



**AN INVESTIGATION OF THE QUESTION TYPES POSED BY THE
ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS AND THEIR IMPACT ON STUDENT
PARTICIPATION: A CASE STUDY**

Hale Albayrak

**DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**GAZİ UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**

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TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

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YAZARIN

Adı : Hale

Soyadı : Albayrak

Bölümü : İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

İmza :

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Yazar Adı Soyadı: Hale ALBAYRAK

İmza:

JÜRİ ONAY SAYFASI

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Danışman: Prof. Dr. İskender Hakkı Sarıgöz
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Gazi Üniversitesi

.....

Başkan: Prof. Dr. Gülsev Pakkan
İngiliz Dili Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalı, Selçuk Üniversitesi

Üye : Prof. Dr. Gonca Yangın Ekşi
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Gazi Üniversitesi

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**İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİ TARAFINDAN KULLANILAN SORU
TİPLERİNİN VE BU SORULARIN ÖĞRENCİ KATILIMINA
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Hale Albayrak
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ÖZ

Bu çalışma, bir vakıf üniversitesindeki öğretim görevlileri tarafından yönetilen farklı soru türlerini araştırmak amacıyla yapılmıştır. COVID-19 kısıtlamaları nedeniyle dersler Türkiye'deki üniversitelerde 2019-2020 akademik yılının ikinci döneminden beri çevrimiçi olarak yapılmaktadır. Bu nedenle, çalışmada yer alan öğretim görevlilerinin çevrimiçi İngilizce derslerinde ağırlıklı olarak hangi tür soruları kullandıklarını ortaya çıkarmak amaçlanmıştır. Ayrıca, açık uçlu ve kapalı uçlu soruların öğrenci katılımına etkisi incelenmiştir. Son olarak, mevcut çalışmadaki öğretim görevlilerin çevrimiçi İngilizce derslerinde farklı türden öğretmen soruları kullanımına yönelik algıları incelenmiştir. Bu bağlamda, 3 öğretim görevlisinin çevrimiçi olan İngilizce dersleri incelenmiştir. Veri toplamak amacıyla katılımcıların toplamda 36 çevrimiçi İngilizce ders saati kaydedilmiştir. Söylem analizi uygulanmış ve katılımcılar tarafından kullanılan soru türlerinin sıklığını analiz etmek için iki sınıflandırma sistemi kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin katılımına etkisini ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla öğrencilerin kapalı uçlu ve açık uçlu sorulara verdikleri yanıtlar incelenmiştir. Katılımcıların çevrimiçi İngilizce derslerinde kendi soru kullanımlarına yönelik algılarını keşfetmek için çevrimiçi İngilizce dersi veren öğretim görevlileriyle yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmanın sonuçları, çalışmada yer alan katılımcılar tarafından en sık kullanılan soru türlerinin kapalı uçlu sorular olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bununla birlikte, öğrencileri daha fazla düşünmeye teşvik etmek ve sınıf içi etkinlikleri yönetmek amacıyla açık uçlu ve denetleyici sorular da ağırlıklı olarak sorulmuştur. Öğrencilerin açık uçlu ve kapalı uçlu sorulara verdiği yanıtların analizi, açık uçlu sorular sorulduğunda derse katılmaya daha istekli olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Katılımcılar da öğrencilerin açık uçlu sorular sorulduğunda katılmaya

daha istekli olduklarını ve daha uzun cevaplar verdiklerini belirtmiştir. Ayrıca, görüşme sonuçları öğretmen sorularının amaçlarını ve öğrenci katılımına olan olumlu ve olumsuz etkilerini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Katılımcılar soru sorma becerilerinin geliştirilmesi için önerilerde bulunmakla birlikte çevrimiçi eğitimin öğretmen sorularına olan etkilerine değinmişlerdir.



Anahtar Kelimeler : Öğretmen soruları kullanımı, öğrenci katılımı, çevrimiçi İngilizce dersleri
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GAZİ UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

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ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to investigate different types of questions posed by the instructors at a foundation university. Due to COVID-19 restrictions, the lessons have been held online at universities since the beginning of the second term of 2019-2020 academic year in Turkey. Thus, it was aimed to find out what types of questions were used predominantly by the instructors in the current study in their online EFL (English as a Foreign Language) lessons. In addition, the effect of display and referential questions on student participation was examined. Lastly, the perceptions of the instructors in the current study towards their use of different types of teacher questions were explored. To this end, the online English lessons of three instructors were examined in the study. A total of 36 online English sessions of the participants was recorded for data collection. Discourse analysis was applied, and two categorization systems were used to analyze the frequency of the types of questions used by the participants. Furthermore, students' responses to both display and referential questions were examined to find out their roles in student participation. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with three instructors who conduct online English lessons to explore the participants' perceptions towards their questioning practices in online EFL classes. The findings of the study revealed that display questions were the most frequently used question types by the participants in the present study. However, referential and procedural questions were also used predominantly to encourage students to think further and manage the classroom procedures. The analysis of students' responses to display and referential questions indicated that they were more eager to participate when asked referential questions. The participants also stated that the students tended to give longer responses and be more motivated for referential questions.

Furthermore, the interview results uncovered the aims of teacher questions and the certain aspects of teacher questions which had negative and positive effects on student participation in online lessons. The participants also touched upon the impact of online education on teacher questions along with the suggestions to improve the questioning process.



Key Words : Teacher questioning, student participation, online EFL lessons
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DA	Discourse Analysis
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELL	English Language Learning
ESL	English as a Second Language
IRF	Initiation-Response-Feedback
SETT	Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk
TFL	Turkish as a Foreign Language
TTFS	Teacher Talk Functional Scale
TTT	Teacher Talk Time

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Presentation

This study aims to investigate different types of questions posed by English Foreign Language (EFL) instructors in their online classrooms and the effects of these questions on students' participation. This chapter involves the background of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, and research questions.

1.2. Background of the Study

Since there is communication at the heart of language teaching, classroom interaction plays a vital role in creating opportunities for language learners. It has been pointed out that teacher talk has a huge place in teaching as an interactive tool (Yanfen & Yuqin, 2010). According to Glover (2018, p. 497), "teachers make a key contribution to the management of learning through their talk".

Especially in an English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) classroom setting, the quality of teacher talk is crucially important. The students are provided with the necessary comprehensible input through teacher talk (Cullen, 1998). Thus, it is teachers' responsibility to be able to present authentic and proper language to the students which enables them to enhance their language store and have more opportunities for output. As the main concern is the quality of teacher talk, it is of great importance that language teachers are adequately aware of the role they play, the aim of their lessons, and their pedagogic purposes (Walsh, 2002). The fact that teachers can control their use of language is as essential as the choice of proper methodologies for their lessons. Walsh (2002) points out that "when language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are

facilitated”, but if teaching goal and language use of the teacher mismatch, problems will arouse related to language learning. (p. 5)

There are several features of teacher talk which affect classroom interaction and student involvement. Teacher questioning is one of them and it has a crucial role in maximizing learning opportunities for the students. Cotton (1998) states that questioning is the second most popular and common teaching technique used by teachers after lecturing. The majority of teacher talk consists of questions used for different purposes like classroom management, attracting students’ attention, checking their understanding and engaging them in the lesson, etc. According to Crowe and Stanford (2010), when the crucial role of teacher questioning is neglected, certain problems related to learning and active participation of the students may arouse. In his study on the types of teacher questions, Thompson (1997) criticizes the inadequacy of proper and comprehensible sources which aim at training teachers in terms of effective questioning. Furthermore, Vogler (2005) points out that teachers still lack the necessary knowledge about how and when to ask their questions to facilitate learning in their classes. Even though the aim of the teacher is to create an ideal learning environment, it may not be possible to realize it without using questions efficiently and consciously. Thus, Farrel (2009) emphasizes the necessity of implementing reflective practices in teachers’ education since they need to observe and assess themselves to draw conclusions on their questioning practices.

Students need the guidance of their teachers in the process of learning a foreign language which can be mostly possible through the right questioning. According to Chin (2006), the questions posed by teachers enable students to “formulate hypotheses, predict outcomes, brainstorm ideas, generate explanations, make inferences and conclusions, as well as to self-evaluate and reflect on their own thinking” (p. 1336). Students’ thinking can be promoted through various types of questions asked during different stages of the lesson and shaped according to the needs of the students. Cotton (1988) found that students achieved better when they were given instructions with questioning, which indicates that teacher questions can affect students’ academic performances positively if they are used right.

Since students need teacher output to have a voice in the classroom, effective teacher questioning is crucial in terms of having a student-centered classroom. Several research studies have shown that teacher questions can be quite helpful in maintaining interaction and participation in the classroom by promoting learning. Costa (2000) states that using

effective questioning strategies creates a learning atmosphere which makes students more eager to learn and participate. Considered one of the most essential features of teacher talk, a few research studies have focused on the effect of question types on classroom communication. The types of questions posed by the teachers have been investigated with their possible negative and positive effects on classroom interaction. It has been discussed that teachers should make use of different types of questions which help students to make contributions to the lesson (Menegale, 2008). Several research studies have been conducted on the various types of teacher questions which emerged in EFL classrooms and different categorizations have been made according to the focus and the pedagogical aim of the teacher. It can be clearly seen that the role of teacher questions is quite significant in terms of facilitating communication and interaction in the classroom.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Students are supposed to speak and engage in the lesson as much as possible in order to realize the aims of teaching a foreign language. It is thought that minimizing teacher talk will make the engagement of the students possible. The less the teacher talk, the more the students participate and contribute (Cullen, 1998). However, it cannot be said that less teacher talk is the best (Wang, 2014). The concern should not be the amount of teacher talk time, but the effectiveness of it. To what extent the teacher is aware of the function of the language s/he uses affects learning negatively or positively. Since questioning takes up a lot of time of teaching, language teachers should especially pay attention to their questioning strategies and the types of questions they use during the lesson.

The main problem is that it may be mostly failed to acknowledge the significance of teacher questioning and its effects on classroom communication. Hussain (2003) states that teachers do not receive adequate training on how to use the right questioning strategies and they do not benefit from a system which allows them to categorize and systematize the questions they intend to use in their classes. It is important to organize and shape the questions considering the aim of the lesson and the level of the students. Good and Brophy (2000) emphasize the fact that teacher questions should not be considered as tools for only testing, but they are also used as effective teaching tools. They further state that the level of the questions like low and high-order questions are required to be blended as each of them has different purposes. However, the excessive use of low-level cognitive questions has

been criticized by many scholars as they are believed to limit students' contributions and participation (Brualdi, 1998; Menegale, 2008; Wilen, 1991).

Several research studies have been conducted on types of teacher questions and mostly classroom observations have been done to draw conclusions. Ho (2005) is critical of the tendency to focus on only closed/open or display/referential questions in the related studies and claims that in real classrooms, more than two main types of questions are posed by the teacher as classroom events are not always pre-determined. Similarly, van Lier (1988) states that studies should not be limited with the distinction of referential and display questions as there are more dimensions which should be taken into consideration in the analysis of teacher questions like the effects, aims, and cognitive processes of questioning. Having in-depth and comprehensive examination of teacher questions has a pivotal role in providing the necessary guidance for teachers and instructors to reflect on their practices.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic which broke out at the beginning of 2020, most of the classes have been held online all around the world including Turkey. That is why, the current study was carried out to investigate the types of questions which were posed by the English instructors working at the preparatory program of a foundation university in their online classes. Furthermore, the impacts of display and referential questions on student participation in the online lessons were examined. In addition, the instructors' perceptions towards their own questioning practices were explored through semi-structured interviews.

For these purposes, the study sought to find answers to the following questions:

1. What types of questions based on Long & Sato's taxonomy (echoic and epistemic questions) are mainly used by the instructors in online EFL classes?
2. What is the frequency of procedural questions (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) posed by the instructors in their online classes?
3. Based on classroom observations, what is the impact of display and referential questions on student participation?
4. What are the instructors' perceptions towards their use of different types of teacher questions in online EFL classes?

1.5. Significance of the Study

Questioning is one of the indispensable parts of teaching and classroom discourse in EFL classrooms. Since teacher questions may enhance learning and classroom interaction if they are used efficiently, they have been widely investigated by several researchers. Previous studies mostly focused on investigating the effects of different types of questions on students' use of the target language (Lee, 2006). Especially the distinction between display and referential questions was examined closely with their potential roles in classroom interaction and learning (David, 2007; Long & Sato, 1983, Lynch, 1991; Shomoossi, 2004; Wright, 2016). As a result of the findings of the related studies, certain suggestions were made for teachers to improve their questioning skills.

Literature revealed that along with the types of questions, the level and quality of teacher questions had a huge role in student engagement and understanding (James & Carter, 2006). The importance of the content and quality of questions were also emphasized by Black and Harrison (2001) as students' thinking could either be facilitated or hindered through teacher questions. In this vein, there were attempts to identify the teacher questions which should be avoided to create an effective learning environment. The characteristics of good and useful questions were defined by Grossier (1964) as 'clear, purposeful, brief, natural and adapted to the level of the class, sequenced and thought-provoking' (as cited in Good & Brophy, 2000, p. 318).

Questioning strategies and practices of the teachers and instructors who work with different age groups and student levels have been widely investigated. However, most of the research studies on the matter have been restricted to observations in traditional face-to-face classrooms. Online teaching has gained great importance recently due to the restrictions which are the results of the COVID-19 outbreak. Since teachers and students cannot be physically in their schools for the sake of their health, the courses are conducted in a virtual environment with the help of technology. Online classrooms differ considerably from face-to-face classrooms as both have different dimensions and variables which may affect not only classroom interaction but also the use of teacher questions. Thus, there is a need to investigate online language classrooms in terms of teachers' questioning practices and their effects on student participation.

1.6. Assumptions

Certain assumptions have been made related to the current study. Firstly, it is assumed that the participants (both the instructors and students) do not change their classroom behaviors because they are recorded, which is important since the study aims to examine the natural classroom environment. Secondly, the instructors are assumed to answer the interview questions sincerely and unbiasedly. Another assumption of the study is that the students are used to holding the language lessons in a virtual environment as it has been three months since the term started. Thus, the online platform is not a new experience for them, and they are familiar with the procedures of the online classes.

1.7. Limitations

There are some limitations of the present study. Firstly, three online classrooms with three different instructors are included in the study. The number of the participants and the online classes could be more to expand the scope of the study. Secondly, since the lessons are conducted online, it is difficult to comment on students' and instructors' body language which may have an effect on classroom interaction. Thirdly, unlike traditional classes, there could be certain technical problems during the lessons related to the webcams and microphones of both the students and the instructors, which might interfere with the natural flow of classroom interaction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Presentation

In this chapter, literature in relation to classroom interaction, teacher talk, teacher questioning, and online teaching is presented. Furthermore, previous studies on teacher questioning and major classification systems used for teacher questions were provided.

2.2. Classroom Discourse and Interaction

Jocuns (2013) defines classroom discourse as patterns of talk which occur in a classroom or other educational contexts. Teachers' and students' actions and practices can be investigated through analyzing classroom discourse. Discourse in a classroom should be evaluated separately from other social settings as there is a pedagogical purpose and its own typical instructional practices (Ibid). Effective classroom interaction is regarded as crucial in classroom discourse. Sert (2015) puts forward that 'if one wants to understand the social, pedagogical, and institutional processes in language classrooms in relation to, for example learning and teaching, then s/he needs to capture what is happening interactionally in these context' (p. 10).

Previous communicative approaches suggested that language classrooms should serve the purpose of genuine communication instead of traditional classroom communication. Seedhouse (1996) challenges this widely held view by pointing out that classrooms are institutional settings, and there are three distinctive features of classroom discourse in all EFL classrooms which are;

1. The linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce are subject to evaluation by the teacher in some way.
2. Language is both the vehicle and object of instruction.

3. The linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce will be linked in some way to the pedagogical purposes which the teacher introduces (p. 23).

On account of these characteristics peculiar to language classrooms, interaction which has different purposes and outcomes is also considered unique.

Walsh (2011) introduces four aspects of classroom discourse demonstrating the features of interaction which takes place in the classroom as ‘control of the interaction’, ‘speech modification’, ‘elicitation’, and ‘repair’. The teacher is the main *controller of interaction* as turn-taking and topic selection is dominated by him or her. Even if the classroom is considered student-centered, teacher plays a major role in interaction. *Speech modification* is another discourse feature that is typical in all language classrooms. For instance, a language teacher tends to talk slowly and loudly, makes more emphasis to make sure that s/he is understood, and adds more pause times. This is important in terms of not only creating more space for students to comprehend what has been told but also modeling the target language in a proper way. Furthermore, *elicitation techniques* are commonly used by the teacher as a part of classroom interaction to make students answer and contribute to the lesson. According to Walsh (2011), classroom discourse mostly consists of asking and answering questions. Various types of questions are used to check students’ understanding and enable them to participate in the lesson which is again mostly dominated by the teacher. The last feature of classroom discourse is *repair* which refers to the ways how student errors are handled by the teacher. It is important to choose an appropriate error correction strategy for different types of student errors to create learning opportunities.

Furthermore, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) analyzed classroom discourse and identified IRF (Initiation-Respond-Feedback) structure which has been widely investigated through different perspectives in classroom discourse research studies. They suggest that the majority of classroom interaction consists of IRF moves. Initiation move is mostly done by the teacher usually with the help of a question and responses of the students follow this. Lastly, teacher provides a follow-up comment, and this cycle continues with different activities and classroom procedures. Although the IRF pattern has been criticized since it is highly teacher-centered, it is one of the most common structures followed by teachers in classroom interaction. According to Cullen (2002), the reason why IRF structure is highly followed by language teachers can be that they see it as an effective way to pass on knowledge to the students. It should be noted that successful classroom interaction depends

on if teachers make use of the features of classroom discourse in an efficient way which makes the role of the teacher and the language s/he uses highly crucial.

2.3. Teacher Talk

EFL teachers are responsible for presenting and using the target language in the classroom for the sake of classroom interaction. Johnson (1995) states that the language used by the teacher determines and shapes classroom practices. Teacher talk is defined as “anything that the teacher says spontaneously, without a script, the actual linguistic content of which is created to suit a particular need” (Frey, 1988, p. 681).

Classroom research used to focus on finding the right methodology for teaching, so teacher talk was not widely investigated. However, with the development of micro-teaching classroom research, attention has been given to the language used by the teacher since teaching methods have not been considered as the main determinant of students’ achievement (Badem, 2018). Several research studies have shown that teacher talk and to what extent the teacher is aware of it have important roles in creating learning opportunities. The quantity of teacher talk was the most concerning issue in previous studies. Little teacher talk was considered desirable since it was thought that too much teacher talk time (TTT) had a negative effect on students’ engagement and classroom interaction. According to Allwright (1982), effective teaching cannot be possible if the teacher is in the center. Instead, students should be the ones who have more opportunities to be involved in classroom practices. On the other hand, there has been a shift from quantity to quality of the language used by the teacher in EFL classrooms. Even though the amount of teacher talk is regarded important, the main attention has been on the way teachers make use of TTT to promote learning and interaction with the help of questioning, turn-taking, and error corrections (Cullen, 1998). Farahian and Rezaee (2012) conducted a study to investigate TTT and the type of student talk with teacher questions through classroom observations. According to the results of the study, allocated time for teacher talk was much more than students’ talk time with 70% of whole classroom talk. However, it was concluded that this might be advantageous if the teacher uses teacher talk time effectively especially with the types of questions which promote interaction. Student talk time is as important as teacher talk time in a communicative language classroom. Kareema (2014) puts forward that classrooms should be student-centered to realize the aim of teaching and learning a foreign language even though most teachers fail to pay attention to

this issue. He conducted a study to find out students' perceptions of their own talk time in English lessons. The results of the study indicated that students were aware of the fact that they needed to use the target language to be better at it, which could be possible through increased student talk time. Furthermore, their attitudes towards classroom interaction were positive.

Research on classroom and teacher talk has shown that classrooms should be considered as unique contexts in which interaction takes places with its own rules among participants who are students and teachers, and it has its particular classroom language. Walsh (2002, p. 4) investigated teacher talk and found out that in classroom;

- teachers largely control the topic of discussion,
- teachers often control both content and procedure,
- teachers usually control who may participate and when,
- students take their cues from teachers,
- role relationships between teachers and learners are unequal,
- teachers are responsible for managing the interaction which occurs,
- teachers talk most of the time,
- teachers modify their talk to learners,
- learners rarely modify their talk to teachers,
- teachers ask questions (to which they know the answers) most of the time.

It is crucial that teachers are aware of the amount of teacher talk time and the effectiveness of it. Previous research carried out to investigate TTT revealed that most of the time, teachers fail to realize their teacher talk time and its effect on learning opportunities (Shamsipour & Allami, 2012). Moser et al. (2012) emphasized the inadequate numbers of studies which have focused on training teachers to improve their teacher talk. They prepared a teacher training course for primary school language teachers in Japan, and they aimed to enable teachers to reflect on their language use to make their lessons more communicative with a task-based approach. Teachers were asked to record their lessons before and after receiving training. Results showed that teachers became more conscious of their talk after training sessions and receiving feedback based on their recorded lessons.

Teachers were able to plan and implement efficient communicative lessons through successful training and planning.

Since teacher talk is seen as one of the determinant factors which can affect learning and interaction either positively or negatively, assessment instruments to evaluate teacher talk and identify weaknesses of it have been a must. In this respect, Walsh (2003) did classroom observations within a couple of years to be able to draw conclusions on the use of language by EFL teachers. He came up with four different classroom modes which are called 'skills and systems, managerial, materials and classroom context'. Each mode has different pedagogical goals and instructional practices which vary according to the focus of each lesson. The language used by the teacher can be 'mode convergent' if the modes are consistent with the pedagogical goals; however, if the modes are not consistent with the goals, it is 'mode divergent'. In the first case, learning opportunities are promoted, whereas if the language is 'mode divergent', it may have a negative effect on learning (Ghafarpour, 2017). These four classroom modes are included in the Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) scale developed by Walsh (2011). Based on this scale, language teachers' lessons were recorded, and they were asked to reflect on their instructional practices and shifts from one mode to another. It was found that this kind of scale could be useful to help EFL teachers develop an understanding of their talk and their role in classroom interaction. Aşık & Gönen (2016) conducted a study to find out pre-service teachers' perceptions of SETT and their development through it. They found that SETT experience had a positive effect on the participants of the study in terms of analyzing their teacher talk and modifying classroom modes to match the pedagogical purposes with the practices. Khany and Malmir (2017), who believed that a more recent teacher talk framework was needed, conducted a study to develop a unique teacher talk scale used only for EFL classes. After reviewing the related literature, observations of EFL classes and interviews with language teachers were completed. As a result, a comprehensive framework which is called the English Language Teacher Talk Functional Scale (TTFS) was developed. It was piloted with 182 EFL teachers and their perceptions about the scale were positive.

2.3.1. Functions and Features of Teacher Talk

Teacher talk which has several functions plays a huge role in a language classroom and the main function of it is to facilitate learning. Through their use of language, teachers provide comprehensible input for students to acquire the target language. In order to present proper

language to the students, there are some changes in their speech and some considerations should be made. Chaudron (1988, p. 88) summarized the features of teacher talk as a result of research findings in the related literature as follows;

1. The speed of teacher talk seems slower,
2. More frequency of pause showing speakers' thinking or conceiving and with longer time,
3. Clearer and more understandable pronunciation,
4. Easier chosen vocabulary,
5. With lower subordinate degree (less use of subordinate clause),
6. More narrative sentences or declarative sentences than interrogative sentences,
7. More frequency of teachers' self-repetition.

It is evident that language used by the teachers undergoes certain modifications to facilitate classroom interaction and communication. Wang (2014) puts emphasis on the importance of proper use of the features of teacher talk pointing out that too simple or complex teacher talk may have a negative effect on providing comprehensible input for students.

It is essential that EFL teachers are aware of the functions of the language they use in the classroom. In this respect, they use various techniques to maximize learning opportunities for the students. Mercer (1995) presented three techniques named 'Elicitation', 'Response' and 'Description', each of which represents different features of teacher talk. Through elicitation, the teacher tries to bring out answers from students instead of providing the knowledge for them. In this way, students are encouraged to contribute to the lesson by being active participants in the learning process. Response refers to responses given by the teacher. 'Confirmation, Rejection, Repetitions, Reformulations or Elaborations' can be used depending on the aim of the lesson and the needs of the students (Mercer, 1995, p. 32-33). It is important to know how to respond to students' contributions, and what to do when they answer a question correctly or incorrectly. Lastly, description is a technique used through 'we' statements to refer to shared experiences in the class. It may be used when the teacher wants to share the aim of the lesson or make a revision. Analysis of the abovementioned techniques may give a clue about how teacher talk functions in an EFL classroom and how the use of them can play the facilitator role in learning and classroom interaction.

Furthermore, Thornbury (1996) focused on the features of communicative teacher talk in a language classroom. He attempted to find out to what extent the teacher trainees made use of the features of communicative teacher talk in their teaching practices. The features which he believes are important in terms of making classroom interaction effective are 'asking referential questions', 'giving content feedback', proper 'wait time', and 'student-initiated talk' (p. 281). Referential questions are considered communicative since the teacher does not know the answers to those questions, and they genuinely expect an answer for them unlike display questions whose answers are already known and they are just asked to enable students to display their knowledge. Furthermore, feedback is another feature that may have positive effects on learning if the teacher is conscious of its functions. When correcting students' mistakes, it is important not to entirely focus on the form. Instead, feedback on the content of the student response should be a priority to be more communicative in the classroom. Thornbury (1996) further states that wait time is a significant feature of teacher talk, through which more learning space can be created. It refers to the time the teacher allocates students to answer a question or contribute to the lesson. Nunan (1991) points out that if teachers increase their wait time to three or four seconds, more students respond to their questions, and the length of their answers also increases (as cited in Thornbury, 1996). Instead of turning to another student or answering the question themselves, teachers are advised to wait a couple of seconds so that the student has time to think about it. The last feature mentioned in Thornbury's study (1996) is student-initiated talk which is highly desirable in classroom interaction. Student questions can be the indicators that the teacher does not dominate the classroom and students are genuinely willing to engage in the lesson.

2.4. Teacher Questioning

Questioning is at the center of teaching and learning, especially in foreign language education. As Degarmo (1911) stated several years ago,

To question well is to teach well. In the skillful use of the question more than anything else lies the fine art of teaching; for in it we have the guide to clear and vivid ideas, the quick spur to imagination, the stimulus to thought, the incentive to action (p. 179, cited in Ellis 1993).

Thus, questions asked by the EFL teacher in language classrooms are fundamental parts of classroom discourse. Chaudron (1988) puts forward that 40% of classroom interaction consists of teacher questioning which clearly shows the importance of it in a language classroom. Cotton (1988) defines teacher questions as "instructional cues or stimuli that

convey to students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it” (p. 1). Students are guided and facilitated through teacher questions which take up most of teacher talk time. According to Buchanan Hill (2016), teacher questioning, if used effectively, has a vital role in thinking, learning, and student engagement. Similarly, Fisher (1995) points out that questions asked by the teacher are important in terms of creating opportunities for students to form links between what they have already known with what they are supposed to know and analyze their thinking processes. Questioning is considered one of the most critical tools in teaching and how the teacher uses questions may have constructive or obstructive effects on learning (Cohen et al., 1995). As Muijs and Reynolds (2017) put forward, the efficiency of interactive teaching depends on if teachers know when and how often to use questions, make students respond to their questions, pays attention to the level of the questions, use open and closed questions in a balanced way, and make the right instructional decisions when a student answers the question correctly or incorrectly.

Ma (2008) identifies the aim of teacher questioning as to make sure that students understand what has been taught, to foster creative thinking skills of the students, and maximize their involvement. Questions are also used for assessment, revision, concept checking, and classroom management. Hence, it is of great importance that teachers recognize the functions and effects of questioning in their classes. Vogler (2005) emphasizes the fact that right questioning is a skill teachers should be trained on so that they become aware of what to ask and how to ask them. As well as right questioning, flexibility in teacher questions is crucial since teachers are expected to change their questions and make modifications to be able to allow students’ contributions without being critical (Chin, 2006). The role of teachers’ questioning strategies and practices is also discussed by Bogan and Porter (2005), who highlight the importance of using a range of teacher questions and questioning techniques.

Since the majority of teacher talk consists of questioning, it has been widely investigated with its possible effects on learning and classroom interaction. Hamiloğlu and Temiz (2012) investigated the effects of teacher questioning on students’ learning. Two EFL classrooms were observed and video recorded. As a result of the observations, certain implications were made. It was suggested that teacher questioning requires a meticulous thinking process and a well-designed lesson plan. Furthermore, they concluded that the variety of questions should be increased to maximize learning opportunities, and it is

necessary to ask questions which encourage students to actively engage in the lesson. Wilen and Clegg (1986) reviewed the related literature and listed the features of effective teacher questioning. According to their findings (p. 154-158), questioning is efficient if teachers;

- phrase questions clearly,
- ask questions which are primarily academic,
- ask high cognitive level questions,
- allow 3-5 seconds of wait time after asking a question before requesting a response, particularly when higher cognitive level questions are asked,
- encourage students to respond in some way to each question asked,
- balance responses from volunteering and nonvolunteering student,
- encourage a high percentage of correct responses from students and assist with incorrect responses,
- probe students' responses for clarification, support for a point of view, or to stimulate thinking.

High and low-level questions are found to have different effects on learning. Lower-level questions are usually used to check comprehension of the students and do not make students think further, whereas higher-level questions require students not only to think critically and deeply but also to analyze and evaluate. Understanding the differences between the level of the questions and using them in a balanced way contribute to the improvement of teacher questioning skills (Hill & Flynn, 2008). The order of the questions may be shaped according to the answers and reactions of the students, which also enables teachers to make the right instructional decisions in terms of questioning.

Wait-time is another factor which may have a positive or negative role in the efficiency of teacher questions. Rowe (1986) identifies two types of wait time. One of them (wait time 1) refers to the time teacher allocates for students after asking the question and the other (wait time 2) refers to 'pausing after a student response' (p. 43). She further adds that the average wait time is one second or less which is considered inadequate to create thinking space for the students. Thus, it is crucial for teachers to increase their wait time to maximize learning. Cotton (1988) reviewed the literature on wait-time and found out that

increased wait time had positive effects on student achievement, classroom interaction, student participation, and the length of student answers. Teachers are likely to answer the questions themselves or ask the question to another student when there is no response; however, the review of literature shows that teachers should allocate enough time to allow students to generate an answer.

Furthermore, Bond (2007) makes some suggestions to increase the efficiency of teacher questioning. He states that teachers may have fewer problems related to classroom management and interaction if they;

- plan their questions beforehand,
- are prepared for students' possible responses,
- direct their questions to as many students as possible,
- get students ready before questioning,
- choose questions appropriate for students' levels,
- provide enough wait time after presenting their question,
- include follow-up questions and
- enable students to ask their own questions.

In addition, Cohen et al. (1995) also put emphasis on the significance of preparing the questions before the lesson and they also explained the reasons. Firstly, the teacher would be able to choose a proper language which minimizes the ambiguity and misunderstandings on students' part. Secondly, the organization of different questions is done, which may be difficult to do during the lesson. Lastly, teachers are prepared for unexpected classroom events and can manage them more easily.

2.4.1. Purposes of Teacher Questions

Teachers use questioning for a variety of purposes in a language classroom. The content and aim of the lesson can be the determinant factors in shaping the questioning process. Ellis (1992) identifies two main aims of teacher questioning which are making adjustments in their talk as a result of student replies and enabling classroom interaction to run smoothly. Toni and Parse (2013) put forward that teachers ask questions to attract students' attention, make them think more deeply, enable them to involve in classroom interaction,

improve students' listening skills, and diminish classroom management problems. It is evident that teacher questioning takes up a large place in classroom discourse affecting various areas from classroom management to student involvement. As a result of analyzing related literature, Cotton (1998) also listed certain purposes of teacher questioning which are;

- to develop interest and motivate students to become actively involved in lessons,
- to evaluate students' preparation and check on homework or seatwork completion,
- to develop critical thinking skills and inquiring attitudes,
- to review and summarize previous lessons,
- to nurture insights by exposing new relationships,
- to assess achievement of instructional goals and objectives,
- to stimulate students to pursue knowledge on their own (p. 1).

It is important for teachers to be aware of the aims of their questions to be able to contribute to the learning process. Dyer (2009) believes that teachers ask questions because they need to evaluate students' understanding, increase their motivation and enthusiasm, improve their thinking skills, and create connections among different concepts. It can be a useful teaching tool if teachers are proficient in using it in the right way by paying attention to different aims and results of questioning.

Moreover, the functions of teacher questions may vary greatly as they serve different purposes depending on the pedagogical aim, content, classroom environment, and students' needs. Kauchak and Eggen (1989) introduce three categories for the functions of teacher questions which are 'diagnostic', 'instructional', and 'motivational'. A teacher can have an idea of what the students know as well as what they do not know and what they think about a specific subject through the *diagnostic* function of the questions. The *instructional* function refers to one of the main aims of teaching which is to make students acquire new knowledge. Lastly, with the help of the *motivational* function of teacher questions, students are encouraged not only to engage and participate in the lesson but also to reflect on their thinking processes.

Cohen et al. (1995) listed twelve aims of teacher questioning as follows;

1. to arouse interest and curiosity concerning a topic,

2. to focus attention on a particular issue or concept,
3. to develop an active approach to learning,
4. to stimulate pupils to ask questions of themselves and others,
5. to structure a task in such a way that learning will be maximized,
6. to diagnose specific difficulties inhibiting pupil learning,
7. to communicate to the group that involvement in the lesson is expected, and that overt participation by all members of the group is valued,
8. to provide an opportunity for pupils to assimilate and reflect upon information,
9. to involve pupils in using an inferred cognitive operation on the assumption that this will assist in developing thinking skills,
10. to develop reflection and comment by pupils on the responses of other members of the group, both pupils and teachers,
11. to afford an opportunity for pupils to learn vicariously through discussion,
12. to express a genuine interest in the ideas and feelings of the pupil (p. 279).

They further state that intellectual considerations are not the only aims for teacher questioning, but teachers also ask various questions for affective and managerial reasons which focus on students' emotional needs and their behaviors in the classroom, respectively. According to Boyd (2015), questioning is the most prevalent and powerful teaching tool which is used for various purposes like to 'regulate and direct the immediate scope of classroom talk, to open up or shut down student contributions, and to support student comprehension or stunt student inquiry' (p. 373). Even though there is a wide range of purposes of teacher questioning according to the literature, the common point of each is to enhance student involvement and facilitate learning. In this regard, Richards and Lockhart (1996, p. 185) suggested that teacher asks questions in order to;

- stimulate and maintain students' interest,
- encourage students to think and focus on the content of the lesson,
- enable a teacher to clarify what a student has said,
- enable a teacher to elicit particular structures or vocabulary items,
- enable teachers to check students' understanding,

- encourage student participation in a lesson

Successful realization of these purposes depends on teachers since they are the ones who have control over most of the questioning in the classroom. However, Ma (2008) believes that there are still problems in terms of using teacher questions. Especially high school teachers do not know how their questions affect classroom interaction, and they do not give enough importance to the usage of different questioning strategies, both of which lead to poor classroom interaction.

2.4.2. Effects of Teacher Questions on Learning

The relationship between teacher questioning and learning has been widely investigated as it is a big part of classroom talk. While teacher questions have the potential to foster learning, they also may play a negative role in the process of learning. According to Brualdi (1998), right questioning can increase students' understanding, but not all types of questions can do it. She states that asking too many low-level questions limits learning opportunities. It is better if teachers make use of high-level questions so that students have a chance to think and learn further. However, there is no consensus on the inefficiency of low-level cognitive questions among researchers. For instance, Gall (1984) states that focusing on low-level questions can actually be helpful to encourage students who are low-achievers as their aim is to foster students' basic skills, whereas high-level questions can be used for students who are academically more successful.

As questioning has a critical role in learning, teachers are expected to ask themselves if their questioning strategies enhance student learning. According to Cohen et al. (1995), 'questioning should improve learning, not simply be a device for a pupil to display her knowledge' (p. 279). Using different types of questions and ordering them in the right way play a key role in increasing learning opportunities for students. Marton et al. (2004) state that teachers should start with a general question followed by a more specific one which focuses on the aim of the lesson and topic. They compared two English lessons, both of which aimed to teach the use of the determiner 'some'. Both teachers made the students listen to a song in which the determiner 'some' appears several times. One of the teachers tried to elicit the answer 'some' by asking 'How many dogs can you see?', whereas the other started questioning with a more general one like 'What can you see?' followed by the

more specific question. Students were tested on this topic, and it was revealed that the results of the students who were asked various questions were better.

Through questioning, teachers have the opportunity to track students' learning process and make changes in their teaching practices if necessary, which is highly critical in terms of creating an effective learning environment. Thus, previous research studies have mainly focused on explaining how teacher questioning may help students learn better. Gall and Rhody (1987) analyzed the related literature and they concluded that when questions are used efficiently, they enable students to achieve more by engaging them in classroom activities, attracting their attention to the task, making them think more elaborately and critically, developing their self-efficacy skills, and preparing them for the tests and exams they are required to take.

Furthermore, Ellis (1993) highlights the features of teacher questioning which may have negative effects on learning. She states that filling in the wait time with instructions and commands, repeating students' answers, and limiting students' opportunities to speak out their contrary ideas by using 'Isn't it?' or 'Right?' a lot are some of the behaviors which hinder learning. In addition, when the questions are too complicated, vague and abstract, students tend to avoid answering those questions as they have difficulty in understanding them, which eventually causes them to develop negative attitudes towards learning (Brualdi, 1998).

The effects of oral and written teacher questions on learning have also been discussed. Rothkopf and Bloom (1970) used three groups of students each of whom received treatments. While a topic was being presented in the class, one group was asked written questions, and they were required to answer in a written way. The second group received the questions orally, while the last group was not asked any questions during the presentation. Results showed that both groups asked written and oral questions were more successful than the group which received no questions. Moreover, the group asked only oral questions was better than the group asked only written questions. Similarly, Hargie (1978) states that questions which are asked orally seem to be more efficient than written questions in enhancing learning. However, it is important to note that written questions can be quite useful in different stages depending on the pedagogical aim of the lesson and specific activity.

2.4.3. Teacher Questions and Student Engagement

Teachers mainly dominate and control the classroom interaction by deciding on who talks and when s/he talks. It is usually the teacher who initiates the conversation and interaction, and students are the receivers who mostly answer teacher-dominated questions (Walsh, 2011). Since one of the most-used components of teacher talk is questioning, it has a great role in classroom interaction and student engagement as Yang (2006, p. 196) claimed "... the teachers' questions can be considered as the most powerful device to lead, extend and control communication in the classroom". Teachers often enhance or obstruct student involvement through questioning, so it is of great importance that they use the right questions at the right time. According to Ma (2008), it is vital for teachers to be aware of the potential effects of teacher questioning on classroom interaction as it is a determinant factor in student engagement in an EFL lesson. As a result of more than 800 English and social studies classes, Nystrand et al. (2003) found out that asking authentic questions and reflecting on students' answers may be helpful to create a classroom environment where efficient dialogue takes place.

Based on Sinclair and Coulthard's observations and findings (1975), IRF (Initiate-Respond-Feedback) move has been believed to be the most common pattern in classroom discourse. According to this cycle, a teacher question usually initiates classroom communication and interaction, which is followed by a student response, and lastly feedback is provided by the teacher. Despite its prevalence, IRF structure has been criticized by several researchers (Dinsmore, 1985; Nunan, 1987; Thornbury, 1996) as it is considered to limit student participation and contributions. Since the conversation in the classroom is started with a teacher question, it is necessary for teachers to make sure the way they generate their questions does not hinder classroom communication which eventually affects student participation in a negative way.

There have been several investigations into the ways to maximize student participation through teacher talk and questioning. Walsh presented certain features of teacher talk which may 'obstruct' or 'construct' student involvement (2002). Checking for confirmation via questioning and encouraging students to elaborate on their contributions are considered constructive ways to increase student participation. While waiting for students' responses adequately after asking a question may enable students to involve more, excessive use of teacher echo after a student's response is considered to hinder interaction. Teacher echo is also discouraged by Goodwin et. al (1992) since they believe

students should learn to listen to their peers' answers as well as the teacher. They further list certain suggestions to enhance student participation like;

- enabling all students to participate rather than just focusing on the volunteers,
- not calling a student's name before asking the question since others may stop listening,
- creating opportunities for students to ask their own questions,
- trying to ask various questions at different stages of the lesson.

Furthermore, a considerable amount of literature has been published on the effects of different types of questions on learning and student involvement. According to Qashoa (2013), the use of different kinds of questions should depend on the level and learning styles of the students and lesson aims. Thus, there are several factors teachers are required to take into consideration when it comes to choosing the right question type.

2.5. Types of Teacher Questions

As Mehan (1979) claims, the questions asked by the teacher in a classroom are significantly different from the ones occurring outside the classroom. The difference can be seen clearly in the following examples;

Outside the classroom: 'Speaker 1: What time is it, Denise?

Speaker 2: 2:30.

Speaker 1: Thank you, Denise.'

In the classroom: 'Speaker 1: What time is it, Denise?

Speaker 2: 2:30.

Speaker 1: Well done, Denise.' (p. 285).

There have been several attempts to classify and categorize teacher questions for more than fifty years. Various taxonomies, frameworks, and schemas have been developed by scholars, educators, and researchers mostly with the help of the data obtained from real classrooms. Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) is one of the most well-known and researched frameworks which divides teacher questions into two categories named "lower-order" and higher-order". *Knowledge, comprehension, and application* questions belong to the lower-order category, while *analysis, synthesis, and evaluation* questions are included in higher-order. Questions which focus on only testing students' knowledge on given information are

typical in *knowledge* questions. As for *comprehension* questions, merely remembering what was given is not enough, and students are required to understand by interpreting the information. However, the aim of *application* questions is to make students apply and use the information they have learned and solve problems. *Analysis* questions enable students to think critically by analyzing the information and identifying patterns, while they are expected to connect pieces of information and make predictions by synthesizing facts from different sources through *synthesis* questions. Lastly, *evaluation* questions which are the highest questioning level are asked to enable students to make judgments and reach a conclusion. According to Goodwin et al. (1992), lower-order questions are suitable for assessing students' comprehension, identifying their weakness and strengths, and summing up the lesson, whereas higher-order questions can be used to encourage students to think deeper, initiate discussions, and guide them to explore facts on their own.

Gallagher and Aschner (1963) came up with another framework similar to Bloom's taxonomy. However, there are four types of questions starting from the lowest level to the highest level. The lowest level is called *cognitive-memory* questions and they simply test students' memory. The next level is *convergent thinking* which is the combination of Bloom's *Application* and *Analysis* levels. Although there is only one correct answer, students are expected to analyze the given information. *Divergent thinking* questions require students to generate answers from their own perspectives by synthesizing their ideas. The highest level is *evaluative thinking* including questions whose focus is testing students' judgments and reasonings of a specific topic.

Barnes (1969) states that teachers use questions to guide and direct students to participate in the lesson. He (1969, 1976) presented four kinds of questions which are *factual*, *reasoning*, *open*, and *social* questions. *Factual* questions usually require one correct answer based on a specific material (e.g. What is the name of the writer's mom?), however *reasoning* questions make students think deeper and use their logic (e.g. Why did she move to London?). *Open* questions require long answers and there may not be only one correct answer (e.g. What did you do yesterday?). Lastly, it is intended to have an effect on students' behaviors by managing and providing feedback through *social* questions.

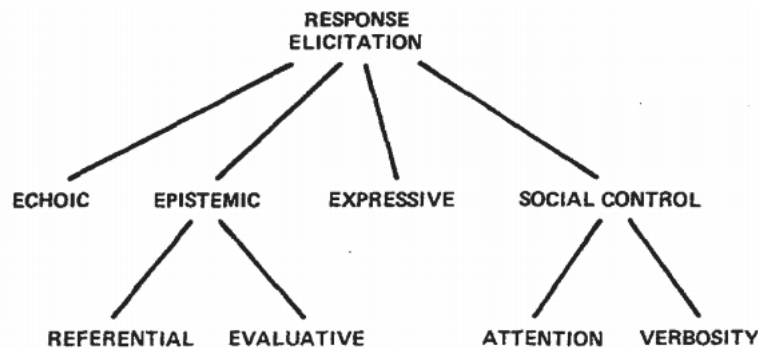


Figure 1. Kearsley's (1976) taxonomy of question functions

Kearsley (1976) focused on the linguistic, psychological, and social features of questions and he proposed a taxonomy consisting of four categories. Questions which are likely to occur in a communicational discourse were divided as *echoic* and *epistemic* which can be *referential* or *evaluative*. There are also *expressive* and *social control* questions which can be categorized as *attention* or *verbosity*. Figure 1 summarizes the schemata of Kearsley's categorization of the questions. *Echoic* questions are used for confirmation or repetition (e.g. What?, Pardon?). They can also be in the form of paraphrasing the previous question to make students understand better. The aim of *epistemic* questions is to obtain information and it is divided into two categories as *referential* and *evaluative* questions. *Referential* questions serve the purpose of providing information about incidents, relationships, and situations, etc. through wh- question forms. On the other hand, *evaluative* questions used in tests and discussions are asked to enable students to present their knowledge. The third category called *expressive* refers to the questions used for expressing the feelings of the questioner like doubt, disappointment, surprise, etc. Lastly, *social control* is related to keeping control of the conversation and it is divided into two sub-categories named *attention* and *verbosity*. *Attention* questions are used to allow the person who asks the question to lead the direction of the discourse (e.g. Can you pay attention to me, now?). *Verbosity* refers to the questions which are used solely to maintain the conversation and fill in the silence.

Long and Sato (1983) conducted a classroom research study to investigate the forms and functions of teacher questions in a language classroom. Observations of six different ESL classes were made and Kearsley's taxonomy (1976) was applied to the transcription of the first lesson. Since there were some question types which did not fit into any categories, some modifications were made. *Echoic* questions were divided into three as

comprehension checks, *clarification requests*, and *confirmation checks*. In addition, *social control* questions were eliminated as they did not emerge in the obtained data. *Expressive* questions were examined as a part of *epistemic* questions rather than a separate category. Additionally, *rhetorical* questions were added to *epistemic* questions. Lastly, *display* questions were introduced instead of evaluative questions. As a result of these modifications, the framework proposed by Long and Sato (1983) can be summarized as follows:

1. Echoic

- a. Comprehension checks (e.g. Alright?; OK?; Does everyone understand “polite”?)
- b. Clarification requests (e.g. What do you mean?; I don’t understand; What?)
- c. Confirmation checks (e.g. S: Carefully - T: Carefully?; Did you say “he”?)

2. Epistemic

- a. Referential (e.g. Why didn’t you do your homework?)
- b. Display (e.g. What is the opposite of “up” in English?)
- c. Expressive (e.g. It’s interesting the different pronunciations we have now, 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).

Echoic questions were divided into three sub-categories to be able to make distinctions among instructional resources used in classroom interaction. According to Long and Sato (1983), *confirmation check* questions tend to be more common if students are the ones who provide information. They can be used as the exact or partial repetition of what the previous speaker had said or by asking yes/no questions to make sure s/he is understood. On the other hand, *comprehension check* questions are used to check whether the speaker is understood by the information provider. They are mainly formed through tag questions or rising intonation. Students may be asked to clarify what they had said through *clarification requests*. Unlike *confirmation checks*, *wh-* questions can be used as well as yes/no questions and there are no presuppositions by the speaker. *Clarification requests* can be used in the form of statements like “I don’t understand” and imperatives like “Try again”. *Referential* questions require students to generate more elaborate answers which can vary, whereas *display* questions are used to check if students can remember the given information and they have only one correct answer. *Expressive* questions have the same

purpose as Kearsley's taxonomy which was discussed previously. Lastly, *rhetorical* questions are asked without expecting a real answer from the students and their main aim is to give reaction to a specific classroom event or attract attention.

Wilén (1991) interpreted Gallagher and Ascher's categorization system (1963) and he proposed a more simplified framework for teacher questions. According to his system, *low-order convergent* questions are simply used to check students' memory and if they can remember specific information, whereas *high-order convergent* questions require students to present their thinking processes while answering the question. Students are expected to analyze information and come up with conclusions which require thinking critically and deeply through *low-order divergent* questions. The last level which is *high-order divergent* questions focuses on making students engage in problem-solving and evaluative thinking by making judgments.

Another taxonomy for teacher questions was presented by Wajnryb (1992) focusing on the answers of the students. Six categories named as *yes/no questions*, *short answer questions*, *open-ended questions*, *display questions*, *referential question*, and *imaginative questions* were listed. *Yes/no questions* require students to give short answers in the form of yes or no, whereas they are expected to generate responses related to given information (e.g. Where did they spend their summer holiday?) for *short answer* questions. The answers for *open-ended* questions usually cannot be anticipated by the teacher and they may vary (What are your hobbies?). *Display* questions are asked to enable students to display their knowledge and their answers are already known by the teacher (e.g. How many students are there in the class?). On the other hand, *referential* questions are used to find out students' responses based on new information. Lastly, students are required to make evaluations and present their opinions on a specific topic and the answers will vary when asked *imaginative questions* (What do you think about the ending of the story?).

Furthermore, teacher questions were divided into three as *procedural*, *convergent*, and *divergent* by Richards and Lockhart (1996). *Procedural* questions are used for classroom procedures, routines, and classroom management and they do not focus on learning (e.g. Can you all read what I've written on the blackboard?). The function of *procedural* questions is quite different from many other teacher questions which are asked to involve the students in the lesson, foster their comprehension, and facilitate classroom interaction. *Convergent* questions require students to come up with usually short answers by recalling the information given before. Students are not expected to engage in higher-level thinking.

Richards and Lockhart (1996) state that language teachers usually use convergent questions to improve students' vocabulary skills and encourage them to participate (e.g. How many of you have a personal computer in your home? Do you use it every day?). However, students need to give longer answers by engaging in higher-level thinking through *divergent* questions. Instead of remembering the given information, they are required to share their own information (e.g. What are the best ways of promoting the use of computers in education?).

Gabrielatos (1997) emphasizes the importance of teacher questions in learning and he states that they can be improved through

- awareness of the types of questions teachers are asking,
- awareness of the function of their questions,
- development and conscious use of appropriate questioning techniques (p. 1).

He developed a framework consisting of three types of teacher questions which are *genuine questions*, *authentic questions*, and *pedagogical questions*. The main aim of *genuine* questions is to search for information. *Authentic* questions are quite similar to *genuine* questions and teachers use them to gather the information they need. Lastly, *pedagogical* questions are asked in the process of learning and teaching. *Pedagogical* questions are further divided into four different question types as *convergent*, *divergent*, *yes/no* and *open-ended*.

Thompson (1997) states that it is essential to have a categorization system for teacher questions not only to come up with a checklist but also to make teachers understand the functions of different questions they use as part of their teaching. He analyzed the questions under three dimensions which are *form*, *content*, and *purpose*. Form refers to the grammatical form of the question which can be *yes/no* or *wh-* questions. It is claimed that asking *yes/no* questions can be a helpful way to engage the students in a conversation for a start even if they are hesitant or unwilling to participate. Then, it will be easier to keep the interaction with the students by asking *wh-* questions which require more elaborate answers. Content, which is the second dimension in Thompson's framework, is related to whether the question is asked for *outside facts*, *personal facts*, or *opinions*. When the content of a question is mostly the information related to a text or facts about the real world, they are regarded as *outside facts*. *Personal facts* refer to the students' own lives and experiences. Similarly, *opinions* are related to students' own personal facts and beliefs.

These kinds of questions are particularly important as they encourage students to talk about things other than the lesson content (e.g. Do you have any pets?). According to Thompson (1997), personalizing the questions can be advantageous in terms of motivating students to contribute to the content of the lesson more. Being the last dimension, purpose refers to the aim of the question which can be either for *display* or *communication*. If the answer is already known by the teacher, it is asked for students to simply display their knowledge. On the other hand, if it is intended to obtain new information, the purpose of the question is communication. Based on these three dimensions, a list with twelve kinds of teacher questions is developed (Table 1).

Table 1

Question Types Proposed by Thompson (1997)

	Form	Content	Purpose
1.	yes/no	outside fact	communicative
2.	wh-	outside fact	communicative
3.	yes/no	personal fact	communicative
4.	wh-	personal fact	communicative
5.	yes/no	opinion	communicative
6.	wh-	opinion	communicative
7.	yes/no	outside fact	display
8.	wh-	outside fact	display
9.	yes/no	personal fact	display
10.	wh-	personal fact	display
11.	yes/no	opinion	display
12.	wh-	opinion	display

Myhill and Dunkin (2005) came up with a categorization system for teacher questions based on the classroom observations they made. The questions were divided into four by focusing on the form as *factual*, *speculative*, *process*, and *procedural*. *Factual* questions require predetermined and only one correct answer. *Speculative* questions are asked to find out students' opinions, hypotheses and ideas. Students are required to explain their thinking practices through *process* questions (e.g. How did you work that out?). Lastly, *procedural* questions are used as part of the management and organization of the classroom (Can you all see?).

Even though a wide range of names have been used for the types of teacher questions, two main categories, one of which is "for facts, such as recall, closed, display, low-level cognitive, yes/no, and convergent question; the other for opinions, namely, process, open,

referential, high-level cognitive, open-ended, and divergent questions” may be used for a general framework (Meng et al., 2012, p. 2063).

2.6. Previous Studies on Teacher Questioning

A considerable number of research studies have been carried out to investigate the forms, functions, and effects of teacher questioning as it is one of the most crucial components of classroom discourse and interaction.

The frequency of display and referential questions and their roles in learning have been widely examined. Shomoossi (2004) conducted classroom research through which he observed reading classes of five non-native English instructors in a university to find out the effects of display and referential questions. The results showed that display questions (82%) were asked more frequently than referential questions (18%). Detailed examination of the questions revealed that referential questions create more opportunities for classroom interaction when compared to display questions. On the other hand, it was noted that not all referential questions promote interaction.

Similarly, David (2007) investigated the effect of display and referential questions on student-teacher interaction. It was hypothesized that there was no significant effect of teacher questioning on classroom interaction and no difference between the distribution of display and referential questions. Classroom observations with twenty teachers were made for six weeks by noting down teachers’ questioning behaviors, amount of classroom interaction, and the length of students’ responses. It was found that there was a significant difference between the number of display and referential questions. 85% of teacher questions were display, while only 15% of them were referential questions. In contrast to previous findings, it was revealed that the use of display questions is more effective in facilitating classroom interaction even though the involvement of the students is little (12.4%). Referential questions were usually teacher-dominated; thus, they were found to be inefficient in interaction.

The role of display and referential questions in classroom interaction was also investigated by Wright (2016). Fifty-two university students who took the *General English* course were the participants in her study. The students were supposed to describe caricatures as a part of a communicative activity which involved both display and referential questions and they were recorded. As a result of the recorded data, the length of the students’ answers was

found to be longer when they responded to referential questions. Furthermore, it was claimed that using referential questions for a communicative activity would be effective in terms of enabling students to participate with longer and more complex answers.

Furthermore, Ho (2005) challenged the widely held belief that display/closed questions are useless as they limit students with short and restricted answers. She conducted a study whose participants were two EFL teachers from a private school and a state school. The reading classes of the participants were observed for three weeks focusing on the types of the questions the teachers used. It was concluded that classifying teacher questions may not always work due to the dynamic feature of classroom interaction. Also, display or closed questions can serve a variety of pedagogical and learning purposes although they are not favored by most scholars.

Azerefegn (2008) focused on the questioning strategies of teachers. In this respect, four EFL teachers and eighty students from two private secondary schools were observed. In addition to classroom observations, a questionnaire was applied as a data collection instrument. For classifying teachers' questions, Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy was used. As a result of the study, it was found that 77.1% of the questions were knowledge questions, while 22.9% of them were comprehension questions which require students to recall given information. It was found that the observed teachers could not make use of the effective questioning strategies, so it was suggested that more attention should be given to the use of different types of questions and strategies.

Another study which aimed to analyze the functions and classifications of teacher questions in a TFL (Turkish as a Foreign Language) classroom was conducted by İnan and Fidan (2013). Two different TFL classes with foreign students coming from Ukraine, Greece, the USA, and Syria were observed to collect the data for the study. Long and Sato's (1983) framework was used for the analysis of different types of teacher questions. According to the findings of the study, most of the questions were epistemic questions (80.27%), whereas 19.23% of the questions were echoic questions. Moreover, the distribution of display and referential questions was similar to previous studies. While 51% of the questions were display, 41% of them were referential questions. According to the observations done by İnan and Fidan (2013), students provided shorter and simpler responses when they were asked display questions.

Farahian and Rezaee (2012) conducted a case study to investigate different types of teacher questions and their impacts on students' participation. The main data collection tool for the

study was the video recordings of five sessions of an EFL class and an interview with the observed teacher. In order to code the types of questions, Thompson's (1997) framework was used. According to the findings of the study, the number of close and display questions outnumbered the open and referential questions. It was unexpected to find that the length of students' responses remained the same which was short regardless of the types of the questions; however, related literature showed that students' answers tended to be longer when referential or open questions were asked. It was stated that the reason why students were unwilling to participate in the lesson with longer answers might be because the questioning techniques were inefficient.

Zohrabi et al. (2014) attempted to find out the effects of display and referential questions on three different proficiency levels of the students. To this end, three different classes with different proficiency levels (elementary, intermediate, and advanced) taught by the same teacher were observed separately. The classroom observations lasted for one semester. As a result of the study, it was concluded that the use of display and referential questions varied in three different levels. While 22% of the questions were display in the elementary class, only 7% of them were referential. The use of display questions in the intermediate class was 19%, whereas 8% of the questions were referential questions. On the other hand, the teacher tended to use more referential questions (11%) in the advanced class when compared to display questions (7%). The reason why the teacher mostly used display questions in the elementary class was believed to be the lack of students' proficiency to produce longer and more complex sentences. It was also observed that the use of referential questions had a facilitating role in classroom interaction in all three levels.

Similarly, Özcan (2010) focused on the relationship between students' proficiency levels and the use of different types of questions. She investigated the impact of asking referential questions on lower-level students' participation and responses in reading classes. In this regard, an elementary preparatory class in a foundation university was observed for four weeks and the researcher used a tally sheet to note down the number of the questions and the length of students' responses. In addition, a questionnaire was implemented to 40 teachers to find out their beliefs about question types and their potential effects on students' learning. Another questionnaire was applied to 35 students with different proficiency levels to get insights on their views about teacher questioning. As a result of the study, it was revealed that elementary level students participated more when they were

asked referential questions and they generated longer answers. Furthermore, students emphasized the importance of both display and referential questions; however, they had more opportunities to contribute to the lesson through referential questions. Lastly, it was concluded that even though referential questions are more useful in terms of promoting learning and participation, display questions are also essential to check students' understanding, especially in reading lessons.

The use of questions by pre-service teachers has also been investigated by researchers and scholars. Diaz et al. (2013) carried out a study to find out the questioning strategies of pre-service teachers and their role in fostering students' thinking. In this respect, two different lessons which were maths and language arts were observed. While language arts lesson was delivered in students' native language which is Spanish, maths lesson was delivered in students' second language, English. Eight bilingual teachers were involved in the study and their use of different types of questions was examined. The lessons were video recorded to be able to recognize the types of questions mostly used by the teachers and semi-structured interviews were conducted with the pre-service teachers to find out the participants' reflection on their own questioning strategies. The result showed that most of the questions asked by the pre-service teachers in both lessons were lower-order thinking questions which indicated that the use of different languages as the mean of instruction did not have a significant effect on the types of questions. Furthermore, it was found that most of the participants were not aware of the types and frequency of the questions they asked during both classes. According to Diaz et al. (2013), it is of great importance that pre-service teachers receive training on how to use questioning strategies effectively to improve their teaching.

Similarly, Karakuş (2018) examined the role of different types of questions used by teacher candidates on classroom interaction and communication. The data were collected through video recordings of twelve EFL lessons taught by twelve different pre-service teachers. Furthermore, the participants were interviewed at the end of their lessons to gain an insight into their questioning strategies. Thompson's (1997) taxonomy was the main source to analyze the types of teacher questions. As a result of the classroom observations and interviews, it was found that most of the questions used by the participants were display questions and the questions which were asked to interact and communicate with students were the least frequently used. When the participants were asked about the reasons why they used questioning in their lessons, the most common responses were to check

comprehension, make an introduction, encourage students to participate actively, and guide students. Furthermore, it was suggested that peer feedback, watching and reflecting on the recorded lessons, and reading the related articles would be useful in terms of improving teachers' use of questioning strategies.

In another study, Çakmak (2009) attempted to investigate the perceptions of pre-service teachers on teacher questions. She conducted a descriptive study and used a survey containing two parts as open and close-ended questions to obtain data. 113 pre-service teachers who were studying at the Faculty of Education at a state university participated in the study. The results of the study indicated that teacher candidates mostly used questions to check whether students understood them or not; however, they rarely used questions for classroom management which showed that teacher questions were usually asked not for managerial purposes but for instructional purposes by the pre-service teachers in the study. Furthermore, the factors which had an impact on effective questioning were investigated. According to the participants, subject knowledge, students' development, and class size were some of the most important variables which might have negative or positive effects on the use of teacher questions.

The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of ESL teachers was also examined. In this regard, Farrel and Mom (2015) carried out a case study, through which four ESL teachers who taught in an EAP (English for Academic Purposes) language program were observed for four weeks. In addition, interviews before and after the lessons were used along with the follow-up interviews at the end of the observation process. The main aim of the study was to find out the teachers' beliefs about the use of teacher questioning and implementation of the questions in their classes. The results of the study showed that the questioning practices of the participants were mostly consistent with their beliefs, whereas there were some differences between the beliefs and the actual practices of the teachers. For instance, one of the teachers stated that she asked several critical thinking questions; however, the classroom observations indicated that most of her questions were display questions which did not promote students' critical thinking skills. It was concluded that teachers became more aware of using the right questions at the right time through reflecting on their practices and beliefs with the help of interviews and classroom observations.

Moreover, there were attempts to find out whether there were any differences between native and non-native speaker teachers in terms of their questioning practices. To this end,

Kayaoğlu (2013) focused on investigating the questioning practices of two teachers one of whom was a native speaker teacher, while the other was a non-native speaker teacher. The participants were observed, and the lessons were audio recorded by the researcher. Following the classroom observations, semi-structured interviews were conducted with two teachers. Lastly, a questionnaire was implemented to find out the teachers' backgrounds and questioning behaviors. Teacher questions were analyzed according to both Long and Sato's (1983) and Richards and Lockhart's (1995) taxonomies. The results indicated that divergent questions which allow students to engage in higher-thinking comprised most of the questions asked by both native and non-native teachers. However, the number of divergent questions was more in the non-native teacher's lesson and there were no procedural questions. While the frequency of referential questions was 44.4% in the native teacher's lesson, this amount was 72.2% in the non-native teacher's lesson. Nevertheless, the native teacher was better at creating an environment where students were able to express themselves freely and eagerly.

Altun (2010) investigated the different questioning techniques of novice and experienced teachers along with their wait time and feedback practices. Five novice and five experienced teachers from two different universities were the participants and twenty lesson hours were audio recorded for data collection. The taxonomy by Long and Sato (1983) was used as the determiner of different types of teacher questions. Since reading classes were observed, most of the questions consisted of display questions (55%) in both lessons of the novice and experienced teachers. However, experienced teachers tended to ask more referential questions than novice teachers did. While experienced teachers did not give enough time for students to answer a question, novice teachers were more aware of the importance of wait time. It was concluded that certain questioning practices could be improved through training, while some of them required experience.

Furthermore, Ndun (2015) carried out an ethnographic study to find out the types and functions of teacher questions along with the responses of the students. Two ESL teachers each of whom had two separate classes were video recorded for eight sessions in total. In addition, a questionnaire was implemented to be able to gather data from the students. The findings of the study indicated that there was a significant difference between the number of display questions (92%) and the referential questions (8.1%). Related literature has shown that the length of students' answers is usually shorter when they are asked display questions, while it was not the case in this study. Students seemed to respond with longer

sentences when they were asked display questions. The reason might be the fact that referential questions asked by the participants were not appropriate for the level of the questions. The functions of the questions were also analyzed, and it was found that the participants mostly used questions to check students' understanding, attract their attention, manage the classroom and elicit answers.

Most studies of teacher questioning have been carried out in relation to high school and tertiary level students, while limited research has been focused on the effects of different types of teacher questions on young learners. Noor et al. (2012) investigated the questioning behaviors of four teachers from four different primary schools through classroom observations. The findings of the study were in parallel to the previous studies done in the related literature. It was revealed that most of the questions asked by the participants were display questions. It was discussed that the frequent use of display questions does not necessarily hinder learning, rather teachers should be flexible in using the different types of questions according to the aim of the lesson and the level of the students.

Moreover, Boyd (2015) examined the relationship between student talk and the use of teacher questions in an elementary class. An ELL (English Language Learning) class consisting of six students who came from different countries was observed over a year, but the data gathered from the 6-week unit were analyzed. According to the results of the study, it was concluded that even though the form of the question used by the teacher changed, they were shaped to facilitate and increase student talk. It was also stated that using follow-up questions to elaborate students' ideas and opinions enhanced learning.

Toni and Parse (2013) attempted to investigate classroom interaction in terms of teacher questions. They conducted a descriptive study through which three sessions of an EFL classroom were tape-recorded to analyze the interaction between the teacher and students. The questions used by the teacher were categorized according to the taxonomy proposed by Bloom (1956). It was found that most of the questions posed by the teacher were inference questions. It was suggested that students should be encouraged to contribute to the content of the lesson which is possible through teacher-led questions rather than teacher-centered ones.

Another study conducted by Yuksel and Yu (2008) focused on teacher questions used in literature classes, especially during discussion sessions. The participants of the study were an English literature instructor and twenty-six advanced level students who were studying

in English Education Department. The literature classes were video recorded for nine weeks and field notes were taken by the researchers. In addition, interviews with the instructor and the students were conducted to triangulate the data. The findings of the study revealed that the teacher asked many questions to help students generate ideas and answers during discussions. Students also asked questions which showed that they were genuinely interested in the task and the lesson.

2.7. Online Teaching

Several terms have been used for online teaching and learning which include e-learning, virtual learning, distance learning, and computer-based learning. According to Ally (2004), what makes teaching or learning online is students and teachers are distant and a variety of technological tools are used to reach materials, and interaction between students and teachers takes place in a virtual environment. Four characteristics of online education were listed by Paulsen (2002) as;

- the separation of teachers and learners (which distinguishes it from face-to-face education),
- the influence of an educational organization (which distinguishes it from self-study and private tutoring),
- the use of a computer network to present or distribute some educational content,
- the provision of two-way communication via a computer network so that students may benefit from communication with each other, teachers, and staff (p. 1).

Online teaching differs from traditional face-to-face teaching in many ways. According to Anderson (2008), online teaching has some challenges such as limited use of materials and tools, and lack of body language. If the teacher cannot deal with these challenges, classroom interaction and communication may be affected in a negative way. Online teaching has certain advantages and possibilities, as well. It is believed to enable students to feel more free and confident when using the target language and they feel less intimidated compared to face-to-face classes. According to Warschauer (1997), students tend to be more stressed in a traditional face-to-face classroom which may have a negative effect on classroom interaction. Furthermore, online education allows students to have access to the course materials and the teachers by participating in the lessons actively when

they cannot physically go to school because of certain restrictions or problems (Sher, 2009).

Online teaching can be either synchronous or asynchronous both of which have various features. Shahabadi and Uplane (2015) define synchronous teaching as “live, real-time (and usually scheduled), facilitated instruction and learning-oriented interaction” (p. 131). What makes online teaching synchronous is that the teacher and the students are present on an online platform at the same time to conduct the lesson according to a schedule. The term ‘virtual classrooms’ has also been used to refer to synchronous online teaching. Students and teachers have the opportunity to interact with the help of an interactive whiteboard, power-point presentations, shared documents, and audio through virtual classrooms.

Martin et al. (2012) investigated the interaction patterns in a virtual classroom through a questionnaire applied to 21 students and an interview with their instructor. In addition, three sessions of the online classroom were analyzed. The results of the study revealed that the tools and activities used in the virtual classroom enhanced classroom interaction. Furthermore, certain advantages and disadvantages of the virtual classroom were summarized as a result of the questionnaire and the interview. Being able to revise the lesson as it was recorded, accessibility of the classroom materials, and receiving immediate feedback were considered as the benefits of the virtual classroom, while having technical problems related to the internet connection, webcam and microphone, and feeling uncomfortable in an online environment were the disadvantages.

Moreover, Falloon (2012) carried out a study to find out students’ perceptions on virtual classrooms and the factors which affect the use of online platform effectively. Screen recordings of the online classes, semi-structured interviews, and an online questionnaire were used as data collection tools. The study included twenty-two university students and their instructor. It was found that students had difficulties in adjusting to online education and they did not know how to use online tools effectively. Thus, it was suggested that there should be a guideline or training sessions prior to online classes so that students would not feel confused. It was also concluded that interaction in virtual classrooms would be effective if the teachers or instructors made the necessary preparations and arrangements.

Li (2016) attempted to examine students’ online English learning experiences. To this end, a questionnaire was applied to 221 university students who were taking their English courses online. The results of the study showed that the students found online classes more

convenient even if the classes usually consisted of more than fifty students. In addition, it was revealed that there might be some problems related to classroom interaction during online classes. Some students stated that when the teacher asked a question, they were supposed to type their answers which took a while and the teacher sometimes moved on to the next question before they could type their responses.

Similarly, Yang and Cornelius (2004) carried out a study to find out students' perceptions towards online education. The study included three students who received online courses. Two sessions were recorded and two interviews were conducted with each of the participants to collect the data. The findings were divided into two categories as positive and negative experiences of the students. The positive sides of online courses were that they were flexible, cost-efficient, and easily accessible, whereas lack of technical support, delayed feedback provided by the instructor, inefficient design of the course content, and lack of self-motivation were the negative sides according to the participants. The researchers suggest that instructors should be aware of the responsibility they have in an online class and design their lessons considering the needs of the students.

According to Ni (2013), it is crucial for teachers to make the necessary adjustments to create an online environment which supports classroom interaction. She attempted to compare face-to-face and online education in terms of classroom interaction. Three online and three face-to-face classes of *The Research Methods* course taught by the same instructor were analyzed and students' performance records were examined by the researcher. The findings showed that the academic performances of the students did not differ significantly when the mode of instruction changed. However, it was found that students were more eager to participate and the efficiency of classroom interaction increased in the online classes.

Furthermore, Smith (2013) conducted a quasi-experimental study to find out the differences between online and face-to-face teaching. While the experimental group had one online class along with two face-to-face classes, the focus group only had three face-to-face classes. The data was collected through the analysis of students' exam results, an online survey, and a reflection blog written by the teacher. No significant difference was found between the two groups in terms of their academic performances. However, the perceptions of the students in the experimental group towards learning were more positive than the focus group. It was concluded that online teaching could be as efficient as face-to-face teaching.

Yalavaç and Samur (2016) also investigated the students' and teachers' perceptions of online classes. 204 middle school students and 21 teachers who taught different courses like English, maths, and Turkish participated in the study. The students received online revisions of the topics they covered face-to-face within large groups after school. The data were collected through classroom observations, a survey, and interviews conducted with both the students and the teachers. In contrast to earlier findings, it was revealed that online classes after school were not favored by both the teachers and the students. The crowded sessions, poor lesson content, using only one source of teaching which was using presentations, and lack of interaction were the main reasons why online classes were not found effective by the participants.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Presentation

This part of the thesis gives detailed information about the research context, participants, and design of the study. In addition, the data collection instruments which are classroom observations and semi-structured interviews with the participants and data analysis process are explained. Lastly, ethical considerations are presented along with the trustworthiness of the current study.

3.2. Research Design of the Study

Each research study has a research design which can be defined as “a type of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design” (Creswell, 2014, p. 12). The determinant factor while deciding on the right research design needs to be the research problems and questions asked to refer to the problem (Ibid). This study addressed to the following questions:

1. What types of questions based on Long & Sato’s taxonomy (echoic and epistemic questions) are mainly used by the instructors in online EFL classes?
2. What is the frequency of procedural questions (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) posed by the instructors in their online classes?
3. Based on classroom observations, what is the impact of display and referential questions on student participation?
4. What are the instructors’ perceptions towards their use of different types of teacher questions in online EFL classes

The current study was designed as a case study since the main aim was to draw conclusions from observed lessons in their natural settings and interviews conducted with the instructors. A case study can be defined as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in-depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2003, p. 13). There are certain advantages of case studies according to Adelman et al. (1976) which can be summarized as:

- Case studies are relatable to the readers as they can reflect on their own experiences through the findings and the research problems,
- Collection of data presented through case studies allow other researchers to reinterpret it for future studies,
- Pedagogical implications of case studies can be used for staff or self-development.

In addition, Dörnyei (2007) states that case studies have some strengths like providing detailed and comprehensive understanding of a social phenomenon, enabling researchers to interpret the social events around them, discovering unknown aspects of the investigated issue or the problem, and developing new hypotheses. When conducting case studies, it is essential for the researcher to be able to “ask good questions and interpret the answers, be a good listener, be flexible and adaptive, have a firm grasp of the issues being studies and be unbiased by preconceived notions” (Yin, 2003, p. 59).

Johnson (1992) claims that “the purpose of case study is to understand the complexity and dynamic nature of the particular entity, and to discover systematic connections among experiences, behaviors, and relevant features of the context” (p. 84). Thus, multiple sources can be used for data collection when conducting case studies which should be appropriate for the research questions and the context. As Creswell (2007) puts forward, a case study contains information from several sources like classroom observations, interviews with the participants, audio recordings, documents which allow the researcher to gain data for the study, and student reports. It is essential to collect data from multiple sources in qualitative studies, which allows the researcher to make inferences about the phenomenon.

3.3. Research Context

With regard to the Council of Higher Education in Turkey, students are obligated to receive one-year English language education provided that 30% of the courses are offered in English in their universities, which means the majority of university students are required to continue learning English as a foreign language at least for a year. This study takes place in the preparatory school of a foundation university in Ankara. The preparatory program is compulsory since the departmental courses of the students are conducted in English. In the beginning of the academic term, the students are required to take the proficiency exam prepared by the Department of Foreign Languages, which is used to determine their proficiency levels in English. According to the results of the exam, the students are divided into two groups as low and middle. Low and middle groups are also divided into subgroups as LOW1, LOW2, LOW3, LOW4, LOW5, LOW6 and MID1, MID2, MID3, MID4. Based on the results of the proficiency exam, numbers represent the level of the students, 1 being the highest.

The aim of the preparatory program is to equip students with the necessary skills and sub-skills of English with a schedule prepared by the Department of Foreign Languages. There are twenty-eight English sessions in a week, four of which are dedicated to speaking courses and four of them are for writing courses. Twenty hours are allocated to main English lessons in which all four skills and sub-skills are practised. The course book which is used in main English courses is the different levels of *English File* by Oxford University Press. The students in the low group start with the elementary book, while the students in the medium group start with the pre-intermediate book.

There are 20 to 22 students whose departments vary and two instructors work as partners in each class. The academic year consists of four terms, and at the end of each term students take an exam which assesses all four skills. As a result of the exam, the students are relocated to different classes. This study took place during the second term of the 2020-2021 academic year.

3.3.1. Participants

In the current study, two LOW2 classes and one LOW3 class were observed online. Convenience sampling is applied in the process of determining the participants of the study since it is easier and more advantageous for the researcher to collect data due to the

accessibility of the subject, which could be a problem, especially because of COVID-19 restrictions. The main participants of the study are three English instructors who are responsible for three separate low-level classes. All three participants are female and Turkish. They all started working at the above-mentioned university at the beginning of the 2020-2021 academic year. Pseudonyms will be used for each participant.

Melda is 26 years old and has been an English teacher for three and a half years. She majored in English Language Teaching at a state university in Turkey and graduated in 2017. Right after her graduation, she taught English to young learners at a private institution. Then, she decided to work with university students and started working as a part-time instructor at a foundation university where she worked for two years. At the beginning of the 2020-2021 academic term, she started working at the foundation university this study takes place. She is currently doing her master's degree in Cognitive Science at a state university in Turkey.

Hande is 30 years old, and she has been teaching English for six and a half years. She studied English Language Teaching at a state university in Turkey and graduated in 2014. After she completed her bachelor's degree, she worked as an English instructor at a foundation university in Turkey for five years. While she was working as an instructor, she completed her master's degree in Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language at a state university. She started working at the current university in the beginning of the 2020-2021 academic term. She is also a PhD student in the department of Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language.

Sinem is 26 and she has been teaching English for four and a half years. She completed her bachelor's degree in English Language Teaching at a state university in Turkey. After she graduated from university, she worked as an instructor at a foundation university in Istanbul. Then, she started teaching at a private school where she taught English to kids whose ages varied from 7 to 13. After working there for a year, she worked as a part-time instructor at a foundation university in Ankara for two years. She has been working at the current university since the beginning of the 2020-2021 academic term. She is also doing her master's degree in English Language Teaching at a state university in Ankara.

There are 20 students in Sinem and Hande's classes while there are 21 students in Melda's class. In total, there are 61 students in the current study. Furthermore, the students in Sinem and Hande's classes will study at the departments like Engineering, Medicine and Dentistry. However, the students in Melda's class will study at the social sciences

departments like Gastronomy, Psychology and International Relations after they complete the preparatory program (Table 2).

Table 2

Student Profile in the Observed Classes

Class Name	Female Students	Male Students	Department
LOW2-A	14	7	Social Sciences
LOW2-B	12	8	Engineering/Medicine
LOW3	14	6	Engineering/Medicine

3.4. Data Collection

Data collection through multiple sources is important in case studies since it allows the researcher to obtain rich data to analyze instead of relying on only one source (Creswell, 2014). For this purpose, online classroom observations were used for the main data collection in the current study. In addition, semi-structured interviews with the instructors were conducted to have a deeper understanding of the questioning practices of the participants.

3.4.1. Online Classroom Observations

Due to the restrictions which the outbreak of COVID-19 caused, the students and the instructors meet online to conduct EFL lessons instead of meeting in traditional face-to-face classes. As a part of the program, the preparatory students at the mentioned university attend six sessions of English lessons every weekday except Fridays. They have four sessions on Fridays and each session lasts 45 minutes.

The online platform which is used for online classes is called *Microsoft Teams*. All the students and the instructors have *Teams* accounts which allows them to attend the online classes scheduled by the administration. The instructors' webcams and microphones are always turned on while they are lecturing. The students' webcams are also expected to be always turned on, but their microphones are turned off when they are not participating in the lesson or answering a question. One of the features of the platform which is used commonly by the instructors is screen sharing. They can share their screens with their students so that the students have access to the materials, presentations, and documents they need to follow the lessons. In addition, the students and the instructors can use the chat section when they want to ask or explain something in the written form. Another

feature commonly used by the instructors is the breakout rooms where students are grouped or paired, and they are supposed to do a task or answer discussion questions within their groups. The instructors visit the rooms to check on the students and give feedback to them.

Three different classrooms taught by three different instructors were recorded to collect data in the current study. All the students in each class were the same level which was pre-intermediate. Two of the classes were LOW2 and the other class was LOW3. Each instructor was asked to record their lessons according to the observation schedule which was prepared by the researcher. In total, 36 sessions, which took 27 hours of video-recording, were obtained (December in 2020). Each lesson took 45 minutes, and 12 sessions were recorded for each instructor.

Heigham and Croker (2009) point out that classroom observations are common and useful data collection instruments in qualitative studies as they allow the researchers to discover what is really happening inside the classroom. In addition, Spada (2019) states that through classroom observations, the researcher

documents pedagogical practices and procedures including the content of instruction and how it is organized and delivered. It includes descriptions of the kind of language that teachers and students use and the nature of the linguistic interactions that take place between them (p. 186).

Since the aim of the present study was to investigate instructors' questioning practices and their effects on student involvement, classroom observations were helpful to be able to analyze the classroom interaction in its natural setting.

3.4.2. Semi-structured Interviews

After completing online classroom observations, the instructors were asked to participate in semi-structured interviews to gain an understanding of their questioning practices. The rationale behind using semi-structured interviews was to have a set of questions to guide the participants, but it was also aimed to create space for the participants to elaborate on their ideas and answers (Dörnyei, 2007). Similarly, Merriam (1998) puts forward that conducting semi-structured interviews "allows the researcher to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic" (p. 74).

For the interviews conducted with the instructors, 16 open-ended questions were prepared by the researcher in parallel with the aims of the study (Appendix A). Their viewpoints and opinions about teacher questioning and its effects on students' participation in online

education were investigated through several questions which enabled them to reflect on their own teaching practices. Along with the pre-determined questions, certain follow-up questions were also asked during the interviews when necessary. The interviews were conducted online with the help of an online meeting platform which allowed the researcher to record the whole interview process.

As it is essential to make sure that the data obtained with the help of the interviews is credible, the interview questions written by the researcher were reviewed by a colleague who has been an English teacher for five years and is currently pursuing a master's degree in English Language Teaching. The questions were examined to check if there were any statements, words or phrases which might confuse the participants and cause misunderstanding during the interview process. After the questions were reviewed, necessary changes and modifications were made, and the final version of the questions were directed to the participants. Table 3 presents the durations of the semi-structured interviews for the participants.

Table 3

Durations of the Semi-structured Interviews

Participant	Interview Durations
Sinem	34 minutes
Melda	34 minutes
Hande	30 minutes

3.5. Data Analysis

The main aim of the study was to determine what types of questions were mostly used by the EFL instructors in their online classes and their impacts on student participation. The questions asked during the recorded lessons were categorized mainly based on the taxonomy proposed by Long & Sato (1983). In addition, one type of question was taken from the framework proposed by Richards & Lockhart (1996). For the analysis of the semi-structured interviews, the procedures proposed by Creswell (2013) was followed and structural coding by Saldaña (2009) was applied for the transcriptions.

3.5.1. Analysis of the Classroom Recordings

In total, 36 online English sessions were recorded, and they were transcribed by the researcher focusing on the classroom interaction, turn-takings, and question-answer orders. The attention was given to the questions which were asked by the instructors and how the

students responded to them. All the questions posed by the instructors were categorized with the help of the taxonomies proposed by Long & Sato (1983) and Richards & Lockhart (1996).

The main classification system used for this study was the one developed by Long & Sato (1983). There are two main question types which are echoic and epistemic questions. Echoic questions are divided into three as comprehension checks (e.g. Does everyone understand “polite?”), clarification requests (e.g. What do you mean?), and confirmation checks (e.g. Did you say “he?”). Epistemic questions are divided into four categories as referential (e.g. Why didn’t you do your homework?), display (e.g. What is the opposite of “up” in English?), expressive (e.g. It’s interesting the different pronunciations we have now, isn’t it?), and rhetorical (e.g. Why did I do that?). According to the taxonomy proposed by Richards & Lockhart (1996), there are three types of teacher questions which are procedural questions (e.g. Can you all read what I’ve written on the board?), convergent questions (e.g. How many of you have a personal computer in your home?), and divergent questions (e.g. What are the best ways of promoting the use of computers in education?). Since convergent and divergent questions are similar to display and referential questions, only procedural questions which were not mentioned in the framework by Long & Sato (1983) were taken as a new category in this study.

After completing the transcriptions of the recorded online lessons of each instructor, the questions were detected and the number of the different types of questions were shown with the help of tables and charts. Discourse analysis was used to analyze the classroom interaction and question-answer sequences which occurred in the online lessons. Buchanan Hill (2016) defines questions as “any sentence having either an interrogative form or an interrogative function” (p. 660). Thus, not only the question forms, but also the sentences whose aim was to pose a question to the students usually used with rising intonation were also taken into consideration while analyzing the data. Furthermore, the instructors sometimes made use of Turkish while asking their questions. The Turkish questions were also included and analyzed by the researcher. However, mechanic exercises in the book were excluded and they were not analyzed as teacher questions.

To interpret the impact of display and referential questions on student participation based on classroom recordings, the analysis of students’ responses to those questions was done through a classification system adopted from Ndun (2015). The number of the students who answered the questions voluntarily and the ones who responded all together was

presented. In addition, the attention was given to the number of the students who were called on by the instructor to answer a particular question. Lastly, the questions answered by the instructors themselves and left unanswered were examined.

3.5.2. Discourse Analysis

Sert (2015) defines classroom discourse as various interaction patterns occurring via verbal and nonverbal communication which depends on the classroom environment and its context. According to Parsons (2017), classroom discourse is managed by the instructors or teachers by asking questions, answering students' questions, and communicating with the students. Thus, classroom discourse is one of the most important components of teaching, especially in EFL classrooms.

Discourse Analysis (DA) is one of the main approaches used for analyzing interaction (Levinson, 1983). Cook (1990) defines discourse analysis as "how stretches of language, considered in their full textual, social, and psychological context, become meaningful and unified for their users" (p. 3). The authentic language in its natural setting is examined through discourse analysis. The main focus of the researchers is not only the linguistic forms of a language, but also social context of it while analyzing discourse. According to Duvall (2016), discourse analysis serves the purpose of investigating the social environment in which learning and teaching take place. Heigham and Crocker (2009) state that through discourse analysis, it is possible to "generate rich, contextualized description of language use in a particular setting" (p. 246).

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) introduced a discourse analysis approach to examine classroom interaction which is shaped by the IRF pattern. The frequently used pattern in classroom discourse is teacher initiating the lesson by asking questions and students respond to them. They suggested that there were certain moves in classroom interaction and explained how these worked through IRF Model. "I" stands for "Initiation" by the teacher, "R" is for "Response" by the student and "F" stands for "Feedback" by the teacher again. The discourse analysis model developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) is a hierarchical system describing the units of discourse (Figure 2). Each unit above comprises the ones which are below them. In this regard, the smallest unit is acts and the largest one is lesson. Moves are made up of acts, both of which form exchange. Then, transaction comprises all three which are below. Lesson which is the largest unit consists of transactions.

As presented in the IRF model, classroom discourse is dominated by question-answer sequences initiated by the teacher. According to Walsh (2011), the discourse analysis system proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) is highly dependent on this pattern which is common in traditional language classrooms. The lesson includes the exchanges and transactions mostly occurring between the teacher and the students through questions asked for elicitation purposes.

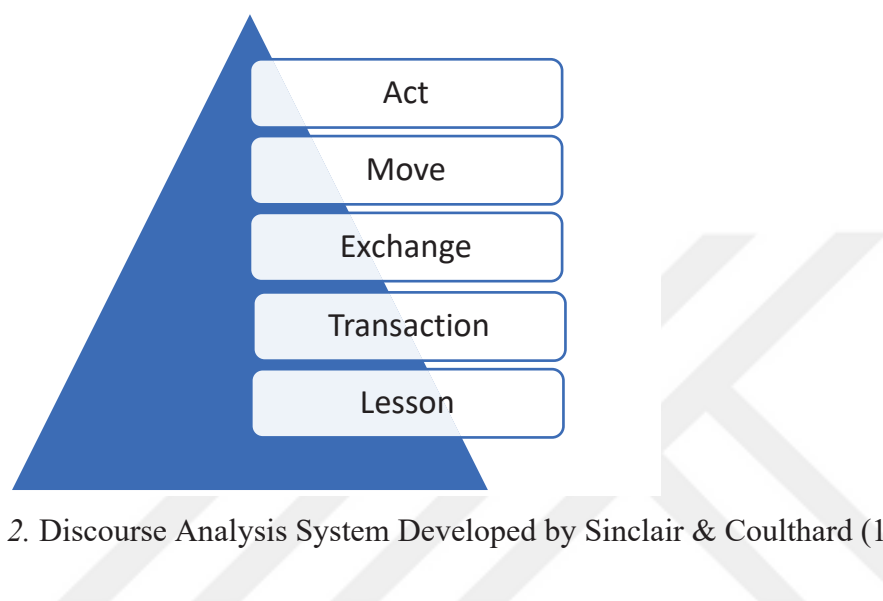


Figure 2. Discourse Analysis System Developed by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975)

Discourse Analysis is mostly done in line with the pre-determined and explicit categories. Since the main aim of the current study was to examine the types of questions which were classified according to the taxonomies proposed by Long & Sato (1983) and Richards & Lockhart (1996), discourse analysis was adopted to be able to make interpretations of the data gathered through online classroom recordings of the participants (Appendix B).

3.5.3. Analysis of the Semi-Structured Interviews

The semi-structured interviews were conducted with three instructors in English. After recording the interviews done with the instructors, they were transcribed by the researcher. Analysis of the transcriptions was done with the help of a computer program named MAXQDA. It is one of the most commonly used software programs to analyze and organize qualitative data. It allows the researcher to examine the data in detail with the help of various features such as visualizing and analyzing the transcriptions systematically to generate themes, categories, and codes.

The interviews conducted with the instructors were analyzed, which resulted in various codes. As for the analysis of the semi-structured interviews, the steps proposed by

Creswell (2014) was followed (Figure 3). In this line, after completing the transcriptions of the interview recordings, they were read carefully, and certain margin notes were taken. The next step involved creating the codes which were not pre-determined, but they emerged during the analysis of the data. Structural coding was employed to generate the codes (Saldaña, 2009). According to Saldaña (2009), structural coding would be particularly appropriate for interview analysis which enables the researcher to draw conclusions based on a specific research question. As it is stated by MacQueen et al. (1998), “structural coding generally results in the identification of large segments of text on broad topics; these segments can then form the basis for an in-depth analysis within or across topic” (p. 33).

As for the next step, themes and categories were formed related to the generated codes (Appendix C). Upon creating the related categories and themes, they were described, and certain quotations of the participants’ answers were used to elaborate on the codes and themes. Lastly, the data gathered through interviews were interpreted and discussed in a detailed way.

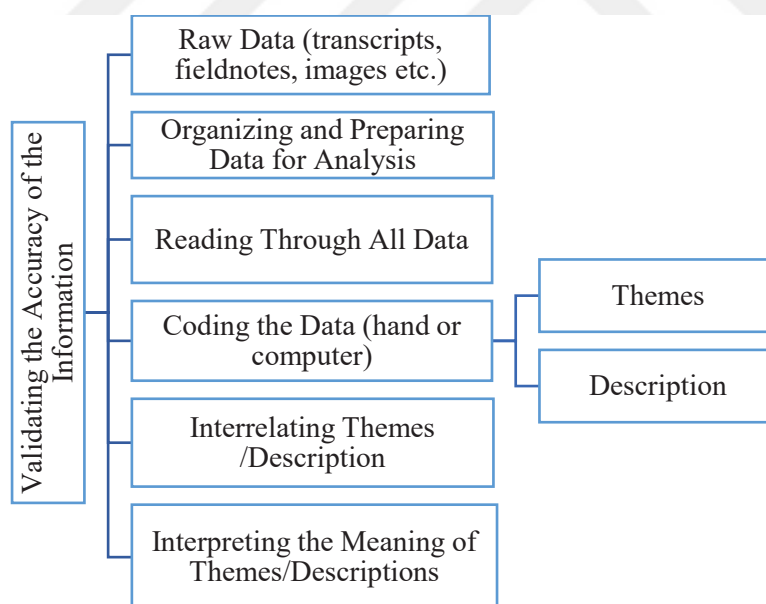


Figure 3. Data analysis in qualitative research (Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE)

It was aimed to find out the instructors’ perceptions towards their use of different types of teacher questions in their online lessons through semi-structured interviews. In order to present their ideas, the frequency of the codes and direct quotations from the participants’ answers were provided.

3.6. Trustworthiness and Ethical Concerns

In the current study, classroom recordings and the semi-structured interviews with the instructors were used for data collection which enabled the researcher to draw conclusions from different perspectives and sources. Furthermore, before analyzing the results of the interviews done with the instructors, member checking was applied in order to enhance the credibility of the findings. The participants were asked to check the transcriptions of the interviews so that they could affirm the validity of the information gained. They were also requested to review the overall themes and codes to ensure that the interpretations were made correctly. According to Creswell & Miller (2000, p. 127) ‘the participants add credibility to the qualitative study by having a chance to react to both the data and the final narrative’ through member checking. In addition, the findings related to students’ responses to display and referential questions were discussed with a colleague who completed her master’s degree in English Language Teaching to diminish the researcher bias.

Moreover, the administration of the preparatory school was contacted, and necessary permissions were taken before data collection process. The purpose and scope of the study was explained, and the data collection process was described by the researcher (Appendix D). The school administration was ensured that the name of the university would not be used in the study. In addition, consent forms were delivered to the participants to inform them about the purpose of the study (Appendix E). The process of data collection was also explained through consent forms. The names of the participants were not used in the study. Instead, numbers and pseudonyms were used to ensure the privacy of the participants. Lastly, the participants were ensured that the recordings of the online lessons and interviews would be kept private.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Presentation

This chapter presents the findings of the study with respect to each research question. First, the overall numbers of the questions and the types of teacher questions which were asked in recorded lessons are shown. Secondly, the effects of display and referential questions on students' participation are explained. Lastly, instructors' perceptions towards their own questioning practices in their online lessons are stated.

4.2. The Overall Number of Teacher Questions

The number of the questions asked by the instructors differed in each lesson according to the objectives, requirements of the lesson, and the needs of the students. The overall number of the teacher questions used by each instructor can be seen in Table 4. Hande was the one who asked the most questions. Even though there was not a significant difference between the number of the questions asked by Melda and Sinem, the number of the questions used by Melda was the least in total of 12 online English sessions.

Table 4

Total Number of the Questions Posed by the Participants

Participant	Number of the Questions
Sinem	508
Melda	502
Hande	620
<i>Total</i>	<i>1630</i>

4.2.1. The Number of Eight Question Types in the Recorded Lessons

The online lessons were analyzed and transcribed by the researcher. After thorough examination of each question which was asked by the participants, the questions were categorized. The analysis of the questions was based on seven question types from the taxonomy proposed by Long and Sato (1983) and one question type from the framework suggested by Richards and Lockart (1996) for the research questions provided below.

RQ1: What types of questions based on Long & Sato's taxonomy (echoic and epistemic questions) are mainly used by the instructors in online EFL classes?

RQ2: What is the frequency of procedural questions (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) posed by the instructors in their online classes?

The analysis of the classroom recordings revealed that epistemic questions (display, referential, expressive, and rhetorical questions) were predominantly used by all the participants in their online English classes. Echoic questions (confirmation check, comprehension check, and clarification request questions) were used slightly more than procedural questions. The overall number of the different types of questions asked by the instructors can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5

The Overall Number of Eight Types of Questions Posed by the Instructors

Question types	<i>n</i>
QT1 (comprehension check)	140
QT2 (clarification request)	46
QT3 (confirmation check)	93
<i>Echoic questions</i>	<i>279</i>
QT4 (referential)	368
QT5 (display)	680
QT6 (expressive)	12
QT7 (rhetorical)	50
<i>Epistemic questions</i>	<i>1110</i>
Procedural questions	241
<i>Total</i>	<i>1630</i>

The total number of the echoic questions was 279. Among this group, the most frequently used questions by the instructors were comprehension check questions ($n=140$). Confirmation check questions ($n=93$) followed it, and the least used question type was clarification request questions ($n=46$). Among epistemic questions, display questions ($n=680$) outnumbered the other types of questions. It was followed by referential ($n=368$),

rhetorical ($n=50$) and expressive questions ($n=12$), respectively. Lastly, the number of the procedural questions was 246 which is 15,05% of the total number of all questions posed by the instructors during 36 sessions (Figure 4).

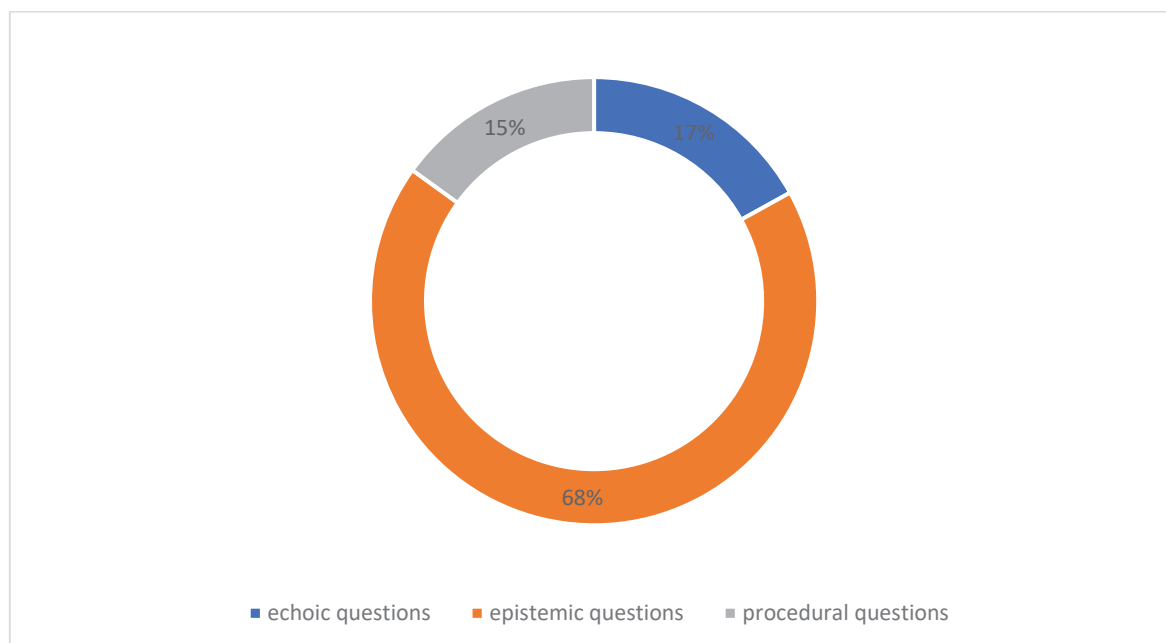


Figure 4. EFL instructors use of teacher questions in the recorded online lessons

4.3. Distribution of the Question Types Asked by the Participants in Twelve Lessons

As seen in Table 5, overall number of display questions was more than other types of questions, and expressive questions were the least used question type by the participants. However, the number of the questions asked by each instructor and the types of those questions differed in each lesson. The detailed distribution of the question types for each lesson conducted by the participants is given below.

4.3.1. Question Types Used in Sinem's Online Lessons

The most frequently used question type by Sinem was display questions ($n=209$). They were usually asked as a part of grammar rules, course book activities, or vocabulary exercises. It was followed by referential questions ($n=93$), and they were mainly used at the beginning of the lesson or as follow-up questions to make students participate more. Referential questions were followed by procedural questions ($n=91$) which were mostly used for technical problems which occurred as a result of online education and for classroom procedures. Comprehension check ($n=41$), confirmation check ($n=34$), rhetorical ($n=23$), clarification request questions ($n=11$), and expressive ($n=6$) questions

followed referential questions, respectively. As seen in table 6, these types of questions were not used at all in some lessons by Sinem while she used display, referential and procedural questions in all lessons.

Table 6

Distribution of the Questions Types in Sinem's Online Lessons

L	QT1	QT2	QT3	QT4	QT5	QT6	QT7	Procedural
L1	3	-	2	6	16	-	2	11
L2	-	-	11	32	2	2	3	12
L3	5	1	9	6	18	-	-	3
L4	6	1	3	6	23	1	3	12
L5	2	-	1	4	36	-	-	14
L6	4	1	-	3	26	-	6	3
L7	2	-	1	16	19	-	1	2
L8	4	5	-	9	6	3	2	7
L9	1	1	2	2	13	-	2	9
L10	5	1	2	1	14	-	3	4
L11	4	1	3	4	16	-	1	8
L12	5	-	-	4	20	-	-	6
<i>Total</i>	<i>41</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>34</i>	<i>93</i>	<i>209</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>23</i>	<i>91</i>

4.3.2. Question Types Used in Melda's Online Lessons

Display questions ($n=210$) were the most frequent question types used in Melda's lessons. They were mainly used to make students recall given information, for the activities in the course book, and vocabulary check. Like Sinem, Melda used referential questions ($n=122$) more frequently than procedural questions ($n=84$), however; the difference between the number of those questions was higher in Melda's class as seen in Table 7. While display and procedural questions were used in all lessons, referential questions were not used in one lesson. Procedural questions were followed by comprehension check ($n=39$), confirmation check ($n=25$), clarification request ($n=12$), rhetorical ($n=7$), and expressive questions ($n=3$), respectively. Comprehension questions were used in all lessons; however, confirmation check, clarification request, rhetorical and expressive were asked only in some lessons.

Table 7

Distribution of the Question Types in Melda's Online Lessons

L	QT1	QT2	QT3	QT4	QT5	QT6	QT7	Procedural
L1	6	-	1	3	17	-	-	12
L2	4	1	3	34	24	1	-	5
L3	3	1	6	1	17	-	1	10
L4	10	1	2	12	14	1	-	7
L5	4	3	3	22	12	-	-	7
L6	1	1	2	3	14	-	3	5
L7	2	-	1	4	20	-	-	10
L8	1	1	2	3	18	-	1	9
L9	1	1	-	14	8	-	1	5
L10	3	-	1	16	31	-	1	6
L11	2	1	2	10	28	1	-	1
L12	2	2	2	-	7	-	-	7
<i>Total</i>	<i>39</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>25</i>	<i>122</i>	<i>210</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>84</i>

4.3.3. Question Types Used in Hande's Online Lessons

The most frequently used question type was display questions ($n=261$) in Hande's online classes like in Sinem and Melda's classes. The purpose of display questions was mostly to check if students can remember certain information, make them complete the activities and exercises in the course book. Display questions were followed by referential questions ($n=153$) which was also the case in other participants' classes. Procedural questions ($n=65$) were the third frequently used question type in Hande's classes. They were mainly used for technical problems since the lessons were held online and for classroom routines. Unlike in Melda and Sinem's classes, echoic questions (comprehension check, clarification request, confirmation check) were used in all lessons. Procedural questions were followed by comprehension check ($n=60$), confirmation check ($n=34$), clarification request ($n=23$), rhetorical ($n=20$), and expressive questions ($n=3$), respectively. Expressive questions were the least used question types in all the participants' online lessons.

Table 8

Distribution of the Question Types in Hande's Online Lessons

L	QT1	QT2	QT3	QT4	QT5	QT6	QT7	Procedural
L1	5	2	2	6	18	-	3	8
L2	4	3	2	3	13	-	-	6
L3	5	1	4	17	37	1	-	14
L4	3	1	5	16	30	-	3	5
L5	7	3	2	10	33	-	3	2
L6	4	1	3	14	22	1	1	4
L7	7	1	2	11	11	-	3	6
L8	6	2	1	33	17	-	1	5
L9	7	3	6	6	31	-	2	9
L10	4	2	5	13	24	-	3	1
L11	6	1	1	2	10	1	1	3
L12	2	3	1	22	15	-	-	3
<i>Total</i>	<i>60</i>	<i>23</i>	<i>34</i>	<i>153</i>	<i>261</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>66</i>

4.4. Examples of Eight Question Types in the Recorded Lessons

As discussed above, the distribution of each question type was different for each participant. While certain question types were used in all lessons, some of them were not used at all by the participants. Although the type of the question posed by the instructors was the same, the context, the language they used, and students' responses differed in the observed lessons. Thus, each type of question was exemplified and examined in detail below through the extracts taken from classroom observations.

QT1 – Comprehension Check Questions

According to Long and Sato's taxonomy (1983), echoic questions are divided into three which are comprehension check, clarification request, and confirmation check questions. Comprehension check questions are used to see if the students understand given information by the teacher. Extracts taken from each participant's lessons are provided below.

Extract 1 (Participant 1)

P1: Chinese invented guns. This is my active sentence.

S12: Can we say the?

P1: Yes, the Chinese. Is that clear?

S1: Why do we use the?

P1: The people in China. Oradaki insanlara refer etmek için diyorduk ya.

S12: Maybe some of the Chinese people invented that. We don't know.

P1: Onu bilmiyoruz zaten.

S12: O zaman niye tek kişi gibi kabul ediyoruz?

P1: Tek kişi değil, Çinliler diyoruz burada.

The instructor explains the passive structure and they are checking example sentences in their course book. She says that 'the' can be used for nationalities. Then, she checks if it is understood. One of the students is confused and asks the reason and the participant explains that 'the' can be used to refer to the people. Even if both the student and the instructor used English to ask their questions, the explanation was done in Turkish. The reason might be to make sure that the student understood why 'the' is used with nationalities.

Extract 2 – (Participant 2)

S11: What does certainly mean?

T: Certainly, for sure, absolutely.

S11: Okay, thank you.

T: Any question? Anything you didn't understand?

S6: No.

T: Cool, let me open this one. We will start unit 8.

One of the students asks a question about a word they have talked about as a part of the activity in their course book. After explaining the word, the participant wants to make sure that there is no other question related to this part before starting the new unit. Thus, she asks if the students have any questions or a part they did not understand. One of the students says no and the participant continues with the rest of the lesson. However, students sometimes leave these kinds of questions unanswered as can be seen below.

Extract 3 (Participant 2)

T: Yes, meeting Holly. She says like you can go and meet Holly. She's a bit jealous. The last and happiest question ever, who is Rob interested in: Holly or Jenny? (display)

S9: Jenny

S11: Of course Jenny.

T: It is Jenny. He also says I came to New York because of you. Any questions here?

(no answer)

T: Okay. Let's play Kahoot. We will see present perfect or past simple. Let's play it. There are a few questions. You can log in.

The participant asks if anyone has any questions, but no one answers. The participant interprets this silence as 'there is no question' and proceeds to the next stage in her lesson plan.

Extract 4 (Participant 3)

T: Did you understand tip three?

S11: No.

T: What is escape? Escape from reality (singing), what is it?

S11: I know, but I cannot explain in English.

T: On the keyboard, there is esc button. Do you know, on the left top corner of the keyboard? Do you know what is a keyboard? (trying to show the keyboard) The top bottom is esc, did you understand?

A few students: Yes, teacher.

T: What is the function of that button? It means 'escape'. Escape means 'get out'. It means you need have a situation that you cannot get out and you have to speak English. Did you understand what is that tip?

S8: Biraz anladım hocam.

T: Can you explain without Turkish?

S8: Ne söylesem yanlış olacak gibi hissettim.

T: It's okay, make mistakes please.

The participant shows a video which provides tips for speaking English effectively. She tries to check if the students understood tip three and one of the students responds saying 'no'. Instead of explaining the tip herself, she tries to elicit the answer from the student by giving examples and providing extra information and she even sings. Then, she checks if

the student understood by asking the comprehension question and requesting her to explain what she understood by using only English.

QT2 – Clarification Request Questions

Clarification request questions are used when what has been said is not understood and clarification is needed. The person who does not understand usually asks for repetition or simply says that s/he does not understand what has been said. In the observed lessons, most of the clarification request questions were asked because of technical issues like internet connection or microphone problems. However, they were also used when the participants did not understand exactly what the students meant.

Extract 1 (Participant 1)

It's 45, let's have a ten-minute break. We will do this part and start our speaking assignment.

S5: Hocam bugün official ders olacak mı?

T: Official ders?

S5: Öyle bir şey dediniz sanki.

T: Office hours. Sorularınız varsa cevaplayabilirim dedim.

At the end of the lesson, one of the students asks a question about the instructor's office hours; however, he does not use the correct word. Thus, the instructor cannot understand what he means and she asks him to clarify what he has said by repeating the phrase.

Extract 2 (Participant 2)

T: Okay, you looked at the questions and you talked about them. How many did you get correct? How many did you get correct among all of them?

S9: I think one.

T: What?

S9: I got one.

The instructor simply cannot hear what the student has said and she wants him to repeat what he has said with a clarification request question.

Extract 3 (Participant 2)

S11: Jenny is happy because Central Park is favorite place in New York.

T: Can you say it again?

S11: Jenny's happy because Central Park is favorite place in New York.

T: It's her favorite place, right? So, she is enjoying it.

In this extract, it can be seen that the clarification request question was used for a different purpose. The student forgets to use 'her' in the sentence, so the instructor tries to make her repeat what she has said to see her mistake. Then, she uses the correct way herself.

Extract 4 (Participant 3)

T: Is there anybody who is a fan of the Simpsons?

S18: It's a little bit different.

T: What do you mean?

S18: Some of things happening in real life.

T: They are like fortune tellers. Fortune telling with Turkish coffee. They see the future. They are really creepy because of that.

The instructor asks if anyone likes and watches *The Simpsons* and one of the students answers the question in an unclear way. Thus, the instructor wants him to clarify what he means by his comment. Then, he explains what he has meant, and they start having a short conversation about *The Simpsons*.

Extract 5 (Participant 3)

S15: Hocam, lantern'in üçüncü hali neydi?

T: That's noun. Light is the verb.

S15: Lanterns (cannot be heard)

T: I can't hear you, can you say it again?

S15: Are lit at Mid-Autumn Festivals.

T: Exactly, lanterns are these lights.

Like in extract 2, sometimes it cannot be heard what the student says because of a technical issue, so the instructor asks a clarification request question to be able to understand what the student is saying. It was observed that these kinds of problems occurred during online

lessons commonly, which required the participants to use clarification request questions in their classes.

QT3 – Confirmation Check Questions

Confirmation check questions are mainly used when information is provided by the students and the teacher tries to make sure if s/he understands them correctly. Mostly, question tags or repetition of what the speaker has said are used.

Extract 1 (Participant 1)

T: Tamam 8b hiç yok. Okay then. Here we will talk about Murphy's law actually. So what's Murphy's law, do you have any idea?

S4: I know this. Everyone goes wrong.

T: Everything goes wrong you say?

S4: Evet.

S6: I think I know it. For example, you are driving and this is traffic. There is one line who, a lot of people can go fluently and you go to this line and this line will be traffic. But, for example when you go to the another line it wasn't... I cannot explain actually.

Here, the student uses 'everyone' when she is supposed to use 'everything'. The instructor uses a confirmation check question in order to present her the correct way. In a way, she repeats what she has just said by correcting her mistake.

Extract 2 (Participant 1)

T: Let's look at here. Look at these four sentences. You can also find them here on this article. Here, look at them and try to complete them. Here, guess this word. What can be this word?

S6: I think, we completed it.

T: You did it?

S6: Yes, we did it.

T: Good. Any other answer for this?

S7: I think it depends. I can be, I can spend 10 minutes but If important meeting, if it's important meeting, it can be one hour.

T: One hour?

S7: Yeah.

T: So, you, you know, try on shoes, try on some accessories. Yes. But if you are going to buy bread, to the you know market, then you can go out with your pajamas.

The instructor uses two confirmation check questions. The first one is used to be sure that the students completed the part in the book so that she could proceed to the next activity. The second one is also used to be sure what the student has said is understood correctly, but the instructor is also surprised to hear the student's answer. Thus, she repeats the student's answer to check what she has heard was right and express her surprise.

Extract 3 (Participant 2)

T: Spider, these are sea animals. Marry, separate, divorce, retire.

S5: Marry.

T: It's retire because these are all about a partner.

S5: Ben öyle düşünmedim tamam.

T: You thought about leaving, right?

S5: Aynen.

The students are supposed to do an odd-one-out activity. One of the students does one of the questions differently and the instructor asks a confirmation check question to see if she understands what the student has thought.

Extract 4 (Participant 3)

T: Do you remember any words that you remember from Harry Potter?

S12: I cannot remember teacher because I seen long time before.

T: It's been a long time?

S12: Yes

T: Alright, maybe you learnt spells – like vingardium leviosa.

S12: Yes an etc.

T: They also actually have like ridiculous. Ridiculous is actually an English word.

In this extract, they talk about Harry Potter and the teacher asks a question about the movie. The student answers, but there is a small grammatical mistake, so the instructor asks for confirmation by repeating what she has said with correct grammar.

Extract 5 (Participant 3)

T: But here we only have pronoun. Which one?

S10: Second.

T: I don't understand.

S10: Second.

T: Do you say second?

S10: Yes.

T: Others, what do you think?

S14: I think first one.

T: Why?

S14: We use get with on. It is rule I think.

As mentioned before, even though a sentence does not have a question form, it is regarded as a question if it has an interrogative function. Here, the instructor says 'I don't understand' which is actually a request for clarification. The student repeats what she has said, but the teacher tries to be sure if she understands correctly. Thus, she simply asks if the student has said 'second'.

QT4 – Referential Questions

Referential questions are asked when the teacher does not know the answer. These kinds of questions make students think more and there is not only one correct answer. It can vary from student to student.

Extract 1 (Participant 1)

T: Have you ever tried to learn something new and you failed? Do you have any experience?

S12: I tried to learn German language, but I couldn't.

T: That's the example that I will give. In high school and university I had German lessons, but I couldn't learn and then I just quit. Any other?

S4: I was trying to learn play guitar then but my hands hurt then I break up.

T: Then you quit. Are you planning to start again?

S4: No

T: So your hand more important than learning guitar

S4: Of course

The instructor asks the students if they have tried to learn something and failed, and the answer for this question is different for each student. It can be seen that even if one student answers the question, she keeps asking it to give more students a chance to share something about their own life. She also asks follow-up questions which is most likely to happen in a real-life interaction.

Extract 2 (Participant 2)

T: Did you watch the movie?

S16: Hocam Hidden Figures izleyecektik değil mi?

T: Yes, exactly.

S16: Ben izledim.

T: How was it? (referential)

S16: It's nice, I like it.

T: What do you think about the situation there? Is it an inspiring story for you?

S16: Yes, it's very inspiring and the whole story was true. It was very amazing I think. They were very strong people.

T: There are very strong women in the world and it was quite nice. When you were watching the movie, remember the toilet scene,

S16: Yes, I remember.

T: How did you feel?

The instructor recommended the students to watch a movie called *Hidden Figures* earlier. In the lesson, she asks them what they think about the movie and how they felt while

watching it. Then, she keeps asking follow-up referential questions because the students have different comments on the movie. Since the movie is about discriminated people, she wants to see what the students think about it by directing her questions to different students.

Extract 3 (Participant 2)

T: Why is it false?

S1: Because talk to Rob.

T: Yes, Barbara wants to talk to Rob, not Jenny. There is again a difference between British and American English. Let's see. For the feeling of missing – özlemek – not özlemek but kaçırdın, yakalayamadın, in American English we say you just missed him. For British English, we say you have just missed him. There is a small difference between American and British English. Also, in American English, we call cell phone and in British, we call it mobile phone. What do you think Barbara will talk with Rob?

S11: Don't go London, stay in New York.

Here, the students watch a short video and answer the questions related to it to see if they understand what they have watched. However, the instructor also wants to hear students' opinions about the video, and she asks what they think is going to happen next which does not have one correct answer since each student would have a different point of view.

Extract 4 (Participant 3)

T: Did you understand what are we going to do according to the activity?

S11: Radio programme, they do radio programme.

T: About what?

S11: About bank of happiness.

T: Right. What could it be?

S11: I don't know.

T: Just make a guess. What kind of a bank could be about happiness?

S11: No, I don't know.

T: Alright. Any idea from others? What could it be about? Have you ever heard any other institution or any other job like that before?

S12: So, I haven't heard.

T: Okay, whatever. Maybe you didn't hear anything like that, but just imagine. What can a bank of happiness do?

S3: I think the programme talk about Tallinn in positive things for happy.

T: Very good. Thank you.

As mentioned before, referential questions require students to analyze and synthesize their ideas. Here, referential questions are used as a warm-up before a listening activity. There is a bank which is called 'the bank of happiness' and the students have never heard it before. The instructor tries to make them formulate an idea to guess what it could be. Even if the students have hard time coming up with an answer, the instructor keeps asking until one of the students shares her idea.

QT-5 Display Questions

Display questions are used to test students' knowledge on previously given information or to check if students remember certain information. There is only one correct answer for display questions unlike referential questions and the answers are already known.

Extract 1 (Participant 1)

T: Shall we start? So, who is Murphy?

S6: He is an American Aerospace engineer from forties.

T: So, he was an aerospace engineer, like during second world war and his full name is?

S6: Captain Edward Murphy.

T: He was an engineer also he was a soldier then. Captain Edward Murphy. So what happened that he gave his name to this law? What kind of a person was he? And, he was trying to do what?

S1: He improved safety for flights, for pilots flying.

T: Yes. So he wants to, wanted to produce safe planes for pilots. And he was thinking about what? While he was trying to improve safety, he thinks about...

S8: Of the worst thing that could happen.

Here, the students read a text about Edward A. Murphy and his law. After the students read the text, the instructor checks if the students can remember what they have read about

Murphy and his law. It was observed that the instructor repeats each student's answer before moving on to the next question.

Extract 2 (Participant 1)

T: Now, we can continue with nouns and verbs. As you can see, how can I make nouns from verbs? Look at this part.

S6: We can use -tion. It will be noun.

T: Just adding some suffixes. Just add some suffixes and make them new words. Sometimes, some other verbs form a new word for their noun forms. For example, choose and choice. Some others have the same form. Can you give me example of those verbs? Same form, noun and verb.

S1: Work.

T: Work, yes. Answer. "Can you answer this question?" In this sentence, is it a noun or verb?

S6: It's a verb.

Here, the instructor simply asks if the students know how to form words, and if they can differentiate between the noun and verb form of the same words. The answers of these questions do not change.

Extract 3 (Participant 2)

T: Okay. Now, we will listen and check. I want you to tell me how you understood the subjects. I hope it's alright.

S11: Yes.

T: How did you understand these subjects? How did you understand it was foreign languages?

S10: They speak French.

T: Yeah, they speak a different language.

S5: He said repeat after me.

T: Okay, very good. What about the second one, math?

S5: Sayısal şeyler vardı.

The students listen to a recording about school subjects, and they are supposed to match the subjects with the correct audio. The instructor wants them to explain how they understood each subject by giving examples from the recording. Students are expected to remember what they have heard and answer the questions.

Extract 4 (Participant 3)

S4: We won't take the car. It's so expensive parking.

T: Do you remember, after adjectives like it's so hot, so expensive, so easy..

S4: Expensive to park.

T: Exactly because it's an adjective. After adjectives, we continue with infinitives, do you remember?

S4: Yes, teacher.

T: Great, thank you.

One of the students uses the grammar structure incorrectly and the instructor tries to make her remember the correct structure by asking display questions. Instead of giving the correct answer herself, she tries to get the information from the student.

Extract 5 (Participant 3)

S1: Skoda cars made in the Czech Republic.

T: My chocolate is nothing here. It doesn't have something, what is that?

S1: Be.

T. Yes

S1: Can we say have been?

T: What is the tense of the sentence?

S1: It's present simple.

T: So, be will be present simple.

S1: Are made.

Here, the instructor asks certain display questions to explain and make students remember passive structure.

QT6- Expressive Questions

Expressive questions are used to convey one's own feelings like curiosity, amazement, disappointment etc.

Extract 1 (Participant 1)

S1: I think, I spent is under the 1 minute.

T: Under 1 minute? (confirmation)

S1: Yes.

T: How? How can you do it? How?

S1: My clothes are all in the Ankara, because of that I have a little, I have a few clothes in Sivas. I choose them, I choose them, sometimes I close my eyes, I think. I choose them and I wear.

The students are asked how much time they spend on deciding what to wear and getting dressed, and one of the students say he can get ready under 1 minute. The instructor is so surprised to hear that, so she asks how he can do it three times, which can be an example of expressive questions.

Extract 2 (Participant 1)

S4: While we were going to school, I was going by bus. And one they, I was waiting for a bus but I was be late. And I say, if I walk I, I not be late. I don't be late. I won't be late, yes. Then I started to walk, walking. Then the bus is going near to me. And I couldn't catch it.

T: Yeah. That's very frustrating right? Thank you for sharing. Any other?

Here, they are talking about Murphy's law and one of the students tells an unfortunate story. The instructor expresses her feelings by using an expressive question as a reaction to her story.

Extract 3 (Participant 2)

S11: I wake up at 8 o'clock every day.

T: Okay, you wake up at 8 o'clock and you come to the class. Anyone else?

S6: I always wake up 5.30.

T: Really? When do you sleep at night?

S6: 11 or 11.12.

T: You sleep at 11 and you wake up at 5. Wow, congratulations.

The instructor gets surprised because one of the students says that he wakes up at 5.30 every morning which is quite early. Thus, she shows that this is unexpected by saying ‘Really?’.

Extract 4 (Participant 3)

T: Do you think British people are good at learning languages? Any idea about it?

S1: I think yes, they are good.

T: Really?

S1: Yes, in Iran, many people send their children to English classes.

T: You're talking about your own people, not British people, right? Yes, that's also fine. After that, British people..

Here, this is the same as the example above. The student says that he thinks British people are good at learning other languages; however, the instructor expects to hear the opposite. She expresses her surprise through a question.

QT-7 Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions are used just for the effect and an answer is not expected. The answer is mostly already known, or the speaker answers her own question.

Extract 1 (Participant 1)

T: Yes. Here. Can for example, a model verb. You can use modal verbs, and what are my modal words? (rhetorical Like can, must, have to, should... These are my model verbs. Also tense, which tense can I use?

S4: Future tense?

T: Future tense. Here you can see, will. Because there is a possibility, I use will. Can I use will in if clause? No.

S6: No?

T: No. You can just use will with main clause.

While explaining a grammar rule, the instructor asks a question about the usage of ‘will’ in ‘if clauses’. However, she gives the correct answer herself without expecting anything from the students.

Extract 2 (Participant 2)

T: Yes. Mesela, şu an biz dersteyiz, dimi? Yanımda suyum var, su içebilirim. Bu muhtemel bir şey. Diyorum ki, susarsam, su içeceğim. Şu an gerçekleşebilecek bir şey. Bu muhtemel bir durum olur, dimi? Ama mesela şu an dersteyiz ama ben tatile gitmek istiyorum.

S7: O hayali olur.

T: O hayali olur çünkü şu an dersteyim. Şu an zaten hiç bir yere gidemiyoruz koronadan dolayı. Böyle bir durumda ne derim? Keşke vaktim olsaydı, tatile giderdim. Bu durum hayali bir durum. Şu an gerçekleşme ihtimali olmayan bir durum. İkinci durum second conditional, ilki first conditional.

The instructor prefers using Turkish while presenting a situation to explain how second conditional works. She wants the students to imagine a certain condition and think about the result. She uses a rhetorical question to make it clear for the students.

Extract 3 (Participant 3)

T: We have to keep the rest of the sentence. Who wants to tell me how to do it? Perfect tense sentences are always with have or has.

S13: Has been designed.

T: Has been designed, right. Do I have my chocolate? Yes. Do I have the rest of the sentence? Yes. Any questions? We can continue I think. This example, most of them are in past simple form. Can you see present sentence here?

S1: Eight.

T: 8 is present simple. Others?

The instructor resembles the verb ‘to be’ to chocolate which can be in different shapes. For passive sentences, she asks if they have the verb ‘to be’ and the rest of the sentence, but she answers the questions herself since she does not expect any answers from the students. Rather, she uses rhetorical questions to explain the rules of a grammar structure.

Procedural Questions

In this study, the questions were mainly categorized according to the framework proposed by Long & Sato (1983), but one question type was included from the taxonomy suggested by Richards & Lockart (1996), which is procedural questions. They are mostly used for classroom routines, procedures and management.

Extract 1 (Participant 1)

T: So yesterday we talked about happiness a little bit and you wrote some sentences “what does happiness mean for you”. And did you do this part, the vocabulary part with Hande hoca? Are you done with this page?

S2: We stayed vocabulary bank.

T: OK you were on vocabulary bank. Here? (shows the page)

S2: Yes.

The instructor tries to be sure where they left the other day to continue with the plan. The procedural questions asked are not related to learning. Rather, they are about the lesson process.

Extract 2 (Participant 1)

T: Kameralar nerede? Selim, karanlık odada mısın şu anda? Hiç ışık bile açmamış. O kadar uyanmak istemiyor ki. My English Lab nasıl gidiyor? Ona kayıt oldunuz mu? Did you register to my english lab? Or no? Let’s check that too while we are waiting for your friends. I see sixteen students. Sixteen of you registered. How about the others? Sesiniz soluğunuz çıkmıyor bugün de.

It was observed that procedural questions are mainly asked at the beginning of the lesson. As can be seen in this example, the instructor asks a couple of questions related to students’ participation and assignments while waiting for other students to attend the lesson and she mostly uses Turkish instead of English.

Extract 3 (Participant 2)

(doing the listening part)

T: Was it difficult for you?

S5: Biraz.

T: Would you like to listen one more time?

S10: No.

S11: Hocam bir kez daha dinleyebilir miyiz?

T: Okay. There are some terms a bit difficult. Let's listen again. Have you finished?

A few students: Yes.

T: Okay. Now, we will listen and check.

The students are expected to listen to the recording and answer the questions related to the audio. The instructor asks questions about the process of completing the activity like if they would like to listen again or if they have finished.

Extract 4 (Participant 3)

T: Hello. Can you hear me? Are you there?

T: Good morning, guys. If you can hear me, I will send the connection link to the group. Just a second guys.

(1 minute later)

T: Hi, can you hear me? I want to see you guys and I copied the link to the group. You can inform your friends about it so how is everything? Are you OK guys? Sena, you weren't here yesterday are you okay? Can you hear me? You said yes, right? Something like that. I think there's still this problem please inform me about it later, OK? The others, welcome as well. How is everything?

S3: I didn't feel good tomorrow, yesterday sorry.

It was observed that the participants were frequently asking if the students could hear them since they were in a virtual classroom where problems related to technology might occur. Most of the time, when there is no reaction from the students, the instructors want to check if they can be heard. In this extract, the instructor checks it several times which can be a good example for a procedural question.

4.5. The Impact of Display and Referential Questions on Student Participation

Teacher questions can be a facilitator or hinderance when it comes to student participation. Students may be encouraged or discouraged by the questions their teacher uses especially

in online classes. The transcriptions of the observed lessons for each participant's class were examined. The question-answer sequences between the instructors and the students and turn-taking processes were taken into consideration while drawing conclusions on students' participation to answer the research question below.

RQ3: Based on classroom observations, what is the impact of display and referential questions on student participation?

Since the students have a chance to contribute to the lesson mostly through display and referential questions rather than the other question types examined in the current study, it was aimed to find out if the students tend to participate more when they are asked display questions or referential questions. As there is no numeric data to represent student participation in a comprehensive way, the researcher analyzed question-answer sequences for display and referential questions for each participants' class thoroughly. How many students answered each question willingly, if the instructor needed to ask follow-up questions, if the instructor addressed the question to a specific student since there was nobody who was eager to answer, or she answered it herself were the criteria to comment on students' participation. Ndun (2015) investigated how students responded to their teachers' questions in English lessons at a high school, and she came up with four ways students answer the questions which were 'nominating, chorus-answering, volunteering and teacher self-answering' (p. 62). The answers to the display and referential questions of the students were classified according to Ndun's findings to be able to examine their participation in this study (Ibid). One more category which is 'no answer' was added by the researcher after analyzing each answer in the observed lessons. The overall distribution of the responses given by the students in three observed classes were presented in Table 9. Since the number of display and referential questions were not the same, the percentages of each answer type were found in order to interpret the data.

Peer debriefing was used in the process of examining the classroom observation transcripts to analyze students' participation for the sake of the credibility of the study. Spall (1998) puts forward that "in peer debriefing, a researcher and an impartial peer preplan and conduct extensive discussions about the findings and progress of an investigation" (p. 280). The researcher consulted a colleague who has been an English teacher for ten years and completed her master's degree in English Language Teaching, so she is familiar with the research process. The analysis of the students' responses was discussed with her to have a second opinion on the findings.

4.5.1. Students' Responses to Display and Referential Questions in all Three Classes

It was found out some students tended to dominate certain questions, and they gave answers repeatedly. This was taken into consideration while categorizing students' responses as volunteer answers, and repeated answers from the same students were excluded to have more reliable results. As can be seen in the Table 9, the majority of both display and referential questions were answered by volunteers in the classes. However, the percentage of volunteer responses for referential questions was more than display questions. This may indicate that students are slightly more willing to participate when asked referential questions.

The teacher addresses the question to a specific student when there is no volunteer or if that student is not active during the lesson. The participants also nominated students for certain questions in the observed lessons. The percentage of nominating responses for display and referential questions was almost the same, which may show that the instructors occasionally needed to encourage their students to participate by making them provide answers regardless of the type of the question.

Table 9

Students' Responses to Display and Referential Questions

	N of the Answers	Volunteering		Nominating		In-chorus		Self-answer		No answer	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Display	602	356	59.1	111	18.4	49	8.1	50	8.3	36	5.9
Referential	274	200	72.9	51	18.6	11	4.01	2	0.7	10	3.6

It was also observed that more than one student gives responses to some questions at the same time, which is called *in-chorus* response. Even though it was the case for the minority of the questions, it was more common when display questions were asked since there is only one correct answer for these kinds of questions. Furthermore, it was observed that students tended to respond all together when the correct answer was rather obvious, which may suggest that students are motivated to answer all together when they are confident of themselves.

The observed lessons showed that the instructors answered their own questions in some cases. As can be seen in Table 9, self-answer was much more common for display questions as students sometimes genuinely did not know the correct answer to the

questions which required them to remember a piece of information related to grammar, vocabulary, listening, or a reading text. However, the instructors did not need to answer the questions themselves most of the time when they asked referential questions since the answers varied from student to student, and they were mostly willing to answer.

Lastly, certain questions were left unanswered in some classes both by the students and the instructors. Although there was not a significant difference, the percentage of unanswered questions was more for display questions than referential questions. Some questions were repeated using Turkish or paraphrasing, which was more common for display questions, and it could be the reason why they were left unanswered.

4.5.2. Students' Responses in Sinem's Class

The students were mostly volunteer to give answers in Sinem's class, but it can be seen that there were more volunteer answers for referential questions. Similarly, she needed to direct certain display questions to specific students more frequently than she did for referential questions as they were not active enough, or there was no answer.

Table 10

Students' Responses in Sinem's Class

N of Qs		Volunteering		Nominating		In-chorus		Self-answer		No answer	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Display	183	128	69.9	20	10.9	9	4.9	16	8.7	10	5.4
Referential	63	51	80.9	4	6.3	3	4.7	2	3.1	3	4.7

Extract 1

T: You are right. In face to face education actually, I had to get up at six o'clock. So now I can get up at seven. Do we have any other answer? Let's hear one more. Who can help us? Someone who didn't speak today. Selim, can you help us? Tell us one thing that makes you happy.

S13: I think happiness is reading a really good book and then finding it is a series.

T: Read, and then find it's series. But sometimes series may not be that good. You know, as good as book.

This is an example of *nominating* for a referential question. The students are expected to tell what happiness means to them. Certain students answer the question; however, the

instructor wants a student who was silent during the lesson to contribute, as well. She calls his name and requests him to answer to make him involved.

Extract 2

But can I use Frenchs, Englishes? Just check this box and tell me the answer. The answer is here.

S6: No, we cannot.

T: Do you agree, Doğa?

S1: Yes.

T: Can we, or cannot we?

S1: Cannot we, I think.

S6: Cannot we.

T: Yes, we cannot use s with adjectives if they end with these sounds.

This one is an example for a display question. The students are checking a grammar rule and even if one of the students answers the question, the instructor involves another student by asking if she agrees with her friend to engage her.

The percentage for in-chorus responses was almost the same for display and referential questions. Students seemed more eager to participate when asked certain display or referential questions which resulted in responding as a group.

Extract 3

T: When I teach passive, I remember there was a line in GORA. Did you watch it?

Some students: Yes.

T: There was a famous line. It's perfect for passive. Aliens kidnapped me. Make it passive. Who kidnapped?

S6: I was kidnapped by aliens.

S2: Aliens

It can be seen that multiple students are interested in the instructor's questions since she gives an example from a well-known movie most of the students have watched before. She

uses both referential and display questions to attract students' attention and explain a grammar rule.

Self-answer was more common for display questions in Sinem's class. Some of the display questions were not answered by any students and she provided the correct answer herself. It was the case for only two referential questions.

Extract 4

T: How are you now? A bit better? A little... Okay. How about the others? Are you here guys?

(no answer)

T: So, most of us, I think, here. If you open your cameras, I can see if you are here or not. Well then, as I said, this lesson we will try these new features.

At the beginning of the lesson, the instructor checks if the students are okay and if they are present. Few students show they are fine by nodding while most of them do not react in any way. When the instructor asks 'How about others, are you here?', she tries to attract other students' attention, but she ends up answering her own question. The reason may be that their classes start early in the morning, so the students find it difficult to be active, especially in the first two lessons.

Lastly, it was observed that some questions were not answered by the instructor or the students. An example can be seen below.

Extract 5

T: Play. Play up to you. Okay. Five?

S1: Waking.

T: Waking up to you. And how about number six? No guess? Didn't you write anything? Even a word? Even some meaningless letters? No?

(no answer)

T: Okay. No answer for number six. How about number seven? "How I..."

The students are supposed to fill in the song lyrics. Even though they could do some parts, they had difficulty in completing certain blanks. The instructor tries to encourage them to share their answers through several display questions, but no one answers although she

provides enough wait time for her questions. She also does not give an answer and continues with the rest.

4.5.3. Students' Responses in Melda's Class

Although the students were mainly eager to participate, the difference between volunteer answers for display and referential questions was more significant in Melda's class. Most of the referential questions were answered by at least one student.

Table 11

Students' Responses in Melda's Class

N of Qs		Volunteering		Nominating		In-chorus		Self-answer		No answer	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Display	184	103	55.9	38	20.6	14	7.6	10	5.4	19	10.3
Referential	90	72	80	15	16.6	2	2.2	-	-	1	1.1

Extract 1

T: Before we start, let's look at these pictures. In the pictures, we see Rob and Holly having coffee somewhere. What do you think they are talking about?

S2: Maybe about interview.

T: Interview. This picture, Holly is talking to someone. Who do you think is Holly talking to?

S5: Her best friend.

T: Maybe, we will see.

Before watching a short video and answering comprehension questions about it, the instructor tries to engage the students by asking warm-up questions and making them think further and guess. Two students volunteer to guess before watching the video which may make them more curious about the content.

As mentioned before, there was a necessity to direct the questions to individual students for both display and referential questions. In Melda's class, the percentage of nominating for display questions was more than referential questions, which means the students were encouraged to participate more when asked display questions.

Extract 2

T: Okay, very good. Thank you. Let's do another one. This time let's make it different. Let's go from Prospect Park to Fulton Street. Let's choose two people again. Sema, can you do it?

S3: No.

T: Why?

S3: Hocam yapamam herhalde.

T: You'll just ask the directions.

S3: Hocam, tamam sorayım. Kime soracağım? Ama yanlış olur.

T: It's okay to make mistakes. Who wants to answer? Who wants to tell us the route? Kemal, would you like to do it?

S4: No, thanks.

The students are unwilling to participate in the lesson, so the instructor tries to engage them by addressing the questions to certain students. The reason why no one is eager to respond may be that the students are afraid of making mistakes because they usually find it difficult to ask and give directions in another language.

Other than nominating, in-chorus was another way of responding among students. Even though it was not very common, the percentage of in-chorus answers for display questions was more than for referential questions. It was observed that the students tended to answer all together when asked reading comprehension questions which had one-word answers as can be seen in the example below.

Extract 3

T: So, let's look at the answer. The waiter didn't understand Max. Is it true or false?

Some students: True.

A few students: False

T: The waiter understood Max, right? There was no problem. That's why, it's false. Number 2 - the bill was 6 point 90 euros.

A few students: Ture.

T: True, good.

In addition, there was no self-answer for referential questions whereas there were few for display questions in Melda's class. While the students do not answer because they find some questions challenging, it is not the case in the example below. They are answering a series of questions about a recording and Melda answers one of the questions herself without waiting for the students. The reason may be that the questions are quite similar and the answer is obvious.

Extract 4

T: Adding water etc. They were doing an experiment. Deney yapıyorlardı. Number seven, art? What did we hear about art?

S14: Portrait.

T: Self-portrait and he was asking the period. Number eight, PE? Warm up dedi. Then, run around the track. Number nine, geography?

Even though the instructor gave the answer for some questions, certain of them were not answered at all. As it was discussed in Sinem's class, the students tend to be inactive at the beginning of the lessons, which is also the case in the extract below. The instructor genuinely would like to find out how the students are doing, but nobody responds. Even when Melda asks why no one answers, the students leave this question unanswered, as well.

Extract 5

T: Hi, how are you?

(Students don't answer)

T: Are you all sleepy? Why nobody's answering? Okay, let's wait a little bit more for other people to come. I put a survey on Teams. If you want to watch a movie and discuss it, you can complete it.

4.5.4. Students' Responses in Hande's Class

The percentage of volunteer answers for referential questions was higher like in other participants' lessons as can be seen in Table 12. On the other hand, nominating was more common for referential questions in Hande's lessons while it was more frequent for display questions in Sinem and Melda's classes.

Table 12

Students' Responses in Hande's Class

N of Qs		Volunteering		Nominating		In-chorus		Self-answer		No answer	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Display	235	125	53.1	53	22.5	26	11	24	10.2	7	2.9
Referential	121	77	63.6	32	26.4	6	4.9	-	-	6	4.9

Extract 1

*You will use passive structures because questions were asked like that. What is nappies?
From the picture, what could it be?*

S18: Diaper.

T: The diapers, very good. I think in the other questions, there is nothing new, but we can remember what is an invention.

S18: Like Marion Donovan found the diapers.

The instructor asks a display question and one of the students volunteers to answer it. They are supposed to understand what 'diaper' is by looking at the photo on their course book.

Extract 2

T: Anybody thinking yesterday and today different, there is something in the air? Guys, I cannot see any of you. You forgot to turn on the cameras again.

(students turning on their cameras)

T: Thank you. Even my cat is being weird, I don't know. Ece, what do you think? Is there anything different these days?

S10: I think every day is the same for me.

T: Really? Did you hear yesterday night there has been an earthquake? In Van. It's not that big, but still an earthquake.

At the beginning of the lesson, the instructor asks how the students are and she spends some time talking about how she feels instead of starting the lesson right away. First, she comments on the last two days and asks if the students feel the same. When no one answers, she directs the question to a particular student this time to have small talk before continuing with the lesson.

Apart from nominating and volunteering, more than one student responded to certain display and referential questions.

Extract 3

T: This website is very good. Please, use it. That was just one example. You have also multiple choice questions. Let's do this one. Making what is mostly done online nowadays? (display)

S13: A reservation

T: Yes, very good. Did you like this website?

A few students: Yes.

As can be seen here, the instructor shows a website to the students so that they can make use of it. After explaining how to use it by showing examples, she asks if they liked it and a few students respond all together, which may indicate that they were interested in the website their teacher showed.

While some display questions were answered by the instructor herself, it was not the case for referential questions. The main reason is that display questions are asked to check if the students remember pieces of information which may not be possible every time. The extract below shows that even though the students were told about suffixes and affixes before, they could not remember, so the instructor answers her own question by explaining what they are.

Extract 4

T: We will see some verbs and how we change them into nouns. Do you remember affixation or suffix?

(no answer)

T: Affixation means what you add to the word in the end or at the beginning. Suffix is you only add the words after. (showing examples) You don't have to know this, but if you work alone on the books, you can see these terms. Let's focus on the highlighted words here. Choose, is it a noun or a verb?

A few students: verb

Finally, there was no answer for few display and referential questions in Hande's class. In the example below, the students are answering the questions taken from their course book

and the instructor leaves one of the questions unanswered as she thinks it is not applicable to their situation.

Extract 5

T: Very good. How many English classes have you missed this year? I think it is impossible to remember, so let's skip this question. What music do you like, Deniz

S4: listening to in the car.

T: Bravo. Can you answer, what music do you like listening?

In conclusion, students' responses to display and referential questions differed in the observed lessons, and there were various factors which had an effect on student participation as discussed above. While there were more volunteer answers for referential questions, the instructors needed to address the display questions to specific students more frequently, which may indicate that referential questions encourage students more to participate and contribute to the lesson. On the other hand, in-chorus answers were more common for display questions, which may also show that the students are eager to be involved in the lesson. Lastly, it was observed that self-answer and no-answer were less frequent for referential questions compared to display questions. However, the reason was mostly because the students did not know the answers rather than being unwilling to participate.

4.6. The Perceptions of the Instructors towards Their Use of Teacher Questions in Online EFL Lessons

The instructors were asked several questions through semi-structured interviews to find out their perceptions towards their own questioning practices in online lessons. The interviews were transcribed and analyzed for each participant via MAXQDA. Different themes, categories, and codes were generated as a result of the thorough analysis of the interview transcriptions.

With the analysis of the data obtained from the participants of the study, four themes emerged which are *a) the aims of teacher questions, b) the effects of online education on teacher questions, c) student participation through teacher questions and d) suggestions to improve teacher questioning.*

4.6.1. The Aims of Teacher Questions

The instructors were asked to list the purposes of teacher questions in their online lessons through various interview questions. They also referred to their own experiences by giving examples of different types of teacher questions and their functions in their online EFL lessons. The frequency of the codes in relation to the aims of teacher questions can be seen below.

Table 13

Codes Related to the Aims of Teacher Questions

Code	<i>f</i>
For classroom management	3
To check comprehension	3
To make sure students are engaged	3
To check confirmation	2
For classroom procedures	2
To make students think further	2
To draw attention	2
To foster learning	1
To establish rapport	1
To encourage participation	1
To elicit grammar rules	1
To check previously learned information	1
To challenge students' ideas	1
Total	23

As can be seen in Table 13, the instructors make use of questions mainly *to manage the students, check their comprehension, and make them engaged* in the online lessons ($f=3$). However, teacher questions are also frequently used *to check confirmation, for classroom procedures, to make students think further, and draw their attention* ($f=2$).

Honestly, I ask questions all the time to engage my students, to draw attention and to make sure that they are there while I'm teaching. It's really difficult to make sure the students are there or even when they are there, they are engaged. (Hande)

It can be seen that the participant uses questions quite frequently and mostly to make sure that the students are engaged, and they are active in the class. As mentioned by Hande, it can be challenging to check on the students to see if they are really listening and attending in online lessons since they are not physically in the same environment, which requires regular questioning.

In the beginning of the class, I try to ask more referential questions because I try to make them think more and get more curious about the topic. In the beginning, the referential questions are used more. Let's say we moved on to a reading text or vocabulary teaching or listening etc. Then, in the middle of the class time, display questions, display questions are a bit more.

Maybe towards the ending, we may mix them like first asking some display questions, then asking for their opinion for productive skill. (Melda)

According to Melda, the purposes of the questions asked in the class changes according to the stage and objective of the lesson. In order to attract students' attention in the beginning of the lesson, she uses referential questions. She also uses them to make students speak and participate more in the online lessons. However, to check comprehension, she uses display questions mostly for reading texts or vocabulary teaching. She tries to make sure that the students comprehend what they have heard or read.

The reason is because they don't know what to do in online lessons. It's totally something new. The platform is new and the procedure is top to bottom new. I always have to explain them what we are doing and how we are doing. In the grouping activities, I have to guide them to stay in the correct breakout room. Even the simple and basic things require procedural questions asking. How to start the lesson, how to find the correct link etc. (Hande)
Sometimes I think the students can hear the listening I open the computer. After the listening is over, they say 'teacher, what are we doing?'. I say 'you listened, just answer the questions.' They say 'we didn't hear anything, we thought you were trying to find the listening. 'Because of that, we always have to check if they are hearing us, if they are seeing us or our voice is clear. (Sinem)

Asking questions for classroom procedures was frequent in the participants' classrooms as can be seen in Table 13. The reason why the instructors need to ask these kinds of questions was explained by Hande and Sinem. Since the online teaching is relatively a new concept for the students, they need to be checked with almost every procedure and process in the class to be sure that they understand what they are supposed to do, and if they can hear or see the shared screen or document.

Some of the other aims of teacher questions shared by the instructors were *to foster students' learning*, *to elicit grammar rules*, and *to challenge their ideas* ($f=1$) etc. even though they were not as frequent as the ones mentioned above.

As I said, to encourage them to participate more, encourage them to think from different perspectives, to start a discussion, to challenge their ideas, to encourage them to speak more I ask questions. I can say that let's say we have a speaking topic. It asks from one perspective. In one of my lessons, we had 'What do you think about gated communities?'. All the time, they said it's good, it is very secure, they have pools and some different facilities for activities, but also when I ask another question like 'Do you think having gated communities is good or bad for society?'. When I ask some follow-up questions, they start to think from different perspective and they start to discover different backgrounds of that thing actually. (Sinem)

Sinem mentions the importance of teacher questions to make students think further and from different angles. In a way, she challenges the students' ideas about a topic by generating various questions, which require critical-thinking. Sinem makes her students think further by providing more follow-up questions like the example above.

There can be different purposes. One can be to check the understanding of the students, like for grammar topics or if they are following the classes or not, if they have any follow-up questions. You can try to interact with the students more, foster their learning and make them speak a lot more in the class. I think mostly, we use these questions for the understanding of the students, check-up questions for grammar topics and vocabulary items. (Melda)

In parallel to the main course book used in the lessons, the grammar topics are covered according to the schedule prepared by the department. According to Melda, questions are used to check if the students understand a particular grammar rule apart from making them interact and being involved in the lessons. The students are also encouraged to ask their questions related to the grammar topics covered in the lesson.

4.6.2. The Effects of Online Education on Teacher Questions

Online education is a new experience for both students and teachers. Since an online classroom and a real classroom have different aspects and variables, the teaching practices including teachers' questioning practices also differ in online classes. The participants were asked how the questioning process has changed in their classes, and two categories were generated which are *advantages* and *disadvantages* of online education in terms of teacher questions. The codes in relation to the effects of online education on teacher questions are presented in Table 14.

Table 14 *Codes Related to the Effects of Online Education on Teacher Questions*

Category	Code	<i>f</i>
<i>Advantages</i>	Using a variety of questions	2
	Increased awareness of wait time	2
	Attention to paraphrasing	1
	Multiple ways to ask questions	1
	More attention to indifferent students	1
	Using online features	1
	Total	8
<i>Disadvantages</i>	Technical issues	2
	Excessive use of repetition	2
	Difficulty in getting attention	2
	Limited use of body language	1
	Lack of effective communication	1
	Constant need of checking students	1
	Total	9
	Overall Total	17

The participants stated that online education affected their questioning practices both positively and negatively. As advantages of online education, *using a variety of questions* and *increased awareness of wait time* were the most frequent ones ($f=2$).

I learned how to paraphrase, simplify the questions and to give wait time to students. This is really important because sometimes you speak and they can hear you later. If you repeat the question again, it can be confusing for students. I actually learned about wait time more. (Sinem)

I think wait time is very important and it increases in online lessons compared to face-to-face lessons. Even if you deal with technical problems, your voice on the electronic platform is still not as understandable as in the real talk. It happens even when you speak Turkish. Because of these reasons, I try to do a lot of waiting time. (Hande)

Because of technical problems, the instructors pay more attention to wait time after they ask their questions because the students may need extra time or there may be some delays in the audio. It can be seen that online teaching made them realize the significance of wait time which can be an advantage.

I learned to use lots of different types of questions like referential or display questions. I started to use them a lot. This taught me how to form a question correctly and how to form the best questions for the students to make them understand and participate. (Sinem)

Mainly because it is harder to attract students' attention in a virtual classroom, the participants tried to use a variety of questions to make students involved. As can be seen above, Sinem mentions the positive effect of online teaching on her questioning practices as she became aware of the necessity of using different kinds of questions for the students.

Other codes in relation to the advantages of online education in terms of teacher questions were giving *more attention to indifferent students* and having *multiple ways to ask questions (f=1)* etc.

Sometimes when I see my students, I will see like some of them are doing and some of them are not doing. Some of them will be more eager to participate and I sometimes tend to give the right to the students who really want to participate. Sometimes I ignore the ones who don't care about it at all. In online classes, I started to be more like 'I should really take the students and I should check if they are really learning or not'. In terms of that, I'd say this has become an advantage because I try to make sure a lot more. (Melda)

Melda refers to her own practices by stating that online teaching made her more aware of the students who are not willing to be active and engaged. While she sometimes ignored those students in a traditional face-to-face classroom, she puts extra effort to make sure that each student is mentally there in the virtual classroom through her questions.

They have a lot of ways to answer like written, oral or emoticons. With their response, they have more alternatives. Also, they feel safer, at least some of the students I can say. It also increases the chance of eliciting answers. It makes my questions more elaborate for a particular group of students. Especially when we use breakout rooms, I can group my students according to their interests etc. It also makes my questions more possible to address to their needs. (Hande)

According to Hande, as online platforms allow both students and teachers to use various features during lessons, it can be considered as an advantage for teacher questions. Thus,

the instructor has more than one way to generate her questions, and the students are able to express themselves by using several features. For instance, breakout rooms are frequently used to make students work on the questions their instructors asked in a collaborative way, which can be a motivating factor for the students.

Apart from positive aspects, online teaching had also certain disadvantages in terms of questioning process as mentioned by the participants. The most frequent codes extracted from their answers were *technical issues*, *excessive use of repetition*, and *difficulty in getting attention* ($f=2$).

Sometimes we can have audio problems, like ‘can you see my screen?’, ‘can you hear this audio?’, ‘can you hear my voice?’ kind of questions. We always have to check because of the connection problems. (Sinem)

Technical issues are a huge problem, but we are getting used to as teachers. Sometimes I cannot hear the students and they also may have some problems related to their camera or audio and it affects the questioning process negatively. (Melda)

In online classrooms, it is inevitable to have technical problems which are not the case in a face-to-face class. Mainly because of internet connection issues, the students miss some parts of the lesson, which has a negative impact on the questions because the instructor spends a considerable amount of time asking the same questions, which do not have any learning objectives.

In online teaching, getting students’ attention is really hard. I spend more time on getting attention. And then, I have to repeat my questions lots of time if I reflect on myself. I cannot see them, I cannot see if they are focused or they are just daydreaming, so I have to ask a lot of questions. (Sinem)

It’s really difficult to make sure the students are there or even when they are there, they are engaged, they pay attention to you. (Hande)

It was also mentioned that it is much more difficult to get students’ attention in an online class, which makes the participants ask more and more questions which do not necessarily facilitate learning. Furthermore, they need to repeat their questions frequently, which can be boring and demotivating for the students.

In online classes, listening and reacting is a bit difficult in terms of students and for me, so I would say it’s difficult to get efficiency from the questions in the online classes. Sometimes, I try to explain something and ask them questions. If they don’t understand, I can quickly find another way, to use my body language or to show with my physical movements around the class. That changes quite a lot in the online classrooms. I try to use my body language, but I cannot be sure if they really understood or not. (Melda)

Online education also limited the use of body language which has a huge place in effective communication. According to Melda, restricted use of body language in a virtual classroom may have a negative effect on the efficiency of teacher questions. The instructor

may need to use her body language along with the question to make it more clear, which is not always possible in an online class.

4.6.3. Student Participation through Teacher Questions

The instructors commented on how student participation is affected by their questions. As a result of the interview answers, two categories emerged in relation to student participation which are *positive effects* and *negative effects*. The frequency of the codes created for student participation through teacher questions is provided below.

Table 15

Codes Related to Student Participation through Teacher Questions

Category	Code	<i>f</i>
<i>Positive effects</i>	Choosing random students	3
	Providing wait time	3
	Checking comprehension	2
	Asking referential questions	2
	Connections to previous learning	2
	Level appropriate questions	2
	Using different types of questions	2
	Paraphrasing the question	1
	Engaging students with their peers	1
	Using Turkish	1
	Using non-lingual factors	1
	Using encouraging language	1
	Breakout rooms for questions	1
	Total	22
<i>Negative effects</i>	Repeating the questions	2
	Using unclear language	1
	Lack of positive feedback	1
	Using a negative tone	1
	Asking too many questions	1
	Asking similar questions frequently	1
	Total	7
	Overall total	29

The participants touched upon various aspects of questioning which have a positive role in students' participation. The most frequently mentioned ones were *choosing random students* and *providing wait time* ($f=3$). Furthermore, it was stated that students participated more with the help of *asking referential questions*, *connection to previous learning*, and *level appropriate questions* etc. ($f=2$).

When I have the chance, I ask some random questions to my students. Even asking like 'How are you?' Instantly, they wake up and go back to lesson. I choose some random students,

students that I don't hear that day. I try to choose those students, make them participate. (Sinem)

I cannot really make sure if they are doing it or not, if they are doing the exercises or just telling me the answer for one and not doing anything else. For that, I try to choose random people in the class. I say like 'This one, you do it.' Sometimes, I don't want to discourage the ones who want to participate a lot. Let's say, they are answering three or four questions, but I will try to ask each question to a different student in the class. (Melda)

Wait time is good for student participation. It's positive because they are not native English users. They need time to understand the question. They need time to think of an answer before they speak. They are just learners yet, they may not have enough confidence to speak instantly. They sometimes think their sentences before they answer. (Sinem)

Choosing random students for the questions is a very common strategy which makes students participate more according to the instructors. When the students know they may be chosen to answer a question, they tend to be more alert. As mentioned by Sinem, wait time is important for students' participation, as well. Since the students need time to process their answers, providing them enough wait time after asking the question may motivate them to be involved more.

I would say, for low level students, we try to use more simple, more to the point kind of questions while we might form a question with complex words, structures, more critical type of questions with high level students. Of course, there will be development of their language skills in time even if you are teaching to young students, but in the beginning, for low levels, it's always to have clear and simpler questions. It will make them participate more. (Melda)

Also, I like to do some unexpected things like in the middle of the lesson, I start to sing a song and I connect it to something we have learned. 'Did you see?, Can you hear it?, Did you realize?' Then, we do an immediate activity to revise that thing. If we have time, I also ask them to tell me if they have realized that thing we learnt in a movie they watched or anything they read. (Hande)

As can be seen above, asking questions which are appropriate for students' level encourages them to participate more, and the reason may be that students feel safer as they understand their teachers. Moreover, connection to previously learned information can be a facilitator in student participation according to the participants. Hande mentions that adding a fun element in her question by connecting it to something the students have learned before makes student more eager to be involved.

Apart from the factors presented below, there were certain aspects which were considered effective for student participation by the instructor even though their frequency was not that high. Certain of them were *using Turkish*, *engaging students with their peers*, and *using non-lingual factors (f=1)*.

I think the students are more engaged when they do anything with their peers because they don't have the chance to get to know each other in online classes and it means they have a huge potential to discover about each other, so they really wonder about each other even when they try not to show it and try not to participate, but it is also the case for us. If the teacher tries to use that potential by letting them discover each other, it will be really effective to open those rooms for them. (Hande)

Sometimes, I turn to Turkish, tell a joke. Sometimes I have to repeat a question in Turkish. Actually, when I paraphrase the questions, make them easier, I can feel that when they understand it, they tend to give answers more. (Sinem)

I use a lot of non-lingual factors like slowing my speech and I use lots of intonation. Also, I try to involve them in my questions like trying to make myself repeat sometimes. (Hande)

Engaging students with their peers is significant for Hande to encourage them since they are in a virtual environment which makes it hard for them to get to know each other. She also puts emphasis on the importance of using non-lingual factors while asking her questions which also has a positive impact on students' participation. Moreover, using Turkish was favored by Sinem and used occasionally to motivate students by making jokes and paraphrasing the questions in their mother tongue. She believes that in this way, the students are willing to participate more.

Certain negative factors were also stated by the participants. The most frequent code related to this category was *repeating the questions* ($f=2$). They also mentioned other factors like *using unclear language*, *using a negative tone* and *asking too many questions* ($f=1$).

As I said before, asking too much questions can bore students and after some time, they don't want to answer that. Sometimes you can ask similar questions and students can be like 'we already answered that'. Sometimes they can feel threatened actually when you ask too much questions. (Sinem)

I find myself sometimes I ask similar questions without realizing, asking the same question over and over again. Like 'Did you do it?', 'Are you listening to me?' etc. Repetition could be a disadvantage. (Melda)

Asking similar and too many questions were observed to hinder students' engagement and participation by the instructors.

If you are asking your questions in a way that you blame your students, you want to show that you are angry or you make them embarrassed if they are not following the class, this might hinder their learning. They might start to feel less motivated to speak in the class because they are already feeling quite embarrassed, they have speaking anxiety. In this kind of situation, they will feel demotivated to answer the questions. (Melda)

Melda highlighted the affective factors in terms of questioning by giving an example of a negative tone used by the teacher and its negative effect on students' motivation to speak and engage. As can be seen above, it was stated that the language the instructor uses for the questions may hinder student participation if it makes the students feel embarrassed or intimidated.

4.6.4. Suggestions to Improve Teacher Questioning

The last theme of the interview transcripts were the suggestions which were made by the participants to improve questioning skills. They recommended certain strategies and questioning habits to adopt in online classes to make teacher questions more effective by referring to their own experiences. The frequency of the codes related to the suggestions to improve teacher questioning is presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Codes Related to the Suggestions to Improve Teacher Questioning

Code	<i>f</i>
Making classroom observations	2
Reflecting on their own questioning practices	2
Training teachers with demo lessons	1
Interacting with students through questions	1
Paying attention to question variety	1
Making questions more indirect	1
Encouraging the use of to the point questions	1
Learning to use online tools effectively	1
Total	10

Making classroom observations and *reflecting on their own practices* ($f=2$) were the predominant suggestions made by the participants. They also recommended *training teachers with demo lessons*, *learning to use online tools effectively*, and *making questions more indirect* etc. ($f=1$).

We can teach questioning strategies. I don't know if there is anything like that, but the effective numbers of the questions. Making classroom observations and teachers also can watch their online teaching videos and reflect on them themselves. 'I should have done this and I shouldn't have done this.' (Sinem)

Using online tools that are more effective for students would improve the questioning process. Other than directly asking the questions, it should be like following the instructions and finding out the question and then, trying to collect answers for the question kind of activities would be better. Online platform is available to do such tracing activities for the students if the tools are used more fun and more engaging. My point is questions are more effective when you do them indirect. (Hande)

It was stated that making classroom observations and watching their own lessons may be a useful way for instructors to improve their questioning skills. Thus, they can reflect on their own practices and notice what works in terms of questioning in their online classes.

Furthermore, online education enables instructors to make use of the online features to have more effective questions according to Hande. She also mentioned that making questions indirect may be a good strategy which enables students to be more active in the questioning process.

I think one of the greatest strategies would be putting the teachers into an environment they can act like students, like changing the positions. I'm doing my master's and I have online classes. Sometimes I realize something going wrong in the class as a student, then I try to change it in my online classes as a teacher. I think that goes for questions, too. My professors, they are not interacting at all. They are not asking any questions. They are just lecturing and they are showing a tutorial or something. I know that they are not going to ask any questions. If I know that, it is really difficult for me to focus on that class. I will be just having a coffee or having breakfast because I know they are not going to ask any questions. (Melda)

Melda gives example from her master's class to emphasize the importance of teacher questioning which is the main source of interaction between the students and the instructor. In order to improve questioning skills, she suggested that there should be demo lessons with teachers in which they act like students. Thus, they may be able to understand how the students feel and react which will help them shape their questions accordingly.

We can teach teachers how to ask simple questions, but not that simplified and how to ask to the point questions. Like about the topic, without boring them, how you should arrange your questions, how many questions you should ask or which strategies you can use more to make them participate. (Sinem)

It was also pointed out that teacher questions should be to the point and related to what has been taught. Teachers should be informed about this issue to make sure that the students are active.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Presentation

The main findings with regard to the research questions of the current study will be summarized in this chapter. In addition, the results will be discussed by referring to the previous studies related to teacher questioning.

5.2. Summary of the Findings

The different types of teacher questions were examined through classroom observations and two frameworks were used to categorize the questions. The main framework used for the classification of the questions was proposed by Long & Sato (1983). Furthermore, one type of question was included from the framework proposed by Richards & Lockarts (1996). The numbers of each type of question used by the participants were analyzed, which can be seen in Figure 5.

The most frequently used question type was display questions ($n=680$) which was followed by referential questions ($n=368$). Procedural questions ($n=241$) were also used frequently by the participants. It was followed by comprehension check ($n=140$) and confirmation check questions ($n=93$). The least used question types were expressive ($n=12$), rhetorical ($n=50$) and clarification request questions ($n=46$), respectively.

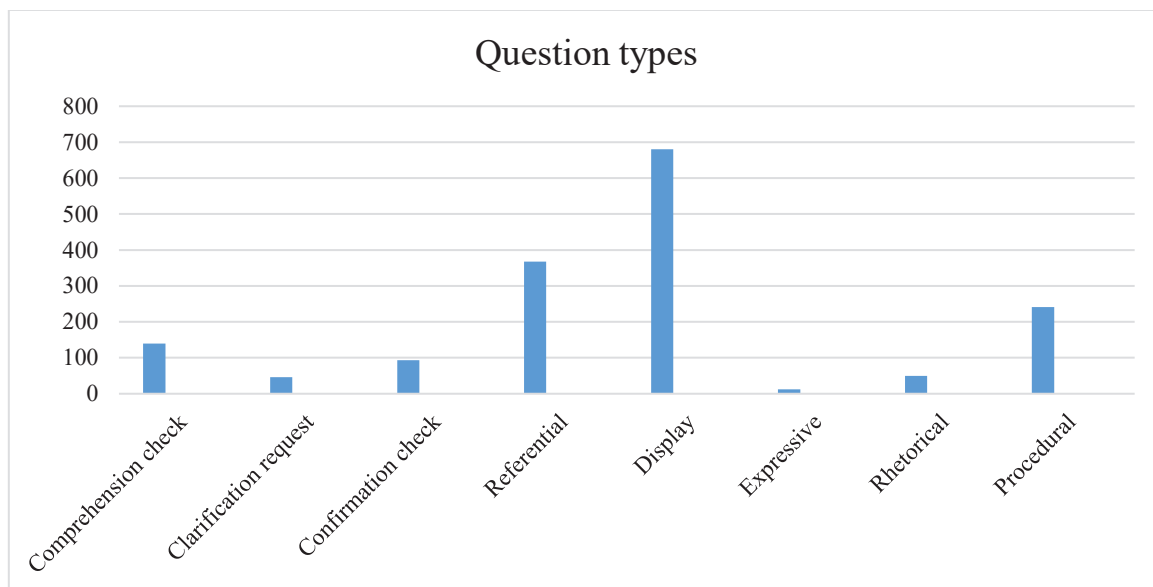


Figure 5. The overall number of the types of the questions posed by the instructors

As a result of the lesson transcription analysis, it was found that both display and referential questions encouraged students to participate in the lesson; however, they tended to participate more when they were asked referential questions as the percentage of volunteer answers for referential questions was higher. On the other hand, the students answered in unison more frequently when they were asked display questions as can be seen in the table below. For display and referential questions, the instructors chose random students to answer since there was no volunteer. Lastly, the percentage of self-answer and no-answer was higher for display questions when compared to referential questions.

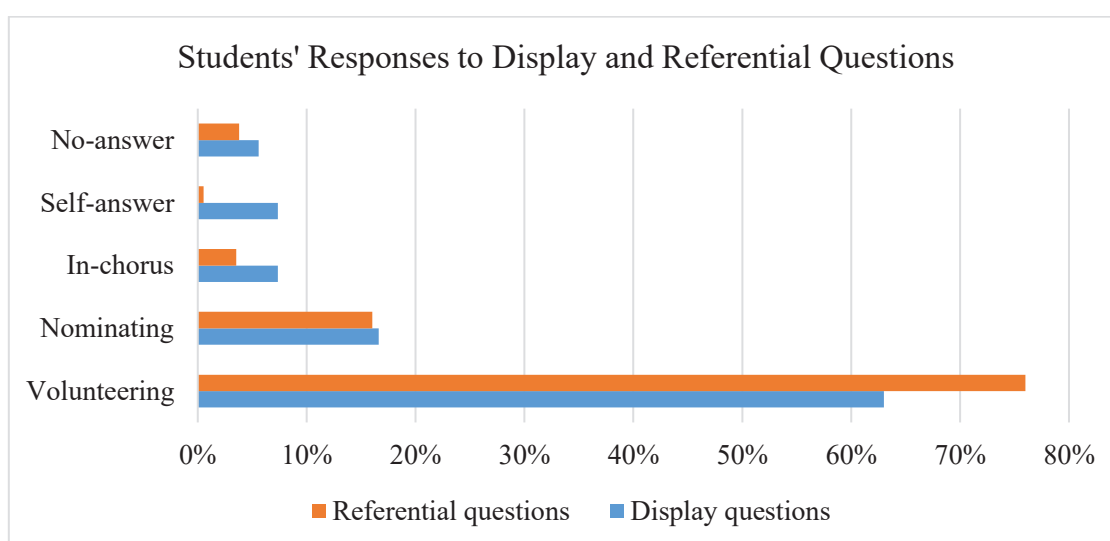


Figure 6. Students' responses to display and referential questions

Lastly, as a result of the semi-structured interviews conducted with the participants, certain themes, categories, and codes emerged. In total, four themes were generated and the main codes in relation to the themes are presented in Figure 7.

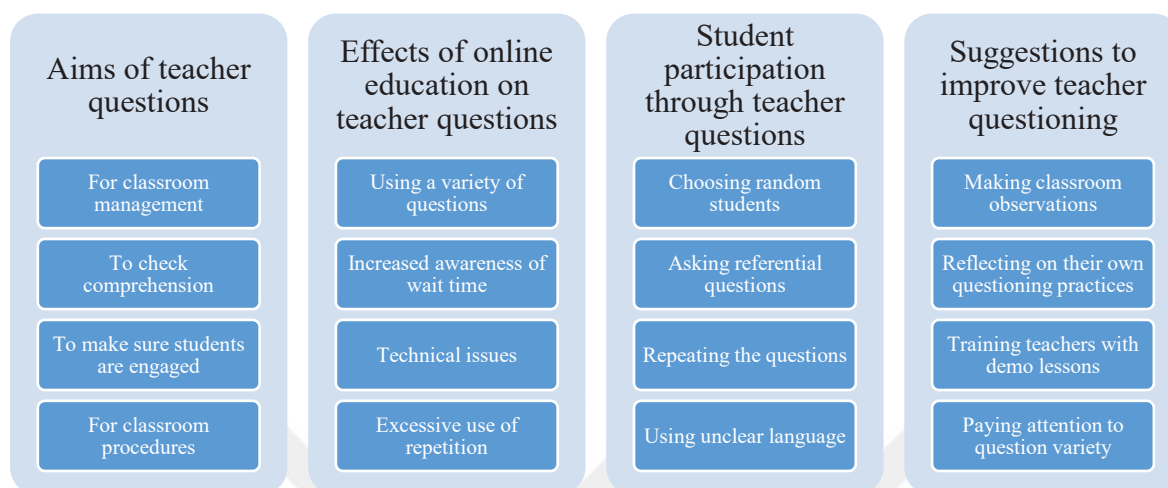


Figure 7. Themes and major codes from the semi-structured interviews

5.3. Discussion in Relation to the Research Questions

RQ-1: What types of questions based on Long & Sato's taxonomy (echoic and epistemic questions) are mainly used by the instructors in online EFL classes?

The analysis of the questions indicated that all types of questions were used at least once in each participants' online lessons. The results showed that the number of epistemic questions (referential, display, epistemic and rhetorical) was much more than echoic questions (comprehension check, clarification request and confirmation check). The most frequently used question type was display questions which was followed by referential and procedural questions, respectively.

The findings of the current study were in parallel to the study conducted by Farahian and Rezaee (2012), who investigated the types of teacher questions. They observed an EFL classroom and interviewed with the teacher. It was found that display questions outnumbered the referential questions. In addition, Shomoossi (2004) carried out a research study to find out the frequency of display and referential questions by observing English reading classes at a university. As a result of the analysis of the classroom observations, a significant difference was found between the numbers of the display and referential questions. The majority of the questions used by the instructors were display questions. Similarly, Noor et al. (2012) aimed to investigate different types of questions used in language classes at four primary schools. The findings of their study indicated that

display questions were used more frequently than referential questions by the teachers. In addition, Kayaoğlu (2013) used the framework by Long & Sato (1983) to classify the teacher questions and the results indicated that display questions outnumbered referential questions. It was also found that the frequency of comprehension questions was higher than confirmation check and clarification request questions. Furthermore, Altun (2010) conducted a similar study to find out the differences between novice and experienced teachers in terms of questioning practices and she used the framework proposed by Long & Sato (1983) and Richards & Lockarts (1996) to categorize the questions. It was found that display and referential questions were the most frequent ones used by the participants, respectively. However, the least used question types were confirmation check, clarification request and comprehension check questions while expressive, rhetorical and confirmation check questions were the least frequently used question types in the current study.

A number of studies also had contradictory results in terms of the frequency of display and referential questions. Zohrabi et al. (2014) examined teacher questioning in different proficiency levels. They found that referential questions were used more frequently than display questions in the advanced language class. Similarly, Toni and Parse (2013) analyzed different types of teacher questions categorized according to Bloom's taxonomy (1956). It was found that inference (referential) questions were used more frequently than knowledge (display) questions in the observed language classrooms. Lastly, the findings of the study conducted by Nhlapo (1998) revealed that the teachers tended to use more referential questions compared to display questions even though the difference was not significant.

RQ2- What is the frequency of procedural questions (Richards & Lockhart, 1996) posed by the instructors in their online classes?

Apart from the mainly used categorization system by Long and Sato (1983), one question type named procedural questions from the framework put forward by Richards & Lockart (1996) was also included in the current study. As mentioned before, the purposes of procedural questions are to manage the classroom and make sure that classroom procedures run smoothly. It was aimed to find out to what extent the instructors in the current study used procedural questions in their online classes. The analysis of the classroom observations showed that procedural questions were the third most used question types in the online classes. The instructors mainly used them to make sure the instructions were clear, and the students could hear the audio or see the screen. It was

observed that the high number of the procedural questions was mostly because of the limitations online education brought. The participants also put forward during the interviews that they tended to use more procedural questions in their online classes compared to face-to-face classrooms. They stated that it was necessary to check on students regularly to make sure there were not any problems related to the classroom procedures.

The findings of the study were in parallel to the study conducted by Altun (2010). She also found that procedural questions were the most frequent used questions after display and referential questions. While novice teachers used them mainly for classroom management, more experienced teachers used them for the organization of the classroom routines. The findings of the study carried out by Karakuş (2018) revealed that pre-service teachers also used procedural questions quite frequently in their teaching practices. The findings suggested that procedural questions were the second most used question types followed by divergent (referential) questions. Similarly, Ölmezer-Öztürk (2016) investigated different types of teacher questions used in an EFL class based on the framework suggested by Richards & Lockart (1996). She found that the most frequent used questions were convergent (display) which was followed by procedural questions. Both convergent (display) and procedural questions outnumbered divergent (referential) questions.

RQ-3 Based on classroom observations, what is the impact of display and referential questions on student participation?

It was aimed to find out how display and referential questions affected student participation in the observed online classes. Students' responses to the questions were examined to draw conclusions. Students' responses were analyzed and categorized as 'nominating, chorus-answering, volunteering and teacher self-answering' with reference to the study conducted by Ndun (2015, p. 62). A new category which was 'no-answer' was also added after examining the transcribed observed lessons. A colleague was consulted in the process of interpreting the data to have a more reliable result.

The analysis of the students' responses revealed that there were more volunteer answers for referential questions. However, there was not a significant difference between nominating answers for display and referential questions. Furthermore, self-answer, in-chorus, and no answer were more frequent for display questions. In light of these results, it may be inferred that the students were more willing to participate when asked referential questions as there were more volunteer answers, and the percentage of self-answer and no-

answer was lower compared to display questions. Additionally, one of the participants touched upon the effect of referential questions on student participation during the interviews. She observed that the students provided longer responses to referential questions, and they were more interested in those kinds of questions compared to display questions. However, higher percentage of in-chorus answers to display questions also showed that the oral production of the students increased when asked certain display questions, as well.

The results were in parallel to several previous research done on the effects of display and referential questions. Özcan (2010) also found that referential questions increased lower-level students' participation, and they tended to give longer responses. Similarly, Wright (2016) investigated display and referential questions in terms of classroom interaction. The findings revealed that using referential questions was effective to make the students participate with longer answers. Additionally, the study conducted by Brock (1986) indicated that the students were involved in the lesson with longer answers and more complex-structured sentences when asked referential questions.

On the other hand, the study conducted by David (2007) revealed that display questions created more opportunities for students to actively participate by promoting classroom interaction. In addition, Allwright and Bailey (1991) stated that display questions encourage, especially low proficiency level students, to participate and it would be wrong to overgeneralize that more answers mean more participation and interaction, which is usually the case for referential questions.

RQ4- What are the instructors' perceptions towards their use of different types of teacher questions in online EFL classes?

The participants were interviewed to find out their perceptions towards the different types of teacher questions in their online classes. The analysis of the interview transcriptions resulted in four themes which were *a) the aims of teacher questions, b) the effects of online education on teacher questions, c) student participation through teacher questions and d) suggestions to improve teacher questioning.*

The participants mainly used questions to manage the students, check comprehension and make sure students are engaged. Similarly, Dyer (2009) puts forward that the purposes of teacher questions are to check students' understanding and motivate them to be involved. In addition, Karakuş (2018) attempted to find out what the definition of teacher

questioning is and the most frequent answers from the participants were as a means of comprehension check, promoting learning, and encouraging student participation. Furthermore, the participants in the present study stated that the questions used for classroom management and procedures increased since they were in a virtual classroom. Making students think further and checking previously learned information, for which referential and display questions are used, were also listed by the participants as the aims of their questions. The previous studies also examined teacher questions under two main categories which were convergent / display and divergent / referential questions (Farahian & Rezaee, 2012; Ho, 2005; Shomoossi, 2004; Toni & Parse, 2013).

The second theme which emerged as a result of the interviews done with the participants was *the effects of online education on teacher questions*, and two categories which were *advantages* and *disadvantages* were generated. The participants claimed that online education enabled them to use a variety of questions and online features. Marton et al. (2004) highlighted the importance of asking a variety of questions to enhance learning opportunities. Increased awareness of wait time and attention to indifferent students were also considered as an advantage of online education in terms of teacher questions. As for disadvantages, the participants touched upon technical issues, difficulty in getting attention, and excessive use of repetition. Since both the students and the instructors experienced technical problems, it had a negative effect on the questioning process. Having technical issues was also one of the reasons why the instructors needed to repeat the same questions from time to time. Furthermore, there were other limitations like not being able to use body language effectively or constant need of checking on the students, both of which had negative effects on teacher questions according to the participants. Similarly, Martin et al. (2012) found that technical problems related to internet connection, audio and students' webcam affected interaction negatively.

Thirdly, *student participation through teacher questions* in online lessons was discussed in detail by the participants. It was stated that certain factors of teacher questioning either facilitate or hinder student participation. Choosing random students, providing enough wait time, asking level appropriate questions, and checking comprehension were among positive factors. Walsh (2002) also highlighted the significance of comprehension check and wait time in promoting student participation. In addition, Goodwin et al. (1992) touched upon certain aspects to enhance participation, one of which was to encourage each student to be involved in a specific activity individually. In parallel to the findings of the

study, Bond (2007) claimed that if teachers asked level appropriate questions and paid attention to wait time, student participation would increase. Apart from the factors mentioned above, connections to previous learning, using Turkish, engaging student with their peers, and using different types of questions were favored by the participants. On the other hand, using unclear language, excessive repetition, and using a negative tone were considered as hindering aspects of teacher questions. Similarly, Brualdi (1998) put forward that students avoid giving answers when the questions are too vague or ambiguous.

The last theme generated as a result of the interview data was *suggestions to improve teacher questioning*. The participants made certain recommendations for the sake of effective questioning. Making classroom observations and reflecting on their own practices were the most frequent codes. In the study conducted by Karakuş (2018), making classroom observations and providing feedback to them were also listed as some of the strategies which would be helpful to improve teacher questions. Furthermore, training teachers with demo lessons, interacting with students through questioning, and paying attention to question variety were suggested by the participants in the current study. Similarly, Vogler (2005) put forward that teachers should be trained to adopt effective questioning skills.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION

6.1. Presentation

The summary of the current study will be presented in this chapter. Furthermore, implications for language teaching and suggestions for further research will be discussed.

6.2. Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out what types of teacher questions were frequently used by the English instructors in their online lessons at a foundation university. In addition, the role of display and referential questions in student participation was investigated. Lastly, it was aimed to explore the instructors' perceptions towards their use of various types of questions in online EFL lessons.

The current study was designed as a case study which is defined as 'a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a case through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information and reports a case description and case-based themes' (Creswell, 2007, p. 73). By this end, in total of 36 online lessons of three instructors were recorded and transcribed by the researcher. The transcriptions were analyzed to categorize the teacher questions. The framework proposed by Long and Sato (1983) was used to classify the questions posed by the instructors. According to the framework, teacher questions are divided in two as epistemic and echoic questions. Epistemic questions involve display, referential, expressive, and rhetorical questions while comprehension check, clarification request, and confirmation check questions are among echoic questions. One question type from the framework suggested by Richards and Lockarts (1996) which is procedural questions was also included in the study.

Furthermore, student responses were examined thoroughly to find out the effects of display and referential questions on student participation. The percentages of volunteer, nominating, in-chorus, self and no answers to both display and referential questions were found to interpret the data. The categorization system was adopted from the study conducted by Ndun (2015) who investigated students' responses in detail. After the transcriptions were examined several times, a colleague of the researcher was involved in the process of analysis to enhance the reliability of the findings.

Lastly, semi-structured interviews were conducted with three instructors to find out their perceptions towards their own questioning in online lessons. After completing the classroom recordings, the participants were interviewed separately with the help of an online platform. 16 questions were prepared before the interviews, but certain follow-up questions were also posed during the interviews. Upon conducting the interviews, the data was transcribed, and member checking was applied to enhance credibility. The interviewees were consulted, and necessary changes were made as a result of their feedback. MAXQDA was used to generate themes, categories, and codes of the data, which allowed the researcher to present the findings in an organized way. The overall findings of the study are presented below:

1. The most frequent question types used by the participants were display, referential, procedural, and comprehension check questions, respectively.
2. Display questions were mainly used to make students remember previously learned information which could be a grammar rule or a definition of a word, whereas referential questions were used to make students think about a specific topic and come up with answers which could not be predicted by the instructor.
3. The limitations of online education resulted in frequent use of procedural questions since the students needed more guidance in classroom routines and procedures.
4. Comprehension check questions were also used predominantly as the instructors tried to make sure that the students understood what had been explained.
5. The least used question types were expressive and rhetorical questions, respectively.
6. The analysis of classroom recordings revealed that the ways students responded to display and referential questions differed.

7. While there were more volunteer answers for referential questions, the percentages of self-answer and no-answer were higher for display questions. This may indicate that the students were more willing to participate when asked referential questions.
8. The participants also indicated that referential questions had a positive effect on student participation. They also listed other positive factors which have a role in student participation like choosing random students, checking comprehension, and providing enough wait time etc.
9. The analysis of the interviews done with the participants revealed that teacher questions were mainly used to manage the classroom, check comprehension, and make students engaged.
10. According to the participants, online education enabled them to use a variety of questions and be more aware of wait time while technical issues, repeating the questions excessively, and difficulty in attracting students' attention were the negative aspects of online classrooms.
11. Certain suggestions were made by the participants to improve teacher questioning like making classroom observations, training teachers, and learning to use online tools effectively.

6.3. Implications for Language Teaching

Based on the findings of the present study on teacher questioning in online EFL lessons at a foundation university, certain implications for language teaching can be done. To start with, the results indicated that online education resulted in certain changes in teaching practices, especially for teacher questions. Thus, it is important that the teachers are aware of those changes and modify their questions accordingly. Since attending virtual classes is a new experience for students, teachers are expected to use their questions to make sure that they do not feel lost and demotivated.

Furthermore, it is essential to be aware of the functions of different types of questions in online classes since they have a huge effect on classroom interaction and student participation. It is of great importance that teachers detect students' needs and make use of various types of questions to address them as a guidance which is needed more in an online environment.

Lastly, it is necessary to train teachers through reflective teaching and classroom observations to increase the efficiency of teacher questions in online lessons. Certain suggestions related to questioning strategies were made by the participants in the current study which can provide insights to language teachers. Paying attention to wait time and question variety, making questions more indirect, and increasing interaction with the students through questions were among the suggestions mentioned by the participants.

6.4. Suggestions for Further Research

Several suggestions for further research can be made as a result of this study. First of all, a similar study can be conducted in different contexts like online English lessons at a primary school or high school. Questioning practices of the teachers might be different in a classroom with young learners or high school teenagers.

The data was collected from three classes with the same proficiency level of English in this study. Further research studies may focus on different teaching levels in terms of teacher questioning. The researchers could attempt to find out if the types of teacher questions differ in the classes with high and low proficiency level students. Furthermore, a longitudinal study might be conducted to track the development of teachers' questioning skills in online lessons over time. Classroom observations and reflective journals can be used to draw conclusions on the questioning habits of the teachers.

Lastly, the use of different types of teacher questions can be compared in face-to-face and online classrooms. English lessons held in virtual classrooms and traditional face-to-face classrooms might be observed in the same context to find out if there are any significant differences.

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APPENDICES



APPENDIX A: Semi-structured Interview Questions

1. How often do you use questions in your online English lessons?
2. In your opinion, what makes teacher questions effective? What determines the efficiency of the questions you ask during online lessons?
3. What can be the different purposes of the teacher questions? For what purposes do you usually ask your questions in your online teaching practice?
4. Teacher questions are mostly examined under two main sections as display and referential questions. Display questions refer to the questions asked for comprehension check, while referential questions are asked to retrieve new information from the students. Which type of question do you think you mostly use in online lessons? Why?
5. Procedural questions refer to the questions that are asked classroom procedures, routines and classroom management. How often do you use procedural questions in online classes? Do you use them more often compared to face-to-face lessons?
6. What can be the effects of teacher questioning on students' learning? How could teacher questions hinder or facilitate learning?
7. How do the level and age of the students affect your questioning practices in online education? Do you modify your language or the way you use your questions according to students' profile (level and age)?
8. Do you provide wait time for your students after your questions? What can be the effects of wait time on students' answers and participation?
9. In which stage of the lesson do you use questions mostly? Do you use questions more while teaching a specific skill or sub-skill? Why?
10. In your opinion, has online teaching changed the way you generate your questions? If so, what is the difference between face-to-face and online classes in terms of your questioning practices?
11. What is the role of teacher questioning in student participation in online classes? Based on your experiences, what type of questions usually encourage students to participate more?
12. How do you utilize teacher questions to maximize students' involvement and participation in online classes? How do you make sure each student is active in the class?
13. When your students are not willing to participate in the lesson, do you make use of questions to encourage them? What kind of questions do you use to encourage them?
14. What are the advantages and disadvantages of online education in terms of questioning? Do you face any challenges that normally would not be the case in face-to-face classrooms? How do you deal with them?
15. If you evaluate yourself in terms of effective questioning in online education, which features can you point out as strengths and weaknesses? Can you give specific examples from your experiences?
16. What can be done to improve teachers' questioning skills in online classes? Can you think of any strategies that would be helpful for teachers to use to increase the efficiency of their questions?

APPENDIX B: Sample Lesson Transcripts with Types of Teacher Questions

1. Transcription from Melda's Class (15.12.2020 / 1st lesson)

T: Hi, how are you? (referential)

(Students don't answer)

T: Are you all sleepy? (referential) Why nobody's answering? (referential) Okay, let's wait a little bit more for other people to come. I put a survey on Teams. If you want to watch a movie and discuss it, you can complete it. We talked about it before, but I wanted to learn which one you prefer. I put some nice movies and one documentary which is also good. Let me show you. (sharing the screen) If you open the general chat window, you will see here there is a poll. There are movie names, you can give them stars (1 to 5). Then, we will watch the one with the highest score. This is not compulsory, it is totally voluntary, so you can check it out.

S1: Okay, thank you.

T: Where did you left yesterday on 9A? (procedural) Where were you left? (procedural)

S1: On page 71. Reading and speaking part.

T: Oh, good. Then, we can start from here. You are talking about the animals. Now there is a quiz. In the quiz, there are questions and I want you to complete these questions with these words. Then, we will check it. Please, try to complete it. I will give you four minutes to do it. You can start.

(students completing the missing parts)

S4: Hocam bir şey sorabilir miyim?

T: Yes.

S4: Ben Teams'e bilgisayardan girmek istiyorum da e-mail diyor, giremiyorum. Nasıl gireceğim bilgisayardan acaba?

T: Your student e-mail, you can use that.

S4: Ben onu yazıyorum ama e-mail kayıtlı değil yazıyor.

T: It should be okay because you all here have student e-mail. Check it out, okay? Maybe you can your password etc. It should be okay. Have you finished? (procedural)

S4: Yes.

T: Okay, let's look at them and check. The first question. What would you do if a large, aggressive which animal

A few students: Dog

T: I would shout at it several times. I would put my hands in my pockets and walk slowly backwards. I would keep completely still and look in its eyes. So, which one would you do? (referential) What would you do? (referential) What would be your reaction? (referential)

(students' answer cannot be heard)

T: You said C? (confirmation) This is what would you do. There is no answer. What is your answer? (display)

S11: Shout down çömelmek gibi bir anlamı mı var?

T: I would shout down at it. You will scream. You look at the dog and you shout.

S2: Hocam ben şimdi geldim ama yok yazıldım mı?

T: No, I didn't take the attendance.

S2: Tamam hocam.

T: So, what would you do? (referential) Ne yapardın? (referential) You would shout or you would just put your hands in your pocket and walk? (referential)

S4: I would run.

T: You would run? (confirmation)

S4: Yes.

T: Okay, none of these. What about others, what would you do? (referential) Can you turn on your cameras? (procedural) Kameralarınızı açar mısınız? (procedural)

S11: Hocam ikinci ders açsak olur mu?

T: Why? (referential) Why do you say like that? (referential) Are you sleeping or what? (display) S15, can you tell me what is the answer for the first question? (referential)

S15: Hocam, I would put my hands in my pocket and walk slowly backwards dedim ben.

T: You said B.

S15: Yes.

T: S8, what about you? (referential)

S8: Hocam C mantıklı ama o anki stresli A'yı yapardım muhtemelen.

T: So, you think C is more reasonable, but probably you would do A.

S8: Yes.

T: S13

S13: Efendim hocam.

T: What would you do? (referential) Question 1. No answer? (confirmation) S2, what about you? (referential)

S2: Hocam ben kitabımı şimdi açıyorum.

T: Gelme, kamerayı açma, konuşma. Ne yapacağız? (rhetorical)

S2: Hocam, valla ilk defa oldu böyle bir şey.

T: Okay, if there is no other answer, I will move on to two. What would you do if you were driving and a 122lab la or 122lab la flew into the car.

S11: Bee or wasp

T: Bee or? (clarification)

S11: Wasp

T: I would open all the windows and wait for it to fly out. I would try to kill it with a map or a newspaper. I would wave my hand to make it go out. Which one? (referential)

A few students: A

T: A.

S1: Yes, I would open all the window and wait for it to fly out.

T: Okay, is there anyone else who says something different? (referential)

S11: B

T: Is there anyone who would make C? (referential)

S11: Hocam kameramı açtım, görünüyor mu sizde? Sizi yalnız bırakmayayım dedim hocam.

T: Thank you so much. Let's look at number three. On three, it asks what would you do if a poisonous something

S11: Snake

T: If a poisonous snake bit you on the leg and you were more than 30 minutes from the nearest town, oh my god you are far away. So, what are you going to do? (referential) (reading the options) Which one would you do? (referential)

S11: Suck the bite ne demek?

T: You try to take the poison out.

S4: Emmek, dışarı atmak.

T: Yeah.

S4: I think C.

T: You would tie something to your leg, so poison doesn't go up. Okay, anyone who says A? (referential)

S11: No, I think C. More logical.

T: C is more logical, okay. Is there anyone who wants to do B? (referential) I would suck the bite to get the poison out.

(no answer)

T: No? You don't know, okay. Let's look at four. What would you do if you were walking a dog on a lead and some 123lab la started moving towards you

S11: Cows

T: So, which one would you do? (referential)

S1: B

T: I would pick the dog up in my arms. S1 says B. Anyone else? (referential)

S10: A

T: I would let the dog run free. Anyone who says C? (referential) Okay, let's look at water part. In this part, the first question is what would you do if you were in the sea and a 123lab la stung you

S17: A jellyfish

T: (reading the options) Which one? (referential)

A few students: A

T: Anyone who says B? (referential) Wash the sting with fresh water. Is there anyone who says C? (referential)

S2: Hocam stung ne demek?

T: Sting, stung like iğne batırıyor sana. Isırıyor yani.

S2: Hocam çok kötü yakıyor bu arada deniz anaları.

S11: Vinegar ne demek?

T: Vinegar, sirke.

S11: Okay.

S1: Ben C derdim.

T: Yes, I think it would help. Number six, what would you do if you were in the sea quite near the shore and you saw a 124

S1: Shark

T: Shark. (reading the options)

S2: C

T: C, you would shout for help. Is there anyone who says B? (referential)

S11: Bu cümlede float, float what does it mean?

T: Float is like, you don't do anything but you just stay on the water.

S11: I think B.

T: Is there anyone who says A? (referential)

S4: I prefer A.

T: You think you can escape from the shark? (confirmation)

S4: Yes.

S11: Teacher, have you ever seen the shallows?

T: Shallow? (clarification)

S11: Yes.

T: What do you mean? (clarification)

S11: Blake Lively'nin bir filmi.

T: No, I haven't.

S11: O da böyle bir şey anlatıyordu.

T: I don't know. I am not very movie person. I mean I watch, but these days I don't watch American or English movies. I mostly watch Indian. Okay, keep your answers on your mind because you will need them. Let's look at these words and try to understand their meanings. If there is any other word you don't understand, you can ask me. Shout, what do you this is? (display)
Actually, I told you.

S1: Bağırarak

T: Yes, you scream, you make a very loud voice. Keep still? (display)

S4: Sakin kalmak

T: Keep still, like you don't move. You just keep still, you don't move at all. What about wave? (display)

S2: Dalga anlamı vardı ama.

S4: Nerede yazıyor hocam?

T: Here.

S4: Elinle dalga yapmak.

T: Waving your hand, like saying goodbye. This is waving (showing her hands). **Next one, suck? (display)**

S4: Emmek

T: Yes. **Tie something? (display)**

S11: Kravat değil mi?

T: If it's a noun, it means the thing we put on our neck to look formal, but if it is a verb, then it is like this. (starts writing the words on the screen)

T: Tie, an accessory we use to look formal

S2: Sarmak gibi bir anlamı mı var acaba?

T: It's a verb. **What do you, let's say kravatı ne yaparsın? (display)**

S11: Bağlamak?

T: Yes, you bring them together and you tie it. It is bağlamak.

S11: Burada bağlamak anlamında mı?

T: You put two things and then tie it.

S12: Hocam cümle içinde kravat bağlamak darken nasıl söylüyoruz?

T: Can you please tie my tie, for example.

S12: Tie tie mı oluyor?

T: Tie my tie or I tied my shoes. Let's look at the other one, rub. This is also a verb.

S4: Ovmak, ovalamak değil mi?

T: Yes. You rub it. Let's say, you put cream and then you rub it. Float, I can use it two ways. One is floating in the air. The other one is floating in the water. It means you don't move, but you float. First one is süzölmek in the air, and you just try to stay on the water. Imagine like you put a piece of wood on the water, it floats. **Any questions? (comprehension)**

S11: No.

T: **Is there any other word you don't understand in the quiz? (comprehension)**

S11: Hocam gördüğüm bir kelimeyi kaçırdım. Tamam anladım, teşekkürler, yokmuş hocam.

T: **Is there anyone who wants to ask a word? (comprehension)**

S3: Hocam, snake'den bir önce olan yer

T: Poison

S3: Ne demek o?

T: **Do you know poison? (display)**

S4: Zehir

T: Yes, poison is the noun. It is something which will hurt you and it will harm your body.

S3: Teşekkür ederim.

T: But, poisonous is the adjective form.

S3: Zehirlemek?

T: Zehirli. Zehirli, zehirleyici, all of them are adjectives, okay? **Any questions? (comprehension)**

S11: No

T: **So, do you think you gave correct answers which would work? (referential)**

S11: Hangi seçeneklerin doğru olduğunu mu soruyorsunuz?

T: **Yeah, do you think you gave a correct answer? (referential)** Okay, we will learn them. We don't know which ones were correct, but we will learn now. I will put you into pairs. One person will go to page 105, sorry three. You will be in groups of three. First person will go to 105, then 110 and 107. You will see a page like this. This is in your book, so you can look at that. Let me create groups of three. You will go to these groups and I want you to open pages 105, 110 and 107. Look at the answers. Note how many you got right down and I will ask you when you come back. You will have, you can discuss quite a lot. I will give you ten minutes. I will open the rooms.

S2: Hocam sonra tekrar buraya mı geleceğiz?

T: Yes, please come back. When you look at the screen, you will see like go back, so you can come. See you after ten minutes.

T: S18, I will put you in a group. (latecomer) Your friends will tell you what to do. **Are you here? (procedural)**

S18: Efendim hocam?

T: I will put you into the group and your friends will tell you what to do.

S18: Türkçesini söyleyebilir misiniz?

T: Grup çalışması yapıyoruz. Seni bir gruba atacağım, arkadaşların söylerler.

S18: Tamam hocam.

(students are in the discussion rooms)

T: It's break time, see you after the break.

2. Transcription from Sinem's Class (22.12.2020 / 2nd lesson)

T: **Are you here guys? (procedural)**

S16: I'm here

T: Okay. **Is there anyone who did not come to face-to-face education? (procedural)**

S12: Me.

T: All online. **How does it feel? (referential)**

S12: At first, it's terrible.

T: But now

S12: Okay.

T: You got used to it.

S4: Hocam sizce ikinci dönem okulların açılma ihtimali ne?

T: Hiç bilmiyorum ama gönlüm açılmasından yana.

S4: Keşke.

T: Ne güzel eğlenceli şeyler yapardık yüz yüze.

S16: Evet hocam ya. Mezun senemde dersanenin de online derslerine girmemiştım. Çünkü olmuyordu. Burada da yapamıyorum, katlanamıyorum.

T: Katlanamıyorsun, o kadar kötü yani.

S16: Evet hocam. Okula gelirken her gün 6 buçukta kalkan bir insandım. Şimdi 8'i çeyrek geçe kalkıyorum. 16 geçe derse giriyorum.

T: 8'de başlayan derse 8.15'te kalkılır mı? (referential)

S16: Ama hocam alıştırma aşamasındayım.

T: Alarm kur bari.

S16: Bundan sonra öyle yapacağım.

T: 7.58'e kur alarmını. Sizin için de zor 6 saat bilgisayarın başında oturup ders dinlemek. Benim de kendi derslerim var. Benim için de zor.

S16: Siz burada 6 saat duruyorsunuz. Bir de 3 saat, 9 saat. Geçmiş olsun.

T: Teşekkür ederim. Perşembe günleri özellikle zor oluyor. Ödevler, sunumlar var. Onlar da zor oluyor.

S4: Hocam siz sıkılmıyor musunuz bu şekilde ders anlatmaktan?

T: Ben durağan ders anlatmayı sevmem. Sınıfın içinde aktiviteler yapmayı severim. Burada o fırsatım olmuyor. Öğrenciler sıkıldığı için geri dönüt alamıyorum. Tabi bizim için de zor oluyor.

S4: Hocam biz eski dönemde son 15 dakika film izliyorduk. Yine öyle bir şey yapabiliriz.

T: Onlar aklımda var aslında. Kitap bu aralar çok sıkışık. O yüzden hızlı bitirmemiz gerekiyor. Sürekli ders işleyince, online da olunca sıkıcı oluyor, anlıyorum. Biraz katlanmamız gerekecek.

S18: Hocam peki ikinci dönem kendi bölümümüz ile ilgili İngilizce terimler öğrenecek miyiz?

T: ESP dersleriniz olacak. English for Specific Purposes. ESP derslerinde dışçiliğin ayrı bir kitap var. Gastronominin ayrı kitabı var. Listelerde yok muydu o kitapların isimleri? (procedural)

S7: Kitaplar ortak hocam.

T: O zaman ESP henüz gelmedi. İkinci dönem belli olur. Her hafta 4 saat ESP dersiniz olacak.

S18: Tamam hocam, teşekkürler.

T: Rica ederim. Var mı başka sorunuz? (procedural) Okay, o zaman devam edelim. We talked about inventions, some additional information about inventions. Now, we have a table. Look at it and make true sentences. For example, glasses were invented in about 1286. The first stamp, what can it be? (display)

S15: was called by Adolphe Sax.

T: Stamp was called, I told you this.

S1: Penny Black.

T: Başta Penny Black diye adlandırılmış. The first stamp was called the Penny Black. How about this one, twenty billion pieces of lego

S7: are produced every year.

T: are produced every year. **Do you agree? (display)** The next one

S6: Saxophone was invented by Adolphe Sax.

T: Yes. The last one

S6: The Nobel Prize is named after the inventor of dynamite.

T: Yes, is named after. **What is 'name after'? (display)** His name was Nobel and the name of the prize is Nobel prize. This was named after Alfred Nobel. He gave his name to that prize. Now, we have two different sentences here. **Which one is an active and which is a passive sentence? (display)**

S5: A, active sentences. B, inactive

T: B is a passive sentence. **How did you understand? (display)**

S5: Because A invented means verb, but second one invented by the Swiss. Onun tarafından bulundu gibi bir şey.

T: **Bizim burada asıl ipucumuz ne? (rhetorical) (asks herself) The Swiss invented. Where is my subject in the first sentence? (display)**

S10: Swiss

T: The Swiss. I know who invented it and I take my subject put it at the beginning. **Here, do I have a subject at the beginning of the sentence? (display)**

S6: No.

T: **So, who invented, the watch invented? (display)**

S6: No, the watch is invention.

T: The watch is the invention, my object. In passive sentences, I do not have subject, but I have object at the beginning of the sentence. Look at them again. **Do they mean the same? (display)**

S1: I think same.

T: Yes, they are the same. The focus of the sentence is different. **In which sentence, the focus is more on the watch? (display)**

S18: Second sentence.

T: Perfect. The watch was invented by the Swiss. **The focus of the first sentence is what? (display)**

S1: The Swiss.

T: The Swiss. **When I make passive sentences, what's my aim? (rhetorical) If the object that was done is more important than the person who does it, I use passive. Yapılan şeyin daha önemli olduğunu vurgulamak için. Look at these sentences. Are they passive or active? (display)**

S1: Passive.

T: Passive, right. These are all the things that were invented, so they are at the beginning of the sentence. **What's my tense here? (display)**

S19: Past tense.

T: Past tense, perfect. Let's take the first sentences and try to make this active. **How can I do it? (display)**

S6: Chinese invented guns.

T: Do you agree with her? (display)

S19: I think we should use am, is, are instead of were.

T: This is a past tense.

S6: We should use past. For example, the Chinese invented the guns because Chinese is my subject.

T: Actually, you are right. Here, who invented? (rhetorical) Chinese invented. In a normal active sentence, I use my subject. I use the person who does the action at the beginning of the sentence. My tense is past tense. In active sentence, how can I use past tense? (rhetorical) Verb3, verb2 sorry. Chinese invented guns. This is my active sentence.

S12: Can we say the?

T: Yes, the Chinese. Is that clear? (comprehension)

S1: Why do we use 'the'?

T: The people in China. Oradaki insanlara refer etmek için diyorduk ya.

S12: Maybe some of the Chinese people invented that. We don't know.

T: Onu bilmiyoruz zaten.

S12: O zaman niye tek kişi gibi kabul ediyoruz?

T: Tek kişi değil, Çinliler diyoruz burada.

S20: Hocam Türkçe'deki etken ve edilgen gibi düşünebilir miyiz?

T: Aynen öyle.

S4: Hocam bir şey sorabilir miyim?

T: Yes.

S4: I was walked, ben yürütüldüm mü demek oluyor?

T: Evet ama çok mantıklı bir cümle olmuyor.

S1: Bir buluş yapmak, yaparsın biter ya. Geliştirmek süreç gerektiren bir şey. Onda present kullanabilir miyiz?

T: Tabi, sadece past değil present da öğreneceğiz.

S16: Hocam Türkçe'deki etken edilgen nasıl oluyor?

T: Hemen bakalım. Normally, in active sentence my tense is past tense. When I make this sentence passive, we have an extra here. In past passive, I use was, were and verb3. This makes our sentence passive.

S16: Birisi tarafından edilgen değil mi?

T: Aynen, yapıldı. Was/were kullanarak passive yapabiliriz. Let's check some more examples on grammar bank. Here, we have present simple passive. Let's check present tense. For example, China produces millions of toys every year. Which tense is this? (display)

S16: Present

T: What do I need at the beginning of the sentence? (display)

S16: is dememiz gerekmez mi?

T: Yes, you are right, but at the beginning of the sentence I need what? (display)

S6: Object

T: An object. My object is millions of toys.

S16: 'Are' o zaman, değil mi?

T: Aynen öyle. Are produced.

S1: By the Chinese.

T: By the Chinese or by China. The rule for present tense is ..

S16: am, is, are

T: Am, is, are verb3. That's the rule for passive structures. Is that clear? (comprehension)

S4: What's the difference with first type?

T: Past ve present arasındaki fark mı? (clarification)

S4: Evet anlam olarak.

T: Anlam farkı yok. Birinde Çinliler silahı icat etti. Diğerinde silah Çinliler tarafından icat edildi.

S4: Onu anladım da am,is,are kullandığımızla diğeri arasında anlam farkı.

T: Aynı present ve past gibi. Biri geçmişten bahsediyor, biri genelde olan şeyler. Aynı present ve past arasındaki neyse bunların arasındaki fark da o. Here, we can see different structures. I use am,is,are and verb3 in question and negative sentences. In past, I use was/were. Check the sentences.

S6: For the first sentences, can we make it to active?

T: Of course. In here, we don't know who produce lego. We can say the factory or people.

S6: The factory produce 20 billion pieces of lego, yes?

T: Yes, the factory produces. We use passive structure when the one produces, bu işi yapan kişi, is not important. Here, is it important for us to know who produces lego? (display)

S6: No.

T: We can guess some factory, people, workers produce it. My focus is this one. I'm interested in this information. Any other question? (comprehension)

S20: Is there any future version?

T: Yes, of course. For each tense, we have a passive version. For future, you can say will be done. For now, we are just talking about present and past.

S5: Do we have dönüşlü verb in English? I was walked dedik ya, o olur mu?

T: I was walked şöyle olur. I was walked by force. Güç kullanarak yürütüldüm gibi.

S5: İngilizce'de öyle bir karşılık yok o zaman.

T: Evet. Context'e göre olur da olmaz da. How do I use passive and why? (display)

S6: We use passive for it's not very important. When we want to make some sentences, we shouldn't have subject. In active sentence, we have subject.

T: Yes, so it's clear for you. It's all clear for all of you. We can check some example sentences here. My car was stolen last week. Do we know who stole it? (rhetorical) No. Is it important? (rhetorical) It was stolen. Somebody stole it. (asks herself) You can also use by if you want to include who did the action.

S4: Hocam, sadece sizin görebildiğiniz test gibi bir şeyleri oluyor ya, onu bize atabilir misiniz?

T: Olur, atarım. Cuma günü için revision hazırlamayı düşünüyorum zaten. Let's make some sentences by ourselves. Tell me an active sentence. When I teach passive, I remember there was a line in GORA. Did you watch it? (display)

Some students: Yes.

T: There was a famous line. It's perfect for passive. Aliens kidnapped me. Make it passive. Who kidnapped? (display)

S6: I was kidnapped by aliens.

T: Yes, I was kidnapped by aliens. If you watched Gora, this is the most famous line. They are having a phone conversation. He was kidnapped by aliens. He says 'uzaylılar tarafından kaçırıldım'. The person on the line says something evet tarafından kind of thing.

S12: How we can say evet tarafından?

T: Yes, by aliens. Tell me another sentence.

S6: Wright brothers invented airplane.

T: Okay, make this a passive sentence.

S6: Me?

T: Someone else. How can we turn this into passive? (display)

S4: Airplane was invented by Wright brothers.

T: Perfect. Another sentence. Think about a present simple sentence. Let me think.

S1: The roads are salted every winter.

T: Good. How can I make this an active sentence? (display) Who salts the roads? (display)

S6: The workers salt the roads every winter.

T: Yes. So far, everything is okay. Here, on the next page, we can do this part. Present or past passive. Look at the sentences and decide. If you want, we can do it together.

S16: We can do together I think.

T: The first one.

S6: Many of the things we use every day were invented by women.

T: Were invented.

S4: I did are invented.

T: They invented in the past so that we can use them now. İcat ettiler ve biz şu an kullanabiliyoruz. We use every day. They were invented in the past. This one, in the UK most children..

Some students: Educate

T: Children gives education or education is given to children? (display) Kim eğitiyor, kim eğitiliyor? (display)

S1: Are educated

T: Are educated.

S6: I have a question. Children is subject.

T: Think like that. Children do not teach anything. Teachers teach children. We give education to children.

S6: Okay.

T: You can say in the UK, most children go to state school, but state schools give education to children. The children does not educate someone. See you next lesson.

S16: Hocam speaking var değil mi?

T: Yes.

S16: Devamsızlığımızı sorabileceğimiz biri var mı?

T: Ben size gönderdim. Gruba gönderdim.

S16: Tamam hocam.

T: Görüşürüz. See you.

3. Transcription from Hande's Class (15.12.2020 / 2nd lesson)

T: Hello, back everyone. Can you hear me? (procedural)

Some students: Yes.

T: Some of us could wake up. I cannot sleep because I'm teaching, so I wait for you here.

S9: I'm okay, teacher. I'm ready.

T: Okay. Everybody else is okay, as well I hope. I can't see some of you. Is there a problem? (procedural) Let's continue. In this lesson, I will show you some confusing words. If you understand them, your English will jump, guys. They may be confusing for you. What is confusing? (display)

A few students: Yes.

T: Okay, how can you explain? (display)

S17: Difficult to understand.

T: Difficult to understand or difficult to decide. Let's see these two sentences. Peter was unemployed and was finding, actually not finding. He was doing another thing, what is that? (display)

S1: Applying?

T: But, applying for is not long time action. You just apply and it finishes. Finding is the end of the action, what do you do before you find? (display)

S13: Search

T: Yes, but how can you say it in the phrasal verb? (display)

S10: Look for değil mi?

T: Very good, that's it. He was looking for a job. That's the meaning. Second one, the guide said Sue that there was only one tiger in the whole park. Said is wrong here. What do you think? (display)

S1: Explain?

T: Actually, it is told. Why, what is the difference between say and tell? (display) If you don't know, listen to me carefully. Say is directly used before everything, but for tell you need a pronoun. You cannot continue with the sentence after tell. (writing examples on the screen) That's the difference between them. Did you understand? (comprehension)

Okay, I want you to check the vocabulary bank for this activity. It is your homework, I will show the answers tomorrow. By the way, you don't remind me the answer key for workbook. Please, remind me at the end of the lesson. So, you can find the confusing verbs here. For example, you can carry a bag, but you cannot carry jewelry. You wear them. Please, check them and match them with their pictures. Now, we will do activity C and circle the correct words. They are also confused a lot.

(students doing the activity)

T: Let's start with the answers. I want you to really answer these questions. S18, what do you think about the first question? (display)

S18: Who do you look like in your family?

T: Yes, who do you look like in your family? (referential)

S18: I'm looking like my father.

T: Who do you look like in your family? (with more stress) (referential)

S18: İşte, my father.

T: Yes, but it's not continuous tense, so

S18: I look like my father.

T: Bravo. S13, who do you look like in your family? (referential)

S13: Me, too. I look like my father.

T: Very good. How many English classes have you missed this year? I think it is impossible to remember, so let's skip this question. What music do you like, S4

S4: listening to in the car.

T: Bravo. Can you answer, what music do you like listening? (referential)

S4: I don't remember any name, but I like listening to pop music in the car.

T: Very good. S17, four.

S17: Do you think football players earn too much money?

T: Bravo. Do you think that? (referential)

S17: Yes, I think football players earn too much money.

T: Or you can say – yes I think they do. Five.

S1: What is the best way to meet new friends? Should I answer?

T: Yes, please.

S1: Chatting on the Internet is the best way to meet friends.

T: Do you mean on social media? (confirmation)

S1: Yes.

T: Okay, thank you. Now, question six, S19.

S19: Is it sometimes okay to tell a lie?

T: Which one? (display)

S19: Tell

T: Bravo. It's just a collocation. I mean it is used like that. What do you think, is it okay to tell lies? (referential)

S19: Sometimes yes.

T: Like what times? (referential) You can answer with if to this one. When do you tell a lie? (referential)

(no answer)

T: S19, do you hear me? (procedural)

S19: Yes, teacher. If I want to go out, my family tell a lie

T: It's okay to tell a lie to my family. Any question up to now? (comprehension) I think no. Let's continue. S5, seven.

S5: Have you ever borrowed money to a family member?

T: Borrow is actually the opposite. You take it when you borrow.

S5: Okay, have you ever lent money to a family member?

T: Very good. What is the meaning of lend? (display)

S5: Ödünç almak?

T: You actually give that. So, have you ever lent money to a family member? (referential)

S5: Yes, always

T: Really? (expressive) To which family member? (display)

S5: I don't know

T: You mean you give money, right? (confirmation)

S5: No, family give me.

T: So, you borrow money from your family. Your family give you money if you borrow money from them. You give them money if you lend to them. S11, eight.

S11: Do you know anyone looking for a flat?

T: Do you know anyone? (referential)

S11: No, I don't know.

T: Thank you, you don't know anyone. Nine,

S15: What clothes do you usually wear during the week?

T: Bravo, wear. S14, ten.

S14: Do you ever watch films on your phone? Yes, I have seen a lot of movies on my phone.

T: Very good, any questions? (comprehension)

S12: Teacher, can I ask a question?

T: Please.

S12: Have you ever and do you ever, what is the difference? I don't know.

T: Have you ever is also about your past, but do you ever is about your future and present.

S12: Okay.

T: Do you ever is for regular actions.

S12: Thank you.

T: You're welcome. **Another question? (comprehension)** So, we will continue with pronunciation activity. It is not important for you to understand homophone, but it means very similar or same sound. (giving examples) Now, we will listen to some sentences and try to complete the blanks with the correct words. They are similar words. Now, let's start to listen and find the blanks. (opens the recording)

T: Alright, I will show you answers. Please check them and ask me if you don't understand any of these words. Now I want you to write verb2 and verb3 of the verb 'wear' on the chat box. (reading students' answers)

T: Finally, we are ready to go on with a short story of a very important writer, O. Henry. **Anybody who heard O. Henry before? (display)** **Have you ever read any story of him? (display)** If you didn't and if you are a booklover, you can check O. Henry. As I said, we will read this story to understand adverbs of manners. **What are they? (rhetorical) (asks herself)** **They are adverbs and they show the feelings of the writer or the mood of the story.** You can show it with adverbs. Now, we will see what kind of things are explained. First, we will read the first part of the story. Before that, we will look at the photos. **What century do you think they are in? (referential)**

S13: I think 19th

T: **How do you understand? (referential)**

S13: It's not 20 because the photo is not good so much. Again, it is not 18th because it is not black white.

T: **Any other ideas? (referential)** Actually, you are right because of the clothes and color used in the picture. Now, we are ready to read and listen to part 1. Then, you will answer the questions. I will show you the part, at the same time, I will make you listen. Pay attention to adverbs, they are effective story telling parts. Let's read and listen. Now, you have one minute to find the answers. **Sena, what do you think about the first question? (display)**

S2: He gave search to someone.

T: He gave Hartley somebody's address. **Whose address? (display)**

S2: I'm not sure who is she.

T: Actually, I gave a clue, the first letter is V.

S18: Vivien's address.

T: He gave Vivien's address, very good. **What did he offer to do? (display)**

S12: If he want, detective can follow.

T: **So, he offered to follow Vivien, right? (confirmation)**

S12: Yes.

T: Second question, S20.

S20: Teacher, I didn't catch it.

T: **What happens when he gets the address? (display)**

S20: Wait a minute, I'm looking. 314 East, 49th street

T: **Actually, after he took the address, what did he do? (display)** Let's check here.

S20: He left his office and took a tram to Broadway.

T: **Where was he going? (display)**

S20: Broadway.

T: **Why, what is in Broadway? (display)** Okay, he took the address from detective.

S20: Yes, and he went to Broadway, so her address is Broadway.

T: Yes, that's it. Very good. Third one, S19.

S19: Her hair was red gold and her eyes were sea blue. She was wearing a white top and dark skirt.

T: **And she looked about what age? (display)**

S19: Twenty-one.

T: Alright, thank you. S18, four.

S18: She couldn't answer his letter.

T: Okay, she didn't answer the letter. **So, why do you think Vivien didn't answer Hartley's letter? (referential)**

S11: Because his letter rude

T: **Sorry, it is? (clarification)**

S11: He is very rude, that's why she didn't want to talk him.

T: **Why do you think he is rude, Dilara? (referential)**

S12: Because, in the last part, why didn't you answer my letter- it's too rude I think. How can I say?

T: Pushy

S12: Yes, teacher.

T: Let's see. Now we will read and listen to part two and answer the questions from 1 to 5.

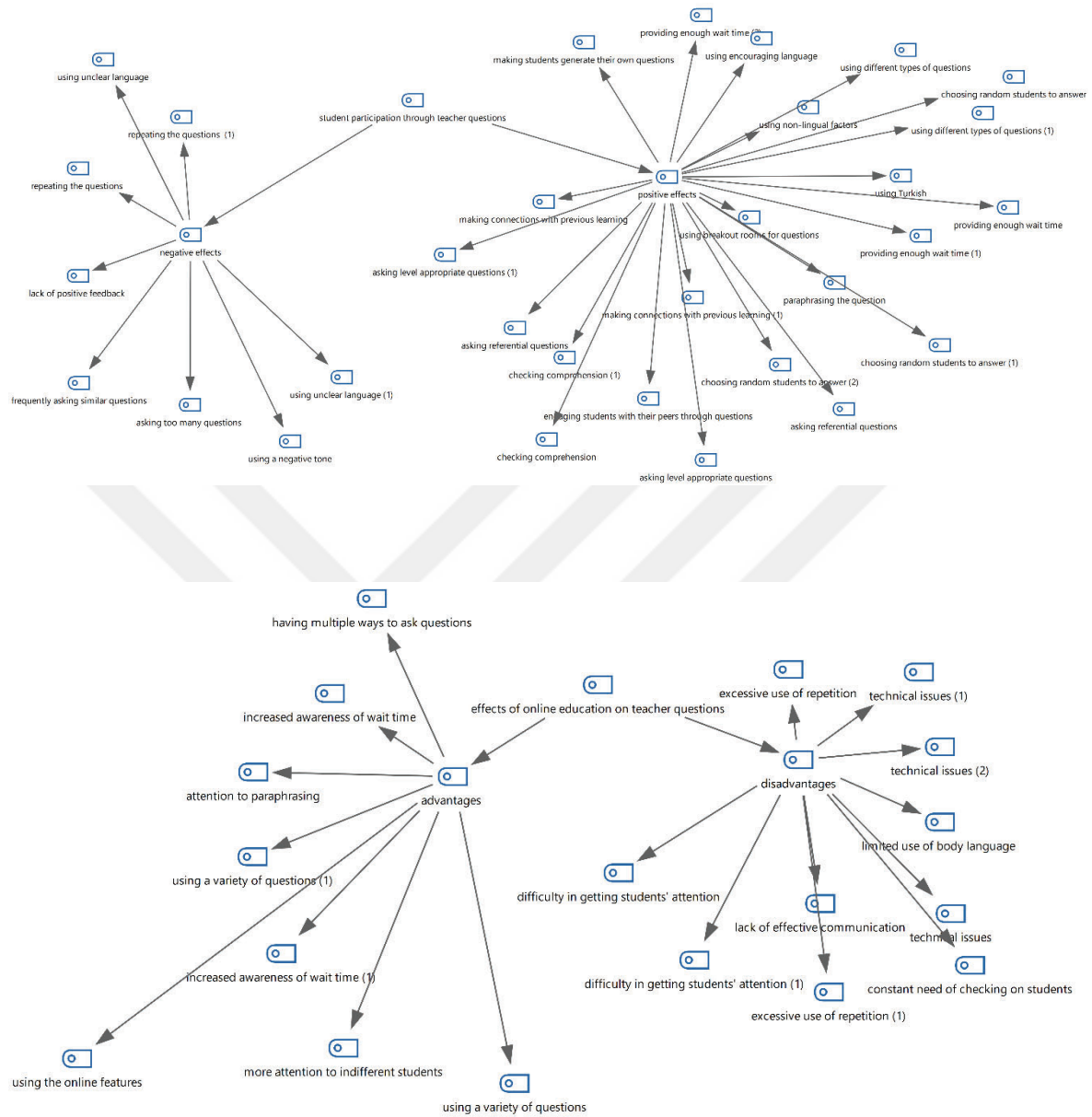
(opens recording)

T: We will see in the next lesson, see you guys in the speaking sessions.

S8: What is the topic today?

T: I will tell you in the lesson time. Bye.

APPENDIX C: Sample Coding from the Interviews



APPENDIX D: Permission Request from the Administration

08.12.2020

Dear Mr. SAVAŞ,

This letter is in regards to request permission to collect data from the online classes for the thesis named *AN INVESTIGATION OF THE QUESTION TYPES POSED BY THE ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS IN ONLINE CLASSES AND THEIR ROLES IN STUDENT PARTICIPATION: A CASE STUDY*. The research study is conducted by Hale Albayrak who is a master's student at Gazi University and supervised by İskender Hakkı Sarıgöz. The aim of the study is to investigate the different types of questions that are used by the English instructors in their online classes and their effects on student participation. It is also aimed to find out the instructors' perceptions towards their own questioning practices.

It is planned to collect the data through online class observations and interviews. The observations will take five weeks and twelve online lessons of three instructors will be observed. The duration of the classroom observations will be between 14.12.2020 and 15.01.2020. It is intended to observe the online classes in their natural settings, so there will be no interference with the regular schedule. After the observations, semi-structured interviews with the instructors will be conducted to gain understanding of their questioning practices.

The name of the instructors and the university will not be used in the study. All the information gathered will be kept confidential and privacy regulations will be followed. If you have any questions or concerns, my contact information can be found below.

Regards,

Hale Albayrak

Contact Information

Phone number:

E-mail:

Hale Albayrak

APPENDIX E: Informed Consent Forms

You are invited to participate in the research study conducted by Hale Albayrak who is a master's student at Gazi University and supervised by Prof. Dr. İskender Hakkı Sarıgöz. The purpose of the study is to investigate the types of questions that are used by the English instructors in their online classes and their impacts on student involvement. In addition, it is aimed to find out the instructors' perceptions towards their own questioning practices.

Within the scope of the study, you are asked to record your online lessons according to the observation schedule given by the researcher. It is intended to observe the online classes in their natural settings, so there will be no interference with the regular schedule. The observation process takes one month. After the classroom observations, you are asked to participate in the semi-structured interview sessions which will help the researcher to gain understanding of your perceptions towards your own questioning.

Your participation in the present study is entirely voluntary. If you feel uncomfortable for any reason, you are free to quit at any time. I would like to thank you for your participation and cooperation in advance. If you have any questions or concerns, my contact information can be found below.

Contact information

Phone:

E-mail:

I am participating in this study totally on my own will and am aware that I can quit participating at any time I want/ I give my consent for the use of the information I provide for scientific purposes.

Name Surname

Date

Signature



GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR..