

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NOVICE AND EXPERIENCED TEACHERS IN
TERMS OF QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

A Master's Thesis

by

GÜLŞEN ALTUN

The Department of
Teaching English as a Foreign Language
Bilkent University
Ankara

July 2010

To my father, Derviş Altun...

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NOVICE AND EXPERIENCED TEACHERS IN
TERMS OF QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

The Graduate School of Education
of
Bilkent University

by

GÜLŞEN ALTUN

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts

in

The Department of
Teaching English as a Foreign Language
Bilkent University
Ankara

July 2010

BİLKENT UNIVERSITY
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
MA THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM

July 12, 2010

The examining committee appointed by the Graduate School of Education
for the thesis examination of the MA TEFL student

Gülşen Altun

has read the thesis of the student.

The committee has decided that the thesis of the student is satisfactory.

Thesis Title: The Differences between Novice and Experienced Teachers
in terms of Questioning Techniques

Thesis Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Julie Mathews-Aydınlı
Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

Committee Members: Vis. Asst. Prof. Dr. Kim Trimble
Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

Asst. Prof. Dr. Belgin Aydın
Anadolu University, Faculty of Education

ABSTRACT

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NOVICE AND EXPERIENCED TEACHERS IN
TERMS OF QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

Altun, Gülşen

M.A., Department of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Julie Mathews-Aydınlı

July 2010

This study explored the difference between novice and experienced university teachers' questioning techniques in terms of the number and types of questions they ask, the amount of wait time they give, and feedback they provide to students' answers. I conducted the study with five novice and five experienced English teachers at Bilkent University School of English Language (BUSEL) and Middle East Technical University (METU) Department of Basic English.

I collected the data through 20 classroom observations. I observed and audio-recorded each teacher twice in order to reduce the novelty effect. Also, I filled in a checklist, which enabled me to have a structured focus while collecting and analyzing the data. To analyze the data, I transcribed the question-answer episodes of the recordings and carried out priori coding. Novice and experienced teachers' data were compared both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The findings revealed that novice and experienced teachers differed in their questioning techniques in some aspects quantitatively, in some aspects qualitatively. The results also showed the distinction between training and experience since they were both found to be influential in teachers' questioning behaviors. It was discovered that while some questioning habits could be developed via experience, some of them were learned via training.

The results may call teachers' and teacher trainers' attention to the effect of experience on teachers' questioning techniques. Also, thanks to the findings of the present study, teachers' awareness of the influence of their questioning behaviors on the students' interaction in the target language may be raised. Lastly, administrators and teacher trainers can arrange in-service training programs to make teachers aware of the latest techniques and methods in language teaching, and they can hold regular meetings to enable teachers to share their experiences.

Key words: Questioning techniques, question types, wait-time, feedback, teaching experience, novice teachers, experienced teachers.

ÖZET

MESLEĞİN İLK YILLARINDAKİ ÖĞRETMENLERLE DENEYİMLİ
ÖĞRETMENLERİN SORU SORMA TEKNİKLERİ ARASINDAKİ FARKLAR

Altun, Gülşen

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Julie Mathews-Aydınlı

Temmuz 2010

Bu çalışmada mesleğin ilk yıllarındaki öğretmenlerle deneyimli öğretmenlerin sordukları soru sayısı ve türü, öğrencilerin cevabı için bekledikleri süre ve bu cevaba verdikleri geri dönüt bakımından soru sorma teknikleri arasındaki farklar incelenmiştir. Çalışmayı Bilkent Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Meslek Yüksek Okulu ve Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi Temel İngilizce Bölümü'nden beş mesleğin ilk yıllarındaki ve beş deneyimli İngilizce okutmanının katılımıyla gerçekleştirdim.

Veriyi 20 tane ders gözlemi yoluyla topladım. Sınıfta yenilik etkisini azaltmak için her bir öğretmeni iki kez gözlemladim ve ses kaydı aldım. Ayrıca, her gözlemde, veriyi toplarken ve çözümlerken yapısal olarak odaklanmamı sağlayan bir kontrol listesi doldurdum. Veriyi incelemek için kayıtlardaki soru-cevap bölümlerini deşifre ettim ve önsel kodlama yaptım. Mesleğin ilk yıllarındaki öğretmenlerle deneyimli öğretmenlerin verilerini hem nicel hem de nitel olarak çözümladim.

Sonuçlar, mesleğin ilk yıllarındaki öğretmenler ve deneyimli öğretmenlerin soru sorma tekniklerinin bazı açılardan nicel olarak bazı açılardan da nitel olarak farklılık gösterdiğini ortaya koymuştur. Sonuçlar ayrıca eğitim ve deneyim arasındaki farkı da açığa çıkarmıştır. Her ikisinin de öğretmenlerin soru sorma teknikleri üzerinde etkili oldukları görülmüştür. Bazı soru sorma alışkanlıkları deneyimle geliştirilirken bazılarının da eğitimle kazanıldığı öğrenilmiştir.

Sonuçlar öğretmenlerin ve öğretmenlik eğitimi veren kişilerin dikkatini deneyimin soru sorma teknikleri üzerine etkisine çekebilir. Ayrıca, bu çalışmanın sonuçları, öğretmenlerin soru sorma tekniklerinin öğrencilerin hedef dildeki iletişimleri üzerine etkisi konusunda öğretmenlerin farkındalığını artırabilir. Son olarak, yöneticiler ve öğretmen eğiten kişiler, öğretmenleri dil eğitimi alanındaki son teknik ve yöntemlerden haberdar etmek için hizmet içi eğitim programları düzenleyebilir ve deneyimlerini paylaşımlarını sağlamak için düzenli toplantılar ayarlayabilirler.

Anahtar kelimeler: Soru sorma teknikleri, soru türleri, bekleme süresi, geri dönüt, öğretmenlik deneyimi, mesleğin ilk yıllarındaki öğretmenler, deneyimli öğretmenler.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people helped me to complete this study by sharing with me their time, experience and sympathy. First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to my thesis advisor Asst. Prof. Dr. Julie Mathews-Aydınlı for her invaluable ideas, continuous support and guidance throughout my study. She enlightened me with her knowledge and made this process easier for me with her smile and sincerity. I am also grateful to my instructors Kim Trimble, JoDee Walters and Philip Durrant for their assistance, brilliant ideas and encouragement during the year and the study. I would also like to thank my committee member, Asst. Prof. Dr. Belgin Aydın, for her valuable suggestions.

I am extremely grateful to the participants of this study for letting me in their classrooms. Without them, the study would not exist. I would also like to express my special thanks to Pınar Özpınar who encouraged me to attend this program and who was always ready to help me when I needed. I would also like to thank Münevver Büyükyazı, the director of Foreign Languages Department, and my colleagues at Celal Bayar University for their encouragement and endless support.

I would like to express my love and gratitude to my classmates for their friendship and smile. Especially the dorm girls made this year more enjoyable and unforgettable for me. I am also grateful to my old and dearest friends in Ankara, especially Nilüfer Akın, for their love, encouragement and moral support. Their friendship made it easier for me to complete this process.

Finally, I would like to thank my family for trusting and supporting me. Thank you for your true and unconditional love.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZET	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Background of the Study	2
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Research Question	6
Significance of the Study.....	6
Conclusion	7
CHAPTER II - LITERATURE REVIEW	9
Introduction.....	9
Interaction in Language Classes	9
Dialogue.....	11
Teacher Questions	12
Question Types.....	13

Wait-time.....	23
Feedback.....	25
Teaching Experience	27
Novice and Experienced Teachers	27
The Difference between Novice and Experienced Teachers in terms of Their Questioning Techniques	29
Conclusion	29
CHAPTER III – METHODOLOGY	30
Introduction.....	30
Setting and Participants	30
Instruments	32
Data Collection Procedures	33
Data Analysis.....	34
Conclusion	37
CHAPTER IV - DATA ANALYSIS	38
Introduction.....	38
The Number of Questions Novice and Experienced Teachers Ask	39
The Types of Questions Novice and Experienced Teachers Ask.....	40
Comprehension Check Questions	44
Clarification Request Questions.....	45

Confirmation Check Questions	46
Referential Questions	47
Display questions	49
Expressive Questions	54
Procedural Questions.....	55
Rhetorical Questions	56
Requests	58
Wait-time	59
Question-Repeat/Paraphrase/Give the answer or a clue	61
Question-Answer.....	63
Feedback.....	65
Type of the Feedback	67
Affective Feedback.....	67
Cognitive Feedback	68
The Role of Feedback	70
Evaluative	70
Discoursal	71
Conclusion	72
CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION.....	73
Introduction.....	73

Findings and Discussion	74
Number of Questions	75
Question Types.....	76
Wait-time.....	79
Feedback.....	80
Pedagogical Recommendations	82
Limitations of the Study	84
Suggestions for Further Research.....	86
Conclusion	87
REFERENCES.....	89
APPENDICES	92
APPENDIX A – CONSENT FORM.....	92
APPENDIX B – CHECKLIST	93

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 - Participants	31
Table 2 - Correlation between two coders	35
Table 3 - Number of questions	39
Table 4 - Types of questions.....	42
Table 5 - Display questions	50
Table 6 - Wait-time.....	60
Table 7 - Feedback.....	66

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 - Types of questions	43
Figure 2 - Display questions	50
Figure 3 - Wait-time	61
Figure 4 - Feedback	66

CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

Introduction

A typical school lesson, which lasts about forty-five minutes, aims to provide learners with necessary information related to the particular subject matter. This information transfer process has traditionally gone from the teacher to the students, which means that, most of the time, the teacher talks and students listen. Many classes are therefore dominated by teacher talk. However, during the language teaching process, it is not possible to have successful instruction with this method because language learning requires interaction and communication, especially when it must take place in artificial classroom environments. This necessary interaction is very often initiated by teachers asking questions.

Teacher questions are vital for creating a communicative environment in language classrooms because they necessitate student responses, and thus lead to a dialogue between the teacher and the student. In order to achieve this desired interaction with and among students, each teacher employs different techniques. For example, while some teachers mostly ask display questions to elicit students' knowledge about a topic, others ask referential questions to learn what students think about the topic. The diversity in teachers' questioning behaviors may stem from different factors, one of which may be their level of experience in teaching.

Novice and experienced language teachers may be different from each other in terms of many aspects, such as focusing on function or form of the language, self efficacy, relationship with students, testing, and questioning behaviors. Actually, each teacher develops his/her own technique over time by trial and error. However,

novice and experienced teachers may differ markedly in their questioning habits. They may vary according to the types of questions they ask, the amount of wait time they give to students, and the feedback they provide students after they respond.

This study will explore the differences between novice and experienced university teachers in terms of their questioning techniques. The number and types of questions asked, the amount of wait time given, and feedback provided to students' answers will be examined by observing and comparing ten EFL teachers at two different levels of experience.

Background of the Study

Classroom discourse is the talk between two or more people who are usually a teacher and one or more students (Bolen, 2009). The classroom discourse analysis tradition started with “an attempt to analyze fully the discourse of classroom interaction in structural-functional linguistic terms (rather than inferred social meanings)” (Chaudron, 1988, p. 14). Relating classroom discourse to language learning, Els, Bongaerts, Extra, Os, & Dieten (1984) suggested that language learning in context will provide a deeper understanding of the relationship between meaning and utterances than learning a language in isolated sentences. They indicated that utterances will be preceded and followed by other utterances, and this will result in a dialogic or monologic *text* in most situations. Nystrand, et al. (2003) conducted a research study focusing on the distinctions between dialogic and monologic discourse. They found that classroom discourse ranges from firmly controlled recitation, in which learners display their recall of assigned information, to

open discussion, which promotes an unscripted exchange of student ideas. From this perspective, classroom discourse is monologic when the teacher operates from a previously determined plan; it is dialogic when the students expand or modify others' contributions. Dialogic classroom discourse is more desired in terms of providing a communicative classroom interaction and involving students more in that interaction.

For interaction to take place two or more people are needed, and there has to be an information gap between the interlocutors. In language classes, interaction has to take place in the target language (TL) in order to have students practice. Chaudron (1988) suggests that classroom interaction is significant because learners have the opportunity to use the TL structures they have learned in their own speech, and they have meaningful communication which is initiated, in most cases, by the teacher. Turn-taking, negotiation of meaning, feedback, and questioning and answering, can be given as examples of the interactive features of classroom behaviors.

Questioning is a useful technique that facilitates TL production and urges students to come up with correct and meaningful content-related responses (Chaudron, 1988, p. 126). Many articles have been produced discussing the questions teachers ask and listing question types. Nystrand et al. (2003) investigated authentic questions, uptake, teachers' evaluations of student responses, and the cognitive level of questions. Another study was conducted by Ho (2005) who compared closed (display) and open (referential) questions and proposed another type between them, which consists of general knowledge, vocabulary, and language proficiency questions involving some thoughtful thinking on the part of the students. Similarly, Enokson (2001) proposed the categorizing of convergent and divergent question

types, which are broadly the same as closed and open questions respectively. However, by associating them with two cognitive levels, high and low, she developed four categories: convergent-low, convergent-high, divergent-low and divergent-high, which range from the simplest to the most complex. Likewise, Xiaoyan (2008) mentions display (convergent) and referential (divergent) questions, however, she investigates them from the perspective of relevance theory, which refers to the common cognitive context between teacher and students. Emphasizing the difficulty of determining whether a question is 'good' or not, Myhill (2002) suggests four categories into which, she claims, any question can be classified: factual, speculative, procedural, or process questions. While these studies listed so far focused on the types of teacher questions, in a more recent study, Bolen (2009) dealt with the relationship between teacher training and actual questioning abilities, measuring the effect of professional development sessions for teachers on the types of questions they ask their students. She found that such sessions promoted higher-level teacher questions and learner responses.

The studies mentioned above and many others have discussed the ways of categorizing questions and one study has investigated the influence of training on teachers' questions in language classrooms; however, factors related to teaching experience have been neglected so far. Language teachers' teaching experience may also be influential on the questions they ask. Mackey, Polio, & McDonough (2004) suggest in their research that while less experienced teachers may not be likely to deviate from their planned lessons to employ spontaneous learning activities, more experienced teachers may be more skillful at implementing instructional routines and

may be more willing to deviate from planned activities. Mackey et al. did not however observe the questioning patterns of the teachers. Despite the common belief that the more experienced the teacher is, the more effective his/her questions in the classroom are, to my knowledge, there is no research directly aiming at exploring the relationship between them.

Statement of the Problem

Recently, classroom discourse has been an area of interest in the field of foreign language teaching and a great deal of research has been conducted on classroom interaction (Eniko, 2007; Greene, 2009; Mackey, Polio, & McDonough, 2004; Myles, Hooper, & Mitchell, 1998; Nakamura, 2008; Williamson, 2008). Since teachers play a crucial role in facilitating classroom interaction in language education, various researchers have investigated the types of questions they ask (e.g. Bolen, 2009; Cullen, 2002; Ho, 2005; Nystrand et al., 2003). Teachers' questioning techniques may vary according to their level of experience. Although there are several studies distinguishing between novice and experienced teachers in different aspects such as their self-efficacy (Yılmaz, 2004), their attitudes toward supervision and evaluation (Burke & Kray, 1985), and their use of incidental focus-on-form techniques (Mackey et al., 2004), to my knowledge, no research has been carried out to examine the relationship between teachers' level of experience and their questioning habits. This study will fill in this gap by exploring the differences between novice and experienced teachers in terms of their questioning techniques in L2 classrooms.

In Turkey, many English language instructors, both novice and experienced, working at university preparatory schools, complain about the students' being unresponsive during lessons. Some novice teachers assume that it is because of their not having enough experience to employ strategies for interaction, and that experienced teachers are more skilled in providing an interactive classroom environment. However, this unresponsiveness may result from teachers' not being aware of the types of questions they ask, not knowing how much time to give to the students to think about the answer, and not giving the students appropriate feedback after getting the answer. This situation may cause some problems in a classroom, such as insufficient student practice, teacher frustration, unmotivated students, and a tense classroom environment. Further, if novice and experienced teachers do indeed differ in their questioning habits, the reasons for this difference still remain unclear.

Research Question

In this study, I will seek to answer this question:

What are the differences between novice and experienced teachers' questioning techniques in terms of number and type of questions asked, wait time, and feedback to the students' answers?

Significance of the Study

Maintaining a fluent classroom interaction in language classes is difficult to achieve, but there are many strategies that a language teacher can make use of to

motivate their students to use the target language, and asking questions is one of them. It is the teacher who mostly asks questions in the target language, and his/her efficiency in engaging learners in communication with the help of questions may be related to some teacher-related factors such as the level of experience. However, in the literature, I am not aware of any research related to the effect of teachers' experience on their facilitating classroom interaction via questions. Thus, this study will extend the literature by displaying the possible differences between novice and experienced teachers regarding their classroom questions.

At the local level, the current research study aims to inform Turkish instructors in preparatory schools by helping them become aware of the importance of asking questions in encouraging Turkish EFL students, who are shy and reluctant to speak in the target language, to communicate. The data collected in this study will also serve English teachers as a source with various question-answer episodes from two groups of teachers, novice and experienced, and inform them about different techniques employed by teachers in each group.

Conclusion

This chapter gave brief information about the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the research question, and the significance of this study. In the next chapter, a review of the literature on interaction in language classes, teacher questions, wait-time, feedback, and teaching experience is presented. In addition, teacher questions are discussed with reference to various studies categorizing them. In the third chapter, the methodology of the present study is explained by presenting

the information about participants, instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis. In the fourth chapter, the findings and their analysis are presented. In the last chapter, a discussion of the findings, some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research, and limitations of the study are presented.

CHAPTER II - LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This is an exploratory study which analyses the differences between novice and experienced teachers' questioning behaviors in terms of average number of questions asked, question types, wait time, and feedback. A comparative study was conducted to investigate the impact of teaching experience on teachers' questioning techniques based on classroom observations of ten English instructors during reading comprehension lessons.

In this chapter, the literature on classroom interaction, teacher questions and teaching experience is discussed. The first part includes sections on interaction and dialogic discourse in language classes. In the second part, three factors are listed under teacher questions: question types, wait time, and feedback. In the third part, studies on the differences between novice and experienced teachers are stated. In the last part, the possible differences between novice and experienced teachers in terms of their questioning behaviors are discussed briefly.

Interaction in Language Classes

Interaction is defined as "the activity of talking and doing things with other people" ("Cambridge Learner's Dictionary," 2001). Interactive features in a classroom such as turn-taking, questioning and answering, negotiation of meaning, and feedback have been much more favored in recent years over the traditional instructional approaches and activities which focus on the teacher-centered

instruction. Since these features provide learners with input and opportunities to practice the language, the interaction that occurs in language classrooms is viewed as important and it is encouraged by researchers and teachers (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

As stated by Ellis (1994), the core of the interaction between teacher and students has three steps: initiation, response and follow-up (IRF). In language classrooms, generally, the teacher initiates the discourse by asking a question, gets an answer from the student, hopefully, and reacts upon that response. In some cases, students in L2 classrooms may produce another response as a fourth phase (Ellis, p. 575):

T: *What do you do every morning?* (initiation)

S: *I clean my teeth.* (response-1)

T: *You clean your teeth every morning.* (follow-up)

S: *I clean my teeth every morning.* (response-2)

Recently, a great number of researchers have started to conduct studies on interaction analyses because the influence of interaction in the classroom on students' development has been recognized. This research study, which explores teachers' questions, takes IRF exchanges as a starting point and analyses the interaction initiated by teacher questions, which leads to a dialogic discourse in classroom.

Dialogue

Dialogue is defined as “a mutual exploration, an investigation, an inquiry” (Lipman, 2003 as cited in Bolen, 2009) during which the aim is to gain new meaning through interacting and thinking together (Bolen, 2009). Nystrand et al. (2003) states that classroom discourse starts with controlled practice in which students express their knowledge about a topic and it goes on with open discussion which enables students to exchange their ideas. From this perspective, classroom discourse is monologic when the teacher operates from a previously determined plan; it is dialogic when the students expand or modify the others’ contributions. Dialogic classroom discourse is more desired in terms of providing a communicative classroom environment and involving students in interaction more.

Nystrand et al. (2003) pointed out the importance of questions in dialogic discourse. The authors collected data in hundreds of observations of more than 200 English and social studies classrooms in 25 middle and high schools over two years and analyzed them by means of discourse event history. Each class was visited four times by a trained observer and more than 33,000 questions posed by teachers and students were coded, together with the interactions surrounding them. The findings of the research were used to inform the teachers that the subject matter and the teaching and learning environment in the classroom are affected by the structure, quality, and flow of classroom discourse. The results also indicated that monologic classroom discourse is transformed into dialogic discourse by means of authentic teacher questions, uptake, and student questions, with the last one showing an especially large effect. Detailed analyses of 52 teacher questions in context have

revealed their influence on providing dialogic discourse. However, if students' answers and teachers' feedback were investigated in addition to questions, it might be more helpful to teachers in gaining informed control over their interactions with students and creating a communicative instructional setting. The researchers could do this by examining and discussing these two items while presenting the transcripts and analyzing the data after it. Moreover, teacher characteristics, which are regarded as static variables and which include gender and years of teaching, should be dealt with in detail, outside the tables showing the variables in figures. They might have an impact on dynamic variables, which involve teacher questions, uptake and evaluation.

Teacher Questions

Classroom interaction is generally instigated by the questions asked by either teachers or students. Questions in EFL contexts are especially important because they increase the amount of learner output and this leads to better learning (Chaudron, 1988; Enokson, 1973; Myhill & Dunkin, 2002; Shomoossi, 2004; Xiaoyan, 2008). The main skeleton of a question-answer episode follows a "solicit-response-evaluate" sequence:

Teacher: *What is your name?*

Student: *Rosalie.*

Teacher: *Good.*

(Chaudron, 1988, p. 126)

As Ellis (1994) states, teachers in language classrooms ask a lot of questions, which typically serve as a means of starting a conversation. They also engage learners' attention, promote verbal responses, and facilitate target language production (Chaudron, 1988). However, Chaudron points out the importance of the nature of the questions, which may limit the possibilities for the student to answer at any length, or may have the student leave the question unanswered. Despite the fact that many teachers attribute the cause of students' not giving the desired answer to their lack of knowledge or insufficient L2 proficiency, constructing questions in clearer forms may prevent this problem which may be caused by the nature of the questions. If we look at the questioning issue in its entirety, three factors that play an important role in achieving successful question-answer episodes stand out: types of questions, wait-time, and feedback. These will be discussed in turn.

Question Types

The questions teachers ask in language classes can be classified in many different ways. A great amount of research has been conducted and several question schema have been proposed.

Myhill and Dunkin (2002), attempting to determine what makes a good question, have proposed four categories after observing and video recording 54 lessons of literacy, numeracy and one other subject at West Sussex Schools and Exeter University:

1. Factual questions, which require a pre-determined answer

2. Speculative questions, the answers to which are opinions, hypotheses, imaginings or ideas
3. Procedural questions, those relating to the organization and management of the lesson
4. Process questions, those requiring learners to tell their understanding of their learning processes or explain their thinking

These four question types are well organized to cover almost all of the questions asked by teachers. However, the article does not provide sufficiently detailed information and examples to make a judgment about whether these categories are applicable for language teaching and learning.

“A simplified teacher question classification model” has been presented by Enokson (2001, p. 27), who conducted a field study in questioning with undergraduate elementary education majors at a college. This study is more relevant to L2 classes because it focuses on the importance of facilitating interaction in classrooms, which is essential for language teaching. The model consists of two parameters, each of which contains two categories:

1. *Cognition* is based upon Bloom’s *Taxonomy* (knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation).
 - a. Low can be defined as data recall. It requires only memory and would be the same as “knowledge”, as defined in Bloom’s *Taxonomy*.

- b. High can be defined as data processing. It requires higher order mental operations of comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation in Bloom's *Taxonomy*.
2. *Nature* is based on Guilford's *Model of Intellect* (operations, content, and products).
- a. Convergent questions can be defined as closed questions and they require only a single possible answer.
 - b. Divergent questions can be defined as open questions and they require a number of possible answers.

From this model Enokson (2001) has suggested four question categories based on both the cognitive level and nature of questions. They are listed as follows from simplest to the most complex: convergent-low, convergent-high, divergent-low, and divergent-high. She has proposed that teachers could be made aware of this model in teacher training programs in order to enable them to question their students more effectively. However, these categories seem to be all about the subject matter studied; it should be taken into consideration that teachers do not only ask questions about the lesson, but they also ask some off-topic questions. Thus, this model could be improved by adding some more categories in order to make it cover all of the questions asked by the teachers in the classroom.

Further studies have shown that Enokson's categories, convergent and divergent questions, are actually the most common types used in language classrooms, however, they are not the common names used for those types of

questions. Chaudron (1988) and Ellis (1994) had previously noted two types which are very similar to the convergent and divergent categories proposed by Enokson (2001) under the *nature* parameter, and which are frequently analyzed in studies about questioning:

1. Display questions: The teacher asks for information which s/he already knows. There is only one acceptable answer in mind for these questions. They are likely to be closed (Chaudron, 1988 & Ellis, 1994), or convergent (Enokson, 2001).

T: *What is the capital of Peru?*

S: *Lima*

T: *Good.*

(Ellis, 1994)

2. Referential questions: The teacher asks for information which s/he does not know. There may be a number of different acceptable answers to this kind of questions. They are likely to be open (Chaudron, 1988 & Ellis, 1994) or divergent (Enokson, 2001).

T: *Why didn't you do your homework?* (Ellis, 1994)

There is a great amount of research attempting to categorize the questions teachers ask and pointing out the importance of using appropriate questions in order to facilitate classroom interaction. For example, while Xiao-yan (2008) analyzed teachers' questions in classroom conversations based on basic principles of relevance theory, which suggests that various language forms teachers use to ask questions lead to different answers, Nystrand et al. (2003) focused on the role of the questions in

transforming monologic classroom discourse into dialogic. In addition to their work, Ho (2005) questioned all the assumptions behind the classification of the questions in her observations of six reading lessons of three non-native ESL teachers in Brunei for three weeks. The four assumptions were as follows:

Assumption 1: “There are only two fixed types of questions teachers ask: closed and open type”

Assumption 2: “A single, fixed interpretation is sufficient to describe, analyze and label the type and quality of teacher questions.”

Assumption 3: “The type and intent of a teacher's questions will remain constant and unchanged throughout the question-answer session.”

Assumption 4: “Closed questions do not promote authentic interaction and are therefore pedagogically purposeless.” (p. 300)

For the first assumption, Ho (2005) claims that there are actually three levels of questions. Level 1 and Level 3 consist of questions similar to the closed and open types respectively. Level 2 consists of general knowledge, vocabulary and language proficiency questions, which involve some reflective thinking for students. For the second assumption, Ho (2005) rejects the general belief that the quality of teacher questions is poor simply because teachers ask too many closed questions. He asserts that only looking at the type of questions being asked is not enough to determine their quality so, more importantly, we should look at the intentions behind the questions. Ho (2005) also rejects the third assumption, claiming that classroom contexts are not always fixed so the question type may change during the exchange progresses. For the last assumption, Ho (2005) says that the effectiveness of closed

questions changes according to the purpose of the lesson. If the purpose is to check students' comprehension of the reading passage, closed questions may be used effectively.

Two other researchers, Shomoossi (2004) and Ehara (2008), dealt with the types of questions as well. They both carried out their research in reading classes. Ehara (2008) categorized questions as textually explicit (TE) and inferential (IF) questions and investigated which of these two question types would facilitate text comprehension. He explained TE questions as text-bound questions whose answers can easily be found in the text, and IF questions as knowledge-bound questions whose answers depend on the students' "cognitive resources, such as relevant linguistic knowledge, background knowledge, world knowledge or context" (Ehara, 2008, p. 53). Sixty-nine Japanese EFL learners at three proficiency levels (low, intermediate, and high) taught by the researcher participated in the study, and it was revealed that instruction emphasizing IF questions promoted text comprehension more. The researcher suggests to language teachers that while they are studying a reading passage, using IF questions, in addition to TE questions, might save them from "translation-bound reading instruction" and might encourage learners to derive meanings from the text and to interact with it.

The methodology of Ehara's study is useful for the current study, which also investigates the teachers' questions during reading comprehension lessons. Since most of the questions teachers ask in reading classes are about, or directly from, the reading text, it is important to also note the two categories that Ehara discussed down. It would be helpful also for the teachers and the other researchers if the

researcher, as the instructor of the group he observed, had recorded, transcribed, and analyzed the spontaneous questions he asked about the reading passage, apart from the ones given in the textbook. For example, he could investigate the effect of questions asked in pre-reading session on students' comprehension of the text. The findings would be useful for language teachers in terms of having students understand the text better and encouraging students to participate in reading lessons.

Shomoossi (2004), a researcher from Iran, examined display and referential questions by investigating the effect of question types on classroom interaction. He conducted his study by observing five language teachers and 40 reading comprehension classes in two universities in Tehran for two months. He started with two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There is no difference between the distribution of teachers' use of display and referential questions.

Hypothesis 2: Referential questions create more interaction in the classroom than display questions do.

Shomoossi (2004) tested these assumptions with the help of classroom observations as Ho (2005) questioned four assumptions about question types with the same method one year later than him. The results showed that there were more display questions than referential ones going on in lessons and the amount of interaction caused by referential questions was much more than that caused by display questions. While the first finding contradicted the first hypothesis, the second finding confirmed the second hypothesis.

Shoomossi (2004) asserted that it was inevitable for teachers to ask display questions while working on a reading passage because they need to make sure that all students understood the text and this could only be achieved by comprehension checks –usually display questions, which confirmed Ho’s (2005) opposition to the second and fourth assumptions. At the end of his article, Shomoossi listed some factors leading to less interaction and some other factors encouraging interaction in language classrooms. Teachers’ repeating questions, students’ having low language proficiency, and limiting the class to the textbook are the ones which discourage interaction. However, he suggested that interesting topics, teacher's concern, misunderstanding, information gap and humor could enhance interaction. The question samples the researcher listed under the categories of referential and display questions on pages 99 and 100 are useful for the current study since it is sometimes difficult to categorize a question as display or referential. However, it would have been helpful if he had provided more information about the observed teachers other than telling that they were from 30 to 52 years of age and they had “experience in teaching EFL courses for several years” (p. 98) because these difference between their years of experience may have influenced the interaction between the teacher and students.

Bolen (2009) tested one aspect of these teacher-related factors in her doctoral dissertation. Conducting a quasi-experimental quantitative study, she had eleven language teachers as participants. Eight of them received three 1-hour professional development sessions focusing on effective questioning techniques, and three of them did not do anything other than their normal teaching routine during the study.

In order to investigate the effect of these sessions, she asked participants to audio-record their lessons for nine weeks. She made use of the question types under the *cognition* parameter in Enokson's (2001) study, which contains higher-level and lower-level teacher questions. The data analysis showed that teachers who participated in the professional development sessions started to use more higher-level questions and that this promoted higher-level student responses, which consisted of "clarifying responses, verifying responses, student questions and elaborated responses" (Bolen, p. 48). Over the course of the study it was also observed that the number of words spoken and the overall number of responses given by the students increased in classrooms of teachers that received professional development. The findings imply that teachers should receive training to improve their questioning skills. However, we should be cautious about the results since there may have been other factors involved such as different motivation levels of the participants, topics studied or improvement in students' proficiency levels in nine weeks. A mere 3-hour training session may be insufficient to change teachers' questioning behaviors. It was not clear whether this improvement in their questioning skills would be long-lasting or they would regress to their previous questioning routine after some time.

The last study on categorizing teachers' questions that will be mentioned in this thesis is the one Long and Sato (1983) conducted, which is the first one, as they claim, which focused on teachers' questions in ESL classrooms. The taxonomy according to which they analyzed the questions in their corpus includes seven categories:

1. Echoic
 - a. Comprehension checks (e.g. Alright?; OK?; Does everyone understand “polite”?)
 - b. Clarification requests (e.g. What do you mean?; What?)
 - c. Confirmation checks (e.g. “Carefully”?; Did you say “he”?)
2. Epistemic
 - a. Referential (e.g. Why didn’t you do your homework?)
 - b. Display (e.g. What’s the opposite of “up” in English?)
 - c. Expressive (e.g. It’s interesting the different pronunciations we have now, but isn’t it?)
 - d. Rhetorical: asked for effect only, no answer expected from listeners, answered by speaker (e.g. Why did I do that? Because I ...) (p. 276).

This classification seems to be comprehensive enough to cover all the questions going on in a language classroom, however, as Ho (2005) claims, it is problematic to categorize the questions since classroom interaction is dynamic and it changes according to the varied intention of the teachers and students. A researcher who has started his/her observations in order to examine some particular question types determined according to the objectives of the study may discover some questions that do not fit in any of these categories. Thus, we cannot claim that there is only one way to classify questions. As a result of classroom observations and one-

to-one exchanges with the participants of this study on questioning behaviors, it is realized that, as Long and Sato (1983) proposed, there is a need for some more categorizations other than display and referential. Thus, I have developed taxonomy for my study by taking the one proposed by Long & Sato and adding procedural questions (Myhill and Dunkin, 2002) and requests, which emerged in the course of the data analysis to the list.

Wait-time

The concept of wait time as another aspect of teachers' questions in classroom was first suggested by Mary Budd Rowe (1972). Later on, it was defined as the amount of time the teacher gives students to answer after having asked a question (Lightbown & Spada, 2006) and before asking another student, rephrasing the question, or answering their own question themselves (Thornbury, 1996). Wait time should be spent silently in order to let the student think of a response, but some teachers tend to repeat and paraphrase the question during this time. Several studies have been conducted in order to investigate the ideal amount of wait time (White and Lightbown as cited in Ellis, 1994; Tobin, 1987 as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Rowe, 1972; Rowe, 1996). White and Lightbown (as cited in Ellis) found that the ESL teachers in their study tended to repeat, rephrase, or redirect the question at another student before giving the addressed student enough time to formulate an answer, which resulted in fewer and shorter student responses. Tobin (as cited in Lightbown & Spada) suggested that finding the right balance between pushing students to respond quickly and creating long silences lets students provide fuller

answers, expand their ideas, and process the material to be learned more successfully.

In a paper presented at the National Association for Research in Science Teaching in 1972, Rowe pointed out the importance of three to five seconds wait time. She conducted a five-year study in a quasi-experimental design. At the beginning of the experiment, the analysis of over 300 recordings from science classes showed that the mean wait time was one second. However, after the teachers got training, it was observed in more than 900 tape recordings that the amount of time the teachers paused for the student's answer turned out to be three to five seconds. This increase showed some changes in student and teacher behaviors. The students started to give longer responses and more unsolicited but appropriate answers. Their failures to respond decreased so their confidence increased. The incidence of speculative responses and evidence-inference statements increased. The students started to ask more questions and to compare their knowledge with their peers more. The teachers showed greater response flexibility. The number of questions they asked decreased and variability in questions increased. Lastly, their expectations for performance of students improved.

As Rowe (1996) suggested in her article 24 years after presenting this study, the findings indicate that when wait time is very short, students are inclined to give short answers or to say "I don't know." If teachers prolong their average wait time to five seconds, students have been observed to give longer responses. These findings show how two or three seconds can change the learning behavior of students and lead them to participate in lessons more. Since students' use of the target language

and interaction is particularly crucial for language classrooms, the findings of such a comprehensive study as Rowe's (1972) would be quite beneficial for language teachers if conducted in a foreign language environment with language teachers and students. Moreover, it should be taken into account that different types of questions may require different amounts of wait time. For example, teachers may need to wait longer for the answer to a referential question than that to a display question. The data collected from such an extensive study could be used to investigate this distinction, too.

Feedback

After giving an appropriate amount of wait time and getting the desired answer from students, the teacher should provide them with feedback. Feedback has been a subject of many studies for many years, and its influence on learners' progress in target language development is still being investigated. Chaudron (1988) describes the function of feedback from two perspectives:

From the language teacher's point of view, the provision of feedback ... is a major means by which to inform learners of the accuracy of both their formal target language production and their other classroom behavior and knowledge. From the learners' point of view, the use of feedback in repairing their utterances ... may constitute the most potent source of improvement in both target language development and other subject matter knowledge. (p. 133)

As Chaudron states, feedback is possible regarding not only cognitive information in terms of the fact, location, and the nature of the error, but affective

evaluation of the students' response with motivational and reinforcement functions. Furthermore, both cognitive and affective feedback can occur together as seen in the example below:

T: *Where was the picture taken?*

S: *In the aeroplane.*

T: *In the aeroplane. Good, yes. In the aeroplane.*

(Cullen, 2002, p. 120)

Cullen (2002) proposed two roles of feedback after analyzing lesson transcripts from video recordings of secondary school English classes in Tanzania: an evaluative and a discorsal role. The function of the evaluative role is "to allow learners to confirm, disconfirm, and modify their interlanguage rules" (Chaudron, 1988 as cited in Cullen, p. 119) and the focus is on the form of the response.

T: *What's the boy doing?*

S: *He's climbing a tree.*

T: *That's right. He's climbing a tree. (Evaluative)*

(Cullen, 2002, p. 117)

In the discorsal role Cullen claims that there is no explicit correction of the form of the student's response; the emphasis is on content. This role typically co-occurs with referential questions, which requires any right or wrong answer as determined previously by the teacher.

T: *Now suppose you were inside the plane and this was happening. What would you do? You have to imagine yourself now, you are in the plane. ... Yes, please?*

S: *I will be very frightened and collapse...*

T: *You'll collapse? So you will die before the plane crashes.* (Laughter)

(Evaluative)

(Cullen, 2002, p. 121)

Since the researcher has not mentioned the effectiveness of these roles to encourage students to be involved in the lesson, his paper may not be beneficial for teachers in terms of giving suggestions for their own lessons. Cullen (2002) could discuss the results in a separate part in order to point out the influence of these roles on teacher-student interaction. Holley and King (1971) did this very well exploring the degree to which feedback may improve poor students' performance and suggesting changes for current practices. They claim that language proficiency may be actively discouraged by the teacher who always corrects students' grammar mistakes, that is, who always overuses evaluative feedback. They suggest that rather than correcting individual students overtly, the teacher should let the class to discover what the correct answer should be. No matter whether they are expressed grammatically or not, successful exchange of ideas should be valued because Holley and King have observed that these techniques facilitate participation and interaction in the classroom.

Teaching Experience

Novice and Experienced Teachers

Novice teachers have been defined as the ones who have been working for less than three years; experienced teachers have been defined as those working for

five or more years (Freeman, 2001). There have been several studies comparing novice and experienced teachers in different aspects. Burke and Kray (1985) studied differential attitudes of experienced and novice teachers toward supervision and evaluation with 100 participants, 50 in each group. Both groups were found to identify supervision as more acceptable than evaluation.

Yılmaz (2004) compared the novice and experienced teachers in terms of their self efficacy for classroom management and found that novice ones had lower efficacy for classroom management. In another study, Madsen and Cassidy (2005) examined preservice and experienced teachers' evaluations and thoughts about teacher effectiveness and students' learning. After observing videotaped music classes, the 52 participants were asked to rate the effectiveness of teaching and student learning in those recordings. Results showed that experienced teachers rated teachers and students lower than novice participants. Qualitative analysis revealed that both groups made comments about the teacher, and experienced teachers were more critical.

The other study, conducted by Mackey, Polio, and McDonough (2004) explored the influence of ESL teachers' level of experience on their use of incidental focus-on-form techniques, by which students' attention is drawn to a wide range of forms implicitly or explicitly. They found that experienced teachers used more of these techniques than novice ones, and training raised novice teachers' use of such techniques.

As seen, all of these studies have found differences between novice and experienced teachers in various aspects.

*The Difference between Novice and Experienced Teachers in terms of Their
Questioning Techniques*

As the studies mentioned above have shown that novice and experienced teachers differ in many aspects, one can also expect them to have different questioning behaviors. They may show differences in terms of question types they ask, the amount of time they pause after asking a question, and the feedback they provide students after getting the answer. However, we cannot be sure about this difference before conducting research on it.

Conclusion

As seen in the studies discussed above, both teacher questions and teachers' level of experience have an impact on language teaching and learning. However, the influence of teaching experience on teacher questions remains unknown.

In this chapter, research concerning classroom interaction, teachers' questioning techniques and teaching experience has been presented. The next chapter will give information about the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER III – METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The aim of the present study is to explore the effects of teachers' experience on their questioning techniques. The study was conducted in order to attempt to answer the following research question:

What are the differences between novice and experienced teachers' questioning techniques in terms of number of questions, question types, wait time, and feedback to the students' answers?

In order to find out the differences between novice and experienced teachers' questioning habits in language classes, I conducted this study at the Preparatory Schools of Bilkent University and Middle East Technical University (METU). I observed ten teachers, each twice, during their reading lessons and I analyzed the data according to the four features listed in the research question.

This chapter is divided into four main subsections that deal with the following topics: (1) setting and the participants of the study, (2) the instruments used in data collection, (3) data collection procedures, and (4) data analysis.

Setting and Participants

Two universities in Ankara, Bilkent University, which is a private university and Middle East Technical University (METU), a state university, were the institutions in which this study took place. Since the medium of instruction in both universities is English, all departments require one-year English preparatory

education for students, which is provided by the School of English Language at Bilkent University and the Department of Basic English at METU. The instructors at both universities go through in-service education before they start teaching or while they teach.

The participants of this study were 10 English teachers, five from Bilkent University and five from METU. Five of these teachers had 1-3 years of teaching experience and the other five had between 12-22 years of experience. It was good to have such a big difference between the groups' years of experience for a comparative study like this because I could reveal the differences, if any, more clearly.

Table 1 shows the number of teachers from both universities and the years of experience each has.

Table 1 - Participants

Universities	Novice	Years of experience	Experienced	Years of experience
<i>Bilkent University</i> <i>(BUSEL)</i>	Nilay	2	Esra	22
	Nejla	3		
	Nevin	3		
	Nuray	3		
<i>METU</i>	Nazan	3	Elçin	12
			Ece	13
			Ezgi	13
			Eda	21

The participants were all volunteers, and they signed a consent form (see Appendix A). They were ensured that their personal information, including their names, would be kept confidential. For this reason, each novice teacher was given a

pseudonym beginning with N, and each experienced teacher was given a pseudonym beginning with E. This would also make it easier for the reader to distinguish between the two groups while reading through the data analysis.

Also the students in the observed classes had different proficiency levels ranging from pre-intermediate to pre-faculty. Although they were not the direct participants of the present study, their level may have had an influence on their teachers' teaching practices.

Instruments

I collected data for this study through classroom observations. I audio-recorded the lessons and transcribed the question-answer episodes. I analyzed the data mainly with the help of these transcriptions. I had 267 pages of hand-written transcriptions, on which I did coding with color pens.

I, as an observer in each lesson, also filled in a checklist (see Appendix B) during the observations. It was designed to help me to take notes on the questioning behaviors of the teachers. It allowed me to note down extra information about the type of questions the teacher asked, the time s/he waited for the student's response and the type of feedback s/he gave after getting the answer. Each of these three titles had sub-titles which I organized on the basis of my literature review about the topic.

Data Collection Procedures

After I formed my research question, I determined the institutions where I would collect the data. Since the research drew on 20 classroom observations of 10 teachers and I should be present during the observations, I decided that BUSEL was the best institution to carry out the study because of its convenience in terms of its proximity to my dormitory. I requested written permission for conducting the study from the head of BUSEL and an announcement of the study appeared on BUSEL's website, requesting instructors who would like to volunteer to take part in the study. Five instructors, four novice and one experienced, volunteered to be observed and recorded. After waiting some more time for teachers from BUSEL to come forward and not getting any more responses, I decided to find five more teachers from METU, which is again practical for me to reach and whose medium of instruction is also English. I applied for the necessary official permission to both the head of METU's Department of Basic English and METU's Ethical Committee in order to find five more teachers to observe and record. After getting permission from both of these authorities, I was able to find five participants who volunteered to be observed and recorded. I observed each teacher twice in order to reduce the novelty effect. It took two months to complete all of the 20 classroom observations, starting from the third week of February and lasting until the third week of April. I transcribed the recordings using Windows Media Player, which enabled me to count the seconds for calculating the wait-time. The checklists which I used in order to take notes about the flow of the lesson helped me to have a structured focus while collecting and analyzing the data, and they were the potential sources of confirmation of findings.

Data Analysis

I started analyzing the data I obtained from classroom observations by carrying out priori coding of transcriptions which required that I mark each item in the checklist with colorful pens. However, the transcriptions showed me that it was impossible to categorize question types into only display and referential, as written in the checklist. There occurred many questions that I could not identify as either display or referential, so I reviewed the literature again and came up with more question types suggested by Long & Sato (1983) and Myhill & Dunkin (2002). I was then able to classify all of the questions in my corpus according to this new classification system, and by adding one more category, request, for those questions when the teachers asked the students to do something—something which did not fit any of the other eight categories. Below are the question types that emerged as the study progressed:

1. Echoic
 - a. Comprehension checks
 - b. Clarification requests
 - c. Confirmation checks
2. Epistemic
 - a. Referential
 - b. Display
 - c. Expressive
3. Questions that do not require any answer
 - a. Rhetorical

b. Request

4. Procedural

In order to confirm my coding of these question types, I asked a colleague of mine, Nilüfer Akın from Çankaya University, to code them as well. I picked out 100 questions randomly and taught her the types above. I asked her to code those 100 questions according to these question types. Then I checked the correlation between my coding and her coding using SPSS, the results of which are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2 - Correlation between two coders

		Coding by Nilüfer	Coding by Gülşen
Coding by Nilüfer	Pearson Correlation	1	.906(**)
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.000
	N	100	100
Coding by Gülşen	Pearson Correlation	.906(**)	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.
	N	100	100

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

The output shows that there is a significant correlation between me and my colleague in terms of coding the questions according to the nine types, $r = .90$, p (one-tailed) $< .001$. This result was, therefore, validation of my coding of the question types for the remaining transcripts.

I carried out both qualitative and quantitative analysis while working on the data, to reveal any possible differences between novice and experienced teachers in terms of the four variables expressed in my research question. In order to find out how many questions the teachers in each category asked and to compare them, I

made use of quantitative analysis by adding the number of questions asked by novice and experienced teachers separately and comparing the results. While comparing the question types, I counted the questions in each category asked by the teachers in both groups and compared novice and experienced teachers according to the number of questions they asked in each of the nine categories. However, I examined the types of questions mostly qualitatively. I read through my data several times and identified the distinctive uses of the questions. Also, I compared their use of different kinds of questions in the same category.

As for wait-time, with the help of Windows Media Player I counted the time each teacher waited after asking a question and noted down the seconds while transcribing the questions. I handled wait-time in two aspects. The first one was the time a teacher waited after s/he asked the question and before s/he repeated it, paraphrased it, or asked another question (Thornbury, 1996). The other aspect of wait-time was the time between the teacher's question and the student's answer (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). I divided wait time into three according to the seconds: between 1-3 seconds, 4 or 5 seconds, and more than 5 seconds. I counted all the categories in the two aspects separately and compared the findings of novice and experienced teachers. I eliminated wait-time for rhetorical questions and requests since teachers do not expect any answer to these kinds of questions.

Lastly, I examined the feedback the teachers provided after the students' answer according to its type and role: Feedback may be affective or cognitive (Chaudron, 1988) with an evaluative or discursal role (Cullen, 2002). As with the analysis of question types, I coded each type and role of feedback with color pens in

order to make it easier to count all instances of feedback for each category, and added them so that I had a total number for novice and experienced teachers separately. Then I compared the numbers. In terms of the qualitative analysis, I explored the similarities and differences between novice and experienced teachers' feedback preferences by examining the lines in the transcriptions and seeking patterns and anomalies.

Conclusion

In this chapter I described the setting and the participants of the study, the instruments used for the study, the data collection procedures and the data analysis procedures. In the next chapter, I will present the results of the data analysis in detail.

CHAPTER IV - DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

In this study I explore the differences between novice and experienced teachers in terms of their questioning behaviors. Four specific aspects of questioning are considered: quantity of questions, question types, wait time and feedback. This chapter presents the qualitative and quantitative analysis I have carried out in order to answer the following research question:

What are the differences between novice and experienced teachers' questioning techniques in terms of the number and types of questions asked, wait time, and feedback given to the students' answers?

I conducted this study with 10 EFL teachers, five of which are novice and five of which are experienced. I observed each of them twice during their reading lessons and audio recorded these lessons. Also, I filled in a checklist which enabled me to note down the questioning behaviors of the teachers and which served as a potential source of confirmation of the findings. Then, I transcribed the question-answer episodes in these recordings. In this way, I obtained the data which will be analyzed in this chapter.

This chapter includes four sections. In the first section, I will present the outcomes of the quantitative data analysis in terms of the number of the questions that the teachers in both groups asked. In the second section, I will analyze and compare the types of these teachers' questions by providing both numerical findings and written samples from the transcriptions. In the third section, I will present the results of quantitative data analysis of the time the teachers in each group waited

after they asked a question and compare the novice and experienced groups. In the last section, which includes both qualitative and quantitative analysis, I will examine and compare the type and role of the feedback the teachers in each group gave to the answers from the students.

The Number of Questions Novice and Experienced Teachers Ask

After transcribing all the question-answer episodes in the recordings, I underlined all the questions each teacher asked and counted them. I came up with 2,010 questions in total out of 20 observations. Of these questions, 49.5 % were asked by novice teachers, and 50.49 % belongs to the experienced teachers. Table 3 presents the exact number of questions asked by each teacher and in total.

Table 3 - Number of questions

Teachers	Number of Questions
	Novice Teachers
Nilay	218
Nejla	146
Nevin	193
Nuray	177
Nazan	261
Total	995
	Experienced Teachers
Ezgi	176
Ece	350
Elçin	144
Eda	123
Esra	222
Total	1015
TOTAL	2010

As can be seen from the table, there is almost no difference between novice and experienced participants in terms of the quantity of questions they ask. However, what is outstanding in the table is that Ece asked many more questions than the others in the experienced group, which affects the total number. The number of questions she asked constitutes 34.4 % of the total number in the experienced group. Because of this, I calculated for a second time the total number of questions experienced teachers asked, this time eliminating her from the list. This resulted in a mean score of 166.2 questions asked, as opposed to 203 with her. The novice teachers' mean number of questions asked is 199. With all the teachers included, the average number of questions asked are virtually the same between novice and experienced teachers. By removing Ece, who is perhaps an unusual example, the results suggest that novice teachers ask more questions than do experienced teachers.

The Types of Questions Novice and Experienced Teachers Ask

I analyzed the types of questions asked under four categories, which emerged as the study progressed. These categories are echoic questions including comprehension check, clarification request and confirmation check; epistemic questions consisting of referential, display and expressive questions; rhetorical and request questions that do not require an answer; and lastly, procedural questions (Long & Sato, 1983; Myhill & Dunkin, 2002).

In order to discern these nine types of questions, I coded them on the transcripts with color pens assigning one color for each type. In terms of the quantitative analysis, I first added the number of questions in each type asked by the

teachers in each category and came up with the total sum for each group and each question type, which is presented in Table 4.

Table 4 - Types of questions

Teachers	Comprehension Check	Clarification Request	Confirmation Check	Referential	Display	Expressive	Procedural	Rhetorical	Request
Novice									
Nilay	6	6	8	29	128	11	7	2	21
Nejla	3	14	1	32	66	7	15	4	4
Nevin	9	7	1	29	108	9	16	0	14
Nuray	8	3	1	48	84	7	8	5	13
Nazan	2	14	3	32	191	7	2	8	2
Total	28	44	14	170	577	41	48	19	54
Experienced									
Ezgi	1	0	1	66	80	13	2	9	4
Ece	14	1	0	47	224	13	14	27	10
Elçin	0	1	0	36	86	3	2	13	3
Eda	0	1	0	50	47	3	12	3	7
Esra	9	1	2	59	92	10	18	14	17
Total	24	4	3	258	529	42	48	66	41
Total	52	48	17	428	1106	83	96	85	95

As is clearly presented in Table 4 above and Figure 1 below, the number of questions asked in four of the question types, clarification request, confirmation check, referential, and rhetorical questions, differs between novice and experienced teachers. The others, comprehension check, display, expressive, procedural questions, and requests, were asked in similar numbers by novice and experienced teachers.

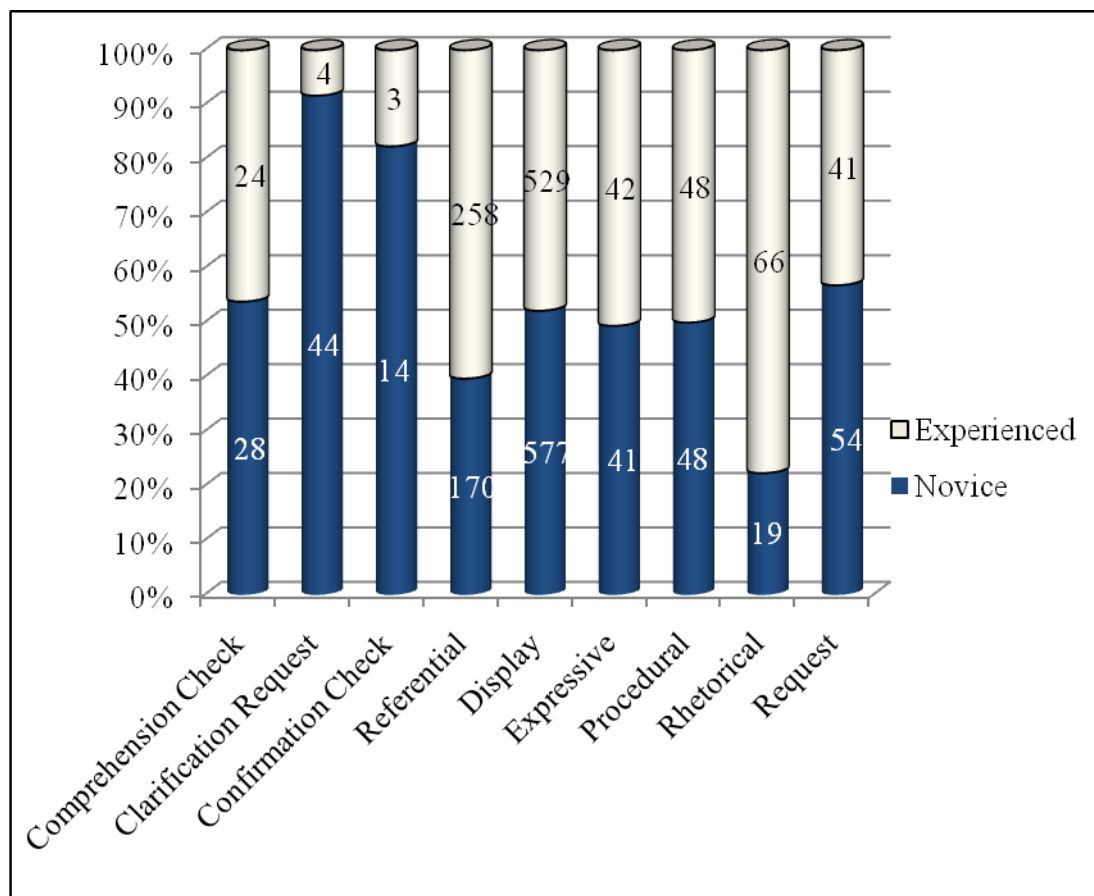


Figure 1 - Types of questions

I am going to explain the analysis of each type of question asked, by presenting both quantitative and qualitative results.

Comprehension Check Questions

This type of question refers to those asked to check whether students understand what was said or not. As seen in Table 4 presents, 52 questions out of 2,010 in total (2.5%) are asked by all of the observed teachers in order to check students' comprehension. It can be also seen in Table 4 and Figure 1 that novice and experienced teachers ask a very similar number of comprehension check questions; 53.8 % by novice and 46.1 % by experienced teachers.

Qualitative analysis of the comprehension check questions shows that teachers in both groups ask similar formulaic questions:

Do / Did you understand?

Do you have any questions / problems?

Is it / that clear (for everybody)?

However, novice teachers were found to ask a somewhat wider variety of comprehension check questions focusing on the specific instances during the lesson than did experienced ones:

Did you get the point? (Nevin)

Can you see the change in this critic's opinion? (Nilay)

Do you want me to repeat my question? (Nuray)

Do you see the relation now? (Nuray)

What might be suggested from the quotes is that novice teachers seem to want to really be sure that their students have understood the subject matter before moving on. Questions like the one above by Nilay, which experienced teachers never

employed, exemplify how novice teachers apparently deal more with students' comprehension of details of the topic.

Clarification Request Questions

The purpose of this kind of question is to ask for clarification when the students' response is not clear enough to be understood. As presented in Table 4, out of 48 clarification requests, novice teachers vastly outnumbered experienced teachers with 44 questions, 91.6 %. Only four such questions (8.3 %) were asked by experienced teachers.

Despite this quantitative difference, almost no difference between the groups was observed when the transcriptions were analyzed in detail. Among the four questions asked by experienced teachers, two were the same: *What do you mean?* This was commonly asked by novice teachers as well in order to get an explanation for students' answers or statements. The other common question was *What?*, which was asked when the teachers did not understand at all what the student said. Like comprehension check questions however, somewhat more diverse clarification requests were employed by novice teachers. Below are some of the clarification requests by three novice teachers:

How do you understand? (Nejla and Nazan)

Can you explain them? (Nazan)

What kind of problems do you mean? (Nejla)

How do you know? (Nilay)

How is your answer different from Ayşe's answer? (Nilay)

Confirmation Check Questions

This type of question, which is the last type under the echoic questions category, is asked by the teacher in order to check whether s/he understood correctly what the student said. As is clear again in Table 4, novice teachers asked almost five fold more of these questions than experienced teachers. Out of 17 confirmation checks, the novice group had 14 and the experienced group had only three.

In terms of qualitative analysis, the transcriptions showed that confirmation checks asked by experienced teachers are restricted solely to the structure “*Do you mean...*”, as elicited in the questions below:

Do you mean that less people read books today? (Esra)

Do you mean people prefer to read books from this machine, electronic machine but not from paper-form books, not from these books? (Esra)

Do you mean that rock music helps you concentrate? (Ezgi)

However, the novice teachers’ data showed that they employed a greater variety of forms while asking for confirmation:

Do you say that destroying trees are better than ... ? (Nuray)

Can we say that teachers provide you with a lot of opportunities? (Nejla)

OK, yeah, like this one, isn't it? (Nilay)

You do not focus on the whole meaning. Am I right? (2) But our aim is not that. (Nilay)

This difference is most probably because of the difference in overall quantity of such questions asked. Since experienced teachers used only a few confirmation checks, we may not expect variety in questions forms from such limited data.

Referential Questions

This type of question, which constitutes 21.2 % of all the questions in my data, refers to the ones whose answer is not known by the teacher. It includes questions about such things as the students' own experiences and/or choices, background knowledge about which the teacher is not informed, or personal understandings of the text studied. The quantitative data, which are presented in Table 4 and Figure 1, show that experienced teachers asked considerably more referential questions than did novice teachers, a total of 60.2 % of all referential questions.

One of the results that a detailed qualitative analysis of the transcriptions showed was that there were some similar questions that both novice and experienced teachers asked about the text they were studying. Below are some of these questions about the text by both novice and experienced teachers:

When you read this title, do many questions come to your mind? (Nuray)

Which words you don't know? (Nejla)

What kind of information do you expect to learn in the text? (Nevin)

Do you know the difference between a fact and an opinion? (Nazan)

What is your answer? (Ezgi)

More freedom, is that good for work? (Elçin)

Do you know what these words mean? (Esra)

Which words do you expect to get? (Ece)

These text-related referential questions show that the teachers in both groups try to have students explore the form or content of the text so that students can understand the text better.

The other result is that experienced teachers were seen to ask a wider variety of referential questions connected to the students' lives than did novice teachers, whose referential questions were still mostly related to the text. Below are some examples from the experienced teachers' data:

Do you like Metallica? (Ezgi)

What does music do to you? (Ezgi)

What about you? Do you watch the advertisements? (Eda)

Are you happy with this situation? (Eda)

In Turkey, now you have money. You are going to invest it, right. Where would you invest? Where would you start your business? (Ece)

What kind of books do you read? (Esra)

How much time do you spend on your vocab journals? (Esra)

However, reading the transcription lines of novice teachers in detail showed that the referential questions they asked about the students were limited to their *likes* and preferences:

Why do you like online books? (Nuray)

Would you like to try it? (Nazan)

What would you like to gain when you finish university? (Nejla)

This practice by the novice teachers may be because they are less willing to deviate from the topic and possibly then lose the management of the classroom by

asking personal questions. Experienced teachers seem to be more confident on this issue.

Display questions

This type of question, which constitutes more than half of the questions asked by all of the observed teachers (55 %) involves factual questions asked in order to check students' knowledge about the topic. A key feature is that the answers of these questions are already known by the teacher. As presented in Table 4, there is almost no quantitative difference between novice and experienced teachers in terms of display questions. The results showed that 52.16 % of all display questions were asked by novice teachers and 47.8 % by experienced teachers.

In order to carry out a more detailed analysis of display questions, I divided them into three categories: questions related to the meaning of a word; those related to the form of a word or sentence; and factual questions about the content of the reading passage. Table 5 and Figure 2 present quantitative information about these three categories.

Table 5 - Display questions

Teachers	Meaning	Form	Content
Novice Teachers			
Nilay	9	3	116
Nejla	11	9	46
Nevin	9	4	95
Nuray	3	1	80
Nazan	15	4	172
Total	47	21	509
Experienced Teachers			
Ezgi	18	0	62
Ece	17	7	200
Elçin	20	0	66
Eda	4	9	34
Esra	20	4	68
Total	79	20	430
Total	126	41	939

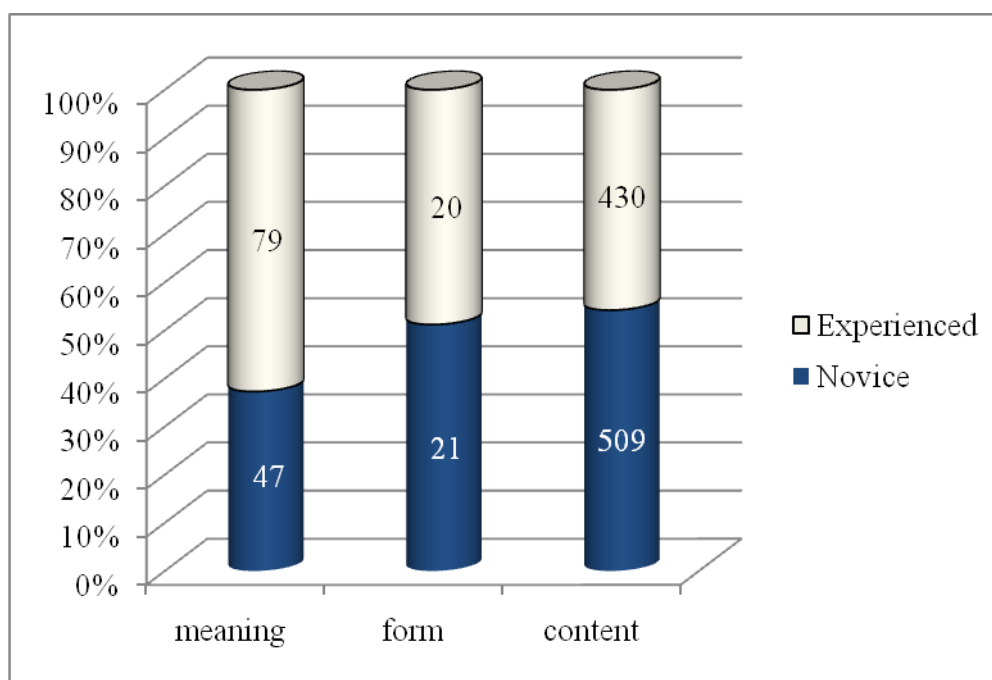


Figure 2 - Display questions

As can be seen in Table 5 and Figure 2, experienced teachers seem to focus on the meaning of a word from the text more than novice teachers do. While experienced teachers asked 62.6% of the meaning-related questions, novice teachers asked 37.3% of them.

Qualitative analysis of transcriptions showed that most of the questions used to directly ask the meaning of a word had a similar structure:

Consensus opinion in Japan, as we said. So what does it mean? (Nevin)

What does 'socialization' mean? Why do we use that concept? (Nilay)

... There is a nuclear research and I turn my back. What does it mean?

(Nejla)

What does 'store' mean here? (Esra)

What does 'corrupt' mean? (Ece)

'universally praised' What does that mean? (Elçin)

What does 'slave' mean? (Ezgi)

Reference questions can be also regarded as meaning-related questions. Some novice and experienced teachers were observed to employ these questions:

What does 'he' refer to? (Nevin)

What does 'the unknown' refer to? (Nilay)

This type of jazz.' Which type of jazz? What does 'this' refer to? (Ezgi)

As the examples above show, novice and experienced teachers ask similar meaning-related questions, asking either the meaning of a word or the reference of a particular pronoun.

As for the questions related to the form of a word or a sentence, novice teachers asked 51.2% of them, and experienced teachers asked 48.7%, nearly at the same level. As shown in Table 5 and Figure 2, although two of the experienced teachers did not employ this kind of questions at all, the experienced group nevertheless matched the novice group in terms of the overall quantity.

Analysis of the transcriptions showed that all of the teachers who used this kind of questions in order to check their students' knowledge about the form of certain words asked about the part of speech the words belong to. Below are some examples of these questions by novice and experienced participants:

What part of speech is 'fool' here? (Nevin)

Is it a noun? (Nilay, Ece, Esra)

What is the part of speech? (Nejla)

What is the adverb / adjective / noun form? (Nazan, Ece)

What part of speech is 'poverty'? (Esra)

A further observation from the qualitative analysis of the form-related questions is that only three of the teachers, two novice and one experienced, asked the usage of the word in a sentence according to its form:

What is the verb of 'social interaction'? 'to develop social interaction', is this what the text says? (Nilay)

How do we use 'ensure' in a sentence? (Nejla)

It's an adverb. How is it used? (Eda)

These quotes show that novice and experienced teachers equally focused on the part of speech a word belongs to. However, not many of the teachers in either

group asked students to use the word in a sentence – a practice which arguably leads to more permanent learning.

The last category of display questions is content-related questions, which are factual questions about the reading passage. This category is the most frequently employed since the focus of the reading lessons is to have students comprehend the text. All of the teachers achieved this by constantly asking questions about the text and guiding students while they read with the help of these questions. These questions were mostly employed at the end of the parts of the passages, which had been divided by the teacher rather than having the student read them all at once. As is presented in Table 5, novice teachers asked more content-related questions than did experienced teachers, although the difference is not large (54.2% and 45.7% respectively).

Detailed qualitative analysis of the data suggested that there was no difference in terms of the content-related questions between the two groups of participants. All were comprehension questions either already written in the textbook or asked by the teacher spontaneously. Below are some examples from both novice and experienced teachers:

Did the doctor introduce himself to the writer? (Nevin)

OK. Interactionists, so what do they claim? (Nilay)

Is it before the jump or after the jump? (Nazan)

What is the aim of this reading text? (Nuray)

In which paragraph did you find information about how literature changed Keller's life? (Esra)

... *What happens to the poor countries? Can they pay this money?* (Ece)

... *How many people in Britain work from home?* (Elçin)

... *Which paragraph talks about the advertising executives?* (Eda)

... *What is the name of the new jazz style?* (Ezgi)

The quantity and quality of this kind of question each teacher asked changed according to the length and theme of the reading passage being covered in each lesson. As the example questions above show, they were sometimes about the text as a whole, the paragraphs individually, or the details of the text.

Expressive Questions

Expressive questions are those asked in order to elicit students' feelings, thoughts and opinions on a topic. As is shown in Table 4, the quantity of such questions asked is almost the same for the two groups; among 83 expressive questions 42 (50.6%) were asked by experienced and 41 (49.3%) were asked by novice teachers.

Qualitative analysis of the transcriptions showed that novice teachers tended to use more structured questions while asking their students' feelings and opinions on a topic. In other words, they almost exclusively started their questions with *do you think/agree*, whereas experienced teachers showed somewhat greater variation in the question words and sentence structures they used. The following examples show this difference more clearly:

... *do you think the number of people who will have surgery will increase?*

(Nilay)

OK, do you think there should be a difference between the way we treat doctors or the way we treat nurses? (Nevin)

Do you think that your book is good for education? (Nuray)

Do you think it (surfing) is easy? (Nazan)

Do you agree with this quotation? (Nejla)

... so what do you think of this example? Is this true? (Eda)

How did you feel in the second one? (after listening to several songs) (Ezgi)

Do you think there is any difference between working from home versus home-based business? (Elçin)

What kind of psychology do you think they have? (Ece)

The second question is very difficult, isn't it? (Ece)

Do you agree? (Esra)

Procedural Questions

This type of question is the last type of questions that require an answer. Procedural questions are related to the management and organization of the lesson rather than the topic studied. As presented in Table 4 and Figure 1, the quantity of procedural questions asked by both groups was exactly the same; 48 by novice and 48 by experienced teachers.

Detailed qualitative analysis of the transcriptions shows that there was actually a difference between the procedural questions novice teachers asked and the ones experienced teachers asked. The former were found to be more concerned with classroom management than the latter. Novice teachers asked procedural questions

generally to control the classroom, while experienced teachers asked them as a way of organizing the classroom practices. The following examples make this difference clearer:

Are you having the discussion in English? (Nilay)

Ahmet, why are you reading newspaper in the class? (Nuray)

Mehmet, would you like to come here? Puts a chair in front of the classroom
(Nazan)

Why are you laughing? While a student was talking (Nejla)

Everybody, can/may I have your attention please? (Nejla, Nevin)

Have you finished? (Nejla, Nevin, Esra, Ece)

Who would like to answer the third question? (Esra)

Are you ready? (Esra, Ezgi, Eda)

Shall we check? (Ece, Eda)

How many of you guys have finished? (Elçin)

It can be implied from these quotes that novice teachers tend to seek more control over their classrooms than the experienced ones. They appear to be more concerned about having authority over their students, perhaps because of their own relatively young age, and seem to show this via the discourse they use in the classroom.

Rhetorical Questions

These questions are asked for effect only; students are not expected to answer. Sometimes the teacher himself/herself answers. Since they do not require an answer

from the students, they were not considered in the analysis of wait time, which is discussed in the next section.

As Table 4 shows, the majority of this type of question (77.6%) was asked by experienced teachers. Since one novice teacher did not employ any rhetorical questions at all and two of the novice teachers asked them only in the second observations, they, as a group, were naturally found to ask fewer rhetorical questions, 22.3%, than experienced teachers.

As a result of the qualitative analysis of the rhetorical questions, it was observed that teachers from both groups asked similar rhetorical questions, all about the subject matter being studied, and they all generally answered their own questions. The examples below reflect this similarity:

We are going to discuss our opinions about education. How do we do that? On page 291, under getting ready part, OK, there are three questions. With your partner, have a look at the questions and... (Nejla)

It's F because in F, what does it say? 'Running off a cliff, holding on to a pair of wings.' This is, what? Hang gliding. (Nazan)

What will happen to libraries? If everyone has Amazon Kindle, there will be no libraries. (Nuray)

Why did they start singing? Because they weren't allowed to speak. They couldn't speak to each other. And how did they communicate? Through singing. (Ezgi)

... but could it rescue those economies? No. (Ece)

... *OK, so, she changed. What did she change? Our perspective. Our perspective about what? perspective about disabled people.* (Esra)

Requests

Like rhetorical questions, requests are asked without expecting any answer, because the purpose is to ask the students to do something in return. As presented in Table 4, out of 95 requests, novice teachers employed 54 (56.8%) and experienced teachers used 41 (43.1%). These questions were also not added to the analysis of wait-time, since they do not require an answer.

All of the request questions asked by both novice and experienced teachers seemed to be similar in form. They all started with *Can/Could you (please)* and continued with the teachers' actual requests from the student(s). The sentences below exemplify some requests employed by the participants:

Can you read the first two paragraphs only and answer question 1 only?

(Nevin)

... *I think you remember this text. Can you please take out this? Take out this.*

It was your homework... (Nuray)

Can anyone check it please? A word (Nilay)

Could you please look at the board? (Esra)

Could you please read the second paragraph's first sentence? (Ece)

Can you open the windows a little bit more? (Ezgi)

... *Can you show us the section in the text Özge?* (Eda)

So far I have presented the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the nine question types and explored the differences between novice and experienced teachers in terms of employing these questions in their lessons. In the following section, I will present the analysis of wait-time.

Wait-time

After a teacher asks a question, s/he waits for some time for the student's response. If the teacher does not get the answer from the student(s) within an amount of time s/he personally deems reasonable, s/he may repeat or paraphrase the question, perhaps provide the answer him/herself or give a clue to help the student(s) along, or address the question to another student in the case of individually directed questions.

In order to do a detailed analysis, I divided wait-time instances into two: the time elapsed between the teacher's question and his/her repetition, paraphrase or saying something else, and the time between the teacher's question and a student's answer. I counted these two instances separately according to three time spans in order to make it easier to analyze and compare the data: 1-3 seconds, 4-5 seconds and 6+ seconds.

The quantitative data on wait-time are presented in Table 6 and Figure 3.

Table 6 - Wait-time

Teachers	Question-Repeat/Paraphrase/Provide the answer or a clue			Question-Answer		
	1-3 sec.	4-5 sec.	6+ sec.	1-3 sec.	4-5 sec.	6+ sec.
Novice						
Nilay	53	3	1	134	2	0
Nejla	51	0	0	84	2	1
Nevin	41	4	3	125	5	2
Nuray	59	5	4	86	2	3
Nazan	70	5	3	172	2	0
Total	274	17	11	601	13	6
Experienced						
Ezgi	93	0	0	69	1	0
Ece	123	3	0	185	2	0
Elçin	30	0	0	96	0	2
Eda	41	2	0	69	0	1
Esra	87	2	0	98	3	1
Total	374	7	0	517	6	4
Total	648	24	11	1118	19	10

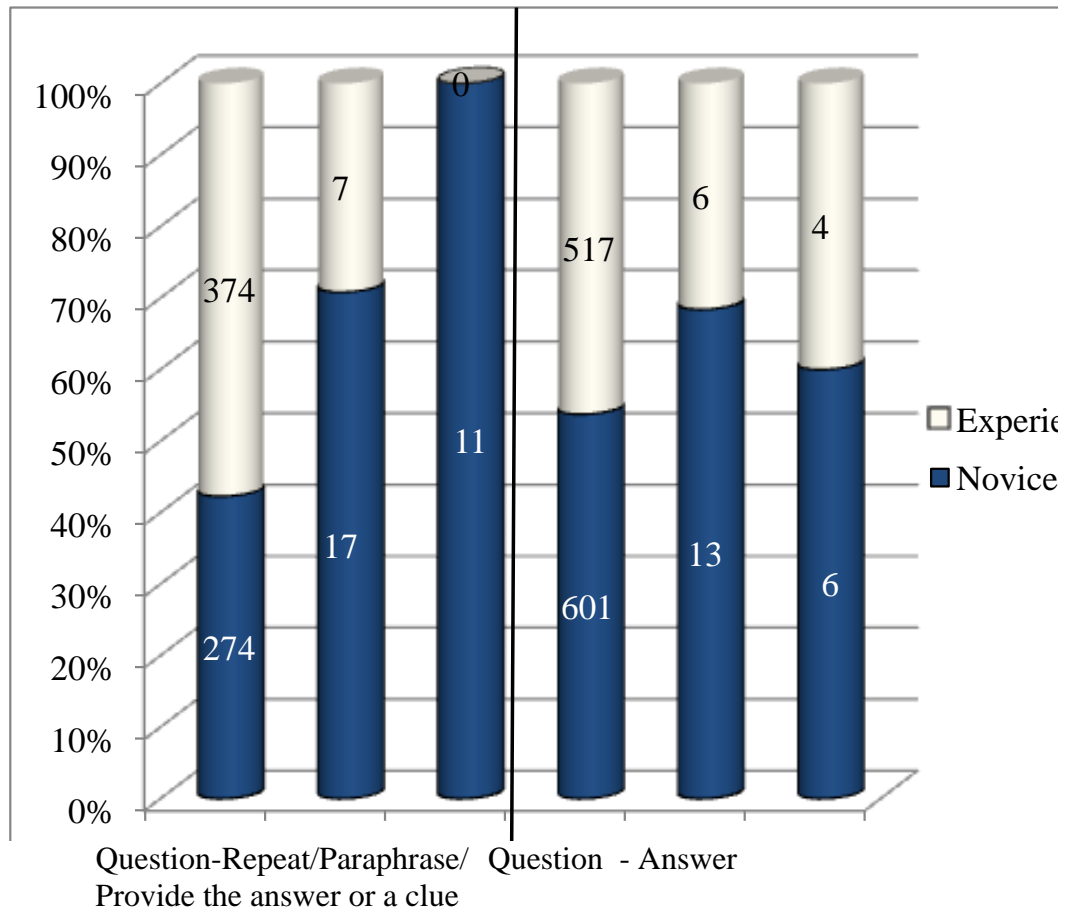


Figure 3 - Wait-time

Question-Repeat/Paraphrase/Give the answer or a clue

The quantitative analysis of the wait-time cases shows that both novice and experienced teachers tend to repeat or paraphrase their questions or provide the answer or a clue within 3 seconds of asking a question. As is presented in Table 6, 57.7% of these cases belonged to the experienced teachers, and 42.2 % of them to the novice teachers. Although the difference is not that large, individual analysis of the teachers shows that novice teachers were more consistent within the group. Experienced teachers varied greatly among themselves in terms how long they waited before repetition/paraphrase/giving the answer or clue.

Below are two instances from one novice and one experienced teacher. Wait-time seconds are provided in parentheses.

What does, what does the person here use? (1) What does he use? (1) He uses something. (Nazan)

... What makes you relaxed or excited? (2) What kind of music? (2) Turkish art music? ... (Ezgi)

Table 6 shows that 17 of the 24 (70.8%) wait time instances of 4-5 seconds and all of the instances of wait-times more than 5 seconds (11) belonged to the novice teachers. Experienced teachers were observed to wait less for the student's answer after asking a question. They tended to repeat or paraphrase their question, or provide the answer or a clue almost immediately after they asked it.

The following examples are of instances when 4-5 seconds and 6+ seconds wait-time occurred between the teachers' questions:

There is a controversial issue mentioned in this paragraph. What is that? (4) The writer says on the one hand this happens but on the other hand this happens. What is that? (5) There is a dilemma. (Nilay)

... Who would you like to meet? (5) A scientist? A famous person you would like to meet. (Eda)

The finding that experienced teachers wait less than do novice teachers leads us to two possible interpretations: Perhaps novice teachers need more time to organize their reactions when no immediate answer is given, or perhaps novice teachers are more aware of the ideal amount of wait-time, three to five seconds, proposed in the literature.

Question-Answer

As can be clearly seen in Table 6, instances of 1-3 second wait-time between the teacher's question and the student's answer, what we consider as successful exchanges, outnumbered all the other cases, accounting for a total of 61% of the questions asked. The comparison showed that both groups did not differ remarkably in terms of providing these successful exchanges of average wait-time with the students (53.7% novice and 46.2% experienced).

In the 4-5 seconds wait-time cases, novice teachers were found to have more instances than the experienced ones. Among 19 wait-time cases lasting between 4-5 seconds, 13 belonged to novice teachers, and the other six were observed to belong to experienced teachers. Below is an example from an experienced teacher:

T: *What is the main idea of this text? (1) What does it discuss? (4)*

S: *This is reading about expert research leisure time and this research...*

(Esra)

As to 6+ seconds wait-time, novice teachers again provided more examples (6) than did the experienced ones (4), though the difference here is slight. The analysis of all these 10 question-answer-feedback episodes shows that seven of these instances, four by novice teachers and three by experienced, resulted in the correct answer, which suggests that allowing students more than five seconds to formulate their answers worked well to get the correct answer, since they had more time to think and organize their ideas. Below are two examples of question-answer exchanges with more than five seconds wait-time which resulted ultimately in correct answers:

T: ... *What do you think about this quotation?* (1) *What do you understand from it?* (6)

S: *Teachers teach something. We have to learn.*

T: *We have to learn, OK. Nice interpretation...* (Nejla)

T: *Which paragraph you found the answer?* (2) *This question.* (8)

S: *"The need capital..."*

T: ... *relatively unimportant. Yes.* (Elçin)

There were three 'more than 5 seconds' exchanges which ended up with incorrect student responses. Below is one example episode from an experienced teacher:

T: *commitment. What's commitment?* (7)

S1: *commit a crime* (laughters)

T: (laughes) *commit a crime. So what's commitment then you think?*

S2: (incomprehensible)

T: *It's not only committing crime, right...* (Elçin)

Here, the teacher gives students some time to examine the word she asks by taking the root and morpheme apart. As we see, the students know the collocation for the root of the word, but since they do not know what that word itself means, their answer cannot go beyond making up collocations for its root.

To sum up, the overall look at the wait-time data shows us that novice teachers appear to provide their students with more time after they ask a question.

This leads us to two possible conclusions: these novice teachers may need more time to formulate their repetition, paraphrase, or the correct answer to the question, or they may be better at exploiting the ideal amount of wait-time, which is three to five seconds, suggested in the literature. These two interpretations will be discussed in Chapter 5 in detail.

Feedback

After giving an appropriate amount of wait-time and getting students' answers, the general expectation from teacher-student exchanges of this sort is that the teacher will then provide the student with some kind of feedback. The feedback that the 10 participants gave in 20 observations was analyzed according to its type and role. Their feedback was either affective or cognitive, with either an evaluative or discursal role.

The quantity of feedback type and role is presented in Table 7.

Table 7 - Feedback

Teachers	Type		Role	
	Affective	Cognitive	Evaluative	Discoursal
Novice				
Nilay	9	82	2	83
Nejla	22	60	14	53
Nevin	8	63	12	54
Nuray	10	44	20	29
Nazan	32	138	29	108
Total	81	387	77	327
Experienced				
Ezgi	16	63	32	36
Ece	75	80	48	85
Elçin	19	80	43	41
Eda	7	50	30	26
Esra	21	53	44	27
Total	138	326	197	215
Total	219	713	274	542

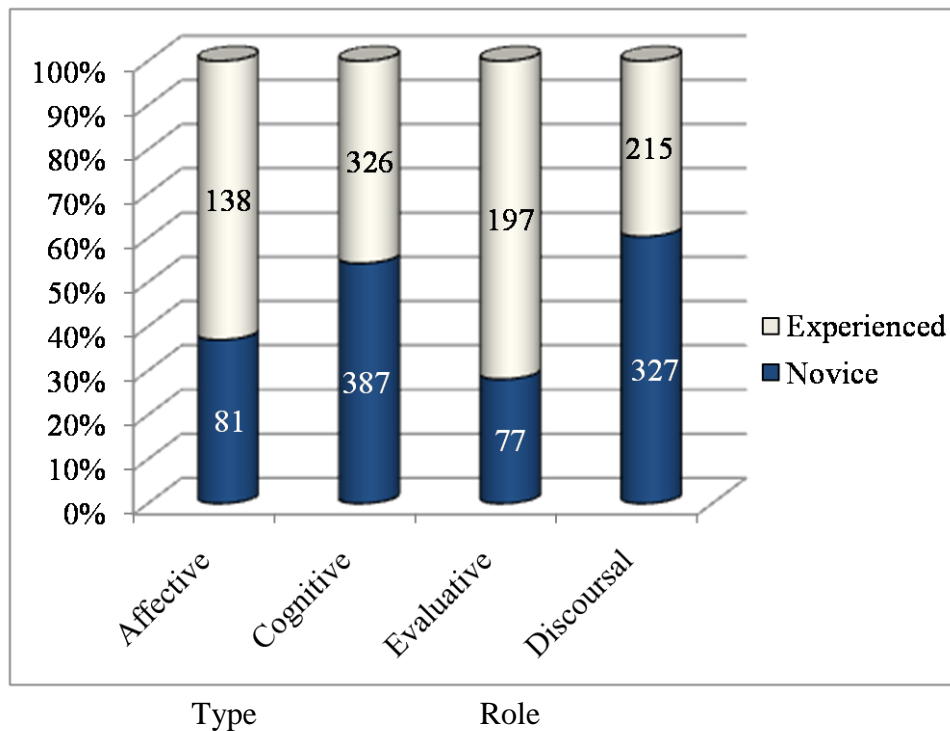


Figure 4 - Feedback

Type of the Feedback

Affective Feedback

This type of feedback has motivational and reinforcement functions. The teacher comments on the student's answer by using supportive expressions like *very good* or *well done*. As presented in Table 7, experienced teachers responded to their students' answers with verbal praise more than did the novice ones. While 36.9% of the 219 instances belonged to the novice teachers, 63% were given by the experienced ones.

Most of the expressions the teachers in both groups used while giving affective feedback were similar. The most common ones were: *(very/that's) good, (you're) right, well done, alright, thank you, correct, perfect, good answer, fine*.

Also some teachers in both groups provided affective feedback intended to guide the students towards finding the correct answer, as presented in the following sentences:

The correct place but wrong answer. How are you going to answer this question directly? ... You are looking at the correct sentence but you have to word it correctly so that you answer that question directly. (Ezgi)

Your answer is not wrong but it's missing. (Nilay)

You're very close. (Nazan)

As the examples above show, the teachers did not provide the correct answer but they sometimes helped the students find it by guiding them with their feedback.

The only possible difference that arose from the qualitative analysis of affective feedback of both groups is that experienced teachers appeared to use

slightly more varied and emphatic expressions. such as *that's it, that's true, wonderful, and definitely.*

Cognitive Feedback

Cognitive feedback is provided when the teacher responds to the correctness of the student's answer. The teacher either approves the answer by repeating, paraphrasing or adding some more information to it or, in cases when the given response was deemed incorrect, the teacher gives the correct answer to the question. As Table 7 shows, cognitive feedback was very frequent among the teachers observed. Again what is clear in Table 7 is that its distribution between the two groups of teachers is quite similar. Novice teachers provided 54.2% of the total examples of cognitive feedback, and experienced teachers gave 45.7%.

As a result of the detailed qualitative analysis of the transcriptions, I can say that the way the teachers in both groups provided cognitive feedback was similar. The most common practice was to repeat the student's answer in order to show that it is correct. The two examples below show this clearly:

T: *What is the focus in the 4th paragraph?*

S: *good manners*

T: *good manners in general.* (Elçin)

T: *What?*

S: *Huge mechanical bird*

T: *Huge mechanical bird, OK.* (Nazan)

Another common form of cognitive feedback given by both experienced and novice teachers was making further comments on the students' answers and/or encouraging students to interact more:

T: *why online books?*

S: *Book is, normal book is heavy but Amazon Kindle is light.*

T: *aha, so you don't want to carry.*

S: *Yes. (Nuray)*

T: *Do you read (book)?*

S: *I don't read book. I read just newspapers.*

T: *Only the newspaper. OK, at least you read a newspaper every day.* (Esra)

Lastly, it was observed that most of the teachers provided cognitive feedback about the language structure whenever necessary:

T: *What is the factor that affects business in a country?*

S: *neither superior no inferior*

T: *OK, they are not superior or inferior to each other.* (Nevin)

T: *How did you feel? Angry, sad, happy, cheerful.*

S: *The first one is bored.*

T: *The first one is boring.* (Ezgi)

These three instances show us that when the student's answer is correct, the teachers in both groups either repeat it or make further comments on it. However, if the answer is grammatically incorrect, both novice and experienced teachers tended to repeat the answer with the correct structure.

The Role of Feedback

In addition to the types, two roles of feedback in terms of its function were considered: an evaluative role and a discursal role.

Evaluative

The function of this role is to make students aware of target language rules. Based on a student's answer to a question, the teacher's feedback serves to correct a student's linguistic error or emphasize the correct use of a structure in his/her answer. The quantitative data in Table 7 show that experienced teachers, with 71.4% of the instances, employed this role much more than did novice teachers.

Qualitative analysis showed that evaluative feedback was used in two ways by both novice and experienced teachers. One way was to directly explain a word form or a sentence structure. The frequency of these cases changed according to the skill a teacher focused on; when grammar was also presented with reading, this direct explanation was more common as shown in the following examples:

T: *Which structure is that? "Every single question you ask and all the answers.."*

S: *you are giving.*

T: *"all the answers which are given", right? It's a reduced relative clause. Since it's passive, only verb three is there.* (Nevin)

T: *Do you agree or do you want to say something else about it?*

S: *Taxes are too much high, in contrast the salaries are too much low.*

T: *OK. That's a good one but there is a problem, grammatical problem. Look at it again."The taxes are too high."* (writes on the board) *You don't use much or many because we have an adjective...* (Eda)

The other way that the observed teachers, both novice and experienced, used evaluative feedback was to simply correct the errors students made in their answers, which is similar to one of the features of the cognitive feedback. It was observed that both novice and experienced teachers dealt with the students' errors whenever needed.

T: *What's your speed after pulling the parachute?*

S: *20 mile*

T: *20 miles per hour. Right.* (Nazan)

T: *be on time, what do you call it?*

S: *punctual*

T: *punctuality.* (Elçin)

Discoursal

Feedback with a discoursal role is that in which there is no explicit correction of the student's answer, rather, the emphasis is on content. Table 7 shows that 60.3% of the 542 instances of discoursal feedback was employed by novice teachers and 39.6% was used by experienced teachers. This shows that, unlike the evaluative role, novice teachers make use of this role more than the experienced teachers.

Detailed qualitative analysis of the transcriptions showed that the two groups do not have differences in terms of the use of this role. They all make further

comments about the students' answers regarding the content of the reading passage, mostly their responses to the comprehension question. Presented below is an example of a novice teacher's use of feedback with a discursal role:

T: *Is it dangerous?*

S1: *Yes.*

S2: *No.*

T: *I heard of a person who died because of this sport.* (Nazan)

This role generally shares the same context with cognitive type of feedback as shown in the example below:

T: *Who controls "we"?*

S: *money*

T: *Yes, money controls us. Isn't it funny? It is, it has become the god of everything. This is what we create...* (Ece)

In the first part of the feedback, Ece approves the answer, and then in the second part she comments on the content of the subject matter.

Using feedback in a discursal role enables teachers to focus on the content, rather than the form, and encourages students to interact with the teacher and/or among themselves.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I have presented the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the results of my study. In the next chapter, I will discuss these results and elaborate on them.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Introduction

The objective of the present study was to explore the possible differences between novice and experienced teachers in terms of their questioning behaviors in their lessons. Specifically, I examined the participants' questioning behaviors under four sub-headings: the number of questions they asked in their lessons, the types of these questions, the amount of time they waited for the students' answers, and feedback they gave to the students' responses.

The participants of this study were 10 English instructors, five from the Preparatory School of Bilkent University and five from the Preparatory School of METU. Five of these teachers were considered novice, with between 1-5 years of teaching experience, and the other five were experienced, with more than 10 years of experience.

This study drew on classroom observations. After I got the necessary permission from the participants' institutions to conduct my study, I visited each instructor in their reading lessons. I did two observations for each teacher in order to reduce the novelty effect. I recorded these lessons and filled in a checklist while observing the lessons. Later on, I transcribed the question-answer episodes in the recordings and analyzed them both quantitatively and qualitatively in order to reveal any possible difference between novice and experienced teachers in terms of the number and types of questions they ask, wait-time and feedback, as expressed in the research question.

I coded each type of question and feedback and counted the number of each question type and feedback for each teacher and compared the amount for each group quantitatively. I counted the wait-time with the help of Windows Media Player and noted the seconds down while transcribing. I analyzed wait-time again by dividing it into three time spans (1-3 seconds, 4-5 seconds, more than 5 seconds) and counting the instances for each group. Quantitative data were presented both in tables and figures in order to make the comparison clear. For qualitative analysis, I examined each question-answer exchanges in the transcriptions and looked for things such as different phrases or language used that might indicate possible differences between novice and experienced teachers which were not revealed in quantitative results.

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize and discuss the main findings of the present study which focused on the difference between novice and experienced teachers' questioning techniques. This chapter is divided into four sections. Section one presents the discussion of the main results of the study relating them to the previously conducted studies. Section two gives some pedagogical recommendations based on the results of the current study. Section three reports the limitations of the study, and section four gives some suggestions for further research.

Findings and Discussion

Interacting in the target language is the key issue in language classrooms, where the aim is generally to prepare learners for real-life situations in which they will have to communicate. Teacher questions are important because they require

learner production and because they facilitate interaction in the language classrooms, which leads to better learning (Chaudron, 1988; Ellis, 1994; Enokson, 1973; Myhill & Dunkin, 2002; Shomoossi, 2004; Xiao-yan, 2008). It is reasonable to assume that teachers with different levels of experience may have different teaching practices, among which questioning behaviors can be counted.

I conducted this study in order to answer the question whether there are any differences between novice and experienced teachers' questioning techniques in terms of number and type of questions, wait-time and feedback to the students' answers. Although some findings were as I expected before completing the study, some of them were unexpected or incidental. Also, some findings match, or mismatch, with the ones found in literature. I will present the overall findings for each of the four subsections mentioned in the research question and discuss them comparing to my expectations and referring back to the literature.

Number of Questions

The preliminary result of the number of the questions asked by novice and experienced teachers showed that there was almost no difference between the two groups, which surprised me. I was expecting to find that experienced teachers asked more questions than the novice ones because I thought that, with their experience, they would be more likely to encourage classroom interaction with the help of questions. After eliminating Ece, who asked far more questions than the others in her group, calculating the mean scores of both groups, and comparing them again, I

found that novice teachers surpassed the experienced ones in the number of questions asked.

These results and my classroom observation experiences suggested that novice teachers are more likely to be concerned about having their students talk in the target language, and they try to do this by asking questions. This might be the case because they have been trained according to the latest methods and approaches in ELT, which value communicative teaching and learning activities. Moreover, based on my one-to-one exchanges with the teachers, I can say that novice teachers seem to be more aware of the effectiveness of questions than experienced teachers, perhaps as a result of this training.

Question Types

Among the nine types of questions the participants of the present study asked, display questions were the most frequent ones, constituting more than half (55%) of all question asked by all of the observed teachers. This finding also confirms what I thought I might find, since we teachers routinely spend our lives asking questions to which we know the answer (Thompson, 1997). Also the observations were carried out during reading lessons and, as Shomoossi claimed, it is inevitable that teachers would ask display questions while working on a reading passage because they need to make sure that all the students understood the text--which could be achieved by display questions (2004). He also asserted that display questions are employed more than referential ones, which are the second most frequent type of question in this study.

As to the difference between novice and experienced teachers in terms of question types, the biggest difference was found with respect to clarification requests, confirmation checks, referential, and rhetorical questions. The first two types were employed mostly by novice teachers, presumably because they wanted to be sure about their students' answers or expressions by asking the students to clarify when needed or by repeating the students' expressions to ensure that they have not misunderstood.

The finding that experienced teachers asked more referential questions than the novice teachers was not surprising, since experienced teachers are expected to be more skillful at creating an interactive atmosphere in the classroom, which the literature has noted is more effectively achieved by asking referential questions rather than display questions (Shomoossi, 2004). The other difference between novice and experienced teachers in terms of referential questions is derived from the qualitative analysis of the transcriptions. It was found that while experienced teachers asked a wide variety of referential questions connecting the text to the students' lives, novice teachers asked referential questions mostly only related to the text. The reason for this difference may be, as Mackey, Polio, & McDonough (2004) suggest, novice teachers are less comfortable with deviating from the topic and possibly losing some kind of control over the management of the classroom by asking personal questions. Experienced teachers seem to be more skillful and confident on this issue.

As to the rhetorical questions, experienced teachers were found to employ them more. This was as I expected, since the novice ones tended to teach the lessons

directly, and, as I observed in the classrooms, they resorted to rhetorical questions only as a second choice when the students seemed unable to understand their direct presentation of the topic. That is, they most probably favor direct teaching more than making rhetorical statements in the form of questions while presenting the topic. This may be because they are afraid of confusing students' minds with verbosity.

There were three question types for which the qualitative analysis revealed some differences although there were no quantitative differences. The first one is procedural questions. Quantitative analysis showed that the number of procedural questions asked by novice and experienced participants was exactly the same. I had been expecting the novice group to employ these questions more, especially those related to classroom management, since generally novice teachers have lower efficacy for classroom management (Yılmaz, 2004), and intervene to provide order in class (Martin & Baldwin, 1993). Therefore they could be expected to be more concerned about controlling the classroom with this kind of question. In fact, although the numbers were the same, qualitative analysis supported my expectation, showing that novice teachers' procedural questions were indeed mostly about classroom management while experienced teachers' ones were about the organization of the classroom practices.

The second type of question which differed upon closer inspection was comprehension checks, which differed in terms of the level of detail that was asked for. The novice group was found to check the students' comprehension on details of the topic, whereas the experienced group asked mostly general questions about the

students' comprehension. This might be explained by novice teachers' desire to ensure that the students had really understood the topic before moving on to the next one.

A final question type with subtle differences was meaning-related questions, which came under the display questions category. Experienced teachers were found to ask more of these questions than the novice ones, which might have resulted from two reasons: either experienced teachers are more concerned about their students' understanding of the words in the text than the novice ones, or the texts experienced teachers studied commonly included more unknown words for the students than did the texts studied by the novice teachers. However, I think the first one is more likely because a closer analysis of other question types such as the referential questions shows that experienced teachers asked "*Do you know what ... means?*" kind of questions more than novice teachers did.

Wait-time

Rowe (1972), who conducted a quasi-experimental study on wait-time, pointed out the effectiveness of three to five seconds wait-time on student and teacher behaviors. She claims that if the wait-time is very short, students tend to give short answers, or just say "I don't know". However, between three and five seconds wait-time enables learners to give longer and correct responses. (1996).

The analysis of wait-time revealed the most striking finding of the present study: Experienced teachers were found to wait less time for the student's response than the novice teachers did. Experienced participants in the study repeated or

paraphrased the question, or they provided a clue or the correct answer in most of the cases in which the wait-time went beyond an expected second or two. This finding leads us to two possible interpretations: the first one suggests that novice teachers may be waiting longer than the experienced ones after a question since they need more time to plan what they should do to break the silence and formulate the expressions that would break the silence. Thus they might not be able to give immediate reactions when the students do not respond right after they ask a question. I observed some novice teachers standing uncomfortably as if they were thinking while waiting for the students to answer. Moreover, the transcriptions showed that when they did follow up, they mostly repeated or simply paraphrased the question by changing one word, even after waiting such a long time. The second interpretation, which is more likely than the first one, shows us the submerged part of the iceberg: perhaps novice teachers are better at exploiting the ideal amount of wait-time proposed by Rowe (1972), which is three to five seconds. If so, this may be because they have recently finished their training, and their knowledge is fresh, while experienced teachers might be less conscious of such issues. Bearing all this in mind, we might argue that experience does not really pay off with respect to wait-time.

Feedback

In terms of the feedback the participants provided their students, there occurred three main findings. The first one was that experienced teachers were observed to give more affective feedback, which has a motivational and reinforcement function. Moreover, the expressions they used were stronger than the

ones novice teachers used while giving this affective feedback. This was an expected finding since experienced teachers might be expected to be more aware of the positive effect of motivational expressions on students. Novice teachers, in most of the cases, appeared unable to go beyond approving the students' correct answers with just "OK," arguably since they were busy with planning (or getting ready for) the lesson's next steps. In the classes observed for this study, the novice teachers were less likely to provide their students with much affective feedback, a practice that could discourage students. This finding shows that the value of affective feedback appears to be learned through experience.

The second finding related to feedback was that while experienced teachers gave more evaluative feedback about the form of the response than novice ones did, novice teachers provided their students with more feedback in a discursal role, in which the emphasis is on content. Holley and King (1971) claim that the overuse of evaluative feedback discourages language proficiency, and valuing successful exchange of ideas, no matter whether they are expressed grammatically or not, facilitates participation and interaction in the classroom. Because they have just come out of training, as I have mentioned in the wait time section, novice teachers are more likely to be aware of the successful practices offered in literature. This finding reveals the possibility that experience does not have an influence on teachers' correction of students' grammatical mistakes in their answers in the right dose.

Lastly, teachers in both the novice and experienced groups were observed to repeat the grammatically incorrect answer of the students using the correct structure.

This practice was found to have a positive effect on students' learning by Büyükbay (2007), as a result of her study investigating the effectiveness of repetition as corrective feedback.

Pedagogical Recommendations

Teachers ask questions primarily for the purpose of either getting students involved in interaction in the target language or for checking their understanding of the topic. Whatever the reason, all language teachers naturally ask many questions during their lessons, and the nature of these questions varies, both according to context and to the teachers themselves. This current study explored the effect of teachers' experience on their questioning behaviors, a subject which can be important for teachers and teacher trainers.

Some questions were found to be employed differently by novice and experienced teachers in the present study. Teacher trainers should be aware of the fact that some practices such as giving affective feedback to increase students' motivation and asking referential questions to facilitate interaction in the classroom are gained or improved with experience. On the other hand, it should be acknowledged that some questioning behaviors such as employing the ideal wait-time, three to five seconds, can be promoted with training. Thus, trainers can offer more effective training sessions. Moreover, teachers' awareness of these findings enables them to evaluate their own teaching practices and to improve their questioning techniques. For example, an experienced teacher realizing the importance of wait-time may receive training focusing on that practice, thus s/he

encourages more student talk. The finding that some effective questioning habits could be gained via training might encourage experienced teachers to participate in the training courses, which are viewed more favorably and attended by novice teachers.

The present study also urges self- and peer-observation and evaluation. Teachers can record their own lessons and analyze their questioning habits. For example, they can calculate the amount of time they wait for the students to answer the questions and the students' answers in order to find out the most effective amount of time, or they can investigate the effect of different types of feedback in different roles on their own students. To get a more objective evaluation, they can ask colleagues with various years of teaching experience to observe their lessons and comment on their questioning practices. For example, novice teachers can ask their experienced colleagues to observe their lessons and evaluate their use of affective feedback, which was found to be provided more commonly by the experienced teachers. Similarly, teachers can visit their colleagues' lessons and evaluate their practices. Thus, the knowledge gained via both training and experience can be brought together. Experienced teachers might become aware of the wait-time concept thanks to novice ones, and novice teachers can realize the value of the affective feedback in encouraging students towards learning.

Moreover, a training course can be developed with the participation of the teachers from both groups and they can share their knowledge and experiences so that they could find out the ideal way of questioning. The most effective groups can serve as a model for the other, and they can guide the teachers in the other groups

towards the best questioning techniques, rather than relying solely on information written in books and articles. For example, referential questions were found to be employed more by the experienced teachers in the present study, and previous research suggests that these questions are the ones that lead to student outcome and classroom interaction more (Shomoossi, 2004). Thus, experienced teachers can share their knowledge and experiences about the value of the referential questions in facilitating student talk.

Limitations of the Study

As indicated previously in this chapter, this study was conducted to explore the differences between novice and experienced teachers in terms of their questioning techniques. It had certain limitations resulting from the length of the study, the number of the participants and the observations, some of the participants' being aware of the study's focus, the novelty effect, and teacher and student profiles.

There was limited time to complete the study, which is, in this case, an important limitation. The 20 classroom observations, which was the only data collection method for the study, had to be completed within two months, and it was difficult to arrange enough time to visit two reading lessons by 10 teachers from two different institutions. In a longer period of time, I could have followed up with interviews with the participants or asked students to fill in questionnaires to find out teachers' and students' perceptions about questioning techniques. This might have broadened the scope of the findings. What teachers think about their own questioning practices, and what students think about the questions their teachers ask

in the classroom are important in terms of matching the teachers' and students' expectations and finding out the ideal practice according to their needs. Moreover, because of time limitations, the participants were limited to 10 teachers, which is not enough from which to make broad generalizations. With more participants, I could have made more observations, and the results could have been more generalizable.

Five of the participants, four novice and one experienced, knew that the study was about their questioning behaviors so it is inevitable that they conducted their lessons with this fact in the back of their minds. Some of them even asked me about their performance (whether they had been able to ask "enough questions to suit my purpose"), even though I had tried to impress on them the importance of them having their ordinary lessons. This might have influenced the findings, particularly on the overall quantitative results.

Since I was in the classroom as an external person with a recorder, some teachers and students were naturally nervous during the observations. As Gabrielatos (2004) points out, when there is an observer in the classroom, we cannot expect the teacher or the students to behave as usual. If somebody is observing the lesson, it is not regular. Although I observed each teacher twice in order to reduce this novelty effect, it was again something unusual for the participants. This fact might have affected the data and the results.

Lastly, since the student profiles in the universities in which the study was conducted, their levels of proficiency, their enthusiasm, and their behaviors towards the teacher and each other, were different, the teachers might have also differed in terms of their teaching practices and questioning techniques. Also, the fact that the

participating novice teachers were mostly from BUSEL and the experienced ones mostly from METU might have affected the results.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings of the present study, several suggestions for further research can be made for the researchers interested in teachers' questioning techniques.

The type of questions novice and experienced teachers employ was one aspect that was investigated in the present study. However, their effectiveness in terms of facilitating an interactive atmosphere in the classroom or providing a better understanding of the topic was not explored. It would be beneficial for teacher training programs if further studies were conducted to compare novice and experienced teachers in achieving this effectiveness with the questions they ask. This can be done by analyzing students' responses as well.

Wait-time is found to be influential on the quality of the responses the students give. The findings of the present study suggest that novice participants are more aware of the ideal wait-time, which is three to five seconds (Rowe, 1972). Also, further studies on the relationship between question types and wait-time can be carried out. Different question types require different amount of time. For example, referential questions should be given more time than display questions since students need to think over the former more. Another study can be conducted to compare novice and experienced teachers according to their use of effective wait-time, and trainers can benefit from the findings while planning their training programs like in

question types. The investigation of students' response to the question and participation in the lesson can reveal the relationship between question types and wait time and the difference between novice and experienced teachers' use of effective wait time.

Lastly, a longitudinal study can be carried out by the teacher researchers in order to monitor their own progress in terms of all aspects of questioning technique. They can record their lessons regularly over the years and analyze their questioning habits with respect to number and type of questions, wait-time, feedback, and even students' response to their questions. Thus they can watch the changes in their habits, if any, while they gain experience.

Conclusion

This study investigated the difference between novice and experienced teachers' questioning techniques in terms of the number and types of questions the teachers asked, the amount of time they waited after asking the question, and the feedback they provided to the students' responses. The findings showed that both groups asked a similar number of questions. The nine types of questions were employed by novice and experienced teachers quite similarly despite some small differences. Wait time analysis showed that novice teachers waited longer than experienced ones did, which was surprising. Lastly, experienced teachers were observed to use more affective and evaluative feedback than the novice ones.

The findings of the present study reveal that experience pays off in terms of asking referential questions, which leads to more interaction than the other question

types, and giving affective feedback, which motivates students towards learning. However, having been trained recently, as is the case for most novice teachers, seems to raise teachers' awareness on the effect of wait-time on students' participation in the lesson and enable them to exploit the ideal amount of wait-time for more student talk.

Teachers should ask their questions consciously, being aware of their effect on students' learning. They should be the observers of their own lessons and improve their questioning techniques as they gain experience. Also, teacher trainers should be informed about this kind of study in order to plan and carry out their sessions more effectively.

The present study attempted to shed light on the effect of teaching experience on teachers' questioning habits. I hope that it will contribute to attaining a better understanding of this relationship.

REFERENCES

- Allwright, D., & Bailey, K. M. (1991). *Focus on the language classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Bolen, J. (2009). *An investigation of limited professional development on teacher questioning and learner responses*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, Walden University, United States - Minnesota.
- Burke, P. J., & Kray, R. (1985). *Experienced and inexperienced teachers' attitudes toward supervision and evaluation*. Paper presented at the the 66th Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association.
- Büyükbay, S. (2007). *The effectiveness of repetition as corrective feedback*. Unpublished master's thesis, Bilkent University, Ankara.
- Cambridge Learner's Dictionary. (2001). Cambridge University Press.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cullen, R. (2002). Supportive teacher talk: The importance of the F-move. *ELT Journal*, 56(2), 117-127.
- Ehara, K. (2008). *The effects of types of question on EFL learners' reading comprehension scores*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, Temple University, United States - Pennsylvania.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Els, T. v., Bongaerts, T., Extra, G., Os, C. v., & Dieten, A.-M. J.-v. (1984). *Applied linguistics and the learning and teaching of foreign languages* (R. R. v. Oirsouw, Trans.). London: Edward Arnold Publishers Ltd.
- Eniko, C. (2007). A corpus-based look at linguistic variation in classroom interaction: Teacher talk versus student talk in American University classes. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(4), 336-355.
- Enokson, R. (1973). A simplified teacher question classification model. *Education*, 94(1), 27-29.
- Freeman, D. (2001). Second language teacher education. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (pp. 72-79): Cambridge University Press.

- Gabrielatos, C. (2004). Discerning reality: Lesson observation as research. *IATEFL Teacher Trainers and Educators SIG Newsletter*, 5-8. Retrieved from <http://www.gabrielatos.com/Observations.pdf>
- Greene, C. (2009). *Conversation analysis: A study of institutional interaction and gender in a Russian classroom*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Alberta (Canada), Canada.
- Ho, D. G. E. (2005). Why do teachers ask the questions they ask? *RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 36(3), 297-310.
- Holley, F. M., & King, J. K. (1971). *Imitation and correction in foreign language learning*: Modern Language Journal.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 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. 268-285). Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.
- Mackey, A., Polio, C., & McDonough, K. (2004). The Relationship between experience, education and teachers' use of incidental focus-on-form techniques. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(3), 301-327.
- Madsen, K., & Cassidy, J. W. (2005). The effect of focus of attention and teaching experience on perceptions of teaching effectiveness and student learning. *Journal of Research in Music Education*, 53(3), 222-233.
- Martin, N. K., & Baldwin, B. (1993). *Validation of an inventory of classroom management style: Differences between novice and experienced teachers*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association.
- Myhill, D., & Dunkin, F. (2002). What's a good question? [Article]. *Literacy Today*(33), 8-9.
- Myles, F., Hooper, J., & Mitchell, R. (1998). Rote or rule? Exploring the role of formulaic language in classroom foreign language learning. *Language Learning*, 48(3), 323-364.
- Nakamura, I. (2008). Understanding how teacher and student talk with each other: An exploration of how 'repair' displays the co-management of talk-in-interaction. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(2), 265-283.

- Nystrand, M., Wu, L. L., Gamoran, A., Zeiser, S., Long, D., National Research Center on English, L., et al. (2003). *Questions in time: Investigating the structure and dynamics of unfolding classroom discourse* (CELA Research Report).
- Rowe, M. B. (1972). *Wait-time and rewards as instructional variables, their influence on language, logic, and fate control*. Paper presented at the National Association for Research in Science Teaching.
- Rowe, M. B. (1996). Science, silence, and sanctions. *Science and Children*, 34(1), 35-37.
- Shomoossi, N. (2004). The effect of teacher's questioning behavior on EFL classroom interaction: A classroom-based research. *The Reading Matrix*, 4(2), 96-104.
- Thompson, G. (1997). Training teachers to ask questions. *ELT Journal*, 51(2), 99-105.
- Thornbury, S. (1996). Teachers research teacher talk. *ELT Journal*, 50(4), 279-289.
- Williamson, A. (2008). *The Impact of Formulaic Writing on Performance and Attitudes of Writing Students*. Unpublished MA Thesis, Pacific Lutheran University, Tacoma.
- Xiao-yan. (2008). Application of relevance theory to teacher talk. *US-China Foreign Language*, 6(7), 51-55.
- Yılmaz, E. (2004). *The relationship between novice and experienced teachers' self-efficacy for classroom management and students' perceptions of their teachers' classroom management*. Unpublished master's thesis, Bilkent University, Ankara.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM

Dear Participant,

You have been asked to participate in a study about teaching practices, the exact aim of which will be explained to you right after the methodology process is completed.

In order to achieve the goals of the study, two of your lessons will be observed and recorded by the researcher. She will be present in the classroom during this process and will fill in a checklist while observing.

Your participation in this study will bring valuable contribution to the findings of the study. Any personal information about you, including your name, will be kept confidential. This study involves no risk to you.

I would like to thank you once again for your participation and cooperation.

Gülşen Altun

MA TEFL Program

Bilkent University

altungulsen@gmail.com

I have read and understood the information given above. I hereby agree to my participation in the study.

Name Surname

Date

Signature

---/---/---

