

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND
LITERATURE
(GRADUATE PROGRAMME)

THE ROLL OF TEACHERS QUESTIONS IN EFL
CLASSROOM INTERACTION

HABTAMU GEBREHIWOT

DECEMBER, 2009

**THE ROLL OF TEACHERS QUESTIONS IN EFL
CLASSROOM INTERACTION**

HABTAMU GEBREHIWOT

**A Thesis Presented to the Department of Foreign
Languages and Literature (Graduate Program)**

**In Partial Fulfillment to the Requirements for the Degree
of Master of Arts in Teaching English as the Foreign
Language (TEFL)**

DECEMBER, 2009

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE
(GRADUATE PROGRAMME)

THE ROLL OF TEACHERS QUESTIONS IN EFL
CLASSROOM INTERACTION

HABTAMU GEBREHIWOT

Approved by Board of Examiners

Advisor _____ Signature _____

Examiners _____ Signature _____

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my heart felt appreciations and gratitude to my advisor Dr. Gessesse Tadesse for his unreserved, and regular guidance from the beginning to the end of the study. Had it not been for his consistent advice this paper would not have been completed.

Next, my special thanks go to my family and friends for their all rounded help.

Last but not least, I would like to express my heart felt gratitude to Genet Masho for typing this paper.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title	Page
Acknowledgments	i
Table of content	ii
Abstract	iv
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Background of the study.....	1
1.2. Statements of the Problem	2
1.3 Objectives of the Study	4
1.4. Significance of the Study	5
1.5 Scope of the Study.....	5
1.5 Limitation of the Study	6
CHAPTER TWO	7
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	7
2.1. Classroom Interaction.....	7
2.2 Classroom Interaction as a means of learning a foreign Language	8
2.3 Patterns of classroom Interaction	8
2.4 Classroom Interaction and Classroom Language.....	9
2.5 Classroom Questions	10
2.5.1 Importance of Questions.....	11
2.5.2 Concept Checking Questions	15

2.6	Types of questions.....	15
2.7	Good Questions.....	21
2.8	Questioning Skill.....	22
2.8.1	What is Questioning.....	22
2.8.2	Techniques of Questioning.....	23
2.8.3	Characteristics of Effective Questioning Strategy.....	24
2.8.4	Guidelines for Effective Questioning.....	25
2.8.5	Improving Questioning Technique.....	25
2.5.6	Qualities of Teachers' Questioning skill and Students Achievement..	26
CHAPTER THREE		27
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN		27
3.1.	Research Setting.....	27
3.2.	Subjects of the Study.....	27
3.3.	Instruments of Data Collection.....	28
3.3.1.	Classroom observation and Audio-Tape recording.....	28
3.3.2	Questionnaire.....	29
3.4.	Analyzing the Data.....	30
5.	Conclusions and Recommendations	47
Recommendation		48
Bibliography		50
Appendixes		56

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore the role of EFL teachers' classroom questions for students' classroom interaction. To achieve this purpose, Merafe Secondary School in Addis Ababa was selected. Three teachers on voluntary base were observed and recorded while teaching grade 9 students. The recorded lessons were transcribed and used as a major source of data for the study. Questionnaires for both grade 9 students' and teachers' were also administered and used as a supplementary source of data. Based on the obtained data, Questioning is found to be the second most frequently practiced activities of EFL classroom in the observed lesson. The EFL teachers' classroom questions is found to play the roll of initiating IRF (Initiate-Response and Feedback) patterns of classroom interaction and not going beyond that up to meaning negotiations and real language use. The reasons behind the limited roll of teachers classroom questions on initiating IRF patterned classroom interaction, according to this study, are found to be high number of lower-level questions, faulty in questioning and poor nomination focus. Based on the findings of the study recommendations are also given.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

Asking questions is a natural feature of communication. Since questions demand a response, they inevitably generate communication. Flander 1970, Sinclair and Coulthand 1975, stated that questions are one of the commonest type of teachers' utterances in regular classroom interaction. They are the most important tools which teachers need to have.

Questioning has always been acknowledged as the stock-in-trade of classroom teachers and fundamental to outstanding teaching. Nunan & Lamb, 1996). Effective questioning by the teacher is believed to focus students' attention to understand lesson content, arouse their curiosity, stimulate their imagination, and motivate them to seek out new knowledge. In short, questioning, if done skillfully, would elevate students' level of thinking.

Articles on the subject of classroom questioning often begin by invoking Socrates. Researchers and other writers concerned with questioning techniques seem to want to remind us that questioning has a long and venerable history as an educational strategy. And indeed, the Socratic method of using questions and answers to challenge assumptions, expose contradictions, and lead to new knowledge and wisdom is an undeniably powerful teaching approach. In addition to its long history and demonstrated effectiveness, questioning is also of interest to researchers and practitioners because of its widespread use as a contemporary teaching technique. Research indicates that questioning is second only to lecturing in popularity as a teaching method and that classroom teachers spend anywhere from thirty-five to fifty percent of their instructional time conducting questioning sessions.

Concerning the importance of questions, Kissoke and Iyortsuum (1982:1) states that questions are the core around which all communications between teachers and students' takes place. And as to Craig Chaudrun 1988, questions affect the activities of learners in classroom tasks and also affect learning.

The importance of classroom questions is also emphasized by Wringe (1989:88) and Stevick (1982:122), these scholars say that questions have substantial motivational value and are one of the quickest and easiest techniques teachers have for moving their students towards real conversation.

In general classroom questions have multi purpose. They are crucial to the way teachers manage the class, engage students with the content, and encourage participation. They are also used to elicit students' Prior knowledge (Eliciting question) and check students understating (concept checking question).

1.2. Statements of the Problem

Though effective question is one of the methods that facilitate communication in the classroom, in reality, it does not always happen, even among teachers with considerable experience in teaching. Teachers are observed and believed to have problems in using appropriate and purposeful questions in the classroom. Nunan and Lamb's (1996) research on questioning in language education reveals that over the years, teachers still pose questions in much the same way as always, with most of the questions low-level, despite improvement in teaching materials, curricula, and methods of teaching. But as to Iyortsuum (1982:15) the way a question is presented is often as important as the question itself in determining the effect it will have.

Therefore, understanding the various types of questions and their role in lesson objectives will help teachers to be skilled in preparing questions. It is also

helpful for teachers to know how to ask good questions. All in all presenting questions effectively is the skill that teachers should develop. Findings from local studies on questioning indicate that most teachers have problems utilizing the whole range of questions (low- and high-level thinking, convergent, divergent, and literal and inferential questions) available to them.

Local studies Undergone so far in EFL classroom questions are not sufficient as compared to the role of questions. Zerihun (1995) has conducted a study in English classrooms in four secondary school in Addis Ababa to find out kinds of questions asked by teachers' and students' and he came up with the findings that, only knowledge and comprehension questions are asked by the teachers and most of the soliciting is directed to volunteers.

Tamen (2000) has made a study on general classroom verbal behavior in one secondary school in Addis Ababa. He has concluded that teachers' question cover the large portion of classroom interaction. However he pointed out that teachers' questions do not initiate communication.

Seime's (2002) study has explored the relationship among linguistic proficiency, wait time and type of classroom questions in EFL setting in science subjects at Kotebe College of teacher education. His findings shows that 93% of the questions were recall and short answer questions which as to him minimize the beneficial effect of the main purpose of questions. He also remarked that largely proficient students have obtained more instructors' attention than less proficient ones.

Alemayehu Jote (2004) explored teachers' questioning behavior in four secondary school in Bale Zone. He found out procedural and echoic question to be the most frequent and teachers' questions to be predominantly to be targeted on volunteers.

The major difference between the present study and the local studies just mentioned are research setting, time and purpose. More specifically the present study differs from Zerihun's (1995) study in that, this study is intended to investigate the role of teachers' questions excluding student's questions. While Tamen's (2000) investigation was on general EFL classroom behavior in which questioning behavior was raised as one sub-issue the present study investigates Classroom interaction as a sub-issue. Considering EFL teachers' classroom questions as a major issue.

This study also differs from that of Seime's (2002). Seime focuses on science students on tertiary level, while the present study focuses on grade 9 EFL classroom. Finally the difference between this study and Alemayehu Jote's (2005) is that, Alemayehu focuses on questioning behavior only and his setting was out of Addis Ababa. But this study considers questions behavior as one issue for classroom interaction.

As to Julian Edge communication is at the heart of modern ELT and is part of learning process. During meaningful communication, we acquire language. And scholars like Burton (1962), Hyman (1970), Iyortsuum and others, state that classroom questions facilitate communication in the classroom. But studies of different local research Alamirew(1992) and Birhanu(2000) reveal that students have difficulties in using the language and interacting productively in the classroom. These could show that either question are rarely used-teachers do not ask questions or the claim that classroom questions facilitate communication in the classroom is under question mark.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objective of the study is to try to find out the roll of teachers questions for students' classroom interaction and to examine the relationship between EFL

teachers question and students classroom interactions. And the research, tried to came up with possible answers for the following questions.

1. Do teachers' ask questions? If so do the questions have a roll for classroom interaction?
2. What is the roll of EFL teachers' classroom questions for classroom interaction?
3. What patterns of interactions do teachers questions generate in EFL classroom?

In short this research tried to find out the roll of EFL teachers' questions for students genuine language use in the classroom?

1.4. Significance of the Study

I believe that the research can be primarily used as a reference material for English teachers who want to improve their questions and questioning skills and who are responsible for the creation of meaningful language teaching situation.

Secondly it can provide curriculum designers with some clues that will help them to consider classroom questions in accordance with the current language teaching methodology.

Finally, it can possibly motivate and serve as a reference for those interested English language teachers to carry out further research on the field.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study is mainly focused on teachers' questions and their role in making language classroom interactive. In order to do that the researcher collected

information in one high school in Addis Ababa with special reference to grade nine.

1.5 Limitation of the Study

The research work was limited to one high school in Addis Ababa, with special reference to Grade 9 students and English teachers. Besides, the research is limited in a way that it didn't explore non-verbal behaviors. This was because of time and financial constraints. As a result, the sampling may not warrant generalization so due considerations should be taken and /or other research results of the field need to be refereed before making generalization.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews relevant theories to support the research. The principal areas to be discussed are the concept of classroom interaction, classroom questions and ideas related effective questions and questioning.

2.1. Classroom Interaction

According to H. Clark (1982) and M. Thomas (1987), learning language is essentially of internal process. But this private process takes place in the public context of the classroom where the individual is a member of the class and the activities which are to set the process to train are determined by the teacher.

What both H. Clark and M. Thomas implying is that, the internal process of learning will come about as a consequence of the external interaction between the teacher, and the learner. They considered a plan to be the beginning or the first step and when a plan is put into action, things get more complicated for action is usually followed by interaction Teachers' plan of action evoke some sort of students reaction then teaching is under-taken and so that learning occur.

In consolidating the above view penny Ur (1996) forwarded, IRF (Initiation-Response-feedback) to be the most common classroom interaction. The teacher initiate an exchange usually in the form of questions, one of the students answers, the teacher gives feedback, initiate the next question and so on (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975).

2.2 Classroom Interaction as a means of learning a foreign Language

Classroom interaction facilitates learning in different ways. As to M. Thomas (1987), classroom interaction provides conditions for learning in terms of increasing STT, shifting the teacher to facilitator position and allowing learners to take the initiative of learning. Concerning the point mentioned, the following idea is also forward:

Through interaction students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic language materials, or the output of their fellow students... In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language all they have learnt or casually observed in real life exchange when expressing their real meaning is important to them (M. Rivers, 1981: 4-5).

From various scholars view, it seems possible to deduce that the more students interact in the language classroom, the better their learning will be and the reverse could also be true.

2.3 Patterns of classroom Interaction

Penny Ur (1996: 227) citing (Sinclair and Coulthand, 1995), suggested that the most common type of classroom interaction is IRF-initiate-Response-Feedback. This seems to be a kind of action and reaction between teacher and students. But as to M. Thomas (1987) interaction is more than action followed by reaction. As to him, it is acting reciprocally, acting upon each other. He further explains his view as: if teacher acts according to his plan, (Asking questions), students react by way of answering his questions. After listening and judging students response, the teacher reacts again and asks learners to act/ perform another task. The teacher acts upon the class and the students reactions modifies his Next action and so on.

McTear (1975) has shown that the IRF structure is often modified when the focus become channel itself: he notes that an optional pupil response occurs after the teachers' feedback more like

T. what do you do every morning? Initiates

P. I clean my teeth- Response

T. You clean your teach every morning- Feedback

P. I clean my teeth every morning. -Response

McTear suggests that this optional response occurs when the pupil believes that the teacher is modeling an utterance they require.

Interaction in a language classroom could have different forms: It could be between students or between students and the teacher or between students and the material and it could have the following patterns.

1. Group work
2. Closed-ended teacher questioning (IRF) where only one 'right' answer get approved
3. Individual work
4. Open-ended teacher questioning where there is are number of possible 'right' answers, so that it involves more students to have a go (P. Ur, 1996:228).

2.4 Classroom Interaction and Classroom Language

According to Dick All right and M. Bailey (1991), teachers' plan more or less three aspects of their lessons. They plan what to teach, how to teach (method) and the sort of atmosphere they would like to have in their classroom. The end result is not just the syllabus is taught, or a method is used or the planned atmosphere is created rather whether the lesson offers numerous learning opportunities that reflect the original planning and others that arise out of the interaction itself or not.

Since classroom interaction provides conditions for, learning, in any pattern of classroom interaction, students should know what to do, what kind of language to use and the teacher as provider of input facilitator of communication and as instructor need to modify the input he provides in order to make himself understood by the learners.

In order to modify the input teacher give, to check learners understanding of the input and even to present the language item, classroom language are of greater importance. Specially asking question is one of the most popular and common activities in the classroom.

As it has been mentioned in the foregoing points, a teacher to implement his plan of actions asks different questions and students react by answering his question. Their answers could be correct or wrong but their reaction tells him something about their status.

Scrivener (1994) suggested that, teachers most important job has to be creating condition in which learning can take place maximizing students' interaction in class. An important part of creating this condition is to ask classroom questions rather than giving explanation.

2.5 Classroom Questions

Classroom questions have been defined by different scholars. For example Brown (1975:103) defines questions as any statement which tests or creates knowledge in the learner. Hyman (1970: 216) defines questions as the eliciting of verbal responses and may take any grammatical form. Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982:1) define questions as the core around which all communication between teachers and students takes place.

Hornsby's dictionary (1986) defines question as a sentence which uses interrogative words and information to request information. But, Penny Ur (1996) goes beyond this and forwarded that, teachers questions may not always be realized by interrogatives. In support of his view, Penny Ur (1996) uses the following explanations.

“The question “what can you see in this picture?” may be expressed by the statement “we’ll describe what is going on in this picture” or by the commend “tell me what you can see in this picture.”

Though, different scholars defines questions differently, questions in general terms refers to any idea which needs a response from the listener. For the purpose of this study, the research chooses Penny Ur's definition- A question in the context of teaching may be best defines as a teachers utterance which has the objective of eliciting oral response from the learners (1996:229) and Stevicks' definition-questions are expressions designed to establish whether a student has understood the various target language and as an expression designed to elicit what learners know about the topic being discussed (pp:229) as a working definition.

2.5.1 Importance of Questions

Different scholars emphasized the importance of questions in the classroom. For example: Chadron (1996:126) writes about questions as a primary means of engaging learners attention and evaluating learners process, Long (1981 b) writes about their role in facilitating interaction, wring (1989:83) about their motivational value.

Besides the above mentioned scholars others like Stevick (1982), Perrot (1982) and Clark have similar views about the importance of questions. They all agree in one way or the other that questions are

- Tools of engaging students with the content,
- Ways of encouraging participation and increasing understanding
- Ways of finding out something one didn't know
- Ways of enhancing classroom interactions
- Ways of stimulating students to think and focus on the content of the lesson

Teachers questions can vary as much in their purpose as in their. As to Clark, Chadron (19960) and Stevick, (1982) questions have a variety of purposes. During the lead-in to a lesson, referential questions form the basis of brainstorming a topic, generating interest and topic-related vocabulary. Particularly in receptive skills based lessons where predicting content is a useful pre-reading (listening activity). When language is being presented, questions are used to elicit students' prior knowledge, and guide them into recognizing patterns and forming hypotheses about how the language is used. Then meaning and understanding need to be checked before language is practiced.

Questions have multi-purpose. They are the base on which classroom communication is developed. But all these uses of questions would be achieved provided that questioning follows the right procedure. Therefore proper handling and utilization of questions is essential.

All, the foregoing issues, about the importance of questions are summarized by Far rent, the condensed the importance of question into two.

1. To test what has been learned (concept checking questions) and

2 To stimulate thought and lead to a deeper understanding Eliciting questions (1980:190).

2.5.1.1 Eliciting Questions

Adrian Doff (1988:133) claims that at the presentation stage of a lesson, the teacher has two alternatives: presenting language or situation directly; by making most of the talk while the students listen or to Elicit; asking students for ideas and suggestions, and getting them guess and say what they already know. Concerning what to choose between these two options, Joy Hay craft (!978:10) forwards a convincing idea-new language items should be presented efficiently and effectively in such a way as to make the meaning as clear and memorable as possible using different good techniques and eliciting questions are one of those good techniques.

Eliciting questions as to Adrian Doff (1988) and Screven (1994) are means of drawing out information, language, ideas etc from students rather than having the teacher give them. They are useful ways of involving the class by focusing the students' attention and making them to think.

When language is presented, questions are used to elicit students' prior knowledge, guide them into recognizing patterns, to establish what students know and they do not know and to encourage students to make guess and workout rules for themselves. It is these kinds of question which are referred to as Eliciting questions.

2.5.1.2 Reasons for Eliciting

According to Ur.p (1986), R Wajnryb (1992), Screven (1994), A. Doff (1988) and Atkins (1996); Eliciting is a technique which is based on the principle that

- Students probably know a lot more than we might give them credit for
- Starting with what they know is productive way of beginning a lesson

- Involving people in a question and answer movement towards new discoveries is often more effective than lecturing
- Giving learners chance to share their knowledge with others

In general Eliciting questions helps the teacher to start from where the learners are and then to work forward from there, to keep the students alert, to increase students taking time, to expose learners to incidental language (language that a teacher does not teach but hope that students pick up during their interaction in the classroom).

Example of eliciting question taken from Atkins 1996:30

T. Fuad, Almaz and Tsegaye, please come to the front. Class, look at the heights of these students. Do they all look the same or are they different?

S. Different.

T. That's right. Fuad is short, but Almaz and Tsegaye are...

S. Tall.

T. Yes. We can say Almaz and Tsegaye are taller than Fuad. And we can say Tsegaye is taller than Almaz. Is Almaz taller than Tsegaye?

S. No.

T. All right. We can say Tsegaye is taller than Almaz. Can you see any other difference?

S. Fuad is fat.

T. Yes. Fuad is fat. Can we say that Almaz is fatter than Fuad?

S. No.

T. Can we say that Fuad is fatter than Almaz?

S. Yes.

T. Good. Fuad is fatter than Almaz. And Fuad is fatter than Tsegaye. Now who can tell us about Almaz and Tsegaye. Are they both tall?

S. No. Tsegaye is taller than Almaz.

T. Good. Tsegaye is taller than Almaz. What about Fuad and Almaz? Are they both fat?

S. No. Fuad is fatter than Almaz.

2.5.2 Concept Checking Questions

According to R Wajnryb (1992), if students learned what they were taught, at the same time it was taught, teaching would be much less complex than it is. But learners do not always learn all what the teacher taught them. It is for this reason that teachers develop strategies for checking whether learning is taking place or has taken place.

Concept questions are particularly valuable after the presentation of an item and may be asked at any stage during a lesson. But the way teachers ask to check understanding greatly matters. As to Screven (1994), the usual questions “Do you understand?”, “Is this clear...” do not achieve the intended aim because, if students say “Yes”, It could mean I’m nervous about seeming stupid or I don’t want to waste the Class’s time any...more...etc.

The fact is teachers need to get clear information about what students have taken in. The best way to do this is to get students demonstrate their understanding. This could be achieved by the use of a set of questions designed to ensure comprehension of the target language. Such questions have to be simple and that do not require difficult languages to answer. Yes/no question, either/or questions and simple ‘wh’ questions are particularly effective (Steve Darner).

2.6 Types of questions

There have been a number of typologies and taxonomies of questions. Paul’s taxonomy forms the basis of eliciting, while Bloom’s (1958) taxonomy divides

questions in to five levels of complexity: literal comprehension, recognition, inferential comprehension, evaluation and appreciation according to increasing difficulty based on the demands of cognition that each level places on the students. Each level in the hierarchy is further divided in to sub categories of question types which are not arranged in order of difficulty. The following outline of the taxonomy includes major levels and sub categories.

Taxonomy of cognitive Difficulty of questions

- 1.0 Literal comprehension: requires the student to focus on ideas and information explicitly stated in the text.
- 1.1. Recognition: Requires the student to locate or identify information explicitly stated in the text.
 - a) Recognition of details
 - b) Recognition of main ideas
 - c) Recognition of a sequence.
 - d) Recognition of comparisons.
 - e) Recognition of cause-effect relationships
 - f) Recognition of character traits.
- 1.2. Recall: Requires the student to recall from memory information explicitly stated in the text.
 - a) Recall of details.
 - b) Recall of main ideas.
 - c) Recall of a sequence
 - d) Recall of comparisons.
 - e) Recall of cause-effect relationships
 - f) Recall of character traits.
- 2.0 Reorganization: Requires the student to recall from memory information explicitly stated in the text.
 - a) Classifying.
 - b) Outlining. List
 - c) Summarizing paraphrase/summarize

- d) Synthesizing. Classify.....
- 3.0 Inferential comprehension: Requires the student to use information explicitly stated in the test along with personal experience and knowledge in order to conjecture and to form hypotheses.
 - a) Inferring supporting details: Requires the student to conjecture about information that might have been included in the text.
 - b) Inferring the main idea
 - c) Inferring sequence: Requires the student to conjecture about what might have occurred in addition to explicitly stated events; includes conjecture about extending events beyond the completion of the text.
 - d) Inferring comparisons
 - e) Inferring cause-and effect relationships
 - f) Inferring character traits
 - g) Inferring author's organization
 - h) Predicting outcomes: Requires the student to conjecture about the outcome of the text after considering a portion of it.
 - i) Interpreting figurative language
- 4.0 Evaluation: Requires the student to compare information and ideas in a text with material presented by the instructor or other authorities and with the student's own knowledge and experience in order to form judgments of various kinds.
 - a) Judgments of reality and fantasy: Require the student to answer the question "Could these events really happen?"
 - b) Judgments of fact or opinion: Require the student to evaluate the author's or speaker's ability to provide support for conclusions and the author's or speaker's intent (to persuade, inform, etc).
 - c) Judgments of adequacy and validity: require the student to compare the text to related materials in order to express agreement or disagreement.

- d) Judgments of appropriateness: Require the student to determine which part of the text is most important (e.g. in defining characters, in determining outcomes etc.)
 - e) Judgments of worth, desirability and acceptability: require the student to make judgments based on value systems, moral codes, personal experience, etc
- 5.0 Appreciation: Requires the student to articulate emotional and aesthetic responses to the text according to personal standards and to professional standards of literary forms, styles, genres, theories, critical approaches, etc.
- a) Emotional response to the text: Requires the student to articulate feelings of interest, boredom, excitement, etc
 - b) Identification with characters or incidents
 - c) Reactions to the author's or speaker's connotative and denotative use of language
 - d) Reactions to imagery(Thomas Kale; 1994, pp. 226-227)

There are many different ways of classifying questions (Mohan 1979; Sinclair and Brazil 1982; White and Light 1984). And as researchers have observed it is sometimes difficult to arrive at discrete and directly observable categories (Ban brook and Sheen 1989) in J. Richards and C. Lockert 1994. But for the purpose of examining the role of questions in the language class room, the following questions is distinguished:

1. Cognitive Memory questions: questions that ask students to recall previously learned and memorized information; single-word answers are often used in answering question; answers tend to sound alike and are predictable; even though more lengthy answers may be provide, they do not require creative thought and are classified clearly as right or wrong; behaviors such as recalling, recognizing and reporting are typically involved.

Examples of Cognitive Memory Questions:

1. Who painted the Moan Lisa?
2. What is the city with the largest population in Indiana?
3. In what year was the Declaration of Independence signed?

2. Convergent Questions: questions that ask students to put facts or concepts together in order to obtain the single correct answer; answers to convergent questions are more complex than answers to cognitive memory questions but are still classified as either right or wrong; questions may require students to make comparisons, explain facts or concepts, state or describe relationships, or solve problems using learned procedures.

Examples of Convergent Questions:

1. What is the relationship between crude oil and plastic?
2. How are amphibians and reptiles alike?
3. How are present methods of communication different from those used in the 1800s?

3. Divergent questions: questions that ask students to engage in divergence of thought and produce responses that are original; student thinking is much more creative at this level of questioning; questions may require students to predict, hypothesize, or infer; expressions such as “what if” are common to questions in this category.

Examples of Divergent Questions:

1. What do you think our society will be like in terms of technology in one hundred years?
2. If you were in charge of our town, what is the first thing you would do? Why?
3. What might happen to our voting system if all voting was done electronically?

4. Evaluative Questions: questions that ask students to make judgment or evaluations based on logically derived evidence; evidence is derived from the use of the levels of thought identified in the previous three question categories; students must defend or explain their judgments based on criteria that they designate or which have been established by others.

Examples of Evaluative Questions:

1. Do you believe that people are more inquisitive today than in the past?
Why do you think this?
2. Who do you think is the best candidate in the presidential election? Why?
3. Where do you think would be the most exciting place to go on a winter vacation? Why?

5. Procedural questions: Procedural questions have to do with classroom procedures and routines, and classroom management, as opposed to the content of learning. For example, the following questions occurred in classrooms while teachers were checking that assignments had been completed, that instructions for a task were clear, and that students were ready for a new task.

Did everyone bring their homework?

Do you all understand what I want you to do?

How much more time do you need?

Can you all read what I've written on the blackboard?

Why aren't you doing the assignment?

Procedural questions have a different function from questions designed to help students master the content of a lesson. Many of the questions teachers ask are designed to engage students in the content of the lesson, to facilitate their comprehension, and to promote classroom interaction. These questions can be classified into two types-convergent questions and divergent questions, depending on the kind of answer they are intended to elicit (Kindsvatter, Willen, and Ishler 1988).

All in all, classroom questions tend to fall into two broad categories:

Display questions: These are designed to elicit learners' prior knowledge and to check comprehension. They often focus on the form or meaning of language structures and items, and the teacher already knows the answer.

Referential Questions: These require the learner to provide information, give an opinion, explain or clarify. They often focus on content rather than language, require 'follow-up' or 'probe' questions, and the answer is not necessarily known by the teacher.

What do you think about....?

Have you ever... when/where....?

If you had... what...?

What kind of?

How do you...?

The best referential questions are those that are 'divergent' or 'open-ended' in that they are broad, may have multiple answers, and require a higher level of thinking from the learners.

Open-ended questions are ideal for developing skills such as inferring, predicting, verifying and summarizing, as well as eliciting more language. 'Convergent' or 'closed' questions have more narrowly defined correct answers which can be recalled from memory and, require little reflection or originality. Closed questions are common in conventional tests.

2.7 Good Questions

Zamel (1981) in Thomas Kral described classroom interaction as a circular loop of information and feedback. As to her, classroom communication depends upon a constant flow of information in which teachers' questions play a crucial role. In order to play their role, teachers' questions need to be good ones.

Concerning the criteria of good questions (Clark 1982), and cooper (1988) forwarded the following three points:

1. A successful question asks something definite in simple, clear, straight forward English that pupils can understand. Ambiguous, confusing constructions, double questions and others might cause the pupil to loose the point of the question. Specially, rhetorical questions-statements with interrogative phrases like “Isn’t it?” or “Don’t you think so?” should be avoided because they do not need answers, they only serve approval.
2. A good question is something which is consistent with a goal of the lesson. Asking easy or difficult questions which lead no-where should be avoided.
3. A good question is also a question which is consistent with the abilities and interests of the pupils. A question is considers to be good, if it is adopted to the age, abilities, and interest of the pupils to whom it is addresses

2.8 Questioning Skill

It is not only the importance of question that is emphasized by scholars, but questioning skill as well is given due attention. According to Stevick (1982:122), one of the most important skills for teacher to develop is the ability to ask effective questions. Kissok Iyortuum (1982:18) also added that the way question is presented is often as important as the questions itself in determine the effect it will have. Therefore not only the question but also questioning skill should be given due attention.

2.8.1 What is Questioning

Questioning has been defined by scholars differently. For example for Hyman (1970) it refers to the eliciting of verbal response, for Perrott (1986) it is observable indicator of effective teaching. Stevick (1982) also defines

questioning as teaching techniques for moving students towards real conversation. For P.Ur (1996) questioning is an activation technique in teaching, mainly with in Initiation-response pattern.

Questioning is considered by many to be the most important tool that teachers have for helping students build understanding and eliciting certain responses from the learners about the topic to be presented. In other words, they are tools to investigate facts, information, knowledge and ideas. They also play roles in communication since people exchange ideas through questions and answer. As a teaching technique, questioning turns the lecturing session into two way communication, by putting things from the point of view of learners.

2.8.2 Techniques of Questioning

Teachers' motive in questioning as to Penny Ur (1996) is to get students engaged with the language material actively through speech; so an effective questioning requires skill and preparation. As to Clark (1982) questioning should be through of as a way to get out of the problem not as on attempt to see how much the pupil knows. Clark added that teachers should ask questions in a pleasant, friendly, easy and conversational manner that indicates his expectation of reasonable answer.

As to Clark, when using questions in a whole-class situation, the teacher should first ask the question then wait for the class to think about it, and then call someone for an answer. In this way everyone will get the chance to consider the question before anyone tries to answer. This is because; when the teacher asks first no one knows who is going to be asked. This helps to keep the pupils alert. When the teacher calls on a pupil before asking the question, other members of the class may feel relief and not bother to listen to the questions.

The other technique that Clark (1982) forwarded is to refrain from repeating questions. For some legitimate reasons, repeating the question is fair. Handling pupils answer is of some help. It helps to create a permissive atmosphere

2.8.3 Characteristics of Effective Questioning Strategy

Eggen, and Kauchark, (2007), O'Flaharan, Hartman. And Pearson, (1988); Tobin 1987) as quoted in Hunt 2008. Forwards the following to be characteristics of effective questioning:

1. **Frequency:** The greater numbers of questions allow for more students to be involved in the dynamics of a lesson and helps the teacher to monitor the students and the lesson's progress; questioning increase the opportunity for students involvement. But it should not go beyond the limit since over questioning has adverse effect.
2. **Equitable Distribution:** Teachers should strive for a pattern of questioning in which all student are called on as equally as possible; more questioning with equal distribution across the class increases the opportunity for providing more feedback and helps students stay motivated and connected to the lesson; this reduces the likelihood that students will drift away from the instruction and become involved in misconduct behaviors;
3. **Wait-time:** wait-time is the period of silence before or after a student is asked a question and when the teacher speaks again; the use of wait-time increases student learning by giving students time to think; in most classrooms, regardless of grade or ability level, wait-times are very short, frequently less than one second (Row,1986); research suggests that increasing wait-time to at least three seconds will positively impact student learning.

2.8.4 Guidelines for Effective Questioning

For questioning to play its role and to serve its purpose effectively, questions have to be constructed in a way that they can be understood easily. Since a single way of asking makes the lesson boring and tiresome, different ways of asking needs to be taken into account.

Sheen (1992), Hicks and woods (1984) all agreed on the following points to be helpful in holding the attention and interests of students:

- Avoid reporting questions
- Ask questions at the point in the lesson where they can have the best effect
- Ask a question then call on a students, in order to keep the attention of the whole class
- Encourage students to comment on other students' responses. This can give more chance for the students to talk in the classroom and to use different expressions or a new form of language.
- Ask only one question at a time. Avoid trying to over elaborate a question.
- Do not answer your own questions unless students have been given the chance to think about the question and are unable to determine the answer for themselves.

2.8.5 Improving Questioning Technique

Asking more referential question (which the teacher does not know the answer) and open-ended questions (which have more than one acceptable answer and eliciting more students response) are of good techniques on the contrary questions which require long answers put students off. Display questions (which ask students to display knowledge) and referential questions failed to solicit and verbal responses. Questions which are vague and difficult have

adverse effects on getting students to respond, Brock 1986: long and Sato 1983, Nun an 1987).

Occasionally, a question brings no response. In such cases, the chances are that the teacher has to get the desired response by breaking the question down in to component parts and by asking questions that will lead up to and provide background for the original questions. When such is the case, restating the question may clear up the problem Clark (1982).

2.5.6 Qualities of Teachers' Questioning skill and Students

Achievement

Some might think that certain questions are preferred over others. Such as low cognitive over high cognitive or vice versa, this is not the case. Different types of questions serve different learning and teaching purposes. The teacher should select questions as they relate to the learning outcomes desired (Bloom as et al 1956, Good and Brophy 2000) as quoted in G. Wiseman any H. Hunt (2008).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

This chapter presents the research methodology used for the study. It describes the subjects, setting, the instruments used and the procedures followed in collecting the data.

Following the underneath suggestion given by Kissock and Iyortsunn, I used observation as the main way to explore the role of English language teacher's classroom questions for classroom interaction;

By looking into classroom questioning, one can get useful information concerning problems related to classroom questions and the effectiveness of teachers' questioning strategy. (Kissocke and Iyortsuum, 1982:136).

3.1. Research Setting

Having employed descriptive method, the collection of the data was confined to one secondary school in Addis Ababa. The target group of the research was grade 9 English teachers' and students. The selection of the school was made on the basis of proximity and convenience to the researcher

3.2. Subjects of the Study

The subjects of the study were 60 grade 9 students and 5 English teachers at Mirafa Secondary School in Addis Ababa.

3.3. Instruments of Data Collection

To elicit the necessary data from the sample population, the researcher employed two instruments: classroom observation and questionnaire.

3.3.1. Classroom observation and Audio-Tape recording

Classroom observation particular audio-tape recording was the major data gathering instrument for this study. Many writers in the area of classroom interaction (Flanders, 1970, Chadron, 1979, All Wright, 1988; Burns, 1999 and others) argue that, classroom observation especially audio recordings are the most unbiased and accurate methods through which rich data on the teacher behavior and students performance in the classroom are gathered and compared through rigorous analysis.

3.3.2 Procedures Employed in the Study

Since teachers might have various attitudes towards classroom research, I find it necessary to clarify the ways of gathering data. However, the objectives of the study have been kept secret to the teacher. I couldn't make the selection of teachers on the basis of random selection. This was because; many teachers are reported not to be voluntary to be recorded. Therefore on a voluntary basis, I selected three volunteer teachers and tape-record them for 45 minutes while they were teaching.

So as to do what the study needed, I established a good rapport with the teacher as well as students. I told teachers to teach in the usual manner. I also told both subjects the purpose of the recording and observation was not to evaluate them. Thus I advised them to act the usual way and avoid the feeling of discomfort while the recording is going on. After I checked the confirmation of both parties I made the recording.

After observing each teacher for a week (4 lessons), each, the research recorded one 45 minutes lesson of each volunteer teachers while conducting the teaching. The recording was not the entire 45 minutes. In each lesson there have been time gaps in the recording. That is when teaches write notes on the board. The researcher took only one lessens from each teacher to be recorded and transcribed since it would be unmanageable to transcribe and analyze all.

3.3.2 Questionnaire

Questionnaires were also one of the data gathering instruments for this study they were used as a minor data gathering instruments. Two sets of questionnaire (each consisting of ten items) were designed for both students and teachers. Most of the items are rank order items and close-ended. This was because the researcher felt it to be easy to collect and summarize the data.

3.3.3.1. Selection of Respondents to the Questionnaire

The number of teachers' selected to respond was also made on the voluntary base including those three volunteer teachers to be recorded. I add two more volunteers to be respondents to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed to five voluntary English teachers of grade nine. All of them responded.

But selection of students' respondents was made on random sampling. Setting my self on the three recorded classroom, I choose 60 students from the three recorded classroom taking 20 students from each class. For 60 students out of 178 total numbers of students in the recorded classroom, questionnaire was administered.

3.4. Analyzing the Data

In order to fulfill the specific objective of the study, that is, to be able to identify the types of questions teachers' ask, the recording lesson was analyzed based on classification used by Perrot (1990), which is adopted from the Bloom's (1986) classification, with some modification and long and Sato's Classification of questions. Then teachers' questions were counted and put in a table and interpreted and discussed in terms of the role they would play for students' classroom participation or Interaction.

To fulfill the objectives of the study, that is to find out the role of classroom questions for classroom interaction, the recorded lesson was taken as a major source and teachers' and students' response to the questionnaire as a minor source.

The recorded lessons were transcribed (see Appendix A, B and C) and analyzed in terms of the questions contribution to classroom participation. The responses of the questionnaire were also analyzed either in support of or being against to the recording lesson in both tools, quantitative methods were used. In the recorded and transcribed lesson, analysis was made based on counting system. The questions were counted and analyzed based on the research objective.

On the other hand, the claims of teachers' and students response to the questionnaire were on the bases of quantitative method. The response to the rank order items to the questionnaire were analyzed in terms of their mean score. But the rest of the items in both questionnaires were analyzed using qualitative method.

Chapter Four

4. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

In this chapter, the data obtained from two sources; lesson transcripts and teachers and students responses to the questionnaires are presented and interpreted in terms of the research objectives.

Most of the behaviors observed in the lessons are supported with elaborative extracts taken from the transcripts. To avoid unnecessary redundancy, the data obtained from both lesson transcripts and teachers' and students' response to the questionnaires are presented and interpreted at the same time.

4.1. Classroom Activities

Since the purpose of this study is finding out the role of classroom questions for learners' active participation, looking into the different classroom activities is very important. Therefore, checking whether questions are asked in the class or not, are one of my research questions. That is why the research tries to find out the different kinds of classroom activities using both the research tools.

Table 4.1 Number of questions asked by the three teachers (lesson transcripts)

	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Total
Number of questions	70	54	69	193
Number of questions asked per minuets	1.6	1.2	1.53	1.4

The data from the three transcribed lesson shows that the three teachers asked a total of 193 questions. Regardless of silent time and the time spent in teacher input, the number of questions asked by T₁, T₂ and T₃ in the 45 minutes

Lesson can roughly be estimated to be 16, 1.2 and 1.5 questions per minutes respectively.

Table 4.2 Activities used in EFL classroom (Teachers' Responses to Rank-order Items on the Questionnaire)

Activities X	4		3		2	1	Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Explanation	2	8	1	3	2	2	13	5	2.6
Demonstration	1	4	1	3	1	1	8	5	1.6
Asking questions	1	4	2	6	1	1	11	5	2.2
Letting students ask questions	1	4	1	3	1	1	8	5	16

As can be seen from table 4.2 the sample teachers' responses indicate that, teachers' questioning has the highest mean and ranks second to teachers' explanation as measured by the mean value. On the other hand, according to the sample students' response to the rank order items (APPENDIX H), questioning ranks the third most frequent classroom activities. There is a difference between teachers' and students claims regarding the classroom activities. But, this slight variation could be the result of different believes the two subjects have about classroom activities.

The data obtained from the questionnaire about frequency of teachers' questions for both teachers and students (see table 4:3 below) supplements the evidence from lesson transcripts and rank order item questionnaire. As it can be seen from the table 4.3, 80% of the sample teachers and 71.6% of the students' respondents claimed that teachers frequently ask questions in their English lesson.

Table 4.3 Frequency of teachers' questions (Teachers and Students Responses to the questionnaire).

Variables	Teachers		Students	
	No of respondents	%	No of respondents	%
Frequently	4	80	43	71.6
Occasionally	1	70	17	78.3
Rarely	0	-	-	

As can be deduced from the lesson transcripts and both teachers and students response results from the above tables and the discussions followed each tables, questioning is one of the leading classroom activities and a considerable questions are asked in a single EFL classroom.

This finding is more or less the same as what a number of studies done by (Stevick, 1982; Kissockle and Iyortsuun, 1982, Hamilton and Brady, 1991, Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998; Tamene 2000 and others). These scholars compared teachers' questions with other class room behaviors and reported that teachers' questions takes a prominent place in classroom interaction

4.2 Faults in classroom questioning

There are considerable amount of questions which are asked in poor questioning Question are said to be misused when teachers regularly repeat them. Furthermore, posing question that confuse, i.e. asking two or more questions at the same time are also judged as misused. The following table shows some of the questioning faults observed in the three transcribed lessons

Table 4 .4 questioning faults observed in the three transcribed lessons

Questions Repeated	Teacher 1		Teacher 2		Teacher 3	
	No of questions	%	No of questions	%	No of questions	%
Twice	8	4	0	0	8	4
Three times	4	2	5	2.6	3	1.6
Four times	1	0.5	2	2	3	1.6
Five times	0	0	1	0.5	1	0.5
Ambiguous	0	0	3	5.6	0	0
Loosely worded	7	10	3	5.6	0	0

As can be seen from the above table, 19% of the questions are repeated two to five times, if the teacher simply repeats the questions in exact wording when they failed to respond, students may interpret it as a reminder that he or she is incompetent. Such kinds of questions are called multiple questions. They didn't refer to a single idea. They mixed up a lot of things. Such kinds of questioning, presenting a number of questions together, tend to confuse students and it limits the possible roll classroom questions would have for students' classroom interaction. The following question taken from teacher is a typical example

How can you express when you are sure of something? Or when you are not sure of something? How you can express? Using the words like, definitely, certainly, no doubt, and the like words can express when you are sure of something.

Such kinds of questions take much longer time to ask than to answer and so can lead to too little speaking by the students and too much speaking by the teacher. As a result their role to make students to use the language would be limited.

Concerning techniques of questioning both subjects claimed repeating questions and modifying questions to be most frequent practice of the teacher, to some extent this is similar to the results of transcribed reasons.

On the other hand, as the table shows 5.6% of teacher two's questions are found to be ambiguous, and of the total questions asked, 28.5% are found to be loosely worded questions. These questions are not easy to understand they are a sign of questions which lack preparation. That is why they were formed by interrupting explanation and discussion in the classroom. Eg is what?

4.3. Types of Teachers' Questions

The concern of this research is not only the frequency of questions, but the type of questions asked as well. This is because there are questions which play the role of initiating and motivating students to be active participants and there are others which do not require a response beyond nodding head and abrupt responses. Therefore an attempt was made to find out the different types of questions (based on the point on 2.4) teachers' under study asked and to find out the role of these questions in the language classroom including their communicative value. The following table shows types of question asked in the 3 transcribed teachers' lessons from the cognitive point of view

Table 4.5 Kinds of questions from their cognitive point of view

Kinds of questions from the cognitive point of view	No of questions	%	No of questions	%	No of questions	%
Cognitive memory question	13	6.7	15	6.7	3	1.6
convergent	10	5	12	6.2	9	4.7
Divergent	0	0	0		0	0
Evaluative	0	0	0		0	0
Procedural	10	5	13	6.7	37	19

The above table shows that, the top three types of questions asked by the three teachers' are procedural, cognitive memory (knowledge), and convergent (comprehension) questions respectively. Cognitive memory and convergent all together make up 30.9 % of the classroom question type in the transcribed lesson. Whereas, procedural questions consists of 30%.The rest of the questions are considered to be faulty questions because of repetition, multiple questioning, ambiguity and loosely wordiness.

Both cognitive memory and convergent type questions are low-level type. They simply ask students' to recall previously learned and memorize information. Cognitive memory questions asks students to put facts and concepts together to get single correct answer and convergent questions do not require creative thought

Teachers' responses to the questionnaire (Appendix G) strengthen the data obtained from the lesson transcripts. Revising or consolidating of the previously learnt lessons and introducing or presenting new lesson stood first and second respectively as measured by mean value. Similarly, the sample students' claim confirm that (Appendix H_) teachers' questions are related to the lesson being carried out and reviewing the previous lesson.

In this study, the tendency of teachers is observed to be inclined to encourage their students to demonstrate their understanding. This is because they ask more of lower level questions. With in the six cognitive levels, knowledge question ranked first in the mean value and the mean value for lower level question is observed to be greater than high-level question (Appendix G). Such type of questions, as the local researchers' Zerihun's (1995) and Tamen's (2000) study show, they do not require language practice since they are more recalling questions. These questions did not go beyond information in the textual materials.

4.3.1 Types of questions in terms of their communicative value

Based on the work of Long and Sato (1983); questions are also classified as display and referential. The distinction is made between whether the questions teachers ask elicited students' mere memory of certain knowledge that the teacher were already aware of (display) or could require learners to give their responses not necessarily what the teacher expects but from their own imagination, judgmental or evaluative point of view (Referential)

Several researchers (Brook 1986, Wu 1993) made this classification their base to investigate types of teachers' questions. In this research too, this classification of questions is used to see the communicative value of both cognitive and convergent questions identified in table 4.3

Table 4.6 types of questions in terms of their communicative value (Lesson transcripts)

Function of question	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Display	23	100	25	100	12	100
Referential	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	23	100	25	100	12	100

The above table shows large percentage of display questions. The Large Percentage of display questions indicates that, teachers' attention is more on making sure that student know or understand certain forms of language than on encouraging students for meaning negotiation in the target language.

As the data obtained from the claims of the questionnaire show of the 5 teachers, 80% confirmed that the questions they usually ask are the kind of questions to which the answer they already know. This confirmation of the questionnaire result supplement with the result obtained from the transcribed lesson that display questions to be more prominent and referential to be insignificant

The communicative value of the two kinds of questions in the observed lessons is that display questions help students' to recognizing the principle of the language. Unlike the display questions referential questions are capable of initiating students to negotiate meaning by suggesting their view on certain situation. So it seems possible to deduce from the forgoing explanation that teachers' questions are highly targeted to checking understanding of certain forms than helping students to use the language for negotiation of meaning

Attempt was made to find out the nature of questions in terms of the response they need. This is because kinds of questions teachers ask determines the roll it would have for classroom interaction. In terms of responses the questions need, both subjects claim show that, the most frequently asked questions with high mean value are low-level questions (Knowledge and comprehension). Than high level questions (see Appendix G and H)

4.3.2 Types of questions in terms of their difficulty nature

In term difficulty nature of teachers' questions teacher's questions are very difficult as the table below shows

Table 4.7 Difficulty nature of teachers questions (students' response to the questionnaire)

	Number of students	%	Number of students	%	Number of students	%	Number of students	%
Students reaction about the difficult nature of teachers questions	Very difficult		difficult		simple		Very simple	
Teachers questions are	11	18	22	37	19	32	8	13

The table above shows that, 18 % of students' claims that teacher's questions are very difficult and 37% claimed it to be difficult. Totally teachers' questions are difficult for 55% of the students Attempt was also made to find out Students' reasons to claim teachers' questions to be difficult as the table below indicates

Table 4.8 Students reason out about the difficult nature of teachers' questions questionnaire)

Students reason to claim teachers questions difficult	Number of respondents	%
I don't understand the question	13	43
I usually do not know the answer	11	37
The subject itself is difficult	6	20

Based on the information we have in the table above Students' reasons to claim teachers' questions to be difficult can be attributed to not understanding the questions (43%), and not knowing what to answer (37%).Especially not understanding the questions could be the result of poor questioning.

4.4 Forms of Classroom Interaction Resulted from teachers questions

According to Mc Tear 1975 and M. Thomas (1987), classroom interaction in EFL could have different forms. It could be between students, or between

students and teacher or between students and the materials. The following table shows the different forms of classroom interaction resulted from teachers' questions.

Table 4:9 Forms of classroom interaction (Lesson transcripts)

Forms of classroom Interaction	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃	
	No of question	%	No of question	%	No of question	%
Teachers with whole class	17	42.5	18	47.4	3	6.7
Teacher & Student	22	55	18	47.4	39	86.7
Students in pairs	0	0	1	0.2	0	0
Students in Group	0	0	0		1	4.4
Students with the text book	1	2.5	1	0.2	2	4.4
Total	40	100	38	100	45	100

Among the 193 questions asked by the three transcribed lesson, 123 or 63.7% were able to make the classroom interactive though, difference can be seen concerning the different form of interaction. As can be seen in all of the 3 lessons, (teacher and student) and (teacher with the whole class) forms of interactions take the 1st and 2nd lion share.

In the case of T₃, we can see a little bit varied forms of interactions. In his class, T₃ gave considerable share for (teacher with whole class) (6.7%), (students in group) (2.2%) and students with text book) (4.4%). the rest being given for teacher and student forms of interaction (39%). Concerning the different patterns of interaction observed in all forms identified above, IRF (Initiate-Response and feedback) is observed to take the highest share.

The results of this study also correspond to what the researches in the field forwarded. In this study, of the 123 questions which are identified to initiate different forms of classroom interaction, 11.5 or (93.5) of them were of IRF type.

They do not go beyond IRF. The following table shows the percentage distribution of IRF classroom Interaction.

Table 4.10 Percentage distribution of IRF classroom interaction (Lesson transcripts)

IRF	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃	
	No. of questions	%	No of questions	%	No of questions	%
Patterned Interactions	35	28.5	38	30.9	42	34
Negotiation of meaning	5	4	0	0	3	2.4

Though, 123or 93.5% of the total questions asked in the three transcribed lesson initiate different forms of interaction, most of them do not go beyond IRF (Initiate, Response and Feedback). To strengthen the obtained data in table 4.7 the following extracts taken from the transcribed lesson are selected.

Example 1 Taken from T₂

T. Do you know the structural formula of type one? It is If +subject +v, comma

Subject +will+verb1 who can write a sentence?

S1. If she studies hard, she will pass the exam

T. very good

Here, the teacher was trying to revise the formal of conditional type one and to check students understanding of the formal. That is why he asked the students to construct a sentence. By doing so he takes the initiative of letting students participate. Then a student raised his hand and responded to the teacher's question as "If she works hard, she will pass the exam."

Then after listening to what the student is responding he (the teacher) gave the student feedback. And moved to his other routines

Example 2 Taken from T₁

T₁-So, in order to remember what we've discussed before, our topic was about relative

SS- Clause

T₁- Yes

In the above example, teacher one was trying to revise a previously learnt lesson. He initiated it by asking question, student responded to him and then he gave them feedback.

These examples are typical IRF patterns of interactions observed in the three transcribed lesson. This finding is the same as what the researchers on the field forwarded. As to Sinclair and Coulthand (1975) the most common type of interaction is IRF .The teacher usually initiate an exchange in the form of question one of the student answer, the teacher gives feedback

But, R. Ellis 1985 suggested that, interaction is considered in terms of discourse that teachers and students participate in. As to him, teacher's role is initiating and keeping the conversation going. These would be negotiation of meaning. When the participants struggle to avoid and overcome communication breakdowns.

In this study, teachers are observed playing the role of initiating interaction in a great deal (93.5%) and they do not seem to go beyond that up to negotiation of meaning. This could be dependent on various factors like the type of question they ask, the questioning skill they have, time and awareness of the use of questions are some among others.

Concerning the use of questions, Gall (1984), in his research as cited in Benbrook and Shelia 1989:142) suggests that questioning is one of the most common techniques used by teachers and they can be used to allow learners keep participating. That is why the research believes questions and things related to questions to be factors for the limitation of classroom interaction in IRF as can be observed in Table 4:5.

4.5 Distribution of Questions

It is not only the question and question type that determines the role questions play for classroom interaction, distribution of question as well is another major issue

Table 4:11 Distributions of questions (Lesson transcripts)

Of questions answered by	T ₁		T ₂		T ₃	
	No of questions	%	No of questions	%	No of questions	%
Randomly asked	6	5	2	1.7	-	6.7
Volunteers	16	13.3	13	10.8	37	30.8
Whole-class	14	11.7	17	14.1	3	2.5
The teacher	8	6.7	4	3.3	0	0
Total	44	36.7	36	29.9	40	40

As it is indicated in the above table of the total, 193 questions, 120 or (62%) of the questions have got a response. In all of the three lessons, the distribution of questions shows that, of the 120 questions which got a response, 54% were distributed to volunteers, 28.3% to whole class and only 6.7% of the questions were distributed to randomly asked students.

The students and teachers' claim on the rank order questionnaire also put volunteers in the 1st rank having the highest mean value. Giving chance for volunteers could be seen as one variety of distributing questions. But if it

happens too often, shy students may not get a chance to practice or use the language.

The results of students claim on the questionnaire about the reason why they do not try to respond to teachers question shows that, they are not most of the time given the opportunity to try, which is their second reason with high mean value just next to fear of being blamed.

Table 4.12 Students’ response on how frequently they try to answer teachers’ question

I try to answer teachers questions	Always		Sometimes		Never	
	Number of respondents	%	Number of respondents	%	Number of respondents	%
	17	28	33	55	10	17

In the questionnaire students were also asked to replay how frequently they try to answer teachers’ question as the table above shows, 17% of them try it always and another 17 % of them never try to answer it at all .Thos who try sometimes 55% and those who never 17% try were asked to reason out. The following table is about that

Table4.10 Students reason for not trying to answer

Reasons	Number of students	%
Not getting the chance	25	58
Fear of being blamed	15	39
Preference to listen to what others are saying	3	7

Here the respondents are 43 including those who claimed to answer teachers’ Questions sometimes (33) and never (10). As one can understand from the above table not getting the chance is what 58% of the respondents claimed to

be their reason for not trying to answer teachers' questions. So, giving chance to volunteers should not be over used as it has adverse effect on making the rest of the students to be active participant in what is going on in the classroom.

On the other hand questions answered by whole class students, as can be deduce from the above table 4.8 are 34 in number and 23 in percentage of the total questions. Teachers use it as a fast means of checking understanding but instead it should be used for a drill or to practice new forms of language. Posing questions to the class may help teachers to give speaking opportunity for large number of students at once but may not help for meaningful language practice for learners with teachers' guidance and feedback

But what teachers' and students' claim in the questionnaire is a little bit different from the results of the transcribed lesson. Teachers' claim that whole class response to be the 3rd most frequently appearing just after volunteers and students with high proficiency. On the other hand, students claim that whole class response is the least frequently practiced activity. It has the list mean value as to students claim. (See Appendix C) many reasons could be cited for these differences but the different perceptions the two subjects have is among others to be worth mentioned.

It is also possible to see from the above table that, there are 12 questions or 10% of the total questions are answered by the teacher. The following examples could be cited as an illustration:

Example 3 Taken from T₁

: T- Yes These are demonstrative pronouns where as these are what?

SS- Relative Pronouns

T- Relative pronouns. Relative pronouns means pronouns in which we use to relate what? To relate clause. So we have two Clauses. That is defining and non-defining. In the case of

non-defining clause, we are not responsible for what? Any punctuation in the sentence.
We haven't punctuation. But in the case of non-defining Clause, we have what?

SS- Punctuation

Example 4 Taken from T₂

T- Good morning

SS- Good morning teacher

T- Do you know the structural formula of type one? It is if + subject+ v1 comma subject + will +verb 1. For this structural formula, who can write a sentence? Yes.

These could be because of lack of patience. In the above example the teacher didn't try to let students think of the answer, rather he ask and respond it by himself.

Asking students randomly to answer questions is good because it helps to hold the attention of the whole class. If students know that their teacher asks questions randomly they will be alert and attentive but as to transcribed lesson indicate teachers do not usually let their questions to be answered on the voluntary bass

Teacher should arrange their questions in such a way that they invite all students to give response and use the language form under discussion. sometimes if the questions are challenging, it is preferable to allow only volunteers .But it should not be over used because it does not allow the teacher to give chances for all students to participate in the class room.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study was intended to investigate the role of EFL classroom questions for students' classroom interaction. To achieve this purpose, three lessons (45 minutes each) were audio-recorded, transcribed and used as the main source of data. In addition, data was also obtained from teachers and students' responses to the administered questionnaire.

There were 5 basic questions that were set to guide the researcher to achieve the purposes of the study these are: Do teachers ask questions? How often do EFL teachers ask questions? If yes, what kinds of questions do they ask? Do teachers' questions initiate classroom interaction? What patterns of interactions do teachers questions initiate?

As. the result of the study shows, questioning is the second most frequently practiced activities of EFL classroom in the observed lesson.

Of the total questions the three teachers' ask, the number of lower level questions are observed to be the prominent figure than higher level questions.

High number of lower-level questions, though they initiated IRF (Initiate-Response and Feedback) patterns of interaction, they do not go beyond that up to meaning negotiations and real language use

Teachers' use various questioning techniques repeating and modifying questions are the major ones. Teachers' were also observed tending to focus on certain students to respond

Recommendation

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are given;

In order to create a genuine classroom interaction and let students use the language in the classroom, teachers should develop the habits of asking high-level questions and referential questions it is because these types of questions enable to go beyond IRF. Language should of course usually be used for really communication and interaction between the teacher and the students and should also be close to a genuine conversation. One aspects of using language for real communication is asking about things you really want to know. Like “what do you think is the secret to happiness?” than “what kind of word is happiness?

Silence is not necessarily a bad thing. Teachers need to lengthen the wait time after a question to allow students to think about the questions and to come up with an answer. This would help to decrease the amount to questions answered by teachers’ themselves.

Teachers should develop question distribution skill and system so as to address each and every individual in the classroom.

All the above recommended points show how teachers are not very much aware of the advantage of questions and questioning skill. This is because, as I talked informally to many teachers, there is no course given to them in their college studies. So I recommend teachers’ training colleges at least to give a three credit hour course on classroom language and classroom questions.

Government also should facilitate different teachers development course including on classroom questions.

And research done on EFL classroom question are few in numbers, I recommend other research to explore a lot about classroom questions as effective substitute to methods.

Teaches need to closely plan questions that are meant to lead to particular topics, prompt discussion and comprehension or elicit particular language.

Bibliography

- Allen, H. B. 1965. *Teaching English As a second language*. USA. McGraw Hill, Inc.
- Allwright, D., & Bailey, K. (1991). *Focus on the language classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Anderson, L. W., & Burns, R.B. (1989). *Research in classrooms: The study of teachers, teaching and instruction*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Austin, F.M. 1961. The Art of Questioning in the Classroom. London: University of London press Ltd.
- Banbrook, L & Skehan, P 1989 *Classrooms & Display Questions*. London: British Council.
- Bloom. B.S. (ed). 1956. Taxonomy of Educational objectives: the classification of Educational Goals, Hand book 1: Cognitive Domain. New York: David McKay Co. Inc.
- Borich, G.D. (1988). *Effective Teaching Methods*. New York: Macmillan
- Bridges, D. (n.d), "Discussion and questioning. "In Dillon, J.T. (e.d.) 1987. *Questioning Exchanges: A multidisciplinary Review*. Vol. 1, No. 1 Lodnon: Taylor and Francis.
- Brock, C.A. 1986. "The Effects of Referential Questions on ESL Classroom Discourse. "TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 20, No. 1. Pp. 47-59.
- Brophy, J., and Good, T.L. "Teacher Behavior and Student Achievement." In *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd ed.), edited by Merlin C. Wittrock. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1985.

- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). Longman Publishers.
- Byren, D. (1987). *Techniques for Classroom Interaction*. Longman
- Chadron, Craig. 1988. *Second Language classroom research on teaching and Learning*. New York: CUP
- Coulthard, M (Ed). 1987 *Discussing Discourse*. Birmingham.: E L Research.
- Coulthard, M (Ed). 1992 *Advances in Spoken Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Dennis, G. Wiseman and Gilbert H. Hunt. (2008): *Best Practice in Motivation and*
- Dillon, J.T. *Teaching and the Art of Questioning*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1983.
- Dillon, J.T. 1985 "Using Questions to Foil Discussion." *Teaching and teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and studies* vol. 1, pp. 109-122.
- Dudley. Evens, T and St. John, M.J. 1998. Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-Disciplinary Approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
- Ellis, R. 1994. The study of Secondary Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University press.
- Farrant, J.S. 1980. *Principals and practice of Education*. Singapore. Longman. Singapore published pt-Ltd.
- Flanders, N.A. 1970. *Analyzing Teaching Behavior*. California: Addison-Wesley.
- Gall, M. "Synthesis of Research on Teachers' Questioning." *Educational Leadership* 42(1984): 40-47.

- Gall, M.D. "The Importance of Context Variables in Research on Teaching Skills." *Journal of Teacher Education* 28(1977): 43-48.
- Gall, M.D. 1970. "The use of questions in Teaching. "Review of Educational Research, 40, 707, 721.
- Good, T. L., & Brophy, J. E. (2003). *Looking in classrooms* (9th ed.). Boston: Pearson Education Inc.
- Good, Thomas, and Brophy, Jere E. 1997. *Looking in Classrooms*, 7th edition. New York: Harper and Row.
- Hornsby, H.S. 1986. *Oxford Advanced Learners' English Dictionary*. London: Oxford University press.
- Kissock, C. and Iyortsuun, P.1982. *A Guide to Questioning: Classroom Procedures For Teachers*. London: Macmillan.
- Long, M.H. and Sato, C.J. 1983. "Class room Foreigner Talk Discourse: Forms and Functions of Teachers' Questions." In Selinger, H.W. and Long, M.H. (eds.) *classroom-oriented Research in second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House.
- Lynch, T.(1991). Questioning Roles in the classroom. *ELT Journal* 45 (3): 201 – 210.
- Mahlis, M., and D'Angelo, I. Teacher Questions: An Experimental Analysis of the Question Effect Hypothesis. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Teacher Educators, Orlando, FL, February 1, 1983. (ED 227 062).
- Malamah – Thomas, A. (1987). *Classroom Interaction*. Oxford: oxford University press. Management: Charles C Thomas Publisher LTD

- McNair, John M. 1974. "Putting Questions:" Modern Language" Journal of Language Teaching Abstract. Vol 7 No. 57.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
- _____ (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers*; New York: Prentice Hall International Ltd.
- Nuru Mohammed. 1982. "Levels of Questions: A Description of Textbook and Exam Questions in Higher secondary schools." Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Addis Ababa University.
- Parrott, Elizabeth. 1982. *Effective teaching. A practical Guide to improve your teaching*. New York: Longman group Ltd.
- Pearson, P.D. "Changing the Face of Reading Comprehension Instruction." *The Reading Teacher* 38(1985): 724-738.
- Perrott, E. (1990). Using questions in classroom discussion. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Methods of teaching* (pp. 50-62). London: The College of Perceptors.
- Quarterly, 15, pp.139-50
- Richards, J. and Lockhart, C. 1994. Reflective Teaching in Second Language classrooms. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
- Riley, J.P., II. "The Effects of Teachers' Wait-Time and Knowledge Comprehension Questioning on Science Achievement." *Journal of Research in Science Teaching* 23(1986): 335-342.
- Rivers, W.M. (ed.). 1987. *Interactive Language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

- Sahin, C., Bullock, K., & Stables, A. (2002). Teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to their beliefs about questioning at key stage 2. *Educational Studies*, 28(4), 371-384.
- Scrivener. (1994). *The Teacher Development Series*: Heinemann
- Seime Kebede. 1999. "An exploration of the Relationship between up take and classroom Questions: A case study". Unpublished Doctorate Dissertation, Addis Ababa University.
- Stevick, E *Teaching and Learning Language*. (1982)
- Ur, P,(1996). *A Course In Language Teaching Methodology: Proactive and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University press.
- Van Lier, L. 1988. *The classroom and the Language Learner*. London: Longman.
- Wajnryb, R. (1992). *Classroom observation tasks: A resource book for language teachers and trainers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- WILEN, WILLIAM. 1987. *Questions, Questioning Techniques, and Effective Teaching*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.
- Wring. (1989) *.Effective Teaching of Modern Language*. London. Hangman group UK Limited
- Zamel,V.(1981).*Cybernetics: A Model for Feedback in ESL classroom*. TESOL

Appendix A

Teacher 1

T- Good morning students

SS- Good morning Teacher

T- You were asked to write a note from the text book. So using that, we are going to look over the questions and proceed to the answer. So, in order to remember what we've discussed before, our topic was about. Relative...

SS- Clauses

T- What did we say about relative Clause? What did we say about relative Clauses before? Raise your hand and tell me the most important things that we said before.

SS- Defining and non-defining relative Clauses

T- Ok In relative Clause we said that we have what? Pronouns like what?

SS- who, that, who, whom and whose

T- What about the other pronouns used for? Pronoun like this, those, there, that for what they used for? These are demonstrative...

SS- pronouns

T- Yes these are demonstrative pronouns where as these are (pointing at the wh-words written on the board)what?

SS- Relative Pronouns

T- Relative pronouns. Relative pronouns mean pronouns in which we use to relate what? To relate clause. So we have two Clauses. That is defining

and non-defining. In the case of non-defining clause, we are not responsible for what? Any punctuation in the sentence. We haven't punctuation. But in the case of non-defining Clause, we have what?

SS- Punctuation

T- Using punctuation. Why? Why we use punctuation there? What is the need of using punctuation in non-defining relative Clause?

S1- It needs extra information

T- Yes, if gives us extra information about what?

S1- It gives comma

T- About what?

S2- about the noun?

T- About the subject we need to use what? Relative Clause. That relative Clauses is demonstrating the subject of the sentence. Is that clear? We are expressing additional information and we said also that it is possible to avoid the preceding Clauses.

In this case we've an access to avoid what? This Clause when we are avoiding this clause, we are not changing the meaning of the sentence. So in the case of non-defining clause, we have an access to avoid the clause between the two comma. But it is not in the case of what? In the case of defining relative clause. Why we never avoid the comma in the defining clause? Why don't we avoid the comma in the defining clause? What did we say before? So why don't we need to avoid this clause from the non-defining clause?

S1- Because it is an essential part of a sentence

T- Yes, that is an essential point of our sentence

If we are avoiding that, we are not defining what? The clause. So we always put relative clause together with the defining clause in order to make what? To make it define. Defining clause. You know definition Just like that

If you take Geography

Geography, which is the branch of social science, studies about land forms. This is what? Non-defining relative Clause

So based on that point, we are going to look over the question. so on page 135 or 136

SS- 135

T- Ok page 35 you have about 10 questions. Out of that you are going to look over five or 6 questions

T- Who can answer the first one?

A person who paint... Oh that we have seen?

Who can answer the second one?

A person who looks after a garden?

S1- Garbage

S2- Janitor

T- So, a person who looks after a garden is gardener not garbage. Who can answer the second one?

A person who designs roads and buildings

SS- Engineer

T- Is that an Engineer?

S1- No, It is an Architect

T- Good next. A person who builds roads and bridges

SS- Engineer

T- Yes, engineer what about the fourth one. A person who pulls out your teeth

SS- Doctor

T- Is that Doctor? Any other

S1- Dentist

T- Yes dentist. Now go to exercise 3 and find the meaning of the first five words.

So who can define the words? There at the back what is a neighbor?

S1- I don't know

T- What about you?

S2- I don't know

T- Ok others

S3- A person living near to others

T- A head master?

S1- A person who is chief of someone

T- Good A person who is chief of _____?

S1- some body

T- Is that somebody?

S1- Someone

T- Someone! Not only someone, a given society many be a given district. So that person is said to be what?

SS- Head master

T- Head master. A detective. Ahee. You?

S1- I don't know

T- I don't know! What about you?

S2- No

T- You don't know Ok others what is a detective

S1- A part of a police

T- What!

S1- A part of a police

T- Is that? Is that in the case of non-defining relative clause?

S2- A person who find others

T- A person who investigates crimes is called what?

Ss- Detective

T- Merchant

SS- A person...

T- A person who sells goods. You know goods. So a person who sells goods is a merchant. The last one. A lire.

S1- A person who cheat other

T- A person who cheat others. What else? Others?

S2- A person who is not loyal.

T- Yes. A person who is not loyal is called lire a person who is not responsible is a lire.

T- To sum up what was the point?

SS- Relative clause

T- What was the point we raised ?

SS- defining and non defining relative clause

T- How can we identify defining from the non-defining.?

S1- The first one defining two comma

T- Is that defining?

SS- Non-Defining

T- But in the second case in the defining, the clause is very essential to the meaning of the subject so we are not responsible to avoid the relative clause from the sentence clause. So defining and non-defining clause can be identified by the use of punctuation. Specifically the comma.

What are the relative pronouns that we use to define subjects?

SS- Who, that, which, whom, and whose

T- Some of the relative clause are used for what?

SS- Human being

T- So these pronouns will help to identify defining and non-defining clause.

Appendix B

Teacher-2

T- Good morning

SS- Good morning teacher

T- Do you know the structural formula of type one? It is if + subject+ v1 comma subject + will +verb 1(The teacher writes it on the board). For this structural formula, who can write a sentence? Yes.

S1- If she studies hard, she will pass the exam.

T- Very good. It can be. For type two, there is a structural formula of type two.
It is

T- If +

SS- Subject

T- Very good. Subject +

SS- Verb 2

T- Good. Verb 2 then comma after the comma

SS- + subject

T- Yes, subject +

SS- Would

T- Would +

SS- have

T- No, would +verb1. So we have

If + subject +V2, subject + would +V1 (The teacher writes it on the board). For this structural formula of type two, who can write appropriate sentence? Who can write appropriate sentence? Temesgen would you try?

Temesgen- If I were a bird I would fly.

T- Very good. This is type two conditional sentences. Given this, structural formula of type 2 and this is the appropriate example that you can construct

When we come to structural formula of type 3 conditional sentences...

T- If + The teacher write it and while he was writing he was asking students to tell him the coming entry in the formula)

SS- Subject

T- Subject +

SS- had

T- Had +

T- Had +

SS- V3

T- Verb 3 comma then subject +

SS- have or has

T- Would have or that is known as conditional perfect tense would have +

SS- Verb 3

T- Yes, verb 3.

Good who can write a sentence for this structural formula? Who can write?

Yared, appropriate sentence for this yes.

Yared- If I had joined the university, I would have studied literature

T- If I had joined the university, I would have studied literature.(the teacher writes the sentence and underlined the main clause and ask them to tell him the other half of the sentence) This is the main clause and this one is

SS- The if-clause

T- Yes, if clause. So you simply understand that. If you have what? The structural formulas, you can write specific sentences you are asked in all types of your own sentences.

From this, anyone who can write his own sentence. Having this in mind, anyone who can write? Anyone who can write. Yes...

S1- Type – 1

T- Yes, Type-1

S1- If he runs, he will get there on time.

T- Any other sentence like this (x3). Yes, over there

S2- If I got money, I'll support poor people

T- Very good. From the supplied structural formulas, what are the verbs? What is the If-clause and what is the main clause? Which one is the main Clause and which one is the if-clause? And what is the tense in your clause. Yes, Temesgen.

Temesgen- simple present

T- Yes “get” is the verb and it is in the simple present tense form and in the main clause will is?

SS- present perfect

T- Future tense. Future tense. When we bring our main clause first, no need of using...

SS- Comma

T- When the If-Clause comes first, we use comma. That is conditional type one. When we talk about our ambitions, we use type 2. That is simple past in our if-clause and conditional + V1 in the main clause. As usual, the if-clause is separated from main clause by the comma. When the main clause comes first, no need of using comma. Who can write a sentence? Yes

S1- If they had gone on time, they would have gotten the bus.

T- If they had gone on time, they would have gotten the bus(The teacher writes the sentence on the board) past perfect in the if-Clause, as you can see here, i.e. had + (V3) and you have conditional perfect tense in the main clause. Conditional perfect tense in the main clause would have +V3 (past participle), so in this case, it is impossible. Simple we express regrets of the past that is the wishes which lacks plans, ambitious plans. No more change or it is impossible to change it the other way round. We call it impossible condition.

So, generally, when we talk about conditional sentences, we add have and had. Any question for clarification? Or if there are ambiguities you can raise some questions.

T- Ok, Temesegen

Temesgen- No

T- When do we use conditional sentence? What is the use of conditional sentence? What is the use of conditional sentence? Yes, Temesgen

Temesgen- To express...

T- When you express something which we are not certain or sure of which is in doubt. I.e. unreal future and unreal... past unreal past. In this case 50% may become true and 50% may become false. Simply regrets of the past.

This is all about conditional sentences. Conditional sentences as far as you have seen the structural formula; you can write many sentences using them.

T- How can you express when you are sure of something or when you are not sure of something? How you can express? Using the words like defiantly, certainly, surely, no doubt and the like words. Can express when you sure of something.

You may say. I'm sure, I'm certain; I'm quite sure, positive, defiantly. I doubt, I am not sure... such expressions used to express what you are not sure of when you ask someone if he is sure or not you may say are you sure? Are you certain? Are you quite sure? Is there any doubt about it?

T- Using the expressions or words construct your own sentence now. What so ever it is you can construct your own sentence? Who can construct his own sentences? Anybody? Anybody interested? Ye, at the back.

S1- I have many kinds of beautiful females in the world

T- Are you sure of? Are you certain? Like this what is this? He expresses what he is sure of about or what he is certain about. Simply, defiantly, surely, no doubt and the like set of words express what we are sure of or what we are not sure of.

T- Page 114 expresses such kinds of expressions. Read it with your partner. Take turns with your partner. Take turns and discuss with your partner. Let's see number one.(after he gave them about 8 minutes)

SS- I'm sure the water boils at 100°C

T- I'm sure... (The teacher reads it with different intonation and writes it on the board)

SS- water boils

T- Water boils... (The teacher reads it with different intonation and writes it on the board)

SS- at 100°C

T- at 100°C

T- I'm sure water boils at 100°C.(the teacher reading what is written on the board) Very good. Like this.

S1- I'm sure the sun rises in the east.

T- V. good. I'm sure the sun rises in the east. (The teacher repeating what the student said) Yes.

S2- I'm sure Ethiopia will be rich.

T- Good. You can say many things. What you are concerned is in your real life situation. What you can observe in your real life. Yes.

S3- I'm sure the weather is cool.

T- Very good. What are you sure of or what you are not sure of. Yes.

S4- Are you sure that we are going to stadium tomorrow.

T- With what you have doubt, how you can express? Using the negative expressions like I doubt, I'm not sure. What you are not sure or what you are not certain about? Yes, Temesgen

Temesgen. I'm not sure to come Tuesday

T- I'm not sure to come Tuesday. He may have some appointment that is why; he is not sure for Tuesday. Any other? From this row. Yes

S1- I'm not sure the police man fights the criminals

T- That you have doubt

S2- I think the teacher is absent

T- I think the teacher is absent. . (The teacher repeating what the student said)
She has a doubt.

For example, if somebody says I have lost my pen before he searches somewhere, what do you ask? I have lost my pen, if somebody says, what would you say?

S1- Are you sure?

T- Very good. He may say definitely because he has been searching somewhere else. Are you sure will be the question and the answer will be defiantly. That is all about. If you have questions you can raise.

S1- What is the difference between I'm sure and I'm certain

T- They are almost the same; there is no difference between them. They both express something we are sure. Any other question?

Ok who can revise briefly what we have seen?

T- We have seen conditional sentences and their structural formula and we have seen expressions of when we are sure or we are not sure. Is that clear?

SS- Yes/No...

Appendix C

Teacher- 3

T- Good morning students

SS- no response

T- Ok take out you homework. I said take out your homework? All right exercise-3. You can give different types of definitions. In exercise-3, you have to do it just like the given example. So who can do number 1. A vet? Example is given for you.

A bachelor is a man who is not married Ok. Melaku Louder.

Melaku- There is a doctor who gives drugs to animals in the form of injection.

T- Ok. Any other definition. Yes, Tesfaye stand up

Tesfaye- A person who helps cattles

T- Any other? Any other yes please

S1- There is a doctor who treats cattles

T- Any other, any other ok. What about number 2? A neighbor? Yes

S1- A neighbor is someone who is in our village

T- Ok. Leake

Leake- A neighbor is a family who is found near our village

T- Kirubell

Kirubell- A family live near to our house

T- Ok Almaze

Almaze- A person who live near our house

T- A person who live near our house. Ok. Murad

Murad- A person who is in our house

T- A person who is in our house. Is that neighbor? Yes, any other?

S1- A neighbor is a person who lives next to our house

T- Ok. A neighbor is a person who lives next to our house. Ok what about number-3. A president. Yes.

S1- A president who administer people

T- Ok any other?

S2- A person who elected by people

T- A person elected by people. Any other? What is a president? Any other? Yes Nolan.

Nolan. A president is a person who is administration of one country.

T- Yes, Meron

Meron- A president is a person who leads or rules a country.

T- Good. Any other? Any other? Yes Tesfa

Tesfa- A person who rules or leads a country.

T- As Tesfa said, a president is a person who is elected by people and rule a country. What about a head master? Yes Nati

Nati- A person who is supervisor of Teachers.

T- Yes, supervisor of teachers. Ok any other? Yes, what is a head master?

S1- A person who is the manager of a company

T- Yes Leake

Leake- A person who is the owner of a company

S3- A person who rules or leads a company

T- A person who rules or leads a company. What about number five? A thief
(3x) Worku.

Worku- A person who seal something

T- Ok. A thief? Yes Endale

Endale- A person who steal people's property

T- Good any other

S1- A man who catch other people.

T- Say it again

S1- A man who catch other people property

T- Ok just like he said, a thief is someone who steals other person's property
without permission. All right. What about a defective?

S1- A man who investigate a criminal

T- Yes, A police who investigate a criminal yes, Yordanos, what is a defective?

Yordenos- A man who investigate a criminal.

T- Any other

S1- A person who gather information

T- Yes, what kind of information

S1- Clime

S2- A person who investigate crimes.

T- All right. What about a beggar? What is a beggar?

S1- A person who is not working.

T- Ok Do all people who are not working are beggars?

S2- A person who collects money from the society.

T- Any other

S3- A person who gets money by asking other people.

T- Good. Others.

S4- A person who lives by depending on other people.

T- Yes.

S5- A person who has no money and work and who ask people

T- So, a beggar is a person who asks people for money on the street. Merchant?

What is merchant? Yes.

S1- A person who sells different things.

T- Any other? What is a merchant? What is a Merchant?

S2- A person who sells different goods.

T- What about a Murderer? Murder?

SS- A person who kill people

T- Any other? Stand up and louder. What about a layer

S1- A person who talk wrong

T- Yes, any other?

S2- A person who speaks false

T- Any other? Ok a layer a person who doesn't talk the truth.

T- Now, look at your book on page 136 Exercise 4 look at the examples.

Viruses are micro organisms which can cause yellow fever. You are asked to define those 3 terms.

T- Have you finished? (After ha gave them about 7 minutes) Can you read if?

S1- Rickeshya which causes typhus.

S2- Protozoa Causes Malaria.

T- Ok stop Turn your book on page 137 exercise 6. Make a group of 3 and try to add relation pronouns to the given passage.

Can you tell me relative pronouns, what are words like relative pronouns

SS- Which, that, who, whom, whose.

T- Ok good, now go on discussing use English.

Appendix D

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate studies

Department of foreign languages and Literature

Teachers' questionnaires

Dear respondents, the aim of this questionnaire is to obtain information on classroom teacher questions. Your cooperation to answer all the questions is of great value and thus, your interest and devotion of time is vital. The information you give will be used only for academic purposes. Finally, I would like to thank you in advance for your cooperation and devotion of time.

I. Background information of teachers

Please select the one that is appropriate to you from the alternatives given

1. Sex A. male B. Female
2. Age _____
3. Qualification a. certificate b.12+2 (diploma)
- c. 10+3 (diploma) d. If any, specify _____
4. Teaching experience (in years)_____
5. Teaching load per week _____

II. Questionnaire for teachers'

1. What kinds of activities do you frequently use to enhance the learners' English language learning?
 - a. Put the suggested activities in sequence from most to least frequently used
 1. _____ a explanation/ 'lecture'
 2. _____ b demonstration
 3. _____ c asking questions

4. _____ d let student ask and respond their questions

b. If there is any other, please identify _____

2. How often do you use questions in your classrooms?

a. frequently b. occasionally c. rarely d. never

3. If your response for item No. 4 is A or B, what are you purposes to ask.

A. Arrange the following purposes in sequence from most to least important

1. _____ a. to introduce major concepts or ideas of a lesson

b. to review or consolidate previously learnt lesson

c. to check how much students understood the lesson

d. to promote students interaction in discussion

e. to seek for new information

f. to confirm what students have responded

g. to request for clarification

B. If there are other purposes, please identify _____

4. If your answer for item 4 is C or D what is your reasons

1. Shortage of lesson time

2. Questions are not relevant to undergo my lesson smoothly

3. Students do not like to be asked

4. I have never got any orientation about the relevance of questions

5. If any, please identify _____

5. How much do you think your questions are essential to initiate students' participations in the classroom discussion?

a. Very essential b. essential

c. Less essential than other activities like explanation and demonstration

- d. Not essential
6. In terms of the nature of response they ask, what are the types of questions you ask; put them in sequences from most to least frequently use.
 1. Questions that require simple memory of specific ideas
 2. Questions that require beyond simple memory (describing) relation and giving explanation).
 3. Questions that require bringing together various parts of complex process.
 4. Questions that require arriving at certain effect
 5. Questions that require critical thinking and developing something new by putting ideas together
 6. Questions that require applying certain information and solving problems.
- C. If you have any other idea, please identify _____
7. What is the nature of your questions frequently used?
 - a. Questions to which the answer I already know
 - b. Questions to which the answer I do not know
 - c. Both types in equal proportion
 8. To whom do you frequently give opportunity when you ask students?
 - A. Put in order of frequency from must to least
 1. _____
 - a. only the volunteers
 - b. Randomly nominated students
 - c. whole class in chorus
 - d. those students with high proficiency, whether they are volunteer or not
 - e. students with low proficiency

B. If any other, please identify _____

9. When you guess that students have not comprehended your questions, what methods do you mostly use to clarify it?

A. Arrange in order from most to least frequently used methods

1. _____
 - a. I repeat the question
 - b. I rephrase or modify the questions
 - c. I drop the question and ask another
 - d. I redirect the question to another

B. If nay other, identify _____

10. How do you frequently address your questions to the students?

- a. I nominate the respondent first and then pose the questions
- b. I put forward the questions first and then nominate the respondent
- c. I set a fixed order, so that every one waits for his/her turn.
- d. If any other way, please identify _____

Appendix E

Questionnaire for students

1. On what activities do you spend most of your English language period
 - A. Put in most to least frequently practiced activity.
 1. _____
 - a. Listening to teachers explanation
 - b. responding to teachers' question
 - c. discussing among ourselves either in group or in pairs
 - d. writing notes
 - e. asking the teacher various questions
 - B. If you have any other idea, please identify _____

2. How after does your English teacher ask you (the class) questions in the classroom. S/he asks us
 - a. Frequently b. Occasionally c. rarely d. she/he never asks
3. What is the nature of questions that your teacher ask you
 - A. Put in frequency order from the most to the least
 - _____ a. questions that review and consolidate what I have learnt previously.
 - _____ b. questions that are related to my personnel experience
 - _____ c. questions about new information
 - _____ d. questions that introduce the present lesson of the day
 - _____ e. questions that checks my understanding
 - B. If nay other, please identify _____
4. What do you say about the difficulty of questions that your teacher usually asks you
 - a. Very difficult b. difficult c. moderate
 - d. Easy e. very easy

5. If your response to item No. 6 is A or B, why do you think they are difficult
- I can't understand the language the teacher uses when asking
 - The teacher ask questions which are related to what I here learn or to my experience
 - Usually I find the subject too difficult
6. Do you think the questions that your English teacher asks, stimulate you to practice the language? A. Yes B. No
- If yes why _____
- If no why _____
7. How often do you attempt to answer teachers' questions
- I regularly try to answer
 - I try to answer occasionally
 - I rarely try to answer
 - I never try to answer
8. If your response to question No. 9 is "C" or "D", what is your main reason?
- I'm not usually given an opportunity to try
 - I'm afraid of being blamed in case I respond wrongly
 - I usually find the question difficult
 - I prefer listening silently to other respondents to responding myself
 - If you have any other reason, please explain _____
9. How does your English teacher mostly give opportunity to the class to respond?
- A. Put in sequence from most to least frequently used method
- _____ a. seeking for volunteers
 - _____ b. Letting the whole class to respond together
 - _____ c. focusing on bright students
 - _____ d. focusing on students with low proficiency
- B. If any _____
10. When you find your teachers questions difficult to comprehend, what does she/he do to help you understand
- A. Put in order of occurrence
- _____ a. repeating the question
 - _____ b. modifying the pattern of the question
 - _____ c. changing the question
 - _____ d. redirecting the question to other student
- B. If any _____

Appendix F

የተማሪዎች መጠይቅ

ውድ ተማሪዎች፡ የዚህ መጠይቅ አላማው የእንግሊዘኛ ቋንቋ መምህራችሁ ክፍል ውስጥ የሚጠይቁት ጥያቄ ለተማሪዎች የክፍል ተሳትፎ ያለው አስተዋፅኦ ምን ያህል እንደሆነ ለመመልከት ነው። ከዚህ በታች ለተዘረዘሩት ጥያቄዎች የእናንተ መልስ ጥናቱን ለማካሄድ አስፈላጊውን መረጃ እንዳገኝ ስለሚረዳኝ ቀና ትብብራችሁን እጠይቃለሁ።

ስለትብብራችሁ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ

1. አብዛኛውን የእንግሊዘኛ ቋንቋ ክ/ጊዜ የምታሳልፉት ምን አይነት ተግባራትን በማከናወን ነው?

i) ብዙ ጊዜ ከሚደጋገመው ተግባራት ወደ ትንሽ ጊዜ የሚደጋገሙ ተግባራት በቅደም ተከተል አስቀምጡ።

_____ ሀ. የመምህራችንን ገላጻ ማዳመጥ

_____ ለ. ለመምህራችን ጥያቄ መልስ በመመለስ

_____ ሐ. በግሩኝ ወይም ሁለት ሁለት ሆነን እርስ በእርስ በመወያየት

_____ መ. ማስታወሻ በመጻፍ

_____ ሠ. መምህራችንን የተለያዩ ጥያቄዎች በመጠየቅ

ii) ሌላ ካለ ግለፅ/ጭ _____

2. የእንግሊዘኛ አስተማሪዎችሁ ክፍል ውስጥ ጥያቄ የሚጠይቁት በምን ያህል ጊዜ ነው?

ሀ. በተደጋጋሚ ጊዜ

ለ. አንዳንድ ጊዜ

ሐ. በጭራሽ አይጠይቁም

3. የእንግሊዘኛ አስተማሪዎችሁ የሚጠይቁቸው ጥያቄዎች አይነት _____ ነው?

i) ብዙ ጊዜ ተደጋግመው ከሚጠየቁ ወደ ትንሽ ጊዜ ተደጋግመው ወደሚጠየቁ በቅደም ተከተል አስቀምጡ።

_____ ሀ. ቀደም ብሎ የተማርናቸውን የሚከልሱና የሚያጠናክሩ ጥያቄዎች

_____ ለ. ከግል ህይወታችን ጋር የተያያዙ ጥያቄዎች

_____ ሐ. አዲስ መረጃዎችን የተመለከቱ ጥያቄዎች

_____ መ. የእለቱን ትምህርት ለማስተዋወቅ የሚረዱ ጥያቄዎች
_____ ሠ. የምንማረው ትምህርት መረዳትና አለመረዳታችንን ለማወቅ የሚያገለግሉ
ጥያቄዎች

ii) ሌላ ካለ ግለፅ/ጭ _____

4. የእንግሊዘኛ አስተማሪያችሁ የሚጠይቁትሁ የክፍል ጥያቄዎች ክብደትና ቅለት ሁኔታ ምን ይመስላል

- ሀ. በጣም ከባድ ነው
- ለ. ከባድ ነው
- ሐ. መካከለኛ ነው
- መ. ቀላል ነው
- ሠ. በጣም ቀላል ነው

5. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር “4” መልስህ/ሽ ሀ/ለ ከሆነ ምክንያቱ ምን ይመስልህ/ሻል?

- ሀ. አስተማሪዬ ለጥያቄያቸው የሚጠቀሙበትን ቋንቋ ስለማልረዳው
- ለ. ብዙ ጊዜ የጥያቄውን መልስ ስለማላውቀው
- ሐ. እንግሊዘኛ ትምህርት በራሱ ስለሚከብደኝ

6. መምህሩ የሚጠይቁት ጥያቄዎች ቋንቋውን ለመለማመድ ያነሳሳህ/ሻል

- ሀ. አዎ
 - ለ. አይ
- መልስህ/ሽ አዎን ከሆነ ለምን _____

_____ መልስህ/ሽ አይ ከሆነ ለምን _____

7. መምህሩ የሚጠይቁትን ጥያቄ ለመመለስ የምታደርገው ጥረት ምን ያህል ነው?

- ሀ. በተደጋጋሚ ጊዜ ለመመለስ እንሞክራለን
- ለ. አልፎ አልፎ ለመመለስ እንሞክራለሁ
- ሐ. በፍፁም ለመመለስ አልሞክርም

8. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር “7” መልስህ/ሽ “ሐ” ከሆነ ምክንያቱ ምን ይመስልህ/ሻል

- ሀ. ብዙ ጊዜ የመመለስ እድሉን ስለማይሰጡኝ
 - ለ. ልሰራ በምችለው ስህተት መወቀስ ስለምፈራ
 - ሐ. ብዙ ጊዜ ጥያቄዎቼ ስለሚከብዱኝ
- መ. ከመመለስ ይልቅ የሌሎችን መልስ ማዳመጥ ስለምመርጥ
- ሠ. ሌላ ምክንያት ካለህ/ሽ _____

9. የእንግሊዘኛ መምህራችሁ ለጠየቁት ጥያቄ መልስ እንድትሰጡ እድሉን የሚሰጡት በምን መልኩ ነው

i) ብዙ ጊዜ ተደጋግመው ከሚጠየቁ ወደ ትንሽ ጊዜ ተደጋግመው ወደሚጠየቁ በቅደም ተከተል አስቀምጡ።

- _____ ሀ. ፈቃደኛ መላሾችን በመፈለግ
- _____ ለ. ክፍሉ በጋራ እንዲመልስ በማድረግ
- _____ ሐ. ጉበዝ ተማሪዎችን በመምረጥ
- _____ መ. ጉበዝ ያልሆኑ ተማሪዎችን በመምረጥ

ii) ሌላ ካለ ግለፅ/ጭ _____

10. ጥያቄያቸውን እንዳልተረዳኸው/ሽው ሲገነዘቡ ጥያቄያቸው እንዲገባህ/ሽ መምህሩ ምን ያደርጋሉ

i) ብዙ ጊዜ ተደጋግመው ከሚጠየቁ ወደ ትንሽ ጊዜ ተደጋግመው ወደሚጠየቁ በቅደም ተከተል አስቀምጡ።

- _____ ሀ. ጥያቄውን ይደግሙታል
- _____ ለ. ጥያቄውን አሻሽለው ይጠይቁታል
- _____ ሐ. ጥያቄውን ይቀይሩታል
- _____ መ. ጥያቄውን ወደሌላ ተማሪ ያዞሩታል

iii) ሌላ ካለ ግለፅ/ጭ _____

Appendix G

Teachers' Responses to Rank-order Items on the Questionnaire

A- Activities used in EFL classroom

Activities X	4		3		2	1	Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Explanation	2	8	1	3	2	2	13	5	2.6
Demonstration	1	4	1	3	1	1	8	5	1.6
Asking questions	1	4	2	6	1	1	11	5	2.2
Letting students ask questions	1	4	1	3	1	1	8	5	16

B. Teachers nomination focuses

Focus of nomination X	5		4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Only volunteers	2	10	1	4	1	3	2	4	2	2	23	5	4.6
Randomly nominated students	1	5	1	4	-	-	-	-	1	1	10	5	2
Whole class in chorus	1	5	1	4	1	3	1	2	-	-	14	5	2.8
Students with high proficiency	1	5	1	4	3	9	2	4	2	2	24	5	4.8
Students with low proficiency	-	-	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	5	0.8

C Purposes for asking questions

Purposes	7		6		5		4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
To introduce major concepts or ideas of a lesson	2	14	2	12	1	5	1	4	1	3	2	4	1	1	43	5	8.6
To review or consolidate previously learnt lesson	2	14	2	12	2	10	2	8	3	9	1	2	2	2	57	5	11.4
To check how much students understood the lesson	1	7	-	1	1	5	1	4	1	3	2	4	1	1	25	5	5
To promote students interaction in discussion	-	-	1	6	1	5	1	4	-	-	-	-	1	1	16	5	3.2
To seek for new information	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	5	0
To confirm what students have responded	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	5	0
To request for clarification	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	5	0

D Types of questions in terms of response they ask

Levels of X questions		6		5		4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
		F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Lower level	Knowledge	2	12	2	10	1	4	1	3	2	4	1	1	34	5	6.8
	Comprehension	1	6	1	5	1	4	2	6	2	4	1	1	26	5	5.2
	Total	3	18	3	15	2	8	3	9	4	8	2	2	60	5	12
Higher level	Application	-	-	1	5	1	4	1	-	-	-	2	2	14	5	2.8
	Analysis	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-
	Synthesis	1	6	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	9	5	1.8
	Evaluation	1	6	1	5	1	4	-	1	1	2	1	1	18	5	3.6
Total		2	12	2	10	3	12	2	6	1	2	3	3	45	5	9

E Techniques of Teachers' Question-posing

Technique	4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Repeating Questions	2	8	2	6	1	2	1	1	17	5	3.4
Modifying questions	2	8	1	3	1	2	1	1	14	5	2.8
Changing the questions	1	4	1	3	2	4	1	1	12	5	2.4
Redirecting the question to other students	-	0	1	3	1	2	2	2	7	5	1.2

F .Addressing questions to the students

Addressing Questions	3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Nominate the respondent first then pose the question	2	6	0	0	1	1	7	5	1.4
The question first then nominate the respondent	1	3	3	6	2	2	8	5	1.6
Setting a fixed order so that every one waits for his/her turn	2	6	2	6	2	2	14	5	2.8

Appendix H

Students' responses to Rank-order items on Questionnaire

A. Activities on which students spend the lesson time

Activities	5		4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Listening to teachers' lecture	30	150	30	120	28	84	35	70	24	24	471	60	7.46
Responding to teachers' questions	9	45	10	40	7	21	9	18	12	12	136	60	2.26
Discussing in group/pairs	4	20	6	24	8	24	5	10	4	4	82	60	1.36
Writing notes	12	60	12	48	10	30	15	30	17	17	185	60	3.0
Asking questions	5	25	2	8	7	21	1	2	3	3	59	60	0.98

B. Nature of teachers' questions

Nature of questions	4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Review/consolidating questions	25	100	30	90	27	54	20	20	264	60	4.4
Personal experience questions	10	40	8	24	5	10	7	7	81	60	1.35
New information questions	13	52	5	15	5	10	8	8	85	60	1.4
Introducing, presenting questions	12	48	17	58	23	46	25	25	177	60	2.95

C Reasons for not trying to respond teachers' questions

Why students do not try to respond teachers questions	4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
I'm not usually given opportunity to try	20	80	15	45	17	34	18	18	177	60	2.95
I am afraid of being blamed in I case I respond wrongly	17	58	25	75	23	46	26	26	205	60	3.41
I usually find the questions difficult	16	64	10	30	12	24	9	9	127	60	2.1
I prefer listening to others response	7	28	10	30	8	16	7	7	81	60	1.35

D. Teachers' Question posing skills/Techniques

Techniques	4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Repeating questions	33	132	23	69	25	50	30	30	281	60	4.6
Modifying questions	12	48	17	51	7	14	7	7	120	60	2
Changing questions	5	20	8	24	11	22	13	13	79	60	1.3
Redirecting questions to another pupil	10	40	12	36	17	34	10	10	120	60	2

E Teachers' nomination focus

Focus of nomination	5		4		3		2		1		Efx	N	Z
	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX	F	FX			
Volunteers	21	105	27	108	18	54	25	50	23	23	340	60	5.6
Whole class	11	55	10	40	7	21	5	10	4	4	130	60	2.1
High-proficient students	15	75	10	40	20	60	11	22	23	23	220	60	3.6
Randomly nominated students	13	65	10	40	13	39	15	30	10	10	184	60	3
Low proficient students	-	0	3	12	2	6	4	8	-	0	26	60	0.4

Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been presented for a degree in any other educational institution.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Place: Addis Ababa University

Date of submission: _____