.2.3.1 Effective Questions

Since questioning and questions have a crucial role in students' language learning and effective language teaching (Ellis, 1994; Hussain, 2003), it is essential that language teachers improve their questioning skills (Thompson, 1997). What makes questioning and the questions effective has been of concern to those in the field of ELT for many years (Brown & Wragg, 1993; Ur, 1991) and there have been numerous attempts to identify the characteristics of effective questioning technique in ESL and EFL classes.

Ur (1991) claims that questions are asked to get students to engage with the language material actively through speech and since this is the motive, an effective questioning technique is the one that prompts the students to give motivated and full responses. She argues that a question is effective if it is clear enough for the students to immediately grasp what it means and what kind of answer is required; if it has a learning value so that it stimulates thinking and the responses will contribute to further reading; if it is

interesting and challenging; if it is available so that most of the learners try to answer it, not only those who are more confident and advanced; and finally if it can be extended to invite varied answers.

2.2.3.2 Strategies in Questioning

In foreign language classes, the medium of instruction usually is asking questions. Since it is one of the crucial aspects of classroom language, teachers should develop effective questioning strategies. These strategies include pre-planning the questions, phrasing and distributing them, waiting for certain amount of time after asking a question, responding to students answers and asking different types of questions.

2.3.2.1 Pre-planning the Questions

Preparation is an important component of questioning. In order for questions to be effective, they ought to be prepared beforehand. While preparing the questions, teachers should decide on the purpose of the questions and key content should be chosen (Ma, 2008; Brown & Wragg, 1993). Questions that are asked without any specific goal or aim in mind are prone to be ineffective and likely to confuse the students. Brown & Wragg (1993) argue that what is effective for questioning is "structure with a well defined focus" (p. 19). In their terms, structuring consists of providing signposts for the sequence of questions.

2.2.3.2.2 Phrasing the Questions

How teachers phrase their questions is as important as the content and the purpose of them. Ma (2008) asserts that questions should be asked with understandable vocabulary and familiar terminology, so that they will be clear enough for the students. "Correct register", as Brown & Wragg (1993) claim, is what is crucial, by which they mean, it is necessary to ask questions restricted to the use of words and phrases that are appropriate to the group (p. 19).

Probing and prompting is another important questioning skill. Probes and prompts are follow-up questions used when the initials answers are inadequate or inappropriate (Brown & Wragg, 1993). Prompts contain hints and probes require students to give more precise and detailed answers. If the answer given by the students is not correct, satisfactory or complete, there may be a problem with the question. Therefore, what teachers should do is to rephrase the question with simpler words, so that the question may be related to students' knowledge or experience.

2.2.3.2.3 Directing and Distributing Questions

Directing and distributing questions is a crucial element of effective questioning, since undirected questions often lead to chorus answers and lack control. Teachers can direct questions by using a name, gesture, head movement or facial expression (Brown & Wragg, 1993). However, as it is the case in many classrooms, teachers, despite their best intentions, interact with some of the students more than others, and usually direct their questions to those students they engage more frequently, consequently nominating them to answer (Nunan, 1991). These students are in "teachers' action zones" (Richards & Lockhart, 1998, p. 138). Teachers should consider where their "blind spots" are (Wragg & Brown, 1993, p. 20) and distribute the questions to ensure that every member of the class is involved.

2.2.3.2.4 Wait Time

Wait time, which is pausing briefly after a question and after an answer, although seemingly a minor issue, is of crucial importance to students' thinking about and processing of the question (Brown & Wragg, 1993; Nunan, 1991; Ma, 2008; Thornbury, 1996). Nunan (1991) argues that in much research done in classrooms, there was more participation by more students in those classes where teachers succeeded in extending their wait time from three to five seconds after asking a question. What is more, Nunan (1991) cites studies indicating that pausing briefly (3 or four seconds) after a question is asked increases not only the number of students who respond but also the average-length of their responses.

2.2.3.2.5 Responding to Students Answers

Effective questioning is not only about designing and asking the right question. How teachers respond to students' answers requires skills to be developed. Effective responding includes giving reinforcement and feedback to the students (Nunan, 1991; Richards & Lockhart, 1998; Ur, 1991). Students revise their responses if necessary based on the feedback given by the teacher (Cotton, 2006). The feedback can be either negative or positive, or in the form of error correction. However, the type and amount of correction that is needed is a matter of judgment and depends largely on the objective of the lesson and the aim of the question. Ma (2008) argues that there are a number of issues concerning error feedback. The need to correct students' responses and when necessary, selecting which of the errors to correct and the manner in which to do so are all careful considerations that need to be assessed by the teachers themselves. As Thornbury (1996) and Thompson (1997) assert, how teachers react to students' responses is of crucial importance in terms of giving the right message to the students. They both claim that praising content rather than solely form gives the students the idea that what they say as well as how they say it is of equal importance.

2.2.3.2.6 Asking Different Types of Questions

Many studies have attempted to define questions types (Gall, 1970) and they have been given different names by different scholars which overlap at times, therefore, it appears necessary here to make a brief outline of categorization of question types.

2.2.3.2.6.1 Terminological Classification

Thompson (1997) classifies question types in terms of their form, content and purpose. The first dimension relates to the grammatical form of the questions. Yes/no question types and Wh-questions are placed in this category. The second category is about the information that the question seeks: whether it asks about "outside facts"; information which is not directly related to the learner or "personal facts" and "opinions". That is, whether they seek information closely related to the students' personal lives and

opinions. The third dimension relates to the purpose of the question. By the purpose here it is meant whether the question is asked to display knowledge or for communication.

Richards & Lockharts (1998) define question types within three broad categories; namely, procedural, convergent and divergent questions. Procedural questions are not related to the content of learning, but rather to the classroom procedures, routines and classroom management. Convergent questions, which are generally in the form of yes/no questions, seek standard student responses, and do not require students to engage in higher-level thinking. The responses are generally short answers focusing on a central theme. The aim is to enable the students to recall previously learnt information. Divergent questions, on the other hand, require students to engage in higher-level thinking, and seek different responses from different students and enable students to provide their own information rather than repeating any information learnt before.

The next classification, which is the group with which this study is concerned, categorizes questions in terms of their function and purpose. First, display questions (Long & Sato, 1983; Brock, 1986; Lynch, 1991), also called convergent questions (Richards & Lockharts, 1998) and alternatively referred to as known information questions (Mehan, 1979) and lower cognitive questions (Mills et al., 1980) do not seek new information but the display of knowledge which the questioner already possesses. Second, referential questions (Long & Sato, 1983; Brock, 1986, Lynch, 1991), also called divergent questions (Richards & Lockharts, 1998), information seeking questions (Mehan, 1979) or higher cognitive questions (Mills at al., 1980) seek new information and are asked to activate genuine communication, since the questioner is asking for information which is not known to him/her.

Nuttall (1982) classifies question types into five different categories specifically for reading lessons. The first type is questions of literal comprehension. These are questions whose answers can be found directly in the text. The second category includes questions involving reorganization or reinterpretation. These questions require the students to get information form different parts of the text and to put it together, or to reinterpret the

information. The third type contains questions which ask the students to read between the lines and make inferences. The next type is questions of evaluation which require the students to make a considered judgment about the text. In the last category there are questions of personal response which are related to the reaction of the reader to the text.

Figure 1 presents a summary of the classification of question types discussed so far.

QUESTIONS			
FORM		PURPOSE/CONTENT	
Yes/No questions	Wh- questions	DISPLAY	REFERENTIAL
		Outside fact Personal fact Opinion (Thompson, 1997)	Outside fact Personal Fact Opinion (Thompson, 1997)
		Convergent (Richards & Lockharts, 1998)	Divergent (Richards & Lockharts, 1998)
		Known information (Mehan, 1979)	Information seeking (Mehan, 1979)
		Lower cognitive (Mills et al., 1980)	Higher Cognitive (Mills et al., 1980)

Figure 1. Classification of Question Types and Various Terms Attributed to Referential and Display Questions.

2.3.2.2.5.2 Research into Teachers' Questions

There is a plethora of research papers into the effects of question types on students'

classroom participation, interaction, and the nature, length and quality of the responses given.

Shomoossi (2004) examined the distribution of teachers' use of display and referential questions as well as the effects of asking referential questions on the interaction among students. The findings showed that teachers used display questions 4.4 times more often than referential questions, for which there are several reasons, including low language ability of the students and teachers' time constraints due to the strict curriculum that they had to cover. One interesting finding is that teachers ask more display questions in reading classes on account of the need to check if students have comprehended the text well enough to proceed with referential questions. It was also found that, most, not all, referential questions create more interaction in the classroom than display questions do, especially in higher-level language classes.

A parallel study was carried out by David (2007) investigating the difference between the distribution of teachers' use of display and referential questions and also the effects of teachers' questioning behavior on ESL classroom interaction. He found that language teachers' use of display questions is much greater than their use of referential questions. Additionally, the researcher concluded that display questions create more opportunity for teacher-student exchanges in English language classrooms even though student involvement is minimal (12.4 %). The study also revealed that display questions encourage language learners, especially beginners, by stimulating interest and resulting in greater active participation in lessons. Allwright & Bailey (1991) and Hickman (2004) showed that display questions enable lower level language learners to have more opportunity to interact and participate in the classroom (as cited in David, 2007, p. 130).

Long & Sato (1983) carried out research into the forms and functions of ESL teachers' questions to compare them with the strategies native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) use in questioning outside the classroom. It was found out that language teachers ask more display questions (51%) in the classroom when compared to referential questions (21%). However, display questions make up only 0.12 % of all questions in NS-NNS conversation outside the classroom, which shows that

19

communication in language classroom is still artificial and far from natural.

Brock (1986) examined the effects of increased use of referential questions on adult ESL classroom discourse. She analyzed the length and complexity of students' responses and found that referential questions enabled students to make longer sentences and use more logical connectors in their speech. An important implication of Brock's study is that since referential questions generate more student output, teachers should include this type of question in their teaching practice.

Lynch (1991) argues that the traditional roles of teachers as questioner and students as responders are not always helpful in providing effective language practice and additionally such role classification is inadequate in reflecting the patterns of interaction in the real world. In his article, he examines the reasons that necessitate a realignment of these discourse roles, some materials that might bring about role reversals in the classroom and discusses the effects of those materials in EFL classrooms. He tries to illustrate how a change in the conventional questioning behavior of teachers might bring a new perspective to typical exchanges in language classes.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.0 Presentation

This chapter provides information about action research, presents the overall design of the study, the participants, data collection instruments and data collection procedure.

3.1 Action Research

A critical element of reflection places a teacher in the role of a researcher and a learner. Teachers learn best when they are reflecting on and testing their personal theories (Burns, 199; Nunan 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1998; Wallace, 1998). Research is the best way of connecting knowledge with practice, that is, making a connection between received knowledge and experiential knowledge. One of the methods that teachers can resort to do so, or to solve a problem, is action research, which is a form of structured reflection on professional action that is controlled and implemented by the practitioners themselves with the intention of improving some aspects of their own professional practice (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). In Wallace's (1998) terms, action research "is done by collecting data on your everyday practice and analysing it in order to come to some decisions about what your future practice should be" (p.4). Burns (1999) suggests that "researching one's own classroom and teaching concepts is a realistic extension of professional development" (p. 20). Language teachers implement a variety of techniques to reflect on their teaching. Some keep journals, others resort to observation. However, action research is effective for its being more structured and problem-focused (Wallace, 1998:14).

Burns (1999) has come up with four common features which can be considered to characterize action research:

1. Action research is contextual, small-scale and localised. It identifies and investigates problems within a specific situation.

2. It is evaluative and reflective as it aims to bring about change and improvement in practice.

3. It is participatory as it provides for colloborative investigation by teams of colleagues, practitioners and researchers.

4. Changes in practice are based on the collection of information or data which provides the impetus for change (p. 30).

Richards & Lockhart (1998) and Wallace (1998) decribe action research as a continuous circle, which is not an end in itself. In the formers' description the cycle of action research includes the following stages: the initial reflection to identify an issue or problem, planning an action to solve the problem, implementation of the planned action, observation of the action, and reflection on the observation (Richards & Lockhart, 1998). The cycle is shown below in Figure 1.

According to Nunan (1992), any research which is initiated by a question, supported by both data and interpretation and is carried out by a practitioner investigating aspects of his or her own context and situation is called action research.
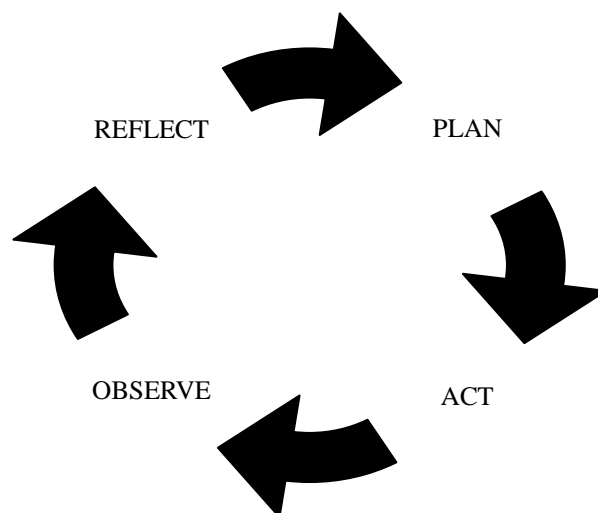
Figure 2. Reflective Cycle of Action Research. Adapted from Richards & Lockhart (1998: 12).

The action research cycle described by Nunan (1992) is made up of seven steps, starting with problem identification, where teachers come up with a problem to be solved. To investigate into the reasons of the problem, the second step includes preliminary investigation. During this period, teachers collect baseline data through methods which they think are suitable for their own teaching situations.

In light of these initial data, a hypothesis is formed about the cause or causes of the problem. During the intervention stage teachers devise a number of strategies to solve the problem and implement these strategies in their teaching. The steps described by Nunan (1992) to carry out an action research were followed in this specific study.

3.2 Overall Design of the Study

The purpose of this study is to inquire whether asking referential questions facilitates extended oral participation by lower-level EFL students in an elementary level reading class at the preparatory school of Izmir University of Economics.

The steps of doing an action research described by Nunan (1992) are followed in this study. The reason for an action research being chosen for this specific study was the characteristics of the group on which the research was intended to be conducted. As mentioned before, at the Izmir University of Economics, students who fail the end-of-module test have to repeat the same module until they become proficient enough to pass the exam. The students in the researcher's classroom had all failed the end-of-module exam twice and were doing the elementary level for the third time. As this was the case, the students were all demotivated, therefore reluctant to participate in all lessons, especially in reading classes. It was apparent that teachers dealing with these students needed to address this issue. Therefore, action research was conducted in this special case classroom with the aim of finding a practical solution as action research is problem-focused and structured. Additionally, being the teacher of this class made it possible to expose the students to different question types, raise their awareness of these question types and their possible responses by interviewing the students after each lesson.

To collect data, the researcher implemented four reading lessons. The first one was a preliminary investigation to ascertain the reasons for low-levels of participation in reading lessons. This lesson was observed by a teacher trainer and videoed. The researcher concluded that the low level of student participation was due to the fact that students could not identify with the questions posed since most of the questions (18 out of 23) were display questions, some of which required knowledge or information outside of the students' experience, and the rest were set purely to check whether the students had comprehended the text or not. Those asked to obtain information from the students' were only few in number and they needed information that students did not have.

Contrary to some research done into question types used in lower- proficiency level classrooms (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; David, 2007; Hickman, 2004; Shomoossi, 2004) and this institution's teachers' preconceptions of display questions as being beneficial and a facilitator of more student participation in higher-level language classes, the researcher hypothesized that using referential questions inquiring into students' opinions and as to personal information in reading classes might facilitate more student participation in lower level reading classes as well. In order to test the hypothesis, the researcher designed an additional three 50-minute reading lessons including referential questions that were classified as opinion and personal referential questions according to Thompson's (1997) categorization. The lessons were videoed and observed by a teacher trainer and an instructor working at the same institution. Both observers filled in the tally sheet assigned to them. Before each class, a meeting with the observers was held to inform them of the procedure and pre-planned questions. After each lesson an interview was carried out with the observers to learn their opinions of the outcomes of the lesson. Along with the data from the first reading class conducted as preliminary investigation, the data collected from the lessons during the intervention stage were analyzed by the researcher to reach a conclusion about the effects of referential questions in lower level classes. In order to ascertain students' and teachers' opinions of display and referential questions, questionnaires were submitted to both students and teachers.

3.3 Participants

Izmir University of Economics is an English-medium university; therefore, the students have to pass the proficiency exam before being allowed to join the faculty. The amount of exposure to English students need prior to taking the proficiency exam varies depending on students' level of English at the start of academic year and their individual ability.

The participants of this study are Elementary level students and not proficient enough to pass the end-of-module exam, they have been in the same module since the beginning of the academic term for a total of 6 months. There are 17 students in this class, 9 male and 8 female. They were placed in an elementary class at the beginning of the term, having taken a placement test, and their grades from the end-of-module exams were similar, which means that all the students in this class have a similar level of proficiency in English. At this level, students are exposed to the language for 26 hours a week. 20 hours of this period is allocated to a course book, and 6 hours is assigned to complete a skills pack. Materials that are used in this level are Language Leader Elementary Student's Book by Oxford University Press and a skills pack, prepared by the Materials Development Unit of the department, which includes integrated skills activities which have been designed to help students improve in targeted skill areas. Two teachers are assigned to teach the students. For this specific study, one of them, also the researcher of this study, has 20 hours to exploit the coursebook and the other teacher, who is an active participant in the research as an observer during the data collection period, teaches the class for 6 hours a week.

3.4 Research Questions

The study specifically addresses the following research questions:

1. Does use of referential questions facilitate more student participation in lower level preparatory classes?
2. Do referential questions engender longer responses from the students?

3. What are the opinions and feelings of the students about the two different question types?
4. What are the opinions of English teachers on the effects of asking referential and display questions on students' oral participation?

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

The data for this study is collected via quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. The quantitative data were provided by the numerical results in tally sheets to mark the number of students who participated after each question was asked and the number of responses. The questionnaires that were assigned to the teachers and students provided the qualitative data.

3.5.1 Tally Sheet to Observe Teachers' Use of Questions

A tally sheet designed by the researcher was used during the observations of six teachers working at the institution to identify what type of questions teachers usually ask in their reading classes (see Appendix B). This is a revised version of a tool previously prepared according to Thompson's classification of question types (see Appendix A). However, after observing the first lesson, it appeared to be impractical and this new version was designed to make the observation easier for the researcher. The new tool consisted of three sections. The first section was designed to record teachers' questions. The next two sections were used to identify the type of each question asked and tally the number of referential and display questions used by each teacher.

3.5.2 Tally Sheet to Identify the Number of Students Who Responded to Each Question and the Number of Responses

The first tally sheet was designed to find out participation levels and number of responses as well as including a section for identifying the question types (see Appendix C). However, during the piloting stage, in light of feedback given by the observers, it

was revised to make the observation procedure easier and more intuitive for the observers. The observers stated that with the original form, when a question was asked, it was very difficult to identify the type of the question while trying to tally the number of participating students and their responses. To address this difficulty, before each lesson an interview was carried out with the observers to inform them about the questions prepared to collect data and their types negating the need for observers to record this information. The revised tally sheet included three parts, requiring the observers to count the number of students who participated by responding to the questions and each response given to both type of questions (see Appendix D). In order to increase the reliability of the research, a teacher trainer along with the other teacher of the classroom filled in the tally sheet.

3.5.3 Teachers' Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed by the researcher which consisted of open-ended questions investigating teachers' opinions and feelings about question types and their effects on students' participation and language learning (see Appendix E). The questionnaire was given to 40 teachers.

3.5.4 Students' Questionnaire

35 students from different levels were also given a questionnaire developed by the researcher in order to find out their opinions about question types and the effects of these questions on their language learning and participation in lessons. The questionnaire for the students was written in the students' mother tongue in order to avoid misunderstanding and to enable the students to express themselves easily without having language barriers (see Appendix F). The English translation of the student questionnaire is provided in Appendix G. The questionnaire consists of 7 open-ended questions and separate sheet containing information and examples about both question types. Before answering questions, the students received 20 minutes of training to acquire the necessary knowledge of the question types.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure was started with the first lesson being carried out as a preliminary investigation. The lesson was videoed and observed by a teacher trainer with the aim of discovering the reasons for low student participation in the researcher's reading classes. The lesson was analyzed carefully and it was found that the main technique used to generate student participation was asking them questions; however, due to the type of question posed during this lesson, student participation was minimal. Subsequently, the number of content questions directed to the students during the class period was counted and their types were determined. Certain question-and-answer exchanges were interpreted to demonstrate the poor level of interaction.

Following the preliminary investigation period, 3 native and 3 non-native instructors working at the institution were observed in order to obtain a rough idea about the types of questions that teachers usually ask in reading classes. Table 1 presents the results.

Table 1: Six Teachers' Use of Display and Referential Questions

Teachers	No. of referential questions	No. of display questions	No. of questions in total
TEACHER 1	3	37	41
TEACHER 2	10	27	37
TEACHER 3	3	38	41
TEACHER 4	2	28	30
TEACHER 5	20	25	45
TEACHER 6	8	32	40

Those teachers whose lessons were observed were not informed about the focus of the observation in order not to affect their teaching style. The teachers' use of questions was identified using the tally sheet designed by the researcher. The lessons were also audio-

taped.

Out of 234 questions asked during the lessons observed, 187 of them were display questions (79.9%) and 44 of the total were referential questions (18.8%). It can be concluded that observed teachers ask more display questions than referential questions in their reading classes.

Following the preliminary investigation and observations, the conductor of the study carried out a further three fifty-minute reading lessons, one a week, at weekly intervals. For each lesson, the number of students who responded to each question and their responses were counted. Since there was more than one possible answer to some of the questions, the number of participants and responses under each category were added up to see the frequency of student participation and responses across both types of questions. As well as the number of participants and responses, the mean length (in words) of students' responses to both display and referential questions was calculated to evaluate which type of question provoked longer answers. The response was considered as the turn which started after teacher's question and until another student spoke or the teacher spoke again.

After the three-week classroom research, 40 instructors working in the institution were given a questionnaire inquiring into their usage of questions to identify their beliefs and opinions about the effects of two different types of questions on students' participation and language learning. The questionnaire included open-ended questions, the results of which are analyzed in the following chapter.

37 students attending prep-class at the institution were also assigned a questionnaire soliciting their opinions and feelings about the effects of different types of questions on their participation and language learning. Additionally, several interviews with the participants of the study were conducted both before the research was started and after each lesson during the three week-time period. During the interview before the research was started, students' knowledge and ideas about the questions that teachers ask in the classroom and their effects on students' oral participation and language development were assessed. After each of the lessons in the intervention stage, students were asked

how they felt about each question posed and their opinions about the possible effects of each question on their desire to participate in the lesson and on the development of their language. All the students stated that the fact that the teacher provided them with some of the language that was necessary to the task both motivated and enabled them to respond to questions enquiring into their opinions. Additionally, seeing that they could express their opinions in the language they were learning and being able to communicate more naturally promoted self-confidence. They also indicated that the additional time given to respond to a question was very beneficial and allowed them to interact more than they would have done otherwise. They also argued that answering questions to which the answer was stated in the text helped them to comprehend the text better, but was not very effective in developing their language, because they could give the correct response without needing to thing in depth.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.0 Presentation

This chapter presents the data analysis, the interpretation of the results, discussion of findings and summary of findings.

4.1 Reading Class Designed for Preliminary Investigation

This specific reading lesson was carried out before the action research was started to identify the reasons for low student participation in lower-level reading classes; thus, it was the preliminary investigation of the whole action research period. The lesson consisted of a reading passage and a follow-up listening activity. 40 minutes were spent on the reading passage, titled "The Man in Skirts". The text contained information about Scottish culture (see Appendix H). During the forty-minute period allocated for reading, the number of students who participated in the lesson was 5 out of 20 (20% of the class). The same students answered the questions most of the time and their answers were either made up of single words or simple phrases or were the mere repetition of what was written in the text. The questions were designed to establish students' level of background knowledge about the topic in the pre-reading stage and check students' comprehension of the text. The question types are shown in the table below. Only the content questions are included in the table, since the rest of the questions were asked for instructional purposes or for prompting and probing any question that was not clear to the students.

Table 2: Distribution of Questions in the Preliminary Investigation

No of display questions	No of referential questions	Total number of questions
18	5	23

The table shows that most of the questions directed to the students were display questions to which the answer was already known by the questioner and which in this context were asked to check students' comprehension of the text. According to Thompson's (1997) classification in terms of the content of each type of question, all 23 questions were 'outside fact' questions, directly relating to information in the text and, were consequently not specifically related to the learners. The researcher concluded after the lesson that the low-level of student participation and involvement in the lesson might be as a result of the questions being mostly display and only a small number of referential questions about which students had little information.

Since it is an undeniable fact that the level of student oral participation is rather low (20% of all the students), the questions and responses provided by the students will be analyzed in this section. The question-and-answer exchanges generated by two referential questions and a display question are supplied in this section and analyzed in order to exemplify poor interaction between teacher and the students.

Transcription Extracts:

(5)	Interval between utterances in seconds
(.)	Very short untimed pause
e:r the:::	Lengthening of the preceding sound
((Teacher writes on the board))	Nonverbal actions or editor's comments
S:	Unidentified student
.	Sentence final falling intonation
-	Self interruption with glottal stop
…	Trailing off
↑	Slightly rising intonation
↓	Slightly falling intonation
[[	Simultaneous utterances
[	Speech overlap
=	Links two utterances coming one after the other

(Compiled from Georgakopoulou &Goutsos, 1997; Schriffin, 1994)

Question-answer Exchange 1:

T: What's culture?

Student #1: For example (2) want to the some girls.

T: When you (.) when you want to get married, what happens?

Student #1: and (.) kiss the hands.

T: Okey. These are Turkish culture. Today, you are going to learn about…

                                                                                    ]

Student #1: Turkish Kebab.

Student #1: and bayram (2) Kurban holiday and Ramazan Holiday.

T: festivals.

T: Festivals or holidays?

Student #1: and visited our e:r the::: our neighbors.

Student #2: grandparents.

Student #1: relatives.

T: Yes. We visit them.

Student #4: kiss hands and ↑ ((student puts her hand on her forehead))

T: Forehead. We put it on our foreheads.

T: Okey. These are our culture. Today we are going to learn about a different

country's culture.

The question '*what is culture*?' is an 'outside fact referential question' according to Thompson's (1994) classification. Only three students participated by giving answers (15% of the class population), which, nevertheless, were not related to the question itself, as they were more suitable for a question like "*Can you tell me something about*

Turkish culture". The reason for low levels of student participation was that the question was too broad and difficult to answer for elementary level students due to their limited language ability. Being able to answer such questions requires a good command of language. As Ur (1991) states if a question is not specific and clear enough for the students to grasp immediately what kind of answer is required, it is not an effective question. Additionally, although some questions are vague and too abstract for the students (Brualdi, 1998), teachers still pose them to students expecting an answer, which was the case here. The majority of the students remained silent, and those who misinterpreted the question responded using only words and phrases, which could hardly be considered production.

The second referential question asked was *"What do you know about Scotland?"*

Question-answer Exchange 2:

T: What do you know about Scotland?

Student #4: Only Glasgow Rangers.

T: Only Glasgow Rangers ↑

T: What is your knowledge about Scotland? What do you know about Scotland?

Student #5: skirt men.

T: Okey. Men…

Student #1: wears skirt and çalmak neydi?

T: bagpipe. Okey, men (3) ↓

S: wears skirt
                    ]]
S: wear skirt

T: and ↑ ((shows the picture of bagpipe on the board))

S: plays
        ]]
S: play

Student #4: play bagpipe

T: What else do you know? For example why do men wear skirt?

Student #1: because ↓

Student #7: culture (.) because culture.

T: Okey culture and ↑

T: What else do you know? What about their food?

T: Okey, they wear special skirts, they play bagpipe. What else do you know?

((silence))

T: You don't know anything about Scotland↑

The question goes under the same category as the previous one. The reason for limited student participation is that the question asks for information which does not exist in students' schemata. The question failed to arouse student participation on account of the fact that it was not "related to the students or the information known by the students" (Ma, 2008, p: 96). Although student# 4 made it clear at the very beginning of the exchange that they did not have the necessary information for the question, the teacher kept on asking the same question hoping for an answer. For both questions, there is little production on the part of the students, considering the fact that the answers that students gave consisted of only simple words or phrases.

The third exchange was generated by a display question. Only one student participated since there was only one answer to this type of question and that answer was stated in the text.

Question-answer Exchange 3:

T: Why do a lot of men in Scotland still wear a kilt?
Student #5: It's their culture.

The rest of the question-answer exchanges occurring in this 50-minute lesson were

similar to the final exchange in as much as the questions enabled only few students to respond, since the teacher checked students' comprehension of the text for the rest of the class period. The researcher reached the conclusion that the students' reticence to participate might have been due to the ineffective questioning technique and questions. It was hypothesized that using an increased number of referential questions that were related to the students' own lives and that sought their opinions would increase oral participation, instead of merely asking display questions which required them to give the answers written already in the text and which check only comprehension.

4.2 Analysis of Data Collected During the Intervention Stage

In order to test her hypothesis, the researcher conducted three 50-minute reading lessons with the class. During those lessons, the researcher asked the students both display and referential questions. However, in the last lesson, the number of display questions was higher than the number of referential questions as one single referential question took up nearly half of the class time and the rest of the referential questions could not be posed to the students. The number of students who participated when both types of question were asked and the number of responses given to those questions were counted to find out which question type promote more participation. Additionally, the mean length of responses to both question types was also calculated to inquire about which question type generates longer responses.

When display questions were posed, 40.8% of the total students who participated during the 150-minute instruction participated in the question-and-answer exchanges, whereas this number is 59.1% for the referential questions. Similarly, 66.6% of the total responses were given to referential questions, while the percentage of responses supplied to display questions was only 33.3%.

Table 3. The Number of Students and Responses across Referential and Display
Questions in the Lessons during the Intervention Stage

QUESTION TYPES	No. of questions	No. of students responding	No. of responses
DISPLAY	29	69	65
REFERENTIAL	20	100	130
TOTAL	49	169	195

The figures show more students participated orally when referential questions were asked. Besides, students responded to the referential questions with more than one answer. This was because referential questions usually have more than one possible answer. On the other hand, when a display question was asked, since there was only one true answer to those questions, the number of students who responded and the number of responses decreased. The percentages of the number of students and responses across referential and display questions are shown in Figures 3 and 4.

Figure 3. Pie Chart to Show Percentages of Student Participation
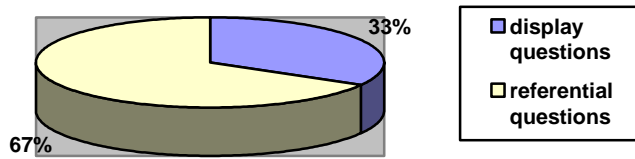
Figure 4. Pie Chart to Show Percentages of Responses.

4.2.1 The Comparison of The Length of the Responses

The mean length of all learner turns which were responses to referential questions was 6.99 words, whereas, the mean length of learner responses to display questions was 4.42. This was calculated by counting the number of words in each turn a student took. It can be concluded that referential questions generate longer responses than display questions do. The reason for students' answers being longer for referential questions was that students generated their own answers instead of relying on the text when this type of question was asked. The reason that the mean length of responses to display questions reached the figure of 4.42 was that many students answering these questions chose to read large chunks of the source material in an attempt to answer the question. It can also be concluded that referential questions are more effective than display questions in terms of students' language development, since referential questions enabled the students to contribute to the classroom interaction with their own sentences and unique productions of a longer mean length. On the other hand, the responses to display questions were generally made up of single words or simple phrases, and if there were longer responses, those were read directly from the text. Due to the fact that students made little effort when answering a display question and the responses were not student-generated, those questions did not have a demonstratively positive effect on students' language development

38

4.3 Discussion of findings

4.3.1 Lesson 1

The lesson was carried out with a classroom of thirteen elementary level students. The actual number of students in the class is seventeen. Four were absent that day. It was a reading lesson based on a text titled "A Special Teacher (see Appendix I). The text told the story of a teacher who believed that in order to succeed one needed desire and hard work. The table below includes questions types and number of responses and student participations.

Table 4. Number of Questions, Students and Responses in Lesson 1.

QUESTION TYPES	No. of questions	No. of students responding	No. of responses
DISPLAY	8	15	14 (discounting Turkish responses)
REFERENTIAL	8	41	62
TOTAL	16	56	76

The table shows that the average number of students who responded to a display question is 1.8 as opposed to 5.1 for referential questions. This means that referential questions generated approximately 2.8 times as many student responses as a display question did. Figures 5 and 6 illustrate the frequency of student participation and responses across both question types in terms of percentages.

The reason why there are more responses than the number of students was that some of the questions allowed for more than one correct answer; therefore, some students gave more than one answer. In other words, the striking difference in terms of participation

that each question type engenders was the result of the wide range of possible answers that students might come up with when a referential question was asked.

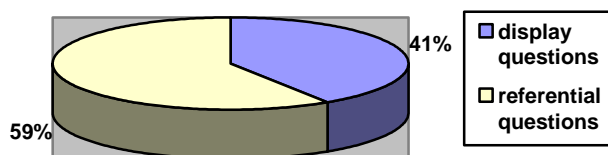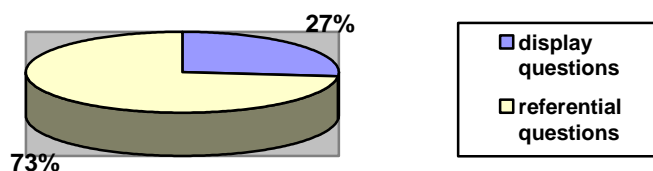*Figure 5*. Pie Chart to Show Percentages of Student Participation.
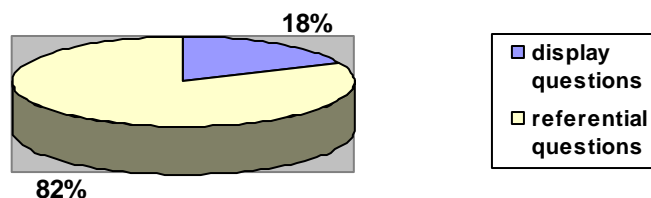
Figure 6. Pie Chart to Show the Percentages of Responses.

As had been established during the piloting stage, students were given some language with which to do the task, time to consider their responses and the opportunity to consult a partner prior to answering. This practice, in combination with the nature of the questions, enabled these lower level students to supply a variety of meaningful extended answers to each of the questions posed. The researcher continued to apply this method in each of the intervention lessons when appropriate.

 In order to make a deeper analysis into the interaction that each type generates, three exchanges taken from the lesson are given and interpreted. The questions that started these exchanges were a referential, an opinion display and a display question. The sample exchanges below exemplify the effects of question types and teachers' reaction to responses on student involvement and oral production.

Question-answer Exchange 1:

T: What do you need to succeed?

Student #1: I need to study a lot.

T: Okey. What else? Who else? Yes, Student #2 ↑

Student #2: I need to believe.

T: You need to believe! Okey.

Student #3: I need to hardworking.

T: Hmm, okey, you need hard work.

Student #4: I need a long time.

T: You need time of course.

Student #5: I need to know vocabulary.

T: You need some vocabulary, yes and ↑

Student #6: I need mobile phone.

T: A mobile phone ↑

Student #6: yes.

T: For what? To be successful↑ How will you use it?

Student #6: I look new words.

T: You need a new dictionary.

Student #7: I need to free time.

T: okey, you need some free time.

Student #8: I need to hard study for exam.

Student #9: study hard.

T: sorry, can you repeat that?

Student #8: I need to hard study for exam.

T: Hmm, study hard of course.

Student #10: I need to new car.

T: You need a new car ↑

Student #1: Why?

T: How will a new car help you become successful? Can you tell us?

Student #6: Because student #10 study in your car =

T: in my car ↑=

Student #6: in his car, because e:r the::: he don't know vocabulary e:r the:::   adjective, noun and verb (2) he writes cars.

Student #8: If student #10 buys a car, he can (.) come to (.) school early.

T: but he lives somewhere here, he doesn't need a car.

Student #8: Yes.

T: Okey, thank you. What else? What do you need?

Student #5: I need to read books.

Student #11: I need to pass exams.

T: You need to pass exams ↑ but passing exams is becoming successful. To pass exams what do you need?

Student #11: I need to learn vocabulary.

In the example above, all the responses were initiated by the students. The researcher did not nominate the students to answer. The content of the question, which was related to students' own lives, played a crucial role in arousing student interest and involvement in the lesson, since out of 13 students 11 of them partook in the question-and-answer exchange and there was even interaction between students which does not often occur at this level (conversation between student #6, #8 and #10 in the transcript above). Students # 6, 8 and 10 commented on each others' responses.

In addition, the teacher's reaction to any given answer plays an important role in enabling more students to participate actively. Thompson (1997) argues that the term 'display' is often justified by the reaction of the teacher to the given responses. A teacher may well change a truly referential question into a display one with her/his response, which can signal that the real purpose of asking the question is not to gain information, but to check grammar. If a teacher says simply 'good', it indicates that he or she is only listening to check whether the language is correct or not. In this specific study the researcher found out that, opinion display questions are no different to referential questions depending on the teachers' reaction to the responses. The example exchange taken from the lesson exemplifies this argument:

Question-answer Exchange 2

T: Why is he teaching in this way?

Student #5: He is teaching in this way because he wants his students to learn fractions.

T: to learn fractions. Maybe ↓ Do you agree?

Student #9: I agree with student #5. He wants to teach his lesson. He wants to teach fractions (.) to his students.

T: Okey. Yes Student #6. What's your answer?

Student #6: I think he is teaching in this way because he is crazy.

T: Why do you think he is crazy?

Student #6: because I e:r the::: study 4 years in…

T: highschool

Student #6: high school, I don't (.) görmedim

Student #7: see

Student #6: I don't see this kind of thing.

T: okey.

Student #6: because he is a new teacher.

T: Is he a new teacher? May be. Okey.

Student #4: He is teaching in this way because a new method.

T: Hmm, it is a new method. Student #1 do you agree?

Student #1: yes.

T: Student #11, what do you think?

Student #11: He is a clever teacher because he knows difficult Math.

Student #6: Student #11 I can't hear you.

T: He knows Math is difficult.

Student #12: Maybe his students don't understand Mathematics (.) Maths, so he chose this way.

T: Okey I will come back to this answer again. Student #8 ↑

Student #8: I agree with somebody.

T: you agree with somebody ↑ who?

Student #8: Somebody said this way is difficult.

In this example, the question is actually a display question, since the teacher knows the answer, however, since the question asks for students' own opinions and the way the researcher reacts to the responses makes the question a referential one. She does not praise students' grammatically correct responses and she corrects their mistakes solely through repeating their answer with a correct version. She asks other students' opinions about the content of the response given, which made the interaction genuine. As Thompson (1997) argues, teacher may either genuinely not know the answer or "behave convincingly" as if he or she does not (p. 105).

On the other hand, "outside fact" display questions (Thompson, 1997), questions that are not specifically related to the learner, make classroom discourse nothing more than usual question-answer exchanges- IRF (Thornbury 1998, Ur, 1991). The example below elucidated such classroom discourse:

Classroom-answer Exchange 3:

T: What's his job?
Chorus: He is a Math teacher.
T: Yes
T: What is he teaching?
S: Math.
Student #1: fractions.
T: Where are the students from?
S: They are from low-income Latino families.
T: Which language do they speak at home?
Chorus: Spanish

In the question-and-answer exchange above, not only did the involvement of the students decrease compared to the previous exchange, but also the length of the responses diminished. Additionally, the fact that the answers to the responses were stated in the text made the classroom conversation unnatural.

During the interpretation, another noticeable effect on students' responses came to light. Having been subjected to a number of referential questions to which students replied with their own opinions, their behaviour when exposed to other question types altered. They started to share their own ideas and come up with different opinions when faced with display questions as well as referential questions. The question-and-answer exchange below clarifies this argument (only students responses were provided for this exchange):

Question-answer Exchange 4:

T: Why did the teacher give them math problems about shopping, sports dating?

Student #9: Because students learn quickly.

Student #8: He tried to make learning fun.

Student #5: because students like sports.

Student #6: It is interesting to students.

Student #5: Because they aren't lessons, they are fun activities.

Student #6: Because, before, the students don't see these problems…fractions. And then, he think they don't understand and they learn quickly.

Student #12: Because they are don't like Maths…they don't like Maths, they like activities, sports, shopping, so he trying fun.

In the classroom exchange above, the answer to the question was, in fact, stated in the text which was "because he tried to make learning fun". However, students went on expressing their opinions, which made the interaction between teacher and the students a genuine communication. Another reason why students wanted to carry on talking about the reasons is the researchers' attitude to the answers. Although the answer written in the text was given by student #8, the researcher reacted to all answers by saying "possibly, may be etc.", which enabled more students to express their opinions.

4.3.2 Lesson 2

The second lesson was based on a reading passage the title of which is "Fast Food or

Slow Food (see Appendix J). The text was about the reasons for the popularity of fast food in the U.S.A. The number of each question, the students who partake in question-and-answer exchanges and the number of responses are shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Number of Questions, Students and Responses in Lesson 2.

QUESTION TYPES	No. of questions	No. of students responding	No. of responses
DISPLAY	9	18	18
REFERENTIAL	9	44	46
TOTAL	18	62	64

As Table 5 shows, the students who participated in the lesson and the responses for referential questions outnumbered those for display questions. While the average number of students who responded to a display question was 2, it was 4.8 for referential questions, which revealed the fact that referential questions encouraged more students to participate orally. The results are shown in percentages in Figures 7 and 8.
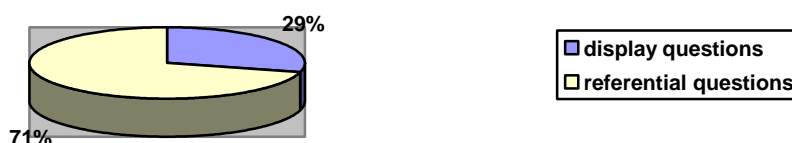
Figure 7. Pie Chart to Show the Percentages of the Number of Participants for Each Question Type in Lesson 2.
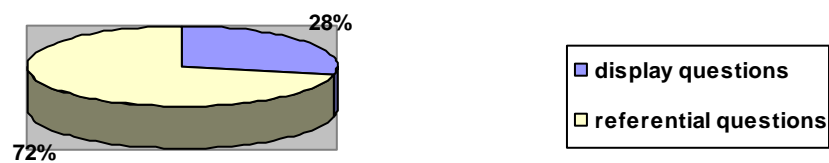
Figure 8. The Pie Chart to Show Percentages of Responses for Each Question Type in
Lesson 2.

What was crucial about the responses given to referential questions and display question
was that when a referential question was asked, the answers given to them were
students' own unique production, although not grammatically correct at all times. On
the other hand, a display question did not play an enhancing role in terms of students'
language development. The example question-and-answer exchanges taken from the
Lesson 2 below clarify this notion.

Example 1:

T: Why do you think people in big cities like Istanbul do not eat with their families any
    more?
Student #6: Because there are a lot of traffics in big cities, so people late
            home.
T: Okey, possibly. What else?
Student #1: Nightlife.
Student #15: After parties ↑
Student #6: I don't eat together with my father.
Student #12: They don't have an old dinner tradition and they always come to home
            late. In this reason, Istanbul is a very big city, so (.) and Istanbul has got
            a traffic jam, so they always come to home late.
T: Okey, what about you student #5?
Student #5:I agree with student #12. They meet friends, so they don't eat   together and
            people have got jobs.

47

T: Yes↓ Student #6?

Student #6: People didn't eat together with…people don't eat together with…

T: their families

Student #6: People don't eat with their families because the traffics are very busy, and then people (.) so people go home late. Wife and children are hungry and they don't wait.

T: so the wife doesn't work ↑

Student #6: Yes.

T: why?

Student #6: Because husbands earn a lot of money, so the wife doesn't study.

T: study ↓

Student #6: doesn't have to work.

Student #13: Because living conditions, people never eat together with your family.

T: with my family ↑

Student #5: with their families.

Example 2:

T: Why do you think fast food is very popular in Turkey?

Student #9: Fast food is popular in Turkey because it's delicious and it's quickly, so popular.

T: Because it's fast ↓ Okey, possibly…

Student #14: It's very fast.

Student #1: It's fast, delicious and easy food.

Student #5: When I eat fast food, I feel very happy.

Student #15: Because Turkish people like this and they don't have time to cook. When they eat fast food, they are very happy, but after that they put on weight, so they regret it.

Student #16: People have a lot of work and don't have time, so eat fast food.

Student #2 A lot of people like fast food because easy.

Example 3:

T: Why it is so popular in the U.S.A?
Student #5: Fast food saves work and time.
Student #12: They don't have enough time.
Student #1: to prepare the food.

In Examples 1 and 2, the question types are 'opinion and outside fact referential' (Thompson, 1997) and in Example 3, the question is a display one asking for information existing in the text and not specifically related to the learners, being an 'outside fact'. In Examples 1 and 2, all the utterances made as a response to the question asked are students own sentences produced with a conscious effort. Although discourse analysis is not within the scope of this research, it is apparent in the students' utterances that students are more conscious and autonomous in the production process when they are responding to a referential question. In Example 1, student #6 corrected his own mistakes twice, without any teacher interjection. Additionally, students used more logical connectors in their responses in Examples 1 and 2, which can be taken as a sign that students make more cohesive and coherent utterances when producing their own sentences as a response to a referential question. Additionally, as Pica et al. (1996) contended, "participation in verbal interactions offer language learners the opportunity to follow up on new words and structures to which they have been exposed during language lessons and to practice them in context" (p.32). In Examples 1 and 2, students made correct use of different structures (*When I eat fast food, I feel happy* or *the wife doesn't have to work*) which are usually problematic for students at this level. However, as is also the case in Example 3, not only was the level of participation low (3 students out of 17), but also the responses were taken in full from the text, thus making it noticeable that students had no active role in the production process.

4.3.3 Lesson 3

This was the last lesson to ascertain the effects of two question types on students' participation and involvement in the lesson. The session based on a reading passage

titled "An Unlucky Day" (see Appendix K). The text told the story of what happened to a girl on Friday 13th. Table 6 shows the distribution of the number of students and responses across referential and display questions.

Table 6. Number of Questions, Students and Responses in Lesson 3.

QUESTION TYPES	No. of questions	No. of students responding	No. of responses
DISPLAY	12	36	33
REFERENTIAL	3	15	22
TOTAL	15	51	55

In this lesson the reason why there were fewer referential questions was that one question took up nearly half of the class time, since students offered a large number of responses to this question. Therefore, the rest of the referential questions could not be asked in this lesson. Nevertheless, while the highest number of students who participated for a display question was not more than 5, for a single referential question, more than half of the class population was involved in the lesson by responding and also the number of responses for a single question is half of the responses given to all 12 display questions. In other words, for all of the display questions, the average number of students who took part was 3 whereas it was 5 for the referential questions. Therefore, referential questions facilitated more student participation and generated responses from the majority of the students. Only the responses to a referential question are provided below to illustrate student involvement when this question was asked.

T: Which superstitions do you know of?
Student #4: If you see a black cat, you should pull your hair three times.
Student #2: If you whistle at night, come to three words.
Student #16: You shouldn't cut your nails at night.
Student #7: If you do, it brings bad luck during your life.
Student #15: If you whistle at night and then genies come.

Student #11: If you chew gum, it brings bad luck.

Student #6: You shouldn't eat in bed, because it brings bad luck.

Student #12: May be you saw a ghost.

Student #9: If you give a knife to somebody and you will fight.

Student #9: If you look at black cat and you'll fight.

Student #6: If I saw a black cat, I (.) my hair.

Student #6: pull my hair.

As the example proves, the answers to this question were provided by ten different students, which is 66.6% of the whole class population. It can be asserted that referential questions are effective not only in promoting more student participation but also in student language development, since students produced their own sentences.

4.4 Analysis of Qualitative Data

4.4.1 Analysis of the Student Questionnaire

35 students from different levels completed the questionnaire. It contained one and a half page of explicit information about display and referential questions to enable the students to identify as much as possible what the functions of each question was. There were 7 open-response questions designed to find out what the students opinions and feelings were when they are asked display and referential questions. Display questions were referred to as Question Type A and Referential questions were listed as Question Type B in order not to confuse the students with terms. The questions were written in Turkish to enable the students to respond without the inhibition and to remove language barriers. A selection of answers provided by the students is included in Appendix L.

Question 1: What do you think are the effects of display questions (Question Type A) on your language development?

14 of the 35 students stated that display questions did not have much effect on their language development since they generally do not produce a lot as a response to these

questions. Of these students, 4 of them argued that display questions are too easy for higher-level students, thus unnecessary and often pointless. The remaining 10 opined that a question should trigger higher-order thinking, which display questions fail to do. 17 of the original 35 thought that this type of question is beneficial for a variety of reasons. Some of the reasons they came up with were that display questions help them comprehend the text better and such questions enable them to see their weaknesses and strengths. 4 students supplied incomplete answers to the question, only describing what a display question is. Some of the translations of students' responses are as follows:

"This type of questions too easy. I think when we learn some aspects of English, we can do this type of questions easily." (This is the exact transcription of this student's answer as he chose to answer in English).

"Since Question Type A only checks understanding and learning, it does not stimulate us to think, so I don't think that they are beneficial".

"They may be effective when students first start learning a foreign language. However, as they get more proficient in the language, they are not effective on language development any more.

"These questions help us build confidence and enable us to participate in the lesson. Students like these questions".

"It is a sensible way of checking if I have comprehended the text or not".

Question 2: What do you think are the effects of referential questions (Question Type B) on your language development?

All 35 students completing the questionnaire had the same opinion of the effects of referential questions on their language development. They all said that since these questions trigger thinking and provide students an opportunity to supply a variety of answers; referential questions help them improve their speaking skills. In other words,

the fact that there is no definitive answer to a referential question gives more students the ability to respond, therefore, allowing more of them to produce using the target language. Additionally, the majority of the students thought these questions created the opportunity to express themselves using their own opinions and share ideas. Some of the translations of students' responses are as follows:

"These questions are more suitable for higher level students. They enable students to reason and respond; thus, help them improve their language abilities."

"These questions help us improve speaking skills and our ability to reason and comment in English".

"These questions trigger thinking so they help us think in the language that we are learning."

Question 3: Which one, Type A or Type B, is more effective on language development? Why?

28 of the 35 students stated that referential questions are far better than display questions, since the responses to these questions are their own production and they stimulate thinking and help them expand and express their knowledge of the world. The rest said that both types had their own merits, therefore, neither of them could be excluded form the language learning environment. Some of the translations of students' responses are as follows:

"B type. We need to think to answer these questions. The answer is our own answer. It is important (Student's own answer in English)".

"Both types are equally important. Display questions are for checking comprehension, whereas referential questions allow us to express ourselves."

Question 4: When you are asked a personal referential question (e.g. Have you

ever been close to death?), are you reluctant to share your ideas?

29 of 35 students said that they would not hesitate. Most of them agreed that whether personal or not, questions create opportunities to express themselves in the language they are learning. 6 of the total number of participants stated that if the question is too personal, they might hesitate or be reluctant to share this information with the rest of the class. Some of the translations of students' responses are as follows:

"Of course I don't. To answer to a personal question will require me to speak in English, so I can practice".
"If the question is too personal or about something that I might get offended about, I may hesitate".

Question 5: In the reading lessons, which type of questions do you prefer to be asked? Why?

The majority of the students (21 out of 35) favoured referential questions in reading classes on the grounds that responding to them has a positive impact on speaking skills and reasoning ability. They also argued that there was no point in responding to a question the answer to which was already stated in the text. 4 of the students stated that they preferred display questions since they felt these enhanced comprehension of the text and these questions were easy to answer. 7 students felt that both display and referential questions should be included in a reading lesson, as they both have different effects on their language learning. Among the responses favoring both, one student argued that display questions should precede referential questions. In addition, 2 students said it did not matter which type of questions are asked in reading classes. Some of the translations of students' responses are as follows:

"I prefer referential questions, because they help me more to do some reasoning to answer these questions. Also, they help us to think outside of the text".

"Referential questions are more beneficial since the answers to display questions can be

easily found in the text."

"I think both type should be asked since each has their benefits of their own".

Question 6: When a referential question, the answer to which is not directly written in the text, but can be inferred, is asked, what strategies do you use to provide the correct answer?

11 of the students stated that in order to answer such questions, they should skim the text and comprehend it fully. 9 of the students insisted that they would scan the text and look for the key words. 3 stated that thinking over the question and reasoning would help them to find the correct response. 2 of them stated that they would write their own comments. 4 students wrote they had no specific strategies and the rest left the question unanswered. Some of the translations of students' responses are as follows:

"I scan the text, find the related part and try to answer the question".

"I scan the text and look for the key words."

"I have no specific strategy. It depends".

"I read the whole text again carefully and try to comprehend it fully."

Question 7: When a referential question is asked, even if you are not sure whether your answer is true or not, are you reluctant to answer?

29 of the students stated that they were not reluctant. Out of 29 students, 17 of them simply said "no". The rest supplied different reasons. 5 students stated that since referential questions usually require their opinions and the answers change from student to student, there was no point in hesitating. The rest thought that responding, even with a correct answer or not, enables them to practice, so they had no reticence. Some of the translations of students' responses are as follows:

No I am not, because referential questions usually query my own opinion as a response, thus, I don't hesitate to respond".

"No I am not, because even if I am not sure about my answer, responding is a kind of practice".

4.4.2 Teachers' Questionnaire

40 teachers working at the institution were asked to fill in a questionnaire to find out their opinions on the effects of display and referential questions on students' language learning and oral participation. In addition, in order to reach a broader conclusion, interviews were carried out with twelve other teachers. The questions and teachers' answers will be analyzed in this section. The numbers in parenthesis within some responses show the number of teachers who gave that specific response.

Question 1: How much class time do you think you spend on question-and-answer exchanges in the classroom?

All of the teachers agreed that the time spent on question-and-answer exchanges depended on the lesson and the objectives of the lesson. However, when they were asked for a rough figure, they came up with different numbers. 8 teachers believed that they spend 70% of class time on question and answer exchanges; 4 teachers stated that they only spend 25% or less; 5 teachers asserted that it changes between 50 % and 25 %. The remaining 23 teachers claimed that they spend approximately 50 % of a lesson on questioning.

Question 2: What are language teachers' purposes when asking students questions?

It was found that teachers use questions and questioning for a variety of purposes in the classroom:

5   To check instructions (2 teachers)

6   To start a discussion/lead into a topic (6 teachers)

7   To enable the students to think critically (7 teachers).

8   To raise awareness and curiosity (6 teachers)

9   To attract attention (1 teacher)

10 To drill structure (1 teacher)

11 To check understanding/comprehension/meaning/concept (30 teachers)

12 To facilitate participation and interaction (8)

13 To check prior knowledge (3)

14 To elicit language and opinions (21)

15 To initiate genuine communication (4)

16 To increase student talk time and enable them to practice speaking (12)

17 To build confidence (2)

18 To maintain discipline (2)

19 To prepare the students for the world of English outside the classroom (1)

20 To provide a model (1)

21 To include all the learners (1)

22 To guide the students (4)

Teachers working at the institution use questioning mostly to check understanding and for elicitation. This shows that the majority of teachers ask display questions in the classroom, since display questions are used for elicitation and comprehension checking.

Question 3: How do you think questioning affects students' language development?

The answers that teachers gave to this question suggested that questioning has a tremendous effect on students' language development. They stated that learning is enhanced by questioning, since questions lead to grammar and also vocabulary formation (25). Students are enabled to produce through responding to questions; thus, practice speaking (23). Teachers agreed that questioning facilitates interaction and student involvement in the lesson (31). In addition, with the right questions students develop critical thinking skills, helping them to increase their cognitive levels (8). By

giving students the opportunity to express themselves, appropriate questions make the classroom discourse genuine. (13). Being able to express their opinions and feelings in the language they are learning helps promote self-confidence and motivation (28).

Question 4: Out of 50 questions that you ask in the classroom, how many of them do you think are display questions?

7 teachers stated that the number of display questions they ask depends very much on the level of the students and the type of task. They argued that if students have a low level of language proficiency, they ask more display questions since those students need confidence and guidance. 16 of the teachers stated that the majority of the questions they ask in the classroom are display questions. 7 teachers claimed that half of the questions they ask are display questions. 10 teachers stated that the number of display questions they use is less than twenty.

Question 5: How do you think display questions affect students' language development?

21 teachers claim that display questions have an effect on students' language learning, though, not always on language development. The same teachers believe that display questions are usually beneficial to the teachers, since those questions help them check students' understanding and comprehension. As for the students, 13 teachers suggested that these questions raise student awareness and keep them interested. Additionally, such questions, being not very challenging, guide the students towards achievable tasks and help them build confidence (8). Some teachers have the opinion that this type of questions helps students to get actively involved in the lesson (2). However, there are a few teachers claiming that these questions have little effect on students' language development, since when responding; students are minimally active in the production process (7). As well as generating little production, these questions have limited effect on developing students' critical thinking skills.

Question 6: How do you think display questions affect students' oral production

and participation?

Teachers have the tendency to think that since these questions are not challenging and are easy to answer, students feel confident to respond, thus, encourage student participation albeit participation which is restricted to teacher-student exchange; that is, they do not stimulate student-student interaction (13). However, due to the fact that the answers are limited and short, such questions have little effect on students' oral production (27).

Question 7: How do you think referential questions affect students' language development?

For the effect of referential questions on students' language development the majority of teachers have the opinion that asking students referential questions create an environment in the classroom where they can express themselves, their opinions and ideas, thus helping create a life like atmosphere in the classroom (23). Those same teachers also claim that these questions enable students to practice language more and produce longer utterances than they do when they are asked a display question. It is also believed that referential questions generate more autonomous students, taking risks about what they say and how they say it (4). What is also claimed about the effect of referential questions is that they enable students to improve critical thinking skills (5).

Question 8: How do you think referential questions improve students' oral participation and production?

The majority of teachers stated that referential questions encourage more participation in the classroom, since the answers to such questions are not limited and allow students to give their own ideas and opinions (31). However, there may be some reasons which hinder student participation, such as a lack of world knowledge and confidence. Teachers claimed that some students are reluctant to take risks which hinders their free participation when a referential type question is asked (3).

Question 9: Which level are referential questions more appropriate and beneficial

for? For what reasons?

> a- **lower level**
>
> b- **higher level**

The responses indicate that teachers are divided in their opinion as to the benefits of referential questions at each level. 28 teachers claimed that they are more beneficial and appropriate for higher levels, since students are more proficient and their vocabulary repertoire is wider. The rest claim that they are appropriate and beneficial for both levels, although, they also argued that with lower levels students the answers expected from them are limited.

4.5 Summary of Findings

The analysis of the quantitative data showed that referential questions facilitated more student participation in a lower level language class at Izmir University of Economics than display questions. Besides, referential questions engendered longer responses since students were not limited to the answers that the text provided them as a response since referential questions required their opinions and comments in this context. During the intervention stage, it was found that referential questions elevated student participation particularly when the students were provided with chunks of language to do the task when necessary and given enough time to consider the question and their responses.

From the data obtained from student questionnaire, some general ideas and opinions of students on referential and display questions and their specific effects on language development can be listed as follows:

- Display questions are too easy and do not have much effect on language development of the higher-level language learners (40%), but are effective for text comprehension (48.5%).
- Referential questions stimulate language growth thanks to three main reasons: they activate students' thinking and reasoning, enable students to contribute to the process with their own productions and give them the opportunity to express

opinions (100%); thus, they are far more propitious for language development than display questions (80%).

- Students favour personal questions as they happen to have the opportunity to talk about themselves in the language they are learning (82.8%).

- In reading classes referential questions play a more constructive role in students' language development since students are active in the production process rather than supplying the answers given already in the text (60 %).

- When a higher order question is asked, the answer to which can be inferred from the text, skimming the text for better comprehension and scanning for the key words are the best way to find an answer (57 %).

- Students feel confident and take no offense when answering a referential question since there is no one true answer (82.8 %).

Considering the responses given by the majority of the instructors working at the Izmir University of Economics, who were given the questionnaire, the amount and the type of questions they usually ask depend on the lesson, task, and the objectives. In addition, they usually ask questions to check comprehension and elicit concepts and ideas. Furthermore, although display questions do not have much effect on language development, they are useful to check understanding and comprehension, and to promote confidence. On the other hand, it is referential type questions that facilitate participation and production on the part of the students, though, generally more applicable and beneficial in higher level classes, due to the proficiency level of the students in the target language. Those questions, in addition, create a more realistic setting, since in real-life we ask questions to inquire about opinions and feelings.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

5.0 Presentation

This chapter presents the summary of the study, the discussion of findings, implications and recommendations for further study.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether lower-language level students at Izmir University of Economics will participate and produce longer sentences in the reading classes when asked a referential question than they do when asked a display question. The research was carried out as an action research in a single classroom for a specific reason. The students were elementary level students who failed the end of module test twice, thus taking the same module for the third time. Therefore, this was a special class where similar students with the same attitude and reticence towards learning English were placed in this classroom. Contrary to research findings (Allwright & Bailey, 1991 David, 2007; Hickman, 2004; Shomoossi, 2004) and teachers' beliefs about referential questions' being more stimulating and effective for higher-level students, the researcher hypothesized that low level students lacking in motivation might be encouraged to participate more in the lesson by asking them referential questions that usually required them to provide their opinions. After conducting three reading classes following the preliminary investigation, it was found that asking students referential questions in lower level classes promoted more student participation and generated longer responses from the students. However, in order to achieve such a high level of oral participation, students benefited from being given a certain amount of time to discuss the questions with their peers and they were guided in terms of structures that they could make use of.

The opinions and feelings of students attending the preparatory department and teachers

who work in Izmir University of Economics about the effect of different types of questions on learners' language development and oral participation were also researched into.

Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected for this study. The quantitative data were gathered through counting the number of incidents of student participation and responses marked on the tally sheet which was designed by the researcher. Additionally, the length of student responses to each type of questions was also determined to find out to which type of questions students gave longer responses. In order to determine the length of students' responses to both question types, the words in each turn (a turn in this starts as a student responds to a question and continues until a different student or the teacher start to talk, therefore ending the turn) were counted and the mean length of responses for display and referential question was calculated.

The qualitative data were collected through the answers that both teachers and students supplied to questionnaires. The questionnaire assigned to students consisted of eight open-ended questions. The teacher's questionnaire included nine open-ended questions.

The purpose behind giving a questionnaire to the students was to find out their opinions and feelings about referential and display questions and the effects of those questions on their language development. The results showed that the majority of students stated that although both types of question are necessary and beneficial in terms of enhancing their language learning, they all agreed that referential questions create more opportunity for language development and enable them to express their feelings and opinions. Therefore, it can be concluded that students who took part in the survey were aware of the fact that in order to be more proficient in the language they are learning, they need to be actively involved in the production process and they need to take risks within the language itself.

The aim of the questionnaire assigned to the teachers working at Izmir University of Economics was to discover teachers' opinions and ideas about referential questions and display questions and their possible effects on students' language development and oral

participation. The results showed that although display questions do not have much effect on students' language development, they should not be dismissed, since they are needed to check students' progress, understanding and comprehension. In addition, display questions are effective tools that enable teachers to elicit language and concepts. On the other hand, referential questions create realistic situations in the classroom enabling students to express ideas, opinions and feelings. They are effective in generating longer responses and promoting more student-talk and interaction in the classroom. However, although referential questions can be made use of in both higher and lower level language classes, they engender better results and more student involvement in higher-level language classes.

5.2 Implications and Recommendations

This research was conducted to find out how referential questions would affect students' oral participation and production with lower level language learners. It was found that asking students referential questions facilitated more student participation and also enabled them to produce longer sentences and engendered more production. In fact, this study showed that through appropriate questions, teachers can elicit language from the students of lower ability, since those students feel more confident when they become aware of the fact that they can express their opinions in the language they are learning. In light of the results of this study, language teachers might be advised to include more referential questions in their teaching practice. As well as generating more student participation and longer responses, asking referential questions requires the students to supply their own answers, which enables students to practice language in a more productive way. Moreover, through exposure to referential questions, students have the opportunity to express their opinions and ideas, creating a genuine communication between teacher and students and among students themselves. However, this does not mean that display questions are not beneficial and should be avoided altogether. Display questions are an invaluable tool playing an essential role in reading lessons, since students' understanding and comprehension should be checked before moving on to higher-order questions.

For teachers who wish to use referential questions with lower level language learners some recommendations can be made. When a referential question is asked, providing these students with appropriate chunks of language that they can make use of when responding and time to consider the question and to discuss the possible answers with their peers motivates the students to take part in the lesson. Although it necessitates preparation on the part of the teacher, since effective questioning and questions require preparation, through carefully prepared questions and with necessary guidance, teachers can engender more student participation and production even with the most unwilling students.

Since facilitating more student participation is one of the main concerns of language teachers, teacher educators can also encourage teachers to ask more referential questions in the classroom and train them to become better questioners, on account of the fact that most of the classroom interactions occurs in the manner of question-answer exchanges in language classrooms.

Some recommendations can be made for a similar study in the future. To start with, more reliable results can be obtained by including more students and more classes of lower level language students to reach a broadened conclusion. Similarly, with a more detailed discourse analysis, the quality of responses less proficient students give to referential questions can be researched.

REFERENCES

Brock, C. A. (1986). The effects of referential questions on ESL classroom discourse. *TESOL Quarterly, 20*, 77-59.

Blazquez, B. A. (2007). Reflection as a necessary condition for action research. *English Teaching Forum*, 1, 26-40.

Brown, G. & Wragg, E. C. (1993). *Questioning*. London: Routledge.

Brualdi, Amy C. (1998). Classroom questions. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 6(6). Retrieved May 14, 2010 from http://PAREonline.net/ 6getvn.asp?v=6&n=

Burns, A. (1999). *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chaudron, C. (1988). Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cotton, K. (2006). *Classroom Questioning*. Retrieved March 12, 2010, from http://www.learner.org/workshops/socialstudies/pdf/ session6/6.ClassroomQuestioning.pdf

Cullen, R. (1998). Teacher talk and the classroom context. *ELT Journal*, 52, 179-186.

David, F. (2007). Teacher's questioning behavior and ESL classroom interaction pattern. *Humanity and Social Sciences Journal*, 2, 127-31.

Ellis, K. (1993). Teacher questioning behaviour and student learning: What research says to teachers. *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the western states communication association,* retrieved February 12, 2010 from

http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICDocs/data/ericdocs2sql/ content_storage01/0000019b/ 80/13/f8/25.pdf.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gall, M. D. (1970). The use of questions in teaching. *Review of Educational Research*, 40, 707-721.

Gall, M. D. (1986). Synthesis of research on teachers' questioning. *Educational Leadership*, 42, 40-47.

Georgakopoulou, A. & Goutsos, D. (1997). Discourse analysis: An introduction. Edinburgh, Edinburgh University Press.

Harmer, J. (1983). *The practice of English language teaching*. London; New York: Longman

Hussain, N. (2003). Helping EFL/ESL students by asking quality questions. *The Internet TESL Journal.* Retrieved, November 9, from http://iteslj.org.

Lewis, K. G. (2006). *Developing questioning skills*. Retrieved, April 10, 2010,from https://classshares.student.usp.ac.fj/ED350/ED350% 202009/Materials%20for%20Lice/Developing%20Questioning%20 Skills.pdf.

Lynch, T. (1991). Questioning roles in the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 45, 201-210.

Long, M, H., Sato, C. J. (1983). Classroom foreigner talk discourse: Forms and functions of teachers' questions. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition (pp. 3-34). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Ma, X. (2008). The skills of teacher's questioning in English classes. *International Education Studies*, 1, 92-100.

Mehan, H. (1979). "What time is it Denise?": Asking known information questions in classroom discourse. *Theory into Practice*, 28, 285-294.

Mesumeci, D. (1996). Teacher learner negotiation in content-based instruction: Communication at cross purposes? *Applied Linguistics*, 17, 286-325.

Mills, S. R., Berliner, D. C., Rice, C. T. & Rosseau, E. W. (1980). The correspondence between teacher questions and students answers in classroom discourse. Journal *of Experimental Education*, 48, 194-204.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Understanding language classrooms: A guide for teacher-initiated action*. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Nunan, D. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Nunan, D. (1992). Research methods in language learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nutall, C. (1982). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language*. Oxford: Heinemann International.

Pica, T., Lincoln-Porter, F., Paninos, D., & Linnel, J. (1996). Language Learners' Interaction: How does it address the input, output and feedback needs of L2 learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, 30, 737-58.

Shomoossi, N. (2004). The effect of teacher's questioning behaviour on EFL classroom interaction: A classroom research study. *The Reading Matrix*, 4, 96-104.

Schiffrin, D. (1994). *Approaches to discourse*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Blackwell

Publishers.

Thompson, G. (1997). Training teachers to ask questions. *ELT Journal*, 51, 99-105.

Thornbury, S. (1996). Teachers research teacher talk. ELT *Journal,* 50, 279-289.

Wallace, M. J. (1998). *Action research for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Walsh, J. A. & Sattes, B. D. (2005). *Quality questioning: Research-based practice to engage every learner.* Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press.

Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or obstruction: Teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 6, 3-23.

Ur, P. (1991). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDIX A

First Tally Sheet to Observe Teachers' Use of Questions

TEACHER OBSERVATION

Date:
Class:
Type of Lesson:
Name of the Teacher:

	FORM					CONTENT	
COMMUNICATION							
Questions	**Yes/No**	**Wh-**	**Outside fact**	**Personal fact**	**Opinion**	**DISPLAY**	**REFERE NTIAL**

APPENDIX B

Revised Tally Sheet to Observe Teacher's use of questions

TEACHER OBSERVATION

Date:
Class:
Type of lesson:
Name of the teacher:

QUESTIONS	DISPLAY	REFERENTIAL

First Tally Sheet to Mark the Question Types, the Number of Students and Responses

Date:

Title of the Reading Text

Questions	Yes/No	Wh-	Outside fact	Personal fact	Opinion	**DISPLAY**	**REFERENTIAL**	Number of students responding	Number of responses

APPENDIX D

Revised Tally Sheet to Mark the Number of Students and Responses

Date:

Title of the Reading Passage:

QUESTIONS	The number of students responding	The number of responses

APPENDIX E

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

THE QUESTIONS THAT TEACHERS ASK IN EFL CLASSROOMS

The aim of this questionnaire is to investigate the opinions of instructors working at Izmir University of Economics on two different types of questions (Display and Referential questions) in terms of their effects on students' language development and oral participation. The definition as well as examples for both question types are provided within the questionnaire. The questionnaire consits of three parts requiring information about:

PART A: Teachers' questioning behaviour in general
PART B: Display Questions
PART C: Referential Qquestions

PART A:

1. How much of class time do you think you spend on question-answer exchanges in the classroom?

   a)70 % or more   b)approximately 50 %   c) 25% or less

2. What are language teachers' purposes when asking students questions?

3.How do you think questioning effects students' language development?

PART B: Display Questions

> According to Thompson (1997), there are two types of questions. The first type is *display questions*. These are the questions to which the teacher knows the answer and the students are asked to display their knowledge or to check their understanding. (Thompson, G. 1997. Training Teachers to Ask Questions. *ELT Journal*, 52,1,99-102.)
>
> Some examples of display questions:
>
> *What does X mean?*
>
> *Where do we use "guarantee" most?*
>
> *In reading passages:*
>
> *When did X happen according to the text?*
>
> *What does this paragraph say?*
>
> *True or False?*
>
> *True or false? Why?*

4. Out of 50 questions that you ask in a 50-minute lesson, how many of them do you think are Display Questions?

5. How do you think Display Questions affect students' language development?

6. How do you think Display Questions affect students' oral participation and production?

PART C: Referential Questions

> The second type is *referential questions* that require the learners to express opinions, or provide information that the teacher generally does not have.
>
> <u>Example:</u>
> *What do you think about....?*
> *Have you ever been.... What/when?*
> *What kind of a diet is the best?*
> *How important are proteins for health?*
> <u>In a reading lesson:</u>
> *What does the writer mean?*
> *What do you think about?*

8. How do you think Referential Questions affect students' oral participation and production?

9. Which level of students are Referential Questions more appropriate and beneficial for?

    a) lower-level language students.
    b) higher- level language students.

For what reasons?

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

ANKET

ÖĞRETMENİN ÖĞRENCİLERE YÖNELTTİĞİ SORULAR

1. Sınıfta öğretmenin sorduğu soruların yabancı dil öğrenmeniz üzerine olan etkisi nedir?

Açıklama

Thompson'a (1997) göre sınıfta öğretmenin sorduğu soru tipleri iki kısma ayrılır. Birinci tip sorular öğretmenin cevabını bildiği, ancak sizin bilginizi ölçmek amacıyla sorulan sorulardır. Bu ankette bu tip sorular **A tipi sorular** olarak adlandırılacak.

Örnek:

What does "current"mean?(Current kelimesinin İngilizce anlamı nedir?

Where do we use "guarantee" most?(Garanti kelimesini en çok nerde kullanırız?)

When did X happen according to the text?(Parçaya göre X nezaman olmuştur?)

What does this paragraph say?(Bu paragraf ne anlatmaktadır?)

True or false? Why? (Doğru mu yanlış mı? Neden?)

B tipi sorular **okuma parçalarında** cevabı direk olarak parçada yazan, öğretmenin genellikle öğrencinin parçayı nekadar anladığını test eden sorulardır.

Örnek: *Ayşe was born in Turkey. She started working for a bookstore when she was 14. When she retired she was 60 years old. (Ayşe Türkiye'de doğdu. 14 yaşındayken bir kitapçıda çalışmaya başladı. Emekli olduğunda 60 yaşındaydı.)*

Question: How old was Ayşe when she started working?(Ayşe çalışmaya kaç yaşında başladı?)

Answer: 14

İkinci tip sorular öğrencilere bilgi vermeleri ya da kendi fikirlerini açıklamaları

için sorulur. Bu özelliğiyle cevabı kişiden kişiye değişen sorulardır. Bu tip sorular bu ankette <u>B tipi sorular</u> olarak adlandırılacaktır.

Örnek:

What do you think about....?(....hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?)

Have you ever been.... What/when? (Hiç........? Nezaman? Nerede?)

What kind of a diet is the best? (Ne tür diyet tipi en iyidir?)

How important are proteins for health?(Proteinler sağlığımız için nekadar yararlıdır?)

<u>B tipi</u> sorular okuma parçalarında iki şekilde sorulabilir. Birincisi, cevabı direk olarak parçada olmayan, sizin gerekli parçaları birleştirerek bulabileceğiniz sorulardır.

Örnek:

Ayşe was born in Turkey. She started working for a bookstore when she was 14. When she retired she was 60 years old. (Ayşe Türkiye'de doğdu. 14 yaşındayken bir kitapçıda çalışmaya başladı. Emekli olduğunda 60 yaşındaydı.)

Question: How long did Ayşe work for the bookstore? (Ayşe kitapçıda kaç sene çalıştı?)

Answer: 46 years

İkinci şekil ise parçadan yola çıkarak öğretmenin size yönelttiği <u>kişisel sorulardır</u>.

Örnek:

Ayşe was born in Turkey. She started working for a bookstore when she was 14. When she retired she was 60 years old.

Question: Do you think working for the same company for a long time is a good thing or bad?

Answer: Students' personal opinions

Sorular

1.   <u>A tipi soruların</u> İngilizce öğrenmeniz üzerindeki etkileri hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz. Kısaca açıklayınız.

2. <u>B tipi soruların</u> İngilizce öğrenmeniz üzerindeki etkileri hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Kısaca açıklayınız.

3. A tipi ve B tipi soru tiplerinden hangisinin öğrenmeniz üzerinde daha etkiliolduğunu düşünüyorsunuz? Nedenleriyle kısaca açıklayınız.

4. <u>B tipi kişisel</u> bir soru sorulduğunda (örnek: Have you ever been close to death? *Hiç ölümle burun buruna geldin mi?*)kendi cevabını vermekten çekinir misin? Evetse neden?Hayırsa neden?

5. Sınıfta okuma parçası okurken (reading) A tipi bir soru sorulması mı (örn: How old is Ayşe?) , yoksa B tipi bir soru sorulmasını mı tercih edersin (örn: what do you think about.......?) Neden?

6. Okuma parçası işlenirken, öğretmen <u>B tipi</u> bir soru sorduğunda (How long did Ayşe work for the bookstore?) , sorunun cevabı direk olarak parçada yoksa, doğru cevabını bulmak için stratejilerin nelerdir?

7. <u>B tipi</u> bir soru sorulduğunda, kendi cevabının doğru olup olmadığından emin olmasan bile cevabı vermek için söz almaktan çekinir misin.

APPENDIX G

English Translation of the Questions in Students' Questionnaire

1.   What do you think are the effects of Display Questions (Question Type A) on your language development?

2. What do you think are the effects of Referential Questions (Question Type B) on your language development?

3. Which one, Type A or Type B, is more effective on language development? Why?

When you are asked a personal referential question (e.g. Have you ever been close to death?), do you hesitate to share your ideas?

5. In the reading lessons, which type of questions do you prefer to be asked? Why?

6. When a Referential Question, the answer to which is not directly written in the text, but can be inferred, is asked, what strategies do you use to provide the correct answer?

7. When a referential question is asked, even if you are not sure whether your answer is true or not, are you reluctant to answer?

The Reading Text Used in the Preliminary Investigation

MEN IN SKIRTS

In Europe men do not wear skirts, but the Scottish national costume for men is a kind of skirt. It is called a "kilt". The Scottish are proud of their country and history, and they feel that the kilt is part of their history. That is why a lot of men still wear kilts at traditional dances and on national holidays. They believe they are wearing the same clothes that Scottish men always wore in the past.

In the early days, Scottish men wore a kind of long shirt that went below their knees. They wore long socks and a big wool blanket around their shoulders. These clothes were warm and comfortable for working outside on a farm, but they were not so good when men started working in factories in the 1730s, so a factory owner changed the blanket into a skirt: the kilt. That was the first kilt.

In the late 1700s, Scottish soldiers in the British army began to wear kilts. One reason for this was national feeling: The Scottish soldiers wanted to look different form the English soldiers. They fought hard and became famous and in the early 1800s, men all around Scotland began to wear kilts.

The first kilt had colourful stripes going up and down and across. In Scotland, this pattern is called "tartan". Later, the cloth with this pattern was also called tartan. The pattern of all the kilts was the same, but they had different colours which were important to Scottish families. By the early 1800s, most Scottish families had special colour for their kilts and the men always wore these colours on their kilts.

APPENDIX I

Reading Text Used in Lesson 1

A SPECIAL TEACHER

Jamie Escalante stood in front of his class. He was wearing an apron and a chef's hat. There were three apples on his desk, and he was cutting them into pieces with a sharp knife. But he wasn't teaching cooking. He was teaching math. Mr. Escalante wanted his students to learn fractions. So he was cutting the apples into thirds, fourths and eights.

From 1974 to 1991 Mr. Escalante was a teacher at Garfield Highschool in East Los Angeles. Most of his students came from low-income Latino families. They didn't have much money, and they spoke Spanish at home. Some people didn't think these students could learn much. But Mr. Escalante knew they could learn. He tried to make learning fun. He gave them math problems about sports, dating shopping and other things the teenagers liked. This helped the students be successful. They quickly learned Math!

Mr. Escalante wanted his students to love learning. He wanted them to have a strong desire or wish to learn. The Spanish word for a strong desire is *ganas*. Mr. Escalante told his students that, with ganas, they could do anything. But telling them wasn't enough. He had to show them. He began to teach them calculus, an advanced type of math. He wanted them to take a calculus test that only the top 3% of students in the United States take. The test is difficult, so Mr. Escalante helped his students study everyday, for a whole year. Before school, during school, after school, and even on Sunday mornings, they studied calculus together.

In the spring of 1982 Mr. Escalante's students took the test. They all did well and passed! What a success! But some people thought they cheated. They thought the students copied the correct answers from other students' papers. So, the students took the test again. And they passed again! The students proved to themselves and to their community that, with ganas, they could do anything. With desire, hard work and with the help of their great teacher, they succeeded.

APPENDIX J

Reading Text Used in Lesson 2

FAST FOOD OR SLOW FOOD

In North America people are always in a hurry. Many children have special lessons or sport activities after school. Parents always work late and don't get home until 7 or 8 o'clock at night. Many women work at full- time jobs, and come home late. It isn't a surprise that the average North American family doesn't have the time to eat many meals together.

When a family takes the time to eat together, often there isn't enough time to prepare the food. That is why fast food is so popular in North America. Fast food saves work and time. A person in North America spends 50 dollars on fast food each day.

Fast food is inexpensive food such as hamburgers and fried chicken, which are prepared and served quickly. People generally buy this food from a restaurant chain, such as Pizza Hut, McDonald's or KFC. It is popular in many countries. American fast food companies now have many restaurants all over the world. There are McDonald's and Pizza Hut restaurants in Bangkok, Beijing, Moscow and Mexico City, as well as in Paris, London and Rome.

Not everyone is happy about the spread of North American fast food. A group of people in Italy wants to fight the spread of American fast food. They don't want any more fast food chains to open restaurants in their country. Their organization is called the Slow Food Movement. This group wants to fight against the spread of fast food everywhere.

Reading Text Used in Lesson 3

AN UNLUCKY DAY

1   Many people believe that Friday the 13th brings bad luck. They are afraid to do things on Friday the 13th. But our heroine Eva is Polish, and people in Poland don't believe this.

2   Eva is a practical, hard-working person. She decided that the stories about Friday the 13th were nonsense. So, on Friday, October 13th, Eva got ready for work as usual. She had a busy day. Eva worked part-time at a bank in the mornings. After lunch that Friday, she had an appointment with her dentist, and in the evening she had an English class. That Friday morning, Eva was in a hurry. She took a quick shower and had a slice of toast with cheese for breakfast. Then, she left for work.

3   The bank was busy. Everyone was in a hurry and in a bad mood. Eva got nervous and made a couple of mistakes. The manager shouted at her when one of the customers complained. Eva got worried and tears filled her eyes when a third customer started to argue with her. Finally, it was noon. She met a friend for lunch and **they** had a good time. Eva felt better after lunch. She thought it was really stupid to worry about bad luck. After lunch, her dental appointment went well. The dentist told Eva that she didn't need any work. "Great!" she thought. "Why did I worry so much about this day?"

4   At 5 P.M. Eva went to class at City Community College. The teacher announced a surprise test. "Oh-oh! Is it true about Friday the 13th?" Eva thought. She got nervous. When **it** was over, she had a good feeling about the test. "So far, so good," she thought. Friday the 13th was almost over, and there were no problems.

5   Eva took a taxi home from school with a friend. There were two fire trucks and an ambulance parked in front of **her** apartment building. A crowd of people was standing on the other side of the street. "What happened?" Eva asked when she got to the front door. Someone answered, "A tenant forgot to turn the stove off. There was an electrical fire in the building." "Oh, no!" Eva said. She asked, "Which apartment was it?" "Apartment 13," answered a firefighter. "Do you live in apartment 13?"

APPENDIX M

Samples of Student Questionnaire