

University of Pardubice  
Faculty of Art and Philosophy

**Promoting Communication in English Classes  
through Effective Questioning**

Tereza Karbašová

Master thesis

2009

Univerzita Pardubice  
Fakulta filozofická  
Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky  
Akademický rok: 2008/2009

## ZADÁNÍ DIPLOMOVÉ PRÁCE

(PROJEKTU, UMĚLECKÉHO DÍLA, UMĚLECKÉHO VÝKONU)

Jméno a příjmení: **Tereza KARBAŠOVÁ**  
Studijní program: **M7503 Učitelství pro základní školy**  
Studijní obor: **Učitelství anglického jazyka**

Název tématu: **Promoting Communication in English Classes through Effective Questioning**

### Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Diplomandka se bude ve své práci zabývat problematikou verbální komunikace ve výuce anglického jazyka, zaměří se na zvýšení její kvality prostřednictvím efektivního kladení otázek učitelem. V teoretické části nejprve na základě relevantní literatury diplomandka definuje základní pojmy (komunikace, její druhy, komunikativní kompetence), podrobně se pak bude zabývat interakcí učitel – žák ve výuce anglického jazyka. V centru pozornosti bude dotazování jako dovednost učitele efektivně využívat v závislosti na konkrétní pedagogické situaci různé typy otázek. Výstupem teoretické části práce bude typologie otázek zpracovaná pro potřeby vlastního empirického šetření, které bude provedeno ve vyučování anglického jazyka na základní škole s cílem zjistit, jaké typy otázek a jak efektivně vzhledem ke konkrétní situaci učitelé využívají. Diplomandka využije strukturovaného pozorování v reálné třídě i videozáznamů cizojazyčné výuky.

Rozsah grafických prací:

Rozsah pracovní zprávy:

Forma zpracování diplomové práce: **tištěná/elektronická**

Seznam odborné literatury:

1. Tony Lynch - Communication in the language classroom
2. Jiří Mareš, Jaro Křivohlavý - Komunikace ve škole
3. Kasper Gabriele, Kellerman Eric - Communication strategies
4. David Brazil - A grammar of speech

Vedoucí diplomové práce:

**PaedDr. Monika Černá, Ph.D.**  
Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky

Datum zadání diplomové práce:

**30. dubna 2007**

Termín odevzdání diplomové práce:


**31. března 2009**



prof. PhDr. Petr Vorel, CSc.

děkan

L.S.



Mgr. Šárka Bubíková, Ph.D.

vedoucí katedry

V Pardubicích dne 30. listopadu 2008

## Prohlášení autora

Prohlašuji:

Tuto práci jsem vypracovala samostatně. Veškeré literární prameny a informace, které jsem v práci využila, jsou uvedeny v seznamu použité literatury.

Byla jsem seznámena s tím, že se na moji práci vztahují práva a povinnosti vyplývající ze zákona č. 121/2000 Sb., autorský zákon, zejména se skutečností, že Univerzita Pardubice má právo na uzavření licenční smlouvy o užití této práce jako školního díla podle § 60 odst. 1 autorského zákona, a s tím, že pokud dojde k užití této práce mnou nebo bude poskytnuta licence o užití jinému subjektu, je Univerzita Pardubice oprávněna ode mne požadovat přiměřený příspěvek na úhradu nákladů, které na vytvoření díla vynaložila, a to podle okolností až do jejich skutečné výše.

Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně.

V Pardubicích dne 30. 6. 2009

Tereza Karbašová

## Acknowledgement

I would like to thank to PaedDr. Monika Černá, PhD., who provided me with a valuable guidance and reflection and supported me throughout the entire time while working on my thesis.

I would also like to express my gratitude to the teachers who were involved in my research for their time and willingness. Last but not least, many thanks belong to my family and friends who encouraged me when I needed it the most.

## **Annotation**

The aim of the thesis is to investigate the topics of communication and the effective questioning in a second language learning classroom. The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives by Benjamin Bloom plays a crucial role in the practical as well as the theoretical part of the thesis. The Taxonomy serves as the basis for the classification of the questions from the research.

## **Keywords**

communication, communicative competence, the Bloom's taxonomy of Educational Objectives, effective questioning, ELT

## **Název**

Efektivní otázka jako nástroj podpory komunikace při výuce anglického jazyka

## **Anotace**

Cílem diplomové práce je nastínit problematiku komunikace a efektivního dotazování ve výuce cizího jazyka. Taxonomie vzdělávacích cílů Benjamina Blooma hraje klíčovou roli jak v teoretické, tak i praktické části práce. Taxonomie tvoří základ klasifikace otázek výzkumu.

## **Klíčová slova**

komunikace, komunikativní kompetence, Bloomova taxonomie vzdělávacích cílů, kladení efektivních otázek, výuka anglického jazyka

## **Abstract**

Nowadays in language teaching in general, there has been an increasing focus on developing communication skills because it is a matter of fact that a language is gained through communication the most appropriately. Communication and questioning are generously used in teaching/learning process and even a stronger emphasis has to be put on second language learning in which a communication plays a crucial role in acquiring the target language. An effective question then might be a valuable tool in teacher's hand when used in the right way. The aim of the thesis is to investigate whether there exists a correlation between an effective question asked and a consequent answer, in other words, whether the pupils' communication is promoted. The theoretical part deals with various aspects of second language learning and also with any factors influencing the run of communication in a classroom. The theoretical as well as practical part of the thesis stem from the well-known Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Objectives which constitutes the core of the questions' classification. The small- scale research was implemented in order to find out whether a higher-order question promotes more effective communication on pupil's side.

Keywords: communication, communicative competence, the Bloom's taxonomy of Educational Objectives, effective questioning, ELT

## Souhrn

Ve vyučujícím procesu v současnosti převládá trend, který čím dál více klade důraz na rozvoj komunikačních dovedností, protože komunikační akt zaručuje neadekvátnější osvojení si cizího jazyka. Komunikační prostředky, zejména kladení otázek, jsou tedy ve výchovně-vzdělávacím procesu využívány velkou měrou, zaručující důraz na přijetí znalosti cizího jazyka, v níž (a především při následném užívání jazyka) komunikace hraje stěžejní roli. Efektivní otázka se tak může stát velice účinným nástrojem v rukou učitele, který jí však musí umět náležitě využít. Cílem diplomové práce je prošetřit, zda existuje přímo úměrný vztah mezi efektivně položenou otázkou a následnou odpovědí, jinými slovy, zda při tomto typu komunikace mezi učitelem a žákem dochází k podpoře žákovské komunikace. Teoretická část práce se zabývá různými aspekty osvojení si cizího jazyka a také faktory ovlivňujícími průběh komunikace ve třídě. Jak teoretická, tak praktická část diplomové práce vychází ze známé Bloomovy taxonomie vzdělávacích cílů, které tvoří jádro klasifikace otázek. Účelem výzkumu, jež byl do diplomové práce zahrnut, byla snaha ověřit, zdali otázka vyššího řádu podporuje efektivnější komunikaci na straně žáka (a potvrzuje tak obecně přijímané předpoklady hojně se vyskytující v odborné literatuře), nebo zda při kladení otázek můžeme vyzorovat další, případně odlišné, tendence, které se ve vyučujícím procesu objevují.

Klíčová slova: komunikace, komunikativní kompetence, Bloomova taxonomie vzdělávacích cílů, kladení efektivních otázek, výuka anglického jazyka



# Table of contents

---

<b>1. Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2. Communication in general</b>	<b>2</b>
2.1 What is communication? _____	2
2.2 Social and classroom communication _____	3
2.3 Functions of classroom communication _____	4
2.4 Forms of classroom communication _____	6
2.5 Hidden curriculum _____	7
2.6 Communication rules _____	8
<b>3. Types of communication</b>	<b>9</b>
3.1 Various authors and their conception of the types of communication _____	10
3.2 Verbal communication _____	10
3.3 Non-verbal communication _____	12
3.4 Communication by action _____	13
<b>4. Communicative competence</b>	<b>15</b>
4.1 The background of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) _____	15
4.2 Various authors and their different views on communicative competence _____	16
4.3 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages in relation to communicative competence _____	19
4.4 Communicative competence and its implications for teaching and learning _____	20
<b>5. Interaction in an English language classroom</b>	<b>22</b>
5.1 Broader concept of interaction _____	22
5.2 Social interaction _____	22
5.3 Social aspects of pedagogical interaction _____	24
5.4 Types of pedagogical interaction _____	24
5.5 Teacher's interaction style _____	25
5.6 Teacher's action zone _____	25
<b>6. Participants in classroom communication</b>	<b>27</b>
6.1 Various conceptions of teacher's roles _____	27
6.2 Various conceptions of learner's roles _____	28
6.3 Rules of classroom communication and its application _____	29
<b>7. The proportion of teacher's and learner's talk</b>	<b>31</b>
7.1 The 'law of two thirds' or 70 percent _____	31
7.2 Asymmetry between communication partners in a classroom _____	32
7.3 The length of a speech utterance _____	33
7.4 The level of learners' communication apprehension in relation to their academic achievements _____	34

---

<b>8. Questioning skills</b>	<b>35</b>
8.1 The importance of questioning _____	35
8.2 Question taxonomies _____	38
8.3 Display and referential questions _____	44
8.4 Use of taxonomies in practice _____	49
<b>9. Research</b>	<b>55</b>
9.1 Aim of the research and its background _____	56
9.2 Case study _____	56
9.3 Research recording _____	57
9.4 Research design and data collection instruments _____	58
9.5 Data collection _____	60
9.6 Data analysis and evaluation _____	62
9.7 The analysis and the comparison of all the data collected from the three data collection instruments _____	81
9.8 Research conclusion _____	82
<b>10. Conclusion of the thesis</b>	<b>84</b>
<b>11. Resumé</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>12. Bibliography</b>	<b>91</b>
<b>13. Appendices</b>	<b>95</b>

# 1. Introduction

---

*“The important thing is not to stop questioning.*

*Curiosity has its own reason for existing”*

Albert Einstein

Albert Einstein's quotation speaks for itself, as each of us encounters and cannot avoid questioning on a daily basis. One can wonder why people ask questions. There are various reasons for that: eliciting answers, obtaining some information, or just continuing the conversation. Questioning is a very natural process which is inherent to humans and this phenomenon starts at the early stage of a man's development and it accompanies us throughout our entire life. By answering questions people can find the answers they search for, change and influence each other inside. A similar example can be found in a classroom situation in which a teacher is also trying to extract the information, either the real information, or the one that is known to him beforehand. If we take the classroom setting into account, in which the second language is to be learnt, the questioning moves into another dimension and that is not only checking the learners' knowledge. But it is mainly acquiring the target language which is the main aim of foreign language teaching/learning process. The theoretical part of this thesis explores various factors and aspects which impact the classroom communication in general as well as questioning.

The aim of the thesis is to investigate teachers' questioning patterns and consequent learners' responses. It helps to introduce and implement the possibility of using Bloom's Taxonomy which is very helpful not only in promoting learners' communication skills, but it is also proved to contribute to learners' creative thinking. Both the theoretical and the practical part are interrelated and make reference to one another.

## 2. Communication in general

---

“One cannot not communicate”

Watzlawick et al., 1969 cited in Mareš – Křivohlavý, 1995, p. 23

The obvious grammatical mistake the thesis begins with might be considered daring but it can be appreciated by some as it stresses the importance of communication. What seems to be obvious from the saying is the fact that whether we like it or not, communication is an inevitable part of our daily lives. We are dependent on communication in every aspect of our lives, whether we talk about the personal, professional or social part of ourselves.

### 2.1 What is communication?

There are many possible ways to approach and understand the key term: communication. Communication takes place in many different situations, has different aims and reaches various results. To the issue of communication, Tony Lynch states:

Communication involves enabling someone else to understand what we want to tell them, what is often referred to as our message. We probably tend to think of a message as being factual, and it is true that we can communicate facts, but in many everyday situations we also hope to communicate our opinions and emotions. As well as informing our listener or reader, we may hope to amuse, entertain, or mislead, for example. (LYNCH, 1996, p. 3)

The origin of the word can be found in Latin word ‘communicare’ which means to inform, to announce and to consult (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 15). The thesis could have described various explanations and possible interpretations for the term but that is not the intention. The aim of the thesis is to deal with the term communication in a pedagogical and classroom setting which is a rather distinct case.

As teachers, moreover teachers of language, we should be aware of the fact that not only learning the language (knowing the structures, vocabulary etc.), but also communication in the lesson is a crucial tool to acquire the target language, English, and needs to be promoted as much as possible. From my point of view, the ideal conditions for learning a foreign language, namely English, is to consciously learn the theory of language as well as acquiring the language through language which is more of an unconscious state, as for instance Krashen's theory says. (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2001, p. 161 – 162). That can be reached by exposing learners to as much English as possible. In addition to learning the language as such, teachers have the “power” to influence learner's in many ways, as Kolominkij says:

To communicate does not solely mean to convey messages reciprocally but to change each other inside. To be more precise, to change each other by sharing information. (KOLOMINSKIJ cited in GAVORA, 2005, p. 14)

The saying applies to the concept of classroom communication which will be dealt with in the next chapter.

## **2.2 Social and classroom communication**

Kolominskij's statement nicely summarizes how classroom communication ideally looks like. I believe a good teacher should not only inform but more importantly influence and change learners' opinions and attitudes, in case of ELT, to teach them to 'like' English. Because of the similarity between social and classroom communication, these two concepts are dealt with in one chapter.

Naturally, a man does not perceive only the setting, objects, but also other people. A social perception means to perceive a partner or partners in a social interaction. What we understand by the term 'social perception' is the way the teacher perceives a learner and vice-versa, the way a learner perceives the other learners, the way a teacher perceives the other teachers, the way a headmaster perceives a teacher etc.

Hence the social perception includes both the self-perception and perception of others. Our communication with someone changes according to our conception we have about him/her and also the conception he/she has about us. What is crucial, is the fact that we can not limit ourselves only to the information given, but we need to be aware of why is such information given, what is its aim, what attitudes and expectations the teacher expresses (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 14). Gavora (2005, p. 14) qualifies the social communication more in the terms of information sharing as he claims that the crucial element in social communication is the qualitative side of information i.e., not only the amount of information transmitted. It is even more important what the man's influence on given information and existing knowledge is, as well as his/her opinions, attitudes, needs and actions is. The view which is shared by both Mareš and Křivohlavý (1995, p. 15) and Gavora is that a man's communication is not bare but also expresses instantaneous moods and feelings. Moreover Gavora claims the social communication to be equal to the interpersonal communication (2005, p. 14). Another interpretation is given by Kalhous and Obst (2002, p. 251) as well as Mareš and Křivohlavý (1995, p. 24) and Skalková (2007, p. 156), who congruently declare that classroom communication is a specific form of social communication. Mareš and Křivohlavý mention that classroom communication is a communication which has pedagogical aims, helps to educate. The broader conception of classroom communication talks about not only the communication among teacher and learners but also communication which takes place in families, pre-school or after-school facilities. The thesis will not deal with this broader concept as it is not a relevant topic. Classroom communication in the real classroom context might be a very challenging job. Mareš and Křivohlavý define classroom communication as

a reciprocal information sharing among the participants of educational process which serves for educational aims. The information is mediated both by verbal and non-verbal means (1995, p.24).

### **2.3 Functions of classroom communication**

What makes the classroom communication functional and enriching and what I personally believe is crucial not only to classroom communication, is summarized in five

points which deal with the philosophical, logical and linguistic aspects of communication.

They are presented by Mareš and Křivohlavý (1995, p. 25) as follows:

1. Principle of cooperation – cooperate with your partners, define your words according to the dialogue's requirement.

The following principles are called the conversational maxima and they are:

2. Maximum of quantity – speak sufficiently, but do not speak more than is necessary, let your message be informative enough, but the most economical at the same time.
3. Maximum of quality – do not lie, do not say anything which you cannot reveal
4. Maximum of relevancy – tell what is important at the time of speaking and what is subject, aims and participants relevant.
5. Maximum of manner – express yourself clearly, understandably, accurately and explicitly

The classroom communication has many different aspects to be aware of. However the thesis will be engaged only with two of them which are the most relevant . The first aspect to be discussed is the function of classroom communication. The theory of classroom communication has been still developing and that is why the ideas on its functions have been changing as well. Mareš and Křivohlavý claim that the function of classroom communication is

a way to accomplish the educational process because the aim, curriculum and methods etc. cannot be conducted directly in pedagogical process but in verbal or non-verbal way (GAVORA et al., 1998 cited in MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 25).

Another statement declares that the classroom communication

is created by every educational system, because it is one of its main components. Classroom communication provides operation of the educational system, it brings a progress and dynamism into it and it also keeps its stability (KUZMINA, 1976; KALIK, 1979 cited in MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 26).

## 2.4 Forms of classroom communication

Those equally important points the thesis will handle with are different and are the most important forms of classroom communication. According to Mareš and Křivohlavý, there are at least three main forms of communication which are mutually interconnected and influenced by each other. The distinction is made according to the preparedness and the expected communication progress. The first one has nearly the format of 'programmed communication' which is carried out exactly how it has been prepared. The next form of classroom communication is a 'framework prepared' one. A teacher on the basis of his/her own experience and also with the repetitiveness of classroom situations is able to anticipate how the conversation is going to develop. The last classroom situation a teacher can encounter is an unprepared communication which takes place in the unique non-recurring classroom situations. These situations can be hardly anticipated, nevertheless a teacher is obliged to deal with them somehow (1995, p. 26). A positive message is the fact that the 'art of communication' is something which can be learned, worked on and developed throughout teacher's practice. The last case can be demonstrated on situations in which learners excitedly debate over a lesson or in which teachers discuss behaviour of some learners in the staffroom which is also called classroom communication (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 27).

The next aspect related to the term classroom communication presents the transmission of classroom communication which can be done in various ways. When defining the classroom communication, it's needed to state that it mediates the mutual incidence of people, their relationships, their collective activity and it is itself mediated by words, gestures, pitch of voice. We usually talk about direct personal contact in a place and time. The classroom communication though can take place distantly. In this case a mediator occurs between the speaker and the recipient. What is understood as the mediator in the process of learners' learning is for example a textbook, workbook, recording or a PC programme. In the case of workbook and textbook, the learners communicate with the author as well as with the PC programme in which the author of the programme evaluates learner's answers etc. (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 28).



## 2.5 Hidden curriculum

The last factor influencing classroom communication is called 'hidden curriculum'. This term can be applied not only to the school environment but to any place where there are any rules of conduct that are advisable to follow: if you do not mean to embarrass, offend or hurt somebody's feelings. The thesis deals with this topic only in the educational context and classroom environment. Gavora talks about a hidden curriculum in the sense that not only the realization of the curricula are a part of a classroom 'events'. Besides the official run of the school there is the informal side. The situations which take place are not included in the curricula. Because this informal 'life' of learners and teachers is not stressed and all the members of school 'live' it without noticing, it is called the hidden curriculum.

The hidden curriculum is exclusively realized by means of communication between a teacher and a learner, and among learners in return. The means might be verbal, non-verbal, often implicit. (GAVORA, 2005, p. 28)

The simplest although the clearest definition is that "The hidden curriculum is a the set of unwritten rules that no one has been directly taught, but everyone knows" (SWANSON – BEAHM, 2008). It is obvious that it is inevitable for every learner and teacher to 'learn' the hidden curriculum as not knowing it might cause a person very hard times. To be more illustrative, children do know that it is not advisable to be rude to teachers, neither to the classmates, not to throw objects in a classroom, although they have never been told so. Similarly, learners learn which teachers are consistent, or which are prone to accept homework excuses more easily etc.

## 2.6 Communication rules

Unquestionably, communication rules in a classroom are another aspect in a teaching process which is necessary to discuss. Generally, any rule is understood as a 'control device' of any man's action or a group of people. The communication rules are the specific types of social rules and they determine an acceptable and unacceptable behaviour of communication participants. The most general ones are the base communication rules

which apply to most dialogues among communication participants and are connected to polite behaviour. In terms of the origin of communication rules, there exist codified communication rules that are usually made public; the other ones are conventional communication rules that have the character of a habit. The previously mentioned base communication rules are also conventional. As regards the communication rules in a classroom, it can be classified as both codified and conventional. The classroom communication is basically as Gavora states “succession of exchanging speeches between a teacher and a learner” (1995, p. 33 – 34). The course of communication in the classroom is rather strictly organized in most of the cases depending on different organizational forms and teaching methods. The rules themselves are crucial for organization of the work in the classroom.

The second aspect is the provision of the dominant role of a teacher. The dominance is manifested by a higher teacher's authority. If the teacher happens to lose the dominance, in case of being too submissive or inexperienced, not only the communication fails, but also learners' learning. As it can be seen, a learner is strongly restricted by these communication rules, it decreases his activity, independence and autonomy (1995, p. 33 – 34). As Mareš and Křivohlavý (1995, p. 33) remarked, under these terms it is difficult to incite learner's initiative. They also pointed out that some socially important activities are not developing enough. Similarly, as Skalková warns:

To exchange opinions, to complement each other, give reasons for your viewpoint, to appeal to each other - these are the activities, which the learners cannot gain sufficiently in frontal teaching (in MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 33).

Simultaneously, the specification of the communication rules in a classroom is essential as both a teacher and the learners need them to be able to find their ‘place’ in the classroom. As J. Petty claims: “[...] the rules should be based on educational, safety and moral motives and should not result from your character or personal predisposition” (PETTY cited in NELEŠOVSKÁ, 2005, p. 32). It can be said that the democratic principle should be applied when creating these communication rules as it helps mainly the learners to accept and obey them more easily and that they can feel that the teacher is not against them, but a part of the classroom.

### 3. Types of communication

---

*“If I am to speak ten minutes, I need a week for preparation;  
if fifteen minutes, three days; if half an hour, two days; if an hour, I am ready now”*

Thomas Woodrow Wilson

This chapter, named types of communication, deals with different kinds of communication from the viewpoint of teacher-learner interaction. The types of communication can be handled in various ways. This chapter will deal with the types of communication that concern the most relevant aspect of classroom communication. The most important aspect in classroom communication is speech. According to the dictionary of literary language speech is defined as

[...] an expressing of thoughts by articulate speech, eventually communicating by language. The basic unit is a word, that is why it is named verbal communication. (NELEŠOVSKÁ, 2005, p. 41)

As both Nelešovská and Mareš and Křivohlavý declare, the verbal communication in pedagogical process consists of certain phases. First of all, there has to be some communicative intention of the teacher to transmit or communicate something to the learner. This anticipates the verbal definition and makes it meaningful. The message itself follows; it is addressed to a particular recipient (a learner or a group of learners or to the whole classroom). The recipient tries to decode the message and also its meaning. One of the ways to specify the meaning is a dialogue which deals with an active change at a recipient side. (NELEŠOVSKÁ, 2005, p. 42), (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p.57 – 58)

### 3.1 Various authors and their conception of the types of communication

The focus will now be on the various conceptions of the types of communication. Authors treat the types of communication differently. Kalhous, Obst (2002, p. 252) and Nelešovská (2005, p. 41 - 57) differentiate between the verbal, non-verbal communication and communication by action, Mareš and Křivohlavý (1995, p. 57 - 113) subdivides the category of communication into verbal and non-verbal only, whereas the verbal communication includes paralinguistic aspects of speech. Gavora (2005, p. 53 - 113) divides the communication into verbal, non-verbal and written communication. He classifies paralinguistic and extra-linguistic features of communication as forms of the non-verbal communication and a monologue and dialogue as forms of the verbal communication. The division of verbal, non-verbal and communication by action seems to be more reasonable as the last aspect of communication should not be underestimated because it is a very influential tool in the hands of a teacher and also very important factor from the viewpoint of the learners. This categorization will be mostly dealt with.

### 3.2 Verbal communication

“Explanation in a nutshell: First of all tell them what are you going to say, then say it and finally tell them what have you said” (FULGHUM cited in GAVORA, 2005, p.70).

Gavora divides verbal communication to a dialogue and a monologue.

#### 3.2.1 A monologue

A monologue is a continuous speech of a person. Other communication partners are present but they do not actively enter the communication process. A monologue in terms of the classroom communication takes up to a fourth of a lesson, the rest consists of a dialogue or various speechless activities. What is typical for a classroom teaching is that monologue and dialogue keep exchanging. For instance, the teacher gives an explanation

of a new subject matter, which is mostly organized as a monologue with various phases. Consequently, he/she finds out by asking questions whether it was understood (2005, p. 67). In spite of the fact that a monologue is a typical form of classroom communication, a teacher should use every opportunity to enable learners a dialogue because the learners are more activated and challenged. At the same time it gives the teacher a useful feedback whether the learners understood the presented subject matter (GAVORA, 2005, p. 70).

### **3.2.2 A dialogue**

As previously mentioned, the preferred type of communication in a classroom is a dialogue. The dialogue between a teacher and a learner is the most used form of classroom communication. This form dominates over a monologue and that is why it will be dedicated a considerable space. Moreover, it is a relevant for the topic of my thesis as asking questions occur mostly in dialogues. A dialogue is a communication process of two or more people. To be able to think of a dialogue as of a useful communication tool, certain principles must be followed (exchange of replications, swapping the roles of communicator and a hearer, mutual reaction of partners to the speech made, active listening to a communication partner, and finding a consensus). These features of communication imply that communication partners are aware not only of the content of communication but also of the way the communication proceeds. What is important for the classroom environment is the fact that the learner must learn how to be a full-value communication partner because this form of communication is not inherent to anyone. (GAVORA, 2005, p. 71-72). Moreover, Gavora (2005, p. 73) adds that a dialogue in a classroom setting has various pedagogical functions. It has cognitive, affective and social learning aspects. These terms do not need any further explanation.

In addition, Kolář and Šikulová claim (2007, p. 11 – 12) that a traditional concept of teaching does not take the principle of dialogue into account and insist on the fact that a dialogue cannot exist in the situation where the teacher is considered to be the only relevant source of information for the learners and where the teacher does not allow any other source of knowledge. The subject matter gained at school is considered the only true and useful knowledge. Besides, it needs to be admitted that the teacher is no longer the

only source of knowledge and neither is he/she the only factor having influence on the learner. Computers, educational programmes, internet and other influences are to some extent in advantage as opposed to the teacher as they tend to be more learner-attractive. What does it actually mean to enable the learners to lead a dialogue and what does it require? Machovec (1965) states the requirements for a dialogue are as follows:

[...] to have the courage and 'open up yourself', to give all your skills at disposal for others, to express a specific interest in your partner, to be personally involved, not to claim external means – power. (MACHOVEC, cited in KOLÁŘ – ŠIKULOVÁ, 2007, p.123).

From the viewpoint of the learners it requires the teacher to give them a choice: to teach them only selected subject matter according to their own abilities, to teach them how to plan their own procedure of learning, to plan and distribute tasks, working and leisure time. What is more, to teach them a strong will, to finish their work, to fulfill their resolutions and to fight obstacles. Not the least is to teach them to be motivated and how to self-evaluate. (KOLÁŘ – ŠIKULOVÁ, 2007, p. 46)

### 3.3 Non-verbal communication

Equally important type of classroom communication, not for the thesis though, is the non-verbal communication. It can be approached in many ways, because various authors treat this topic differently. Mareš, Křivohlavý (1995, p. 106 – 113), Gavora (2005, p. 105 – 108), Nelešovská (2005, p. 46) and Kalhousť and Obst (2002, p. 256 – 260) include the same categories into the non-verbal communication. Those are: gestures, facial expression, eye contact, touch, body posture, proximity among communication partners, appearance and image. Gavora (2005, p. 99 – 105), and Nelešovská (2005, p. 56 – 57) mention two extra terms: para-linguistics and extra-linguistic features of communication. As the domain of verbal communication is a transmission of cognitive information such as knowledge, findings facts, non-verbal communication in the classroom, it enables to express attitudes and emotional states which does not mean it should be underestimated. (GAVORA, 1995, p. 99) As Nelešovská (2005, p. 46) states: "The body language is much more sincere than words itself". The anthropologist Albert Mehrabian has found out that

only seven percent of information which we gain from an interview provide words and the rest is earned from the body language. (MEHRABIAN cited in NELEŠOVSKÁ, 2005, p. 46). Both the teacher and the learner are able to express their joy, satisfaction, sympathy or antipathy, anger or unfriendliness. One can come across few situations which cannot be expressed non-verbally. The examples are dilemma, necessity of choice between two options, or one cannot say 'nothing' in a non-verbal way. (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 106). Neill (1991, p. 1) mentions two main reasons for the non-verbal communication to be crucial in the classroom environment. The first is 'the complexity of classroom life', especially for a teacher who has to handle 20 to 30 learners at once. It might also be a useful tool when the teacher wishes to boost and support learners' positive attitude it might be useful to take advantage of the 'extra-communication channels' to reveal his enthusiasm for the subject matter etc. Obviously, non-verbal communication is more ambiguous than the actual speech. Neill gives an example of how it works well with older learners who prefer to be praised not directly but in a genuinely enthusiastic way which facial expression such as smile provides.

Part of non-verbal communication is biologically inherent, however, most of the non-verbal signals are gained within the socialisation process. Gavora states two main potentialities of how non-verbal communication may accompany the verbal communication. On the one hand, it stresses the verbal expressions (a teacher calls learner's name and points at the same time). On the other hand it contradicts the verbal statement as teacher might say: "You are such a smartie" meaning "You are very dumb". The above mentioned phenomenon is called 'double bind'. In these cases the learner always believes the non-verbal signals to be the right message (2005, p. 100).

### **3.4 Communication by action**

*"Verba movent, exempla trahunt"*  
Latin proverb

Another type and the last to be stressed from the types of communication is communication by action which will be briefly outlined. Communication by action is

another aspect some authors (Nelešovská and Kalhous, Obst) consider to be worth mentioning in classroom communication. Unlike the previously mentioned verbal and non-verbal communication, no considerable theoretical coverage is dedicated to it in spite of the fact it is a very significant item in the classroom communication (NELEŠOVSKÁ, 2005, p. 57). What do we understand by this term? It is the way a teacher and learners treat each other, how they express their mutual attitudes and respect by acting in a particular way. Various factors, such as if the teacher comes to lessons in time, is prepared, accepts learners' opinions, etc. are understood as communication by action and both learners and a teacher decode the messages mutually (KALHOUS – OBST, 2002, p. 263).

To sum up the chapter of communication in general, it is revealed that the quality of classroom communication determines the nature and classroom climate, which is crucial for appropriate learning conditions that learners need to be provided with (KALHOUS – OBST, 2002, p. 265). A teacher should try to have all the aspect and principles in mind and apply them in a teaching-learning process to be able to function well together with the learners. It must also be said that all the types of communication (verbal, non-verbal and by action) together form appropriate way of teaching, however, it is obvious, that verbal communication usually prevails.



## 4. Communicative competence

---

*“Communicative competence is the desired goal  
(i.e. the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately)”*

Richards – Rodgers, 2002, p. 156

### 4.1 The background of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The issue of communicative competence is rather complex and challenging as several linguists suggest various definitions and explanations. However, what the thesis might stem from the late 1960's period in which the origins of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) can be traced. In the previous language-teaching experience, the situational approach where “language was taught by practising basic structures in situation-based activities” was employed (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 153). The need for a change together with the criticism of the previously mentioned concept came mainly from the prominent American linguist Noam Chomsky who claimed that the current structural conception of language was not adequate to cover the basic characteristics of language – “the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences” (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 152). Another pro argument was raised by British applied linguists who required the language teaching to focus on “communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures” (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 153). A lot of British and American scholars (Henry Widdowson, John Firth, M.A.K. Halliday, Dell Hymes etc.) backed up this view. Since the 1970's the CLT has spread widely and it is seen more as a new and progressive approach rather than a teaching method and this approach has two main aims. The first one is to “make communicative competence the goal of language teaching”, the second aim is “to develop procedures for the teaching

of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication” (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 153).

## **4.2 Various authors and their different views on communicative competence**

There are many authors who have expressed their opinion on the communicative approach in language teaching and gave it miscellaneous terms. The thesis will try to cover and compare them. The main and pioneering linguist who first came with the term ‘competence’ was Noam Chomsky whose theory of competence deals with ‘ideal speaker–listener’ (adapted by RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 159), moreover, a native one, for which he was strongly criticized by other linguists. His theory is concerned primarily

with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (CHOMSKY cited in RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 159)

In comparison, Hymes (1972) has come with the term ‘communicative competence’ (adapted by RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 159) which is according to him the goal of language teaching. The term itself is a coinage of a communicative approach to language and the theory of competence which was firstly adopted by Chomsky. Hymes' view on the communicative competence seems to be more elaborate and complex in a sense that he requires the person who is said to be communicatively competent to have “both knowledge and ability for language use” (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 159). He also takes into account various other aspects which, in my opinion, make the communicatively competent speaker sound more human and not so sterile. The socio-cultural standpoints are as follows (HYMES cited in RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 159) :

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of the implementation available;

3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

Hymes' viewpoint is supported and complemented by many other co-linguists (Halliday, Savignon etc.). Other authors who favour Hymes-like model and moreover have some pedagogical implication are Canale and Swain who identify four dimensions of communicative competence (grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence). Some of the dimensions coincide in some way to some aspects of what previously mentioned authors describe. They call it different names, however, talk about the same. For instance, grammatical competence refers to Chomsky's linguistic competence and Hymes's formulation of what is "formally possible" (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 160). According to Canale and Swain, the grammatical competence corresponds to grammar and lexis. Whereas, sociolinguistic competence primarily means to be familiar with the context in which communication occurs and to understand the communicative purpose. Further, discourse competence entails the overall interconnectedness of each individual message and its interpretation. Finally, strategic competence, refers to the 'tools' which serve the communicators for initiating, maintaining and finishing the communication (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 160).

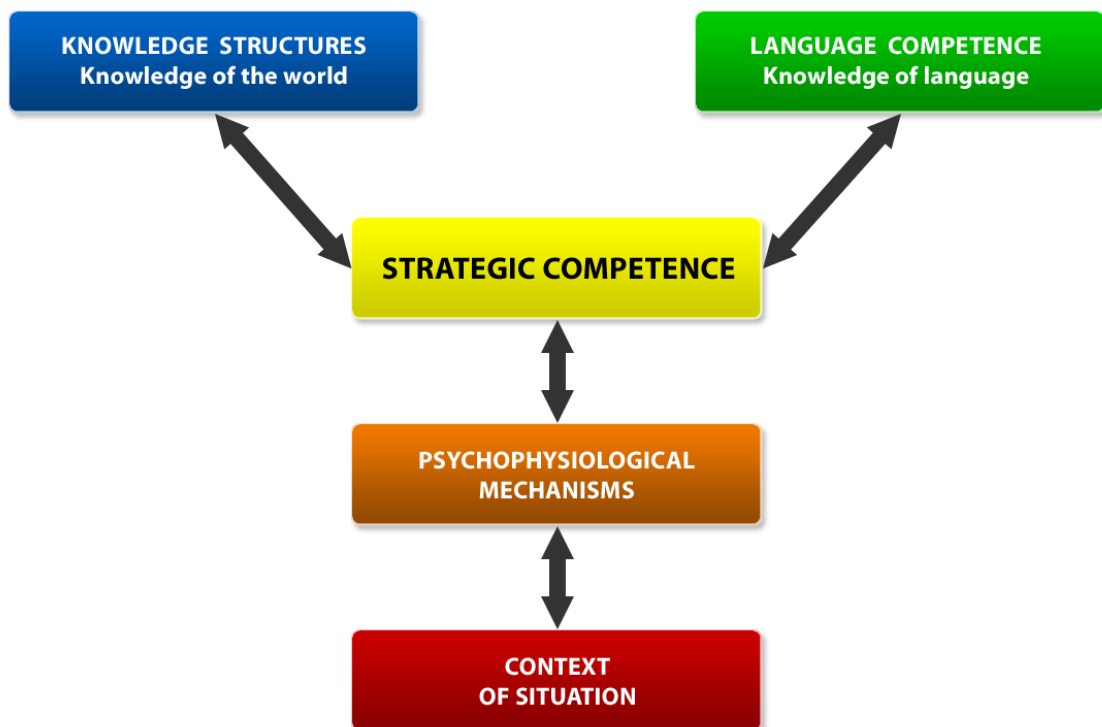
As it was previously mentioned, Canale and Swain extended the Hymesian model which was further elaborated by Bachman (1991), and that one was broadened by Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrel (1997). Bachman offers a new term of the concept and that is 'communicative language ability' and claims that the concept corresponds to earlier works in communicative competence elaborated by Hymes (1972b, 1973; MUNBY 1978; CANALE – SWAIN 1980; SAVIGNON 1983; CANALE 1983) in a way that

it recognizes that the ability to use language communicatively involves both knowledge of or competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing, or using the competence. (BACHMAN, 1990, p. 81)

Bachman also stresses the importance of interconnectedness and interaction of components with the language context. Thus, he criticizes the one of the earlier concepts

of Lado (1961) and Carroll (1961b, 1968) that distinguishes between skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and sub-skills (grammar, vocabulary, phonology, graphology, etc.) but does not indicate the interconnection between them. Bachman suggests three components within the framework of CLA: language competence, strategic competence and psycho-physiological mechanisms. As far as language competence is concerned, it includes specific knowledge that is used in communication through the language. What Bachman means by strategic competence is

the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use. (BACHMAN, 1990, p. 84)



**Figure 1** summarizes the components of CLA and their mutual interrelation and dependency. (BACHMAN, 1991, p. 85)

In other words, strategic competence constitutes ‘a bridge’ between language competencies and the context of the situation in which communication occurs. The psycho-physiological mechanisms deal with “neurological and psychological processes

involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon (sound, light)” (BACHMAN, 1990, p. 84). The focus is put on interaction of all the components of CLA with the actual context in which language is used and also user's knowledge of language.

### **4.3 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages in relation to communicative competence**

Another concept to be analysed in the thesis from the viewpoint of communicative competence is the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment first published in 2001 by Cambridge University Press. The Common European Framework (CEFR) has been developed for various purposes, for constructing language syllabuses, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes

what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. (Council of Europe, CEFR 2004, p. 1.)

It also pays attention to the cultural background in which the language is used. CEFR defines the general competences of an individual which consists of learners knowledge, skills, existential competence and also the ability to learn. More importantly, it deals with the communicative language competence which includes several components: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic which can be compared to others conceptions mentioned above. Linguistic competence includes knowledge of lexis, morphology and syntax and above all it is concerned with how the knowledge is stored and retrieved. Sociolinguistic competence is engaged in sociocultural conditions and conventions which strongly influence the way communication runs. Pragmatic competence covers

the functional use of linguistic resources (production of language functions, speech acts ). It also concerns the mastery of discourse, cohesion and coherence, the identification of text types and forms, irony, and parody. (Council of Europe, CEFR 2004, p. 13.)

Various language activities which a learner does throughout the process of acquiring the target language, contribute to the mastery of communicative language competence. The CEFR talks about four main language activities: reception (listening, reading), production

(speaking and writing), interaction and mediation. For the purpose of the thesis, the interaction which includes speaking activities is the most crucial one. The CEFR analyses the interaction not only from the viewpoint of producing pieces of language in an exchange but also as a reception activity as two individuals listen to each other. Thus “the production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in oral communication” (Council of Europe, CEFR 2004, p. 14). It can be said that interaction in the language learning is viewed as the main aim of communication.

## **4.4 Communicative competence and its implications for teaching and learning**

The various books and articles dealing with communicative competence, whatever names we may call it, describe it as a rather complex and very theoretical in nature, but we still may find practical implications for us teachers which apply to language teaching and mostly learning. Some aspects of the theory of learning can be found in CLT (communicative language teaching). Firstly, ‘communication principle’ includes activities based on communication in a real language setting which definitely promote learning. Secondly, the ‘task principle’ consists of activities in which learners carry out meaningful tasks. And finally ‘meaningfulness principle’ which is related to the previous one, deals with “language that is meaningful to the learner” (RICHARDS – RODGERS , 2002, p. 161). All the aspects share the same intention: to involve learners in a real language setting, to use language in an authentic situation which they might encounter. Simply, to make the target language as meaningful as possible (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 161).

### **4.4.1 Krashen's theory of language acquisition**

Undoubtedly, there is an author who has a merit in developing theories of language acquisition, and whose theories are thought to be compatible with CLT: Stephen Krashen. As it was mentioned, the key term in Krashen's theory is language acquisition. According to his theory it is the basic principle which makes a person to be language proficient.

Acquisition relates to

the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it cannot lead to acquisition. (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 162).

To sum up Krashen's theory, the target language is acquired through using the language in communication, not by mastering the language skills (RICHARDS – RODGERS, 2002, p. 162). As the author of the thesis I strongly believe and support the theory as I consider the principle very useful and functional in my own teaching.

Tricia Hedge is one of the authors who are engaged in what she calls 'communicative language ability (CLA)' (2000, p. 56) and builds a 'bridge' between the theoretical base and the way it may be used in language classrooms. She distinguishes five points in CLA: linguistic, pragmatic, discourse, strategic competences and fluency. Some of the aspects in each competence described are chosen because they are relevant for the topic of the thesis. The pragmatic competence is concerned with the selection of appropriate language forms for the listener or the topic. The Discourse competence deals with taking longer turns and using discourse markers in an open and close conversation, the ability to take risks when using spoken language, not being afraid of using multiple communication strategies and at the same time to learn the appropriate language to be able to engage in these strategies. The next implication for language learners is fluency which involves dealing with the information gap in a real speech, processing the language and consequently responding without being pressured, and responding in a reasonable pace. (HEDGE, 2000, p. 56)

# 5. Interaction in an English language classroom

---

## 5.1 Broader concept of interaction

Any interactions either physical (going to work, chat with a neighbour etc.) or distant ones (letters, e-mails, mass media etc.) and relationships play a key role in peoples' lives. Even the most commonplace activities involve some kind of interaction with other people which can provide positive as well as negative feelings. Undoubtedly, the interaction process as well as communication play a key role in teaching, moreover, in the teaching of language, which counts on acquiring the target language throughout this process. (MIELL – DALLOS, 1996 p. 2 – 4) We can learn from this broad introduction that interaction is an inevitable part of our daily lives and the similar example can be drawn on teacher's profession which requires interaction on a daily basis. From the learning point of view it can be said that “the second language learning is a highly interactive process [...] and the quality of this interaction is thought to have a considerable influence on learning.” (ELIS 1985 cited in RICHARDS – LOCKHART, 1996, p. 138)

## 5.2 Social interaction

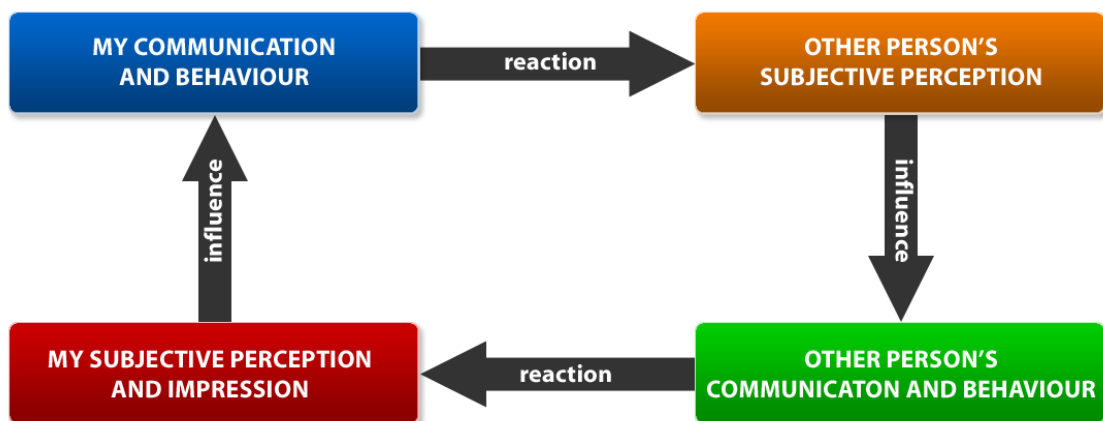
What we understand by the term interaction in general is “a mutual influence of people”. The social interaction can be characterized as

a mutual social-psychological interaction of people which takes place on various levels of social relations. It represents a ‘bridge’ between people's actions and their relations; it is realized by social communication. (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 116)



There are several types of social interaction and pedagogical interaction. Neither of them is directly related to verbal communication or interaction which would include questioning, that is why they will be just mentioned and not investigated in further details.

The first type of social interaction deals with one-way subject influence in which a man has an impact on other people by various means. What might refer to a classroom setting is the most is an interaction of “a mentor and mentee”. The mentor who is more experienced shares his skills with the mentee who learns by observing the mentor. The second type relates to two subjects both of which are active participants in the process. These are interaction by cooperation, rivalry, helping each other, competition and game. (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 116-120).



**Figure 2** depicts a model of social interaction and summarizes the interaction participants in communication and their mutual influence (VALIŠOVÁ – KASÍKOVÁ et al., 2007, p. 222)

For a further investigation of interaction analysis, the concept of SYMLOG "SYSTEM for the MULTIPLE Level Observation of Groups" or the Bale's system is recommended. It helps to “better understand effective leadership, group dynamics, and superior team performance”. Moreover, the system has been used worldwide by far not only in school environment. (SYMLOG Consulting Group, 2009)

### 5.3 Social aspects of pedagogical interaction

The issue of pedagogical interaction might be grasped from different perspectives. From the narrowest interpersonal relationships between a teacher and a learner even to an interaction with a PC. The thesis deals with the term pedagogical interaction as “a mutual interaction of two or more subjects within the educational process”. The process enter not only teachers, or learners, but also parents who play a significant role. (VALIŠOVÁ – KASÍKOVÁ et al., 2007, p. 221)

What is the meaning of the pedagogical interaction itself? Vališová and Kasíková claim that the participants of pedagogical interaction should search for a consensus, be partners on the same level and cooperate by means of a pedagogical communication (2007, p. 222). Pedagogical interaction takes place in a social setting in which each participant holds a specific social role. In general, it can be assumed that a pedagogical communication should correspond to the particular social situation and interaction. Accordingly, one must consider the fact that there are no universal best-practice communication strategies. In other words, a teacher continuously deals with various pedagogical situations and not every time he realizes that these situations must be seen as different communication tasks. (KAN – KALIK 1979 cited in MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 127 – 128).

### 5.4 Types of pedagogical interaction

There are various types of pedagogical interaction and each of the type brings about different course of classroom events. Kasíková studied the most frequent types of pedagogical interaction and has suggested a general term ‘interactional genres’ in a teaching process. They are as follows: dictation, written testing, lending a teacher's role, competing, cooperation, workshop and dramatic role-playing. In each of the genre, there is a change in the interaction pattern (teacher-learner, learner-learner, learner-textbook etc.)(KASÍKOVÁ cited in MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 128 – 131)

## 5.5 Teacher's interaction style

In each individual phase of a lesson, which is also called an interaction episode, learners react to a teacher's activity and vice-versa. This kind of 'response' is called interaction, as it was explained before, it is a bilateral (teacher-learners) influence. Not only verbal interaction, but also non-verbal one takes places (gestures, mimicry etc.). As every teacher has a unique teaching style and the features of interaction pattern occur repeatedly, it can be called interaction style. The fact that this style is relatively permanent in character helps learners to anticipate teacher's actions better. After investigating various interaction types, let us ask a question: Does it influence learners' learning anyhow? The investigation of a mutual relationship between the interaction style and learners' school results is rather tricky and also influenced by many other factors (learner's individual learning, parents' support etc.) However, the teacher who is a good organizer and is strict enough proved to be the best educator as learners knowledge reach the best results. On the other hand, a rather insecure and dissatisfied teacher produces low learner's performance. (GAVORA, 2005, p. 49)

## 5.6 Teacher's action zone

Another aspect of a teacher-learner interaction worth mentioning is the teacher's action zone in which a dominant interaction activity occurs. Even a superficial observation of teacher's communication with a class reveals that a teacher does not communicate with each learner in the same frequency. Richard and Lockhart highlight the fact that despite the teacher does not intend to, he/she interacts with some learners more frequently than with others. The teacher's dominant activity is called the teacher's action zone. (1996, p.139). Besides the affective factors such as teacher's sympathy or antipathy towards particular learners, the place where a learner is seated is crucial.

If a classroom has a conventional lay-out, the teacher is prone to communicate with learners seated in particular places as Richards and Lockhart (1996, p. 139) suggest: "this zone includes the middle front row seats and the seats up the middle aisle". However, they

add that teachers often have their own personal action zones. Gavora (2005, p. 130) offers a solution to the unbalanced interaction as he suggests for a teacher to monitor the frequency, to be mobile and to re-seat learners from time to time.

While teachers have a particular action zone of interaction, learners also need to acquire the way of interaction with the class – a learner's interaction competence. Richard and Lockhart discuss five dimensions of behavioural patterns. “Knowing when to ask and answer the questions” is the only one which refers to the topic of the thesis. Learners need to make sure what the expectations of a teacher are when it comes to questioning as each teacher and learner might have different ideas about interrupting or participating in classroom events. (1996, p. 143) One point will be made concerning grouping arrangements in relation to interaction. About 70% of the classroom time is filled by the teacher talking or asking questions. (CHAUDRON, 1988 cited in RICHARDS – LOCKHART, 1996, p. 148). Kalthout, Obst classify the social relations into three parts:

1. interaction viewpoint (mutual interaction and influence),
2. communicative viewpoint (conveying meaning),
3. perceptual viewpoint (perception of our partners within direct communication activities). (2002, p. 251).

## 6. Participants in classroom communication

---

Each person happens to fulfil various roles on a daily basis. As Wright puts it, we are “actors of social roles” (1987, p. 3), some of them are set or given to us, however, teacher's profession is an optional role, something which we voluntarily choose. The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1982) defines role in a general way as: “an actor's part; one's function, what person or thing is appointed or expected to do”. (WRIGHT, 1987, p. 3)

### 6.1 Various conceptions of teacher's roles

Various authors offer multitude of definitions what the teachers' role is. The thesis will choose some of them which are based on author's personal believes and attitudes. A very general but not a meaningless definition is as follows:

You need to subtly alter your role according to the activity without going to the extremes of dominating a class or leaving it without anything to do. (GOWER – WALTERS, 1983 cited in WRIGHT, 1987, p. 55)

The definition nicely corresponds to the fact a teacher needs to conform to each situation, classroom or event which are all unique and unrepeatable. Wright adds that

we tend to modify our role behaviour towards group norms or what the group feels the appropriate behaviour is. Role behaviour results from interaction with others. (1987, p. 45)

Hill and Dobyn see the teacher's role from the viewpoint of teacher's personality and give a promising view of the profession as they declare

[...] some people are born teachers, who have the desire and the ability to pass knowledge and skills on successfully. But even a person who is not a born teacher can improve a lot by learning to smile, to be enthusiastic and patient, and to be

constantly looking for new ways of getting his message across to his learners. (WRIGHT, 1987, p. 60)

Cangelossi dedicates a whole unit of his book *Classroom management strategies* on the issue and offers detailed description of teacher's role with regard to various other factors such as learner cooperation, on/off task behaviour etc. (1988, p. 3 – 13). Besides, Richards and Lockhart mention various teacher's roles reflecting many factors (institutional factors, teaching approach or method, personal view of teaching, cultural dimensions of roles). They moreover state that “different teaching settings involve teachers in different kinds of roles” (1996, p. 97). What they also point out is the fact that some teachers are given ‘free hand’ regarding such factors as teaching methods, materials, or assessment etc., while others strictly follow the decisions which are made for them. As the authors conclude in the chapter ‘Roles reflecting institutional factors’, teachers would be rather more autonomous in their decision-making and have more responsibilities regarding grading, learners grouping, or identification of needs. What is crucial to mention is that all these teacher's roles overlap and that teachers cannot be “all things to all people” (1996, p.106). In addition to that, teacher's roles are likely to change during the lesson (RICHARDS – LOCKHART, 1996, p. 97 – 106). Wright also supports this thought by adding that “the roles are likely to change because group activity is dynamic. We have to conceive of roles as flexible and dynamic too”. (1987, p. 11). This changeable nature of roles is closely related to the fact that both the teacher's and the learner's role are interconnected and are influenced by each other.

## **6.2 Various conceptions of learner's roles**

As far as the learner's roles in a classroom are concerned, the topic has not been investigated as much as the teacher's roles. However, it is obvious from the previous statements that the teacher's and the learner's roles are linked together and have a mutual influence. Actually, authors who deal with the matter usually do not differentiate between the teacher's and the learner's role but discuss the issue as one complex unit. Nevertheless, Richards and Rodgers make a valuable contribution to the topic of the learner's roles as they suggest various learner's roles in relation to the methods and

approaches chosen in the language classroom. According to the authors, a learner can fulfil the role of “passive recipient, interactor or negotiator; listener and performer“ and many others (RICHARDS – RODGERS cited in NUNAN, 1989, p. 80). From my point of view, especially important role involves learner in taking his own responsibility for learning and “developing his autonomy and skills in learning–how–to–learn” (RICHARDS – RODGERS cited in NUNAN, 1989, p. 80).

The issue of learner's autonomy refers to developing an awareness of being a learner. The opinions and attitudes about whether pupils should be aware of learning processes are not unified. However, there is an increasing tendency that such learners' reflection is worthwhile. The main reasons for that lie in benefiting from various learning strategies which a learner might find out and apply for himself in case of being aware of them. In addition, Nunan points out that:

Any activities which encourages learners to think about the nature of language and ways of learning imply a more critical and reflective learner role than those in which the learner is memorising or manipulating language. (1989, p. 83)

The topic of participants in the classroom communication is closely connected to the communication and interaction itself as it is a two-way process. Anderson compares communication to a game of table tennis as he states :“It is about giving and taking. Do not grasp the ball. Take turns so that the ball is on the move” (Anderson cited in Nelešovská, 2005, p. 27).

### **6.3 Rules of classroom communication and its application**

Needless to say, any communication needs to be conducted and controlled, that is why classroom communication rules need to be followed. Classroom rules of conduct are characterised as

formalized statements that provide learners with general guidelines for the types of behaviours that are required and the types of behaviours that are prohibited. (CANGELOSSI, 1988, p. 112)

What is important for teachers to have in mind is the fact that a lot of rules at the same

time lose their functionality. In this case, learners tend to not follow them and violate them more often. Nelešovská, Mareš, Křivohlavý accordingly refer to Cangelossi who claims that “a minimum number of functionally stated rules (e.g., less than 10) are generally preferable to a large number of narrow rules, each applicable to specific situations” (e.g., “Do not sharpen your pencil while the video player is running” (CANGELOSSI, 1988, p. 113). However, the above mentioned authors (Nelešovská, Gavora, Cangelossi) are not consistent with when and who should establish the rules. Gavora mentions the most general ‘base communication rules’, which apply nearly to any dialogue (WIEMANN, 1980 cited in GAVORA, 2005, p. 33).

In a more specific way, Gavora adds that the communication rules are particular kinds of social rules which specify acceptable and unacceptable behaviour in communication. The specific rules for communication in classroom regulates the learners' and the teacher's behaviour in each aspect of communication. Applying the rules is significant in two ways. Firstly, it deals with organization of learners' work which ensure the lesson to go smoothly. Secondly, it is a dominant role of a teacher. Ironically, not knowing the rules is confusing and undesirable for the learners. The second aspect, a dominant role of a teacher has both pros and cons. On the one hand, each bigger formal group of any kind, including a classroom, needs a person who leads the communication and has higher authority than rest of the group, in our case, it is the teacher. (GAVORA, 2005, p. 33 – 35). On the other hand, as Mareš and Křivohlavý point out, it might have a negative consequence in a way that it does not support the learners' activity and autonomy (SKALKOVÁ cited in MAREŠ –KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 33).

To sum it up, teachers differ in conception of dominance and power holding. There are teachers who are strict, prefer total dominance over communication. On the other side, there are liberal teachers who allow learners to have some kind of authority as well. What can we elicit from the above mentioned categorization is that in general there are two main types of communication rules: directive and liberal ones. For further and detailed insight see Gavora (1995, p. 35 – 40).



## 7. The proportion of teacher's and learner's talk

---

The first point to be looked at is a time aspect. Mareš and Křivohlavý raise a negative concern about the time assigned by syllabus and the real teaching time which is usually shorter because of cancelling lessons and other reasons. Průcha suggests it might be at least 10 percent time shortage (PRŮCHA, 1974 cited in MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 35). Another issue influencing the lack of lesson time is the subject matter itself which might be badly-structured or too long to manage in a lesson. If a teacher tries to meet the curricula requirements, it is a challenging job. What then prevails in teacher's communication is only transmission of information, written communication and the communication among teacher and learners is considerably limited. (MAREŠ – KŘIVOHLAVÝ, 1995, p. 35). Despite these limitation, as Kyriacou points out “the quality of teacher talk is one of the most important aspects of effective teaching.” (KYRIACOU, 2004 p. 49). What Kalhous and Obst add to the issue of effectivity is that if a teacher is supposed to take control of the communication with learners, he has to be capable of effective communication above all which does not mean only to send out the right message and express himself appropriately but he is also supposed to master the skill of listening to the others (2002, p. 260). More detailed and interesting insight into this issue can be found in Gavora (2005, p. 95-98).

### 7.1 The 'law of two thirds' or 70 percent

To get to the point of the actual proportion of teacher's and learner's talk, most of the authors e.g. Průcha (1997, p. 316 – 317), Gavora (2005, p. 55), and Richards and Lockhart mention that “about 70% of the classroom time is taken up by a teacher talking or asking questions” (CHAUDRON cited in RICHARDS-LOCKHART, 1996, p. 148). The basic fact is

that the teachers' communication activities in a standard teaching on primary and secondary schools prevail over learners'. Various empirical analyses have revealed that the ratio of teachers' communication activities form approximately two thirds of total amount of time of communication in a lesson, whereas only one third is learners' communication all together (PRŮCHA, 1997, p. 316 – 317). Gavora explains this disproportion as 'a law of two thirds'. The author then differentiates the proportion between direct and indirect teacher's influence which is dealt with in more details in chapter Questioning skills (GAVORA, 2005, p. 55). Various authors offer different aspects to be investigated in connection to the 'disproportion' of teacher's and learner's talk. One point which is made by Průcha might contribute to the fact that the learners' verbal utterances are significantly lower than the teacher's ones.

## **7.2 Asymmetry between communication partners in a classroom**

The asymmetry of communication partners is a remarkable feature of a classroom communication. It is both quantitative and social. Both Nelešovská (2005, p. 29-30) and Průcha (1997, p. 315) likewise deal with this issue. On one side, there is the teacher – individual and adult person, on the other, there are usually 20 to 30 learners – children or adolescents. This fact, individual versus group, causes particularity in the classroom communication which takes the form of mass communication in which the teacher is mostly in the role of communicator and the learners are recipients. Their relationships are mutually related (teacher – pupil, teacher – classroom, etc.). Some relationships are asymmetrical (teacher – learner) and some are symmetrical (learner – learner). However, the learner does not communicate only with other participants but with oneself as well. This type of communication is called intra-communication which is related to learners' thinking and should not be underestimated.

The main point, which summarizes the previous statements and is connected to the classroom communication, is that in traditional teaching the teacher must be in a dominant role of a communicator as presenting new information is inevitably linked to

his/her role of a teacher. Průcha strongly opposes to the fact that the teacher should only conduct a lesson, he insists that the main role of the teacher is to transmit information. He moreover, declares:

A teacher is such a subject of educational process whose activity is primarily aimed at transmission of new knowledge to the learners, and this results in his major activity in communication during teaching. (1997, p. 315-316)

Mareš and Křivohavý deal with the issue from the viewpoint of communicative competence which consequently drags behind as learners do not have many opportunities to express their thoughts aloud in front of their classmates and level of their communication skills is not satisfactory. (1995, p. 36)

### **7.3 The length of a speech utterance**

Another aspect worth mentioning in connection with the issue of talk proportion of a teacher versus a learner is the length of a speech utterance which both Gavora and Průcha make reference to. The length is measured by a number of words in a speech utterance. The researches revealed that not only the proportion of learners' verbal communication is significantly low but also the speech utterances are remarkably short. Learners express themselves briefly, incompletely and do not develop their thoughts and their answers are one to two words long only (GAVORA, 2005, p. 56). What Gavora referred to as a short, usually one-word speech utterance. Průcha suggests that time length of learners' speech utterances is also insignificant and it ranges between 5 to 17 seconds (predominantly one-word answers to the teacher's question), whereas the teacher's monologue reaches up to 7 minutes (1997, p. 317). However, I believe, that the focus on learners' communication and on development of their communication skills has been still increasing in teaching-learning process in our schools nowadays. Nevertheless, what must also be considered is the intra-communication. It refers to one's own thinking process which is not accompanied by any verbal utterances, however, it is also important for learning processes. If a teacher asks a question, only one learner responses but the others follow and think the answer over as well which is definitely not a time-waste (GAVORA, 2005, p. 55 – 58).

## **7.4 The level of learners' communication apprehension in relation to their academic achievements**

Similar view on the difference in the ratio of learners' communication with different academic achievements and dependence on communication apprehension and academic achievements is shared by Průcha (1997, p. 319 – 320) as well as Gavora (2005, p. 60). Results have revealed that the higher communication apprehension is, the lower academic achievements are gained and vice-versa. Gavora shows similar findings as he states that excellent learners make vocal themselves more often and that is why they constantly attract teacher's attention and the teachers frequently prefer them. By giving these learners a privileged treatment to communicate, they are at the same time given a superior chance to develop themselves more than passive learners (2005, p. 60).

## 8. Questioning skills

---

*“He that questioneth much, shall learn much, and content much; but especially, if he apply his questions to the skill of the persons whom he asketh; for he shall give them occasion, to please themselves in speaking, and himself shall continually gather knowledge”*

Sir Francis Bacon

*“A good question creates a broad space for potential possibilities.”*

Snetkov, 1999 cited in Šikulová, 2007, p. 52

The chapter *Questioning skills*, which is the main part of the thesis, will deal with the issue why questioning is important, how the question-asking improves learners learning, with various typologies of questions and also what techniques help learners to provide adequate answers. The main distinction will be drawn in terms of questioning in general and specific questioning in ELT.

### 8.1 The importance of questioning

Questioning is the most commonly used teaching technique which makes its importance obvious. Hilda Taba (1966) supports the idea by assuming that a question is “the single most influential teaching act” because it has a deep impact on learners' learning and thinking which is the aim of a teaching process (TABA cited in WILEN, 1987, p. 13). That is why there is no wonder that the teacher asks many questions in a lesson. Various studies show similar number of questions asked by a teacher. Gavora (1995, p. 77) mentions 25 up to 220 questions per lesson, which is approximately 2000 questions per week. Similarly,

Pstružinová has observed the typology and frequency of questions and has concluded that the average number of questions asked per lesson was 54 up to 210 (PSTRUŽINOVÁ, 1992 cited in KOLÁŘ – ŠIKULOVÁ, 2007, p. 51). Dunkin and Bindle add that teacher's questions constitute a tenth to a sixth of all classroom-interaction time which takes approximately 3 to 5 minutes of 45 minute lesson (DUNKIN – BINDLE, 1974 cited in WILEN, 1987, p. 26 ).

### **8.1.1 The 'law of two thirds' proportion**

The interconnection can be seen with what Ned Flanders summed in his extensive researches on classroom communication and has called 'the law of two thirds proportion'. The number suggests that  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the classroom communication is verbal exposure and  $\frac{1}{3}$  of time is taken up by silent activities.  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the classroom communication is taken up by the teacher and the rest e.g.  $\frac{1}{3}$  is devoted to learners. Teacher's direct influence fills  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the total number of teacher's communication, while indirect teacher's influence takes  $\frac{1}{3}$  of time (FLANDERS, 1970 cited in GAVORA, 2005, p. 55). Because question-asking takes up a tenth to a sixth of the interaction time and belongs to indirect influence, we can derive that it is the most significant and the most used part. The term indirect influence might seem very inappropriate in connection with question-asking and misused, though Gavora in fact classifies it like that, as he states that the indirect influence leads to a learner's initiative and autonomy and is said to bring better academic achievements. As a matter of fact, Flanders considers teacher's question and learner's response as an indirect influence because it is actually learner's turn to express himself (GAVORA, 1995, p. 151).

### **8.1.2 Beneficial effects of question-asking for learners**

Another important matter related to questioning is whether and how question-asking improves the learners' learning. Teachers have been described as "professional question-askers" (ASCHNER, 1961 cited in WILEN, 1987, p. 23) and the criterion of effectiveness of their questioning is usually the learners' achievement (WILEN, 1987, p.23-24). Dilon states that teacher's questions are effective, but not in all cases (1981b, 1978 cited in WILEN,

p. 26). On one hand, questions may be effective, on the other hand, they may also have a detrimental effect. It has been assumed that both oral and written questions have a positive effect on the learners' performance. However, the study by Hargie (1978) has revealed that oral questioning is more effective as answering by speaking is easier for many learners than writing. Researchers (GALL 1984; PALINCSAR – BROWN, 1984; WITTROCK, 1981 in WILEN, 1987, p. 25 – 26) have gathered several reasons why questioning has beneficial effect:

1. Questions are motivating and keep learners on task.
2. A teacher's question focuses the learner's attention on what should be learned and what information is important.
3. A good question requires the learner to process and transform the text actively so that it is meaningful to them.
4. Questions activate metacognitive processes, which are helpful to a learner in a way that he or she knows whether the subject matter has been mastered or not.
5. Questions elicit extended practice and revision of subject matter.
6. The correct answer to a question brings about a teacher's praise, the incorrect answer prompts teachers to reteach.
7. Learners' knowledge of subject matter is assessed by tests consisting of questions that are usually consistent with questions asked during lessons. (WILEN, 1987, p. 25 – 26)

The contradictory effect of questions is not insignificant either. Dillon (1981a) argues that if the teacher's aim is to provoke thoughts and stimulate thinking, other methods than question-asking, like discussion, paraphrasing what the learner has said or inviting the learner to evolve his response, are preferable. (DILON, 1981a cited in WILEN, 1987, p. 26).

### **8.1.3 Questioning in a language classroom**

Questioning takes place in all classrooms throughout all subjects, however, “one distinguishing feature of language classrooms is that the language is usually both the goal of the lesson and the means by which this goal is achieved” (RICHARDS – LOCKHART, 1986, p. 182) so the teacher has a number of concerns to bear in mind. “A teacher plans activities designed to facilitate the learner's acquisition and use of the target language”

(RICHARDS – LOCKHART, 1986, p. 182), but at the same time the target language is used as the basic means for giving instructions and directions, modelling target language patterns and giving feedback on learners performance. The learners likewise learn the language both in order to negotiate classroom interaction with the teacher and other learners, and to satisfy the demands of the teacher's assigned work. It is especially important to mention questions which occur specifically in the language classroom for the relevance of the thesis . Because of the specific language classroom environment, it can be assumed that if a teacher speaks the target language, all the questions are almost equally important. They serve not only to give instructions and directions, they also have the function of modelling the target language and to facilitate learning. Richards and Lockhart support this hypothesis by saying that second language researches have examined the contribution of teacher's questions to second language learning. The researchers have proposed that the questions play a crucial role in the language acquisition as they state:

They (questions) can be used to allow the learner to keep participating in the discourse and even modify it so that the language used becomes more comprehensible and personally relevant. (BANBROOK – SHEKAN, 1989 cited in RICHARDS – LOCKHART, p. 185).

## 8.2 Question taxonomies

The thesis will firstly deal with selected taxonomies of questions found in literature. These are not specifically designed for language teaching, but might be valuable and useful even in language classrooms. The second focus will be put on classifications that are specifically designed for language teaching as they are specific in purpose compared to other taxonomies which are designed for all subjects in classroom interaction and promote the communicative value.

The first three typologies described in the table 1 (by Bloom et al., 1956; Sanders, 1966; Guilford, 1956 and Gallagher and Aschner, 1965) are taxonomies of questions in general education. The Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is considered to be the most influential and pioneering one. The other taxonomies seem to stem from this taxonomy



and are 'built' on the basis of this early classification. In the thesis Bloom's taxonomy is also used as a starting point and the basis from which other taxonomies are derived (LIU, 2005, p. 19).

<b>Bloom et al. (1956)</b>	to know		to comprehend	to apply	to analyse	to synthesize	to evaluate
<b>Sanders (1966)</b>	memory		translation, interpretation	application	analysis	synthesis	evaluation
<b>Guilford (1956), Gallagher and Aschner (1965)</b>	routine thinking	cognitive-memory operations	convergent thinking		divergent thinking		evaluative thinking
<b>Barnes</b>	closed reasoning questions/close-ended				open reasoning questions/open-ended		
<b>Heaton (1982)</b>	recall, knowledge, already-made information questions		comprehension questions	application questions Invention questions			evaluation questions
<b>Thomas Barrett (cited in Tollefson 1989) Nutall (1982)</b>	literal comprehension questions		reorganization, reinterpretation questions	inference questions			evaluation questions, appreciation, personal response questions
<b>Wilens</b>	factual recall questions		conceptualization-level questions				evaluative questions
			low-convergent and high-convergent questions	low-divergent and high-divergent questions			
	display questions				referential questions		

**Table 1** summarizes various selected typologies of questions which, on the basis of their similarity, are all compared to the Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives.

### 8.2.1 Bloom's taxonomy

The amount of taxonomies which deal with questioning is inexhaustible. But what is apparent from most of the taxonomies invented by various authors is the close similarity to the Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Due to the long history and popularity of Bloom's taxonomy it has been re-worked many times by various authors. This taxonomy of learning behaviours can be thought of as the goals of the learning process. This means that the learner should have acquired new skills, knowledge, and/or attitudes.

As Taxonomy means 'classification' the Taxonomy of Learning Objectives (1956) classifies forms and levels of learning. It identifies three 'domains' of learning – cognitive, affective and psycho-motor. For the purpose of the thesis, only the cognitive domain will be discussed in further details.

Each domain is organised as a series of pre-requisites which suggest that one should not try to reach higher levels until lower levels are fully acquired and managed. The 'steps' in Bloom's 'pyramid' (starting from the lowest level) are as follows: *knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis* and *evaluation*. (BLOOM, 1956 in POWELL – CASEAU, 2004, p. 201 – 202). The thesis works with the original Bloom's Taxonomy from 1956 as its consequent revisions have little significance for the focus of this work. The difference can be seen in terminology, structure and emphasis. For the purpose of the thesis it is a sufficient and adequate source of information indeed. (WALSH – SATTES, 2004 p. 31). Bloom's taxonomy also serves as the basis for comparing other taxonomies with various question-typologies, which will be analysed, as evident similarity to Bloom's taxonomy cannot be denied.

### **8.2.2 Sander's taxonomy**

As for Sander's (1966) typology, the author classifies seven steps which are considerably similar to those of Bloom. Instead of describing the first step as knowledge, Sanders suggests 'memory', Comprehension level in Bloom consists of 'translation and interpretation' in Sanders, the higher steps (*application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation*) are exactly the same in both authors (LIU, 2005, p. 19)

### **8.2.3 Guilford, Gallagher and Aschner taxonomy**

Guilford (1956) / Gallagher and Aschner typologies (1965) are among the next 'pioneering' classifications. They suggest four or five steps depending on the typology studied. The lowest step is 'routine thinking' and 'cognitive memory' which can be described under the heading *knowledge* in Bloom. The first step which is routine thinking involves various classroom activities such as assignments, questions about due dates, grading. Cognitive

memory operations represent the simple reproduction of facts, formulae and other items of remembered content while using such processes as recognition, rote memory and selective recall. For the learner to be able to answer this type of question, he/she only has to select an appropriate answer directly from his/her memory. The following level in the classification is 'convergent thinking' which is comparable to Bloom's *comprehension* and *application* in which the learner is expected to answer within a tight structured framework. It represents the analysis and integration of given or remembered data. This type of thinking is used when solving a problem, summarizing material or describing a sequence of steps in a process. The successive level of thinking suggested by these authors is 'divergent thinking' which is similar in sense with Bloom's *analysis* and *synthesis*. Divergent thinking represents intellectual operations in which learners are free to generate independently their own data or to take a new direction or perspective on a given topic. In this case, the learner is able to 'take off' from established facts and see implications or associations not requested by the teacher. The top level of the scale of thinking both in Bloom and Guilford, Gallagher and Aschner is *evaluation* / 'evaluative thinking' in which learners give their opinion, or make judgements about value, worth, probability, agreement, or disagreement and the like. Evaluative thinking, as the highest level of mental processes, deals with matters of judgement, value, and choice, and it is characterised by its judgemental quality. (LIU, 2005, p. 19)

#### **8.2.4 Barnes' taxonomy**

Another typology, made by Barnes, differentiates between 'closed reasoning questions', sometimes also called close-ended, or simply closed questions, and 'open-reasoning questions', in other words open-ended or open questions. The first type – closed questions can be compared to Bloom's first two levels of thinking such as *knowledge* and *comprehension* as Barnes states that closed reasoning questions are framed with only one acceptable answer which is convergent in character and thus does not require higher-level of thinking than recalling of information and remembering or memorizing, recognizing etc. Open-reasoning questions permit a number of different acceptable answers which are divergent in nature and thus such mental processes which Bloom describes as *application*, *analysis*, *synthesis* and *evaluation* are in use (LIU, 2005, p. 19).

### 8.2.5 Heaton's taxonomy

The further typology discussed by Heaton (1982) resembles the Bloom's taxonomy as well. The first step in Heaton 'recall/knowledge/already-made information questions' equal Bloom's first level of thinking *knowledge*, because it only necessitates the sheer recall of information and identification of previously learned content. The following step in Heaton is 'comprehension questions' which clearly correspond to Bloom's *comprehension*. 'Application and invention' questions are unified in one group and are consistent with three of Bloom's levels – *application*, *analysis* and *synthesis*. 'Evaluation questions' are comparable to *evaluation* as the highest step in Bloom's pyramid. (LIU, 2005, p. 22)

### 8.2.6 Berrett's taxonomy

The following typology mentioned in the table is by Thomas Barrett. It consists of five stages starting with literal comprehension questions, the second stage is 'Reorganization, Reinterpretation questions. These two stages in Barrett seem to mingle with Bloom's first two stages which are *Knowledge* and *Comprehension*. The third stage Inference questions can be classified as *Application*, *Synthesis* and *Analysis* in Bloom's taxonomy. The last stage in Barrett's taxonomy deals with the same types of questions as in Bloom's taxonomy and these are Evaluation questions, Appreciation/Personal response questions which correspond with Bloom's *Evaluation* Level. (LIU, 2005, p. 22).

### 8.2.7 Wilen's taxonomy

The last author to be mentioned and to be compared to Bloom is Wilen (1987) whose classification consists of five levels of question-types. The first level, called 'factual recall questions' literally agree with Bloom's *knowledge*. Wilen suggests that these questions are the lowest level and the type most frequently used in classroom interaction in which learners exercise their rote memory. Learners are supposed to remember methods, processes, settings and structure, they also recall facts, definitions, etc. Moreover, the learners use such operations as naming, recalling, identifying, listing and distinguishing. The following Wilen's type of question is 'conceptualization': Level Questions subdivided

into convergent and divergent questions. For the purpose of making distinction between kinds of convergent and divergent questions the label 'low' and 'high' is used. Wilen comments on the distinction that by using fewer categories, the advantages of both specificity and simplicity is gained. There is one way to distinguish between convergent and divergent types of questions. This is the degree to which they are open-ended. Generally, convergent questions are closed, but they are more demanding than factual questions. They are narrow because the answer expected is not very diverse. In other words, one 'best' answer is expected. While, divergent questions create more possibilities for various answers and thus teacher gains a more passive role and becomes rather a facilitator of thinking. As far as low-convergent questions are concerned, the description of what a learner should be able to perform perfectly fits with Bloom's description of *comprehension* level. (WILEN, 1987, p. 72 - 77)

Both Wilen and Bloom suggest that this second level of thinking involves paraphrasing information, stating the main ideas, how to make use of knowledge previously learned. What Wilen adds to these characteristics is that when the teacher's primary concern is to get the 'right' answer, this kind of question is commonly used. He warns against using only this type without paying attention to other types as it might prevent learners from further development. 'Low-convergent' questions require the learner to put facts together and figure out the answer using such operations as comparing, contrasting, generalizing, or explaining. As regards 'high-convergent' questions versus application, Wilen puts reasoning, drawing conclusions, breaking ideas, situations, or events down into their component parts as the main point of this type of questions. Bloom's *application* supports this description by stating that problem solving, applying information to produce new results, and applying acquired knowledge, facts, techniques and rules in a different way are used. As for divergent questions in general, the answers to this type of question are less predictable than to convergent questions. The answerer is free to respond in a multitude of ways as far as the answer is given in a serious manner and represents an adequate consideration of the facts or situations. (WILEN, 1987, p. 72 - 77)

Wilén points out that using high-divergent questions requires the teacher to think of the learning content in a different way. These questions create different contexts for learning which differs from the traditional factual style of learning. Wilén adds that to answer high-divergent questions, learners elaborate, point out implications and predict in an open way. Research shows that only 5 percent of all the classroom questions used are of this type. The highest level of thinking both in Bloom and Wilén are Evaluation and Evaluative Questions, respectively. The main points stressed in both authors are the judgemental quality of these questions, expressing opinion, assuming an attitude, decision-making and evaluating quality. Wilén makes a note about the potential of it in a way that these questions offer to probe learners to support their answers. The usual teacher's response to a learner's answer is a probe: the most commonly a "WHY" question that requests the learner to support and provide evidence or to explain his or her taken position, or expressed opinion.

To summarize Wilén's attitude towards question-asking, it is necessary to state that he recommends to keep record of kinds of questions the teacher asks to be able to interact with learners in a better way and to employ all kinds of questions. Both convergent and divergent questions can help the teacher to assess whether any learning takes place.

### **8.3 Display and referential questions**

The last item referenced in the table 1 to be discussed is the division between display and referential questions. In spite of the fact that this typology does not resemble the Bloom's taxonomy at the first sight, some similarities still might be found. Therefore it is included as question classification which further investigates the issue of promoting communication through asking effective questions. Seven authors were mainly examined (NUNAN in HINKEL, 2005; PUFFER, 2007; NUNN, 1999; ALLWRIGHT – ALLWRIGHT – BAILEY, 1991; GAYLE – PREISS – ALLEN, 2006; NUNAN – LAMB, 1996; LIER – CORSON, 1997) whose issue of investigation was focused on the difference between display and referential questions and their impact on both learners' learning but above all on promoting learners' communication when asking these types of question. This sub-

chapter consists of explanation of terms (display, referential questions) and various other names given to them which are mentioned in multitude of sources.

The majority of authors stick to the original distinction between display and referential questions. *Display questions* are named 'pseudo questions' (TSUI, 2001 in LIU, 2005, p. 17), or 'factual questions' (BORG et al.,1970, cited in NUNAN, 1991 in LIU, 2005, p. 17), or 'known-information questions' (ALLRIGHT – BEILEY, 1991 in LIU, 2005, p. 17). In contrast, referential questions are called 'real/genuine questions' (DOFF, 1988; TSUI, 2001 in LIU, 2005, p. 17). Nunan uses the terms 'factual and high-order questions' (2005). The last distinction to be mentioned is made by Christiane Dalton Puffer. She differentiates between display and 'real' or 'authentic' questions (2007, p. 95). Some of the terms used by various authors are self-explanatory and even the names themselves illustrate the meaning. Nonetheless, the terms will be explained.

Roger Nunn gives a precise explanation of the terms and he states that:

by referring to a display question, we imply that its only purpose and effect appear to be to get learners to display knowledge, already known to the teacher. (1999, p. 1)

To contrast a display question with a referential question, Nunn adds:

referential questions are questions to which the response is not known by the teacher, directed towards the 'real world' of the learners outside the classroom. (1999, p. 1)

Other explanations interpret these terms in a similar way, which means that the distinction between display and referential questions depends on the information being looked for, in other words, whether the answer is known to the questioner or not.

Another matter to be thought of is the usefulness of both display and referential questions, their aims in a classroom environment, what purposes they serve and generally their advantages and disadvantages. The chosen authors have different opinions on both display and referential questions in terms of their pros and cons. To start with display questions, the unexceptionable pluses of these questions, as Puffer suggests, are that "they

not only monitor state of mind in order to test and evaluate” (2007, p. 94) but also when being answered they enable other learners to share the knowledge. To put it differently:

display questions aim at putting a topic or a knowledge item a centre stage, thus making it available for collective access and reference. (2007, p. 95)

However, the negative side has to be mentioned as well and that is, as the author suggests, “notoriously restricted answer, quite often consisting only of one word” which suggests that communication is not a primary aim of display questions. Nunn sees a positive side of display questions:

display of correct answer is the main objective of teacher's question. If the learners answer correctly, the teacher has achieved her objective and then can proceed. (1999, p. 3)

But Nunn also opposes the usefulness of these questions as he declares that display questions do not serve for communicative purposes “since the questioner already knows the answer to them and neither the question nor answer seems to have consequences”. (1999, p. 15)

The next author to be talked about is Nunan who claims that teachers who are not specifically trained for question-asking “tend to restrict the questions they ask exclusively to those of display variety” (NUNAN, cited in HINKEL, 2005, p. 228). Brock (1986) states that the difference before and after teacher's question-asking training is tremendous as the number of display questions decreased approximately about 60 percent (BROCK, 1986 cited in HINKEL, 2005, p.228). Other comments to the advantage will be discussed later in the chapter.

The next step is dedicated to the advantages and disadvantages of referential questions. The referential questioning definitely plays a significant role when classroom communication is in focus as all the authors highlight this type of questions when dealing with the amount of classroom communication and its promotion. Liu mentions the communicative value of teacher's questions while comparing display and referential questions. He points out that if the teacher uses a display question, it “is merely intended



to prompt the learner's to display their text comprehension and/or command of accurate English“ (2005, p. 17). But if the teacher does not know the answer beforehand which is the case of the referential question, the purpose of the question is to gain new information. What can be elicited from the Liu's suggestion is that the main aim of referential questioning is to learn new information and thus promoting communication takes place. Moreover, researches (TOLLEFSON, 1989; LYNCH, 1991; ELLIS, 1994; TALEBINEZAHD, 1999; TSUI, 2001; etc.) defend the use of referential questions in second language classrooms:

(referential questions) are more likely than display questions to contribute to an acquisition-rich environment and conform to the recommendation of the communicative use of target language. (LIU, 2005, p. 18)

Nunan also advocates the usefulness of referential questions as he concludes (based on a study dealing with teacher's training mentioned above) that “in classrooms where more referential questions were asked learners gave significantly longer and more complex responses” (NUNAN cited in HINKEL, 2005, p. 228). And Brock adds:

That referential questions may increase the amount of speaking learners do in the classroom is relevant to at least one current view of second language acquisition (SLA). (BROCK, 1986, p. 55 cited in HINKEL, 2005, p. 228)

Another comment made by Puffer supports Nunan's statement in a way that

referential questions are frequently seen as more 'natural' and are expected to generate learners answers that are somehow qualitatively better (more authentic, more involved, longer, and more complex) than answers to display questions. (2007, p. 96)

To conclude with regards to promoting classroom communication, the use of referential questions is definitely favored. They are more open in character, as opposed to display questions to which the answer usually consists of one word only and give learners more space to develop their speech and practice their target language which is the main aim of second language learning environment. Nunn supports the idea by saying that:

Access to comprehensible input and opportunities to use the target language for communicative purposes are probably the minimum requirements for successful classroom SLA“ – [second language acquisition]. (1999, p. 2)

Nevertheless, Long and Sato have found far greater proportion of the display questions than the referential ones. They imply there might be something wrong with teacher's methodology as they declare: "ESL teachers ask more display questions than information questions". They also add:

[...] contrary to the recommendations of many writers on SL teaching methodology, communicative use of target language makes up only a minor part of typical classroom activities. (Nunn, 1999, p. 2)

Gayle, Preiss and Allen in their research, which investigated the proportion of teacher questions by type, program and grade, show a significantly major use of display questions: namely 56.8 – 71.7 percent regardless the 1st or 2nd grade. The rest of questions asked is dedicated to referential questions (2006, p. 88). However, it might be misleading to generalize that only the referential questions are useful for language learning and the display ones are pointless. Each classroom context requires an appropriate philosophy and different handling and the decision is always up to the teacher.

Another factor which strongly influences the production of learners' speech is giving them sufficient time to respond: it is so called wait time. Not only the learners can become more active in their target language production, but teachers can also receive better and more complex answers when extending their pauses after a question is asked and responded. Wilen differentiates between wait time 1 and wait time 2, whereas the first wait time concerns teachers since it is a period of time after the question is asked by the teacher and before it is responded by the learner. The second time involves the pause after the answer is given and the teacher waits for further explanation or elaboration. Wilen points out that:

most teachers, regardless of subject matter or grade level, have wait time 1 and wait time 2 pauses of one second or less... (1987, p. 95)

What he suggests for teachers to do is to simply increase both wait time 1 and 2 to at least three seconds or even longer since both the teacher and learners benefit from it. The amount of time given by the teacher depends mainly on the question posed. The higher-cognitive questions obviously require more extended time than low-cognitive questions.

What is apparently the most remarkable difference if wait time is extended is that “the length of learners responses increase between 300 and 700 percent, or in some cases even more” (WILEN, 1987, p. 96, 97). Secondly, learners speculate more about possible further explanations or another ways of thinking about the matter and thus might extend their speech greatly. Even the number of questions coming from learners' side increases since when speculating to more extent, there are more and more questions which arise. Another appealing consequence of extended wait time is that the number of learners, who participate voluntarily in discussion, grows as does the amount of appropriate answers. Wilen comments on the fact:

the information that comes from learners spontaneously makes more than half of all the questions teachers normally ask unnecessary. (1987, p. 98)

This means significant progress in learners' active language production. The list of advantages is not fully complete but as we can see, the extension of wait time brings about positive effects on the promotion of learners communication.

The follow-up step after correctly answered question is acknowledgement and praise. Wilen claims that “effective teachers acknowledge correct responses from learners and are specific and discriminating in their use of praise” (1987, p. 130). He also adds that

the most powerful pattern of praise behaviour is that which communicates both praise and the reason for the praise. (1987, p. 130)

Evidently, the praise and generally positive classroom climate contributes to more active learners involvement and participation and thus communication.

## **8.4 Use of taxonomies in practice**

This thesis favours the original Bloom's taxonomy as the most representative and influential taxonomy in general education. Bloom in his taxonomy has classified thinking according to six cognitive levels of complexity. The levels have often been depicted as a stairway which teachers use to encourage learners to ‘climb’ to a higher level of thinking. The taxonomy is hierarchical which means that a learner has to master the lowest levels

first to be able to 'climb' the higher levels to reach the most complex level of thinking at the top of Bloom's pyramid. Main usage of Bloom's taxonomy is for teachers when designing their lesson plans. What teachers encounter every day in their teaching makes the learners think. This enables them to learn and process information. Question-asking is the most used way of the process. As it has been mentioned above, teachers ask considerable number of questions per lesson. Thus it is crucial for teachers to know that the process of thinking is a complex procedure consisting of many stages (suggested by Bloom) and the consistence of using all the stages with the learners is recommended.

Nevertheless, the process of thinking should not be the same all the time. In spite of this knowledge, Bloom himself has found out that over 95 % of the test questions the learners encounter require them to think only at the lowest possible level: recalling of information. (ALCORN, 2003, p. 3) Mastering the questioning which would include all the stages of thinking suggested by Bloom requires time at teacher's as well as learner's side but it will definitely pay off. As it may be assumed from Bloom's taxonomy, the higher process of thinking, requiring more complex and abstract mental levels, e.g.: analysis, synthesis and evaluation, the more elaborate questions and consequent answers can teachers get from the learners. This promotes more effective communication, but the issue is rather tricky and complex indeed when it comes to learners' learning.

The issue which researchers have occupied themselves the most with is whether it is more effective for teachers to pose higher-cognitive or lower-cognitive questions. The answer is not really straightforward. Higher-cognitive questions are usually defined as questions that require learners to use such processes of thoughts as analysing, problem solving, predicting, and evaluating. Meanwhile, lower-cognitive questions require only memory or the ability to locate information. Winne (1979) has carried out research and concluded that it made no difference to learner's performance whether the teacher emphasized either the lower or higher cognitive questions. Rousseau (1981) has reviewed the same research with rather different conclusion, which was that higher-cognitive questions led to better learners' performance. Redfield and Rousseau found out that the majority of experiments favoured higher-cognitive questions (WILEN, 1987, p. 32). The inconsistency

of results may stem from various factors. The most apparent one is that the researchers use different definitions of higher-cognitive questions. Some of them rely on the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives Handbook (BLOOM et al. 1956), while others may use another classification done by Guilford's structure of intellect model (ASCHNER et al. 1965) and various others.

To sum it up, higher-cognitive questions, virtually by definition, make more demands on the learner. Dillon (1982b; MILLS et al. 1980) found that cognitive level of learners' responses is often below the cognitive level of the question posed by the teacher. If learners cannot handle the cognitive demands of these questions, their learning may be obstructed (WILEN, 1987, p. 33). The conclusion based on various researches dealing with different taxonomies of questions indicates that one type of questions is not necessarily better than another. Rather, each type of question is effective for a particular instructional objective. Therefore, teachers need to plan their objectives for a lesson or a unit and then choose the appropriate types of questions. Another matter connected to questioning in language classrooms refers to the use of target language, English, when asking questions. The entire chapter Questioning skills takes the fact that the questions a teacher poses are in the second language into account. However, it is not that simple because some teachers might prefer to ask questions in the first language, pupils' mother tongue. Apparently, in this case, communication is not promoted at all. The example of such instances can be found in the practical part of the thesis where three teachers were observed. The use of the target language varied a lot in each teacher. Nevertheless, it is highly recommended to use the target language as much as possible according to the pupils' abilities and their level of English. However, even pupils who are not advanced in English can be asked question in the target language if the teacher adjusts the language to their needs.

Question complexity	Description	Types of Questions	Action Verbs
Knowledge	Exhibit memory of previously-learned materials by recalling facts, terms, basic concepts and answers. Remembering, memorizing, recognizing, recalling identification, recall of information	Who, what, when, where, how...? Describe	list, define, tell, describe, identify, show, label, collect, examine, tabulate, arrange, define, duplicate, label, list, memorize, name, order, recognize, relate, recall, repeat, reproduce, state, quote, who, when, where
Comprehension	Demonstrative understanding of facts and ideas by organizing, comparing, translating, interpreting, giving descriptions, and stating main ideas. Translation, Interpretation, Extrapolation, interpreting, translating from one medium to another, describing in one's own words, organization and selection of facts and information.	retell	summarize, describe, interpret, contrast, predict, associate, distinguish, estimate, differentiate, discuss, extend, classify, describe, discuss, explain, express, identify, indicate, locate, recognize, report, restate, review, select, translate
Application	Using new knowledge. Solve problems to new situations by applying acquired knowledge, facts, techniques and rules in a different way problem solving. Applying information to produce some result, use of facts, rules and principles.	How is...an example of...? How is...related to...? Why is...significant?	apply, demonstrate, calculate, complete, illustrate, show, solve, examine, modify, relate, change, classify, experiment, discover, choose, dramatize, employ, interpret, operate, practice, schedule, sketch, solve, use, write
Analysis	Examine and break information into parts by identifying motives or causes. Make inferences and find evidence to support generalization. Analysis of elements, analysis of relationships, analysis of organizational principles, subdividing something to show how it is put together, finding the underlying structure of a communication, identifying motives; separation of a whole into component parts	What are the parts or features of...? Classify...according to... Outline/diagram... How does...compare/contrast with...? What evidence can you list for...?	analyse, separate, order, explain, connect, classify, arrange, divide, compare, select, infer, appraise, calculate, categorize, contrast, criticize, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, examine, experiment, question, test

Question complexity	Description	Types of Questions	Action Verbs
Synthesis	Compile information together in a different way by combining elements in a new pattern or proposing alternative solutions. Production of a unique communication, production of a plan, or proposed set of operations, derivation of a set of abstract relations, creating a unique, original product that may be in verbal form or may be a physical object, combination of ideas to form a new whole	What would you predict/infer from...? What ideas can you add to...? How would you create/design a new...? What might happen if you combined...? What solutions would you suggest for...?	combine, integrate, modify, rearrange, substitute, plan, create, design, invent, compose, formulate, prepare, generalize, rewrite, arrange, assemble, collect, construct, develop, manage, organize, propose, set up, write
Evaluation	Present and defend opinions by making judgements about information, validity of ideas or quality of work based on a set of criteria. Judgements in terms of internal evidence, judgements in terms of external criteria, making value decisions about issues, resolving controversies or differences of opinion, development of opinions, judgements or decisions	Do you agree...? What do you think about...? What is the most important...? Place the following in order of priority... How would you decide about...? What criteria would you use to assess...?	assess, decide, rank, grade, test, measure, recommend, convince, select, judge, explain, discriminate, support, conclude, compare, summarize, appraise, argue, attach, defend, choose, predict, rate, core, value, evaluate, defend, estimate

**Table 2** shows the verbs examples and sample questions of each level of Bloom's 'pyramid'.

Table 2 summarizes Bloom's taxonomy in detail. Each level of cognitive domain might be generally described in terms of what learners are able to achieve and perform after having mastered each level. Consequently, learners are able to 'climb' higher in order to reach the top level of thinking process called evaluation. The table also suggests what types of questions are suitable for a teacher to ask in each level and what learners are capable of answering so that it is not too demanding but neither too simple. Finally, the column of action verbs in each domain indicate which learners' mental processes are involved. This classification and detailed description of each stage of thinking might be very helpful for teachers when dealing not only with question-asking, but with learners' learning in

general. As Powell and Caseau state “The Bloom et al. (1956) taxonomy of learning is helpful framework for conceptualizing discussion of teacher questions“. (2004, p. 201).

As far the promotion of classroom communication is considered, my assumption is based on investigation of all kinds of questions where the more higher-level of thinking is employed, the more communication takes place. Wilen supports my hypothesis as he declares that higher cognitive questions, virtually by definition, make more demands on the learner. The author also adds that cognitive level of learner's responses is often below the cognitive level of the question posed by the teacher (1987, p. 33).

In spite of the fact that there is no research or study dealing specifically with typology of questions promoting communication, it can be assumed that promoting learners communication can be done through asking questions of higher levels such as the nature of these questions themselves require learners to develop and expand their answers. All types of questions from *application* to *evaluation* in Bloom's typology open-ended questions which cannot be answered in one or two words. Moreover, these high-order questions require learners to think about and elaborate their answers which is crucial to their communication and classroom interaction. They also lead to development of thinking which is the initial step towards communication. As Littlewood points out:

One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view. (LITTLEWOOD, 1981, p. 1)

What can be assumed from these findings is the fact that the development of thinking and communication skills are interrelated issues which both need to be promoted by teachers.



## 9. Research

---

*“Wise folks may or may not form expectations about what the future holds in store but the foolish can be relied upon to predict with complete confidence that certain things will come about in the future or that others will not”*

Medawar, 1984 cited in Nunan, 1992, p. 211

The aim of my small-scale research is to present and describe the data collected and the findings which stemmed out from the research. All the phases which were included in the research are depicted chronologically in this chapter. Nunan states that:

A minimum requirement for an activity to be considered research is that it contains three components: a question, data, analysis and interpretation. (1992, p. 211)

The research was conducted in the following stages:

1. Setting the aim of the research
2. Introducing the research to the schools and teachers, adjustments made which are mentioned below, final selection of schools and teachers, decision made about data collection instrument (a voice recorder for classroom observations, questionnaires for pupils, interviews with the teachers), research design in general
3. Data collection through observations of the lessons in selected schools, analysis of the collected data at the same time
4. Data collection through distribution of learners' questionnaires, interviews with the teachers, analysis of the collected data at the same time
5. Final interpretation and evaluation of the collected data
6. Research conclusion

## 9.1 Aim of the research and its background

As it has been suggested in the theoretical part, namely in the chapter *Questioning skills*, a question plays a crucial role in a teaching-learning processes. Various taxonomies have been described showing close similarity to the Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, which constitutes the core of my research. The aim of the research was to find out whether there exists a type or a typology of questions which promotes pupils' communication in ELT classrooms. In other words, it was to investigate whether there exists a directly-proportional correlation to the type of questions asked (one of the 6 levels of Bloom's 'pyramid') and the communication taking place. Based on the studied literature in the theoretical part of the thesis, it is to be revealed whether the higher-process of thinking requires more complex answers on pupils' side. It is not possible to focus on all the factors that influence pupils' communication that is why I paid attention only to the questions being asked and the consequent answers. However, the factors which influence pupils' communication will be depicted as well later in the chapter.

The research tries to answer the following questions:

- Q1: Do higher-order questions, according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, asked by a teacher promote more complex pupils' answers?**
- Q2: Is it possible that the pupils' level of English influence classroom communication promoted by teacher's questions?**

## 9.2 Case study

A case study is what you call a case, in case, in case you don't have anything else to call it. (unidentified learner cited in Nunan, 1992, p. 74)

The research design suitable for the purpose of the thesis is a case study. While Nunan's various definitions of a case study are really vague and he rather states what a case study is not, Brown (1988, p. 2) defines a case study rather clearly as he states that:

these studies are longitudinal, that is, they follow the individual or individuals over a relatively long period while tracing some aspect of language development.

Another term which is used in case of my research is a 'primary research' which means that the researcher analyses the data from the primary source: "e.g., learners who are learning a language" (Brown, 1988, p. 2).

### 9.3 Research recording

Before the actual research could start, various adjustments had to be made. The original intention was to video-record the lessons and use the data from the recording. After having dealt with three schools which I planned to carry out my research in, the original plan seemed to be inconvenient and unacceptable for each of the schools.

The problem was either with the teacher who did not want to be video-recorded or with the parents of the pupils, and finally with the pupils themselves. Both the pupils and their parents have been sent written information about my personal data, and also about the research. I politely asked the pupils and their parents for permission to video-record some of the lessons with a strong affirmation that the data collected will be used only for the needs of the thesis and consequently discarded. However, the effort fell flat. Some of the parents and pupils disapproved with the idea, and therefore the video-recording could not be carried out.

After the consultation with Dr. Černá, we decided that a better option will be to use a voice recorder as it needs to be approved only by a school headmaster. I did not have any problems with that. Dr. Černá and me were not sure about the quality of the recording but at the end, the idea proved to be very good and for the purpose of my observation, the voice recorder satisfied my needs fully. After the final decision to use a voice recorder was made, I arranged meetings with the teachers, presented them my idea and the schedule for me to observe the lessons was made. Another unexpected problem arose when some of the lessons were canceled for various reasons (school trips, the absence of the teachers etc.) which was not pleasant for me and made my research rather protracted.

## 9.4 Research design and data collection instruments

### 9.4.1 Classroom observations

As the researcher collected the data from the real classrooms, pupils and teachers through classroom observations, questionnaires and interviews. The observations include not only the actual time spent in the classroom but also a preparation beforehand and consequent interpretation of the data collected. That is why an observation is called „a multifaceted tool for learning“ (WAJNRYB, 1992, p. 1).

The pre-stage for the observations consisted of creating an observation sheet (its draft is enclosed in the appendix). The observation sheet was a self-made one. The items included are as follows: lesson phase, activity, teacher's question, question type, learner's response, response type, teacher's response and comments. The detailed description of the items is described in the observation sheet itself. The crucial items on the list were teacher's question, question type, learner's response and response type which served as the main tools for the analysis of pupil's communication in relation to teacher's questions. The other items were included so that the observer could better monitor and analyse the classroom situations. The piloting stage in the case of observation sheet was not needed, in spite of the fact that I was fully aware of the complexity of it. I was supported by the recordings which helped me to complete any missing information from the classroom.

The actual observations were carried out in the classrooms in which I observed and made notes, while the teacher's and pupils' actions were recorded on the voice recorder. The follow-up activity involved downloading the recording to the PC, playing it and completing the notes which were not managed in the classroom. The data were subsequently transformed into a chart and labeled according to a previously prepared evaluation.

The main focus was on the type of question teacher asks and consequent pupil's answer. Each question was given a number and was evaluated according to Bloom's Taxonomy, namely B1 to B6. All the pupils' answers were classified according to one criterion which

was the expected answer in relation to the type of question. To be more precise, number 1 - no response signified that a pupil did not give any response to a teacher's question at all. Number 2 - partial response denoted that a pupil responded only partially. He/she gave one or two word response to questions which required more developed and complex response. For instance, a question of higher-levels such as Application, or Evaluation were responded by not even a complete sentence or couple of words only. Number 3 on the scale meant that a pupil responded adequately. In other words, gave a complex and full response as it was expected in concordance with Bloom's Taxonomy and a type of question asked and also with the expected answer. Number 4 was the highest point on the scale and that presented pupil's developed response which was even more complex than expected (see the appendix for more details).

All the lesson's recordings followed the same scheme. My observations were both direct and indirect, as I was present in the lessons, but I also used the recordings afterwards as well. The observations were also structured as the focus was known and prepared beforehand. The teachers and the pupils were aware of the fact that they are part of the observation that is why the observations were overt.

#### **9.4.3 Pupils' questionnaires**

Questionnaires which were filled in by the pupils were the third instrument to collect the data from. This instrument, as well as all the others, has also its pitfalls and issues to be aware of. It is important to make a decision whether to use more closed or open ended questions which both have its pros and cons. The self-made questionnaire included more closed questions, however, open ended questions were also included. The advantage of using such questions is their easier analysis. The construction of the pupil's questionnaire was rather complex and time-consuming as one might come across a problem of the objectives of the study which should be clear beforehand to be able to analyse it afterwards (Nunan, 1992, p. 143 - 145).

After a consultation over the creation and piloting stage with Dr. Černá, the questionnaires were piloted by the group of pupils and the results revealed that no other

changes need to be made. However, when the questionnaires were analysed, it was found out that the piloting stage did not reveal all the possible pitfalls. The questionnaire is enclosed in the appendix.

### **9.4.3 Interviews with teachers**

Another data collection instrument which was used was an interview with all the teachers involved in the research. There is a number of factors influencing the actual course of an interview, as well as the procedure which is advisable to follow. The interviewer needs to decide to what degree he wants the interviews to be formal. In my research, I chose to carry out the semi-structured interview which is highly recommended because of many pros. The interviewer in this case has the overall idea about what he wants to gain from the interview, on the other hand, both the interviewer and interviewee is rather flexible and the questions do not predetermine the course of the interview to such extent. (Nunan, 1992, p. 149)

All the interviews were recorded on the voice recorder and consequently transcribed along with the notes gained from the interviews which is also the procedure recommended in Nunan's book. There is another dimension which might influence the course of an interview and that is the positioning of both interviewer and interviewee. Sitting 'side by side' evokes more cooperative atmosphere, rather than sitting 'face to face' which might be considered confrontational. (Nunan, 1992, p. 152)

## **9.5 Data collection**

### **9.5.1 Data collection through classroom observation**

All the data collection (through observations, interviews with the teachers and pupils' questionnaires) was carried out in three schools and three teachers were observed. Each teacher has been observed during 8 lessons which was 24 lessons in total. The fact that 3 teachers in 3 different schools were observed gave the researcher a broader view and a chance to compare. Moreover, each class was observed more than once which eliminated

'the factor of randomness'. For keeping the personal data safe, the schools were given numbers from 1 to 3 and the teachers were given letters A to C. The classes observed ranged from 6<sup>th</sup> graders to 9<sup>th</sup> graders (both in primary school and junior grammar schools). 3 lessons were observed in the 1<sup>st</sup> grade of senior grammar school. The number of pupils in a classroom varied from 15 to 20. The data collection through observations was carried out within the period of 30<sup>th</sup> April and 29<sup>th</sup> May. All the observations at schools were overt. I as the observer was present in the classroom and the notes were made during each lesson.

### **9.5.2 Data collection through Pupils' questionnaires**

The pupils' questionnaires were distributed among the pupils throughout the data collection phase. More precisely, the researcher gave the questionnaires to the teachers who were teaching the particular classes. Subsequently, the pupils were given the questionnaires through the teachers who were instructed and explained all the necessary information thoroughly. The pupils did not seem to have any problems filling in the questionnaires as the researcher was told afterwards.

### **9.5.3 Data collection through interviews with the teachers**

The interviews served as the third data-collection instrument and supported the previous two (observations, questionnaires). The aim was to obtain the data from the teachers so that the researcher was better able to monitor the situation from the viewpoint of teachers. The interviews were made with all three teachers who were involved in the research and whose lessons were observed. The procedure of the interviews followed the same scheme each time. First of all, there was a scheduled time which had been arranged beforehand. It was usually after the last lesson observed. The interviews were always held in friendly, comfortable place, either a teacher's office or a quiet café and the researcher tried to make the interviewees as comfortable as possible.

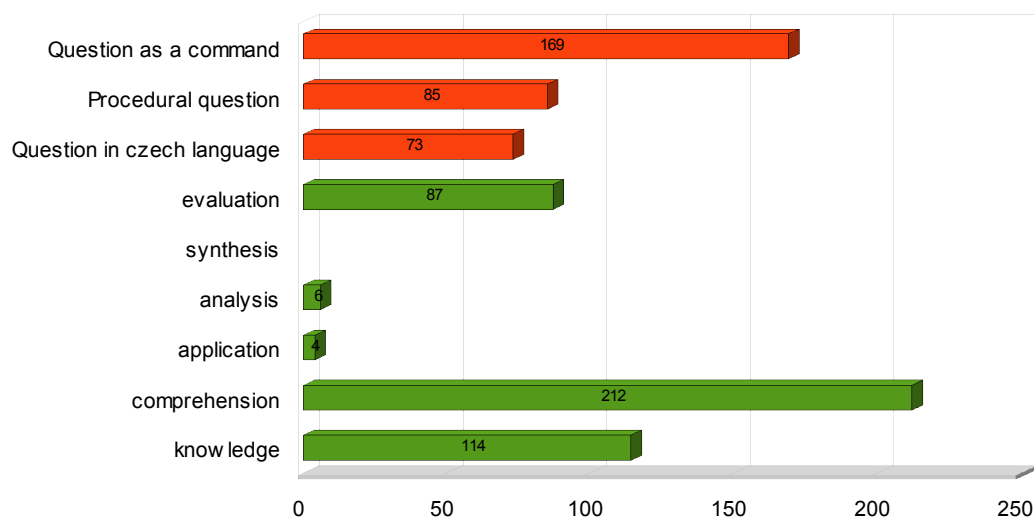
As it was stated in the previous pages, all the interviews were semi-structured. This contributed to the fact that the interviewer had the chance to obtain as much truthful and unbiased information as possible which is considered an advantage. Furthermore, there

was a space for improvising and the interviewer reacted to the current situation and was not restricted to such extent. The questions were not known to the interviewees ahead and were asked straightforward. All the interviews were voice-recorder for the easier data analysis.

## 9.6 Data analysis and evaluation

### 9.6.1a Analysis of the data collected through classroom observations

The classroom observations were used as the initial and primary data collection instrument. The questions were analysed according to the previously prepared scheme. The initial step was to number the questions in order of appearance. Each lesson started with number one so that the observer can easily count how many questions were asked per each lesson. Each question was consequently classified.



**Chart 1** shows the distribution of questions in observed lessons according to their type.

The total number of questions from all the 24 observation collected reached 750 (see chart 1). After analysing each question from the recording, it was found out that 423 questions were classifiable according to previous stated Bloom's classification. The rest of the questions could not be put into the classification for various reasons. The observations



revealed that various other questions occur in lessons. Procedural questions which dealt mainly with pupils' homework, absence, re-seating pupils and miscellaneous organizational matters were on of them. The total number reached 85. The next questions emerging in the observations were those which served as commands. The total number reached 169. For instance: "Will you stop talking?" or "Pavle, can you please go on?" The answers were expected neither by the observer, nor by a teacher which was a correct presumption. Another types of questions that were not classified were those asked not in the target language but a Czech. The total number reached 73. In the case of these questions, no classification was needed as the questions did not promote any communication in the target language. Naturally pupils answered them in Czech as well.

Surprisingly, there was a remarkable difference between the teachers observed and their use of English in the lessons. Two of the teachers (namely, teacher C and teacher B) used the target language throughout the entire lesson. English was used as the language for giving instructions, explanation of new subject matter, giving commands and also procedural and organizational matters. On the other hand, when observing teacher A, the observer was surprised to what extent the mother tongue is used, in spite of the fact, that pupils would not have any difficulties understanding and it would definitely help them to acquire the target language better and more naturally. Hence, all the questions asked in Czech were excluded from the analysis.

Not surprisingly, the level of English in each class differed a lot, however it was directly proportional to the classes. Consequently, after all the observations were finished, the distinction of the classes was made according to their grade. Each class was marked from 0 to 5:

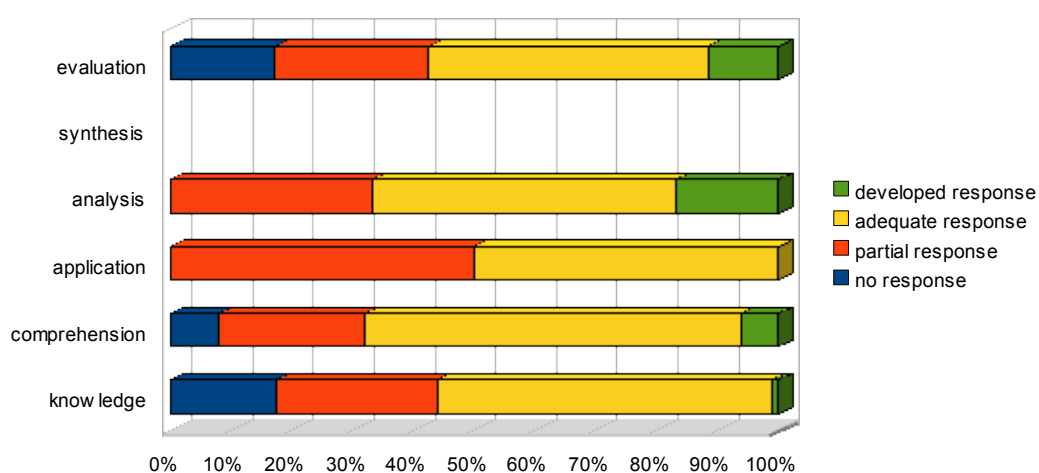
- The 6<sup>th</sup> graders and 1<sup>st</sup> year of junior grammar school were marked as number 1 as they were on the lowest level of English.
- 2<sup>nd</sup> year of junior grammar school and the 7<sup>th</sup> graders were marked as number 2.
- The 8<sup>th</sup> graders were marked as number 3 on the scale.
- The 9<sup>th</sup> graders turned out to be very unbalanced class which dragged behind the other ones both in level of English which was very low and in other aspects as well.

The high level of disruptive behaviour and discipline problems influenced the classroom communication and the overall classroom climate to such extent that this class were given 0 on the scale. To justify the decision, the researcher observed the absolute reluctance to cooperate with the teacher. Moreover, the results concerning the teacher's questions and pupils' answers in this class proved the fact. The class will be dealt with in more details further in the research.

- 4<sup>th</sup> year of junior grammar school was marked as number 4.
- And the 1<sup>st</sup> year of senior grammar school got number 5.

What was striking in the observations of the two classes (4<sup>th</sup> year of junior grammar school and the 1<sup>st</sup> year of senior grammar school) was the fact, that these classes were nearly on the same level of English.

question type	count	response type		
		no response	partial response	adequate response
evaluation	87	17.2% (15)	25.3% (22)	46% (40)
synthesis	0	-	-	-
analysis	6	0% (0)	33.3% (2)	50% (3)
application	4	0% (0)	50% (2)	50% (2)
comprehension	212	8% (17)	24.1% (51)	61.8% (131)
knowledge	114	17.5% (20)	26.3% (30)	55.3% (63)



**Chart 2** reveals the proportional distribution of answers in the observed lessons according to Bloom's taxonomy.

The chart two indicates the overall preview of all the lessons observed. The first column shows the levels of Bloom's Taxonomy from B<sub>1</sub> (Knowledge) to B<sub>6</sub> (Evaluation). The second one indicates the total number of questions asked in each level and the following four columns denote the percentage and the numbers of pupils' answers in each level. As it can be seen from the chart, the most questions asked are from the second level of Bloom's Taxonomy (Comprehension), the following position denotes the first level (Knowledge). Finally, the third position is Evaluation which is the highest level. The data clearly correspond to the results from the pupils' questionnaires as the sequence in the types of questions asked was identical. The data also revealed that the use of Analysis (6 answers), Application (4 answers) and Synthesis (0 answers) is insignificant. Moreover, the number in each of the mentioned level is very low and cannot be considered a relevant data sample. Thus, the first three types of questions which occurred the most (Comprehension, Knowledge, Evaluation) are mainly dealt with in the analysis. Nevertheless, the assumption is made concerning the growing tendency in pupils' developed answers (marked by number 4) in relation to the higher level of Bloom's Taxonomy. What can be seen is that the 'Knowledge level' reached 0.9 %, the 'Comprehension level' increased to 6.1 % and the 'Evaluation level' scored the highest percentage: 11.5 %. Evidently, the higher level question of Bloom's Taxonomy is asked, the more complex answer is given. In other words, the research Question number 1 was proved as the communication is promoted better by the questions of a higher-level of Bloom's taxonomy.

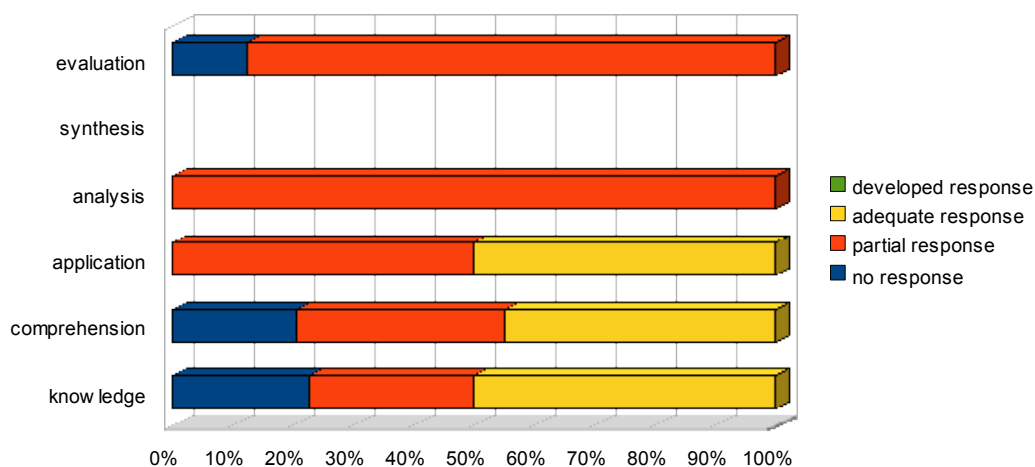
### **9.6.1b Detailed analysis of the data collected through classroom observations for individual language levels**

#### **Evaluation of the year 6 and 1<sup>st</sup> year of junior grammar school**

The chart number 3 represents level 1 - (the 6<sup>th</sup> graders and the 1<sup>st</sup> year of junior grammar school). Identically, as the overall results suggest, the most asked type of questions are levels B<sub>1</sub> (Knowledge), B<sub>2</sub>(Comprehension) and B<sub>6</sub> (Evaluation). Similarly, the total number of questions asked in levels B<sub>3</sub> (Application), B<sub>4</sub> (Analysis) and B<sub>6</sub> (Evaluation) is insignificant. The results show that the highest level of pupils' responses reached number 3 (adequate answer) which is approximately 50%. However, the 'Evaluative questions' were

responded by partial responses only. The level of English in these two classes was nearly identical and rather low as the pupils have not been taught English for a very long time. The assumption made is that the pupils' level of English influences their answers. In other words, the lower level of English is, the less complex answer is given.

question type	count	response type		
		no response	partial response	adequate response
evaluation	8	12.5% (1)	87.5% (7)	0% (0)
synthesis	0	-	-	-
analysis	1	0% (0)	100% (1)	0% (0)
application	2	0% (0)	50% (1)	50% (1)
comprehension	29	20.7% (6)	34.5% (10)	44.8% (13)
knowledge	22	22.7% (5)	27.3% (6)	50% (11)

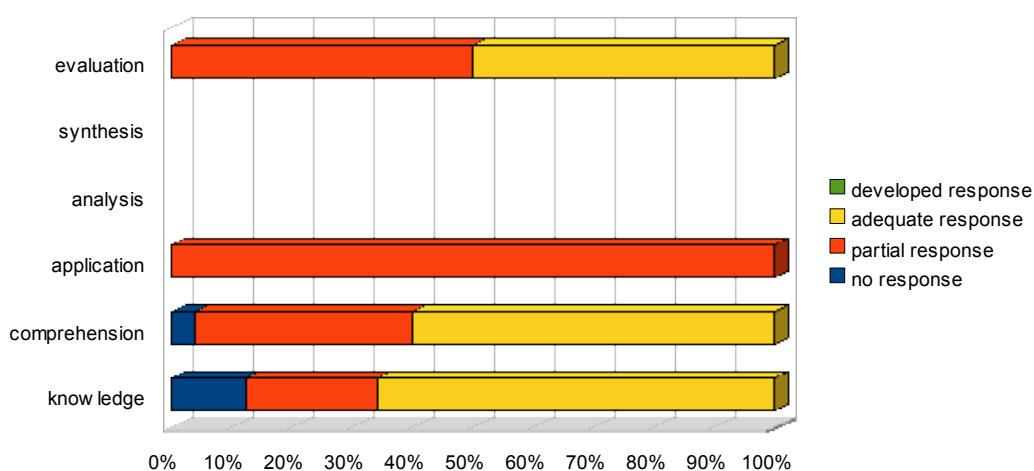


**Chart 3:** classification of the questions and answers in year 6 and 1<sup>st</sup> year of junior grammar school

### Evaluation of the year 7 and 2<sup>nd</sup> year of junior grammar school

The chart number 4 represents the the 7<sup>th</sup> graders and 2<sup>nd</sup> year of junior grammar school. Not surprisingly, the most asked types of questions are B<sub>1</sub> (Knowledge), B<sub>2</sub> (Comprehension) and B<sub>6</sub> (Evaluation). The level of pupils' English was higher than the previous classes. Thus, the percentage in pupils' answers number 3 (adequate answers) was higher, approximately 60%, in comparison with the previous one (50%). Again, it is revealed that the higher level of English the pupils have, the more complex answers are given.

question type	count	response type		
		no response	partial response	adequate response
evaluation	2	0% (0)	50% (1)	50% (1)
synthesis	0	-	-	-
analysis	0	-	-	-
application	1	0% (0)	100% (1)	0% (0)
comprehension	25	4% (1)	36% (9)	60% (15)
knowledge	32	12.5% (4)	21.9% (7)	65.6% (21)

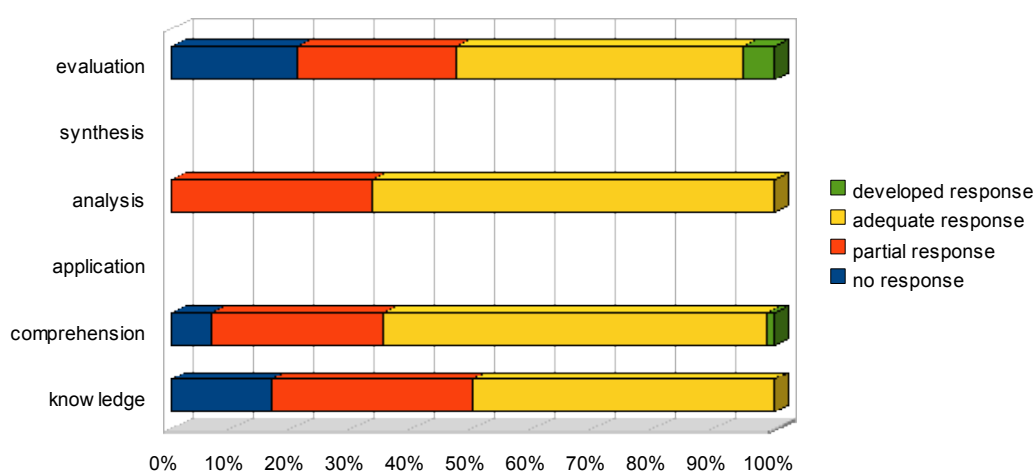


**Chart 4:** classification of the questions and answers in year 7 and 2<sup>nd</sup> year of junior grammar school

### Evaluation of the year 8

At this point the chart number 5 depicting the 8<sup>th</sup> graders is described. The most significant progress can be noticed in pupils' responses which reached the highest number 4 (developed answer). Not surprisingly, the succession of the most used types of questions used remain the same (1. Comprehension, 2. Knowledge, 3. Evaluation). The number of "adequate answers" reached slightly above 60%. However, in B6 level (Evaluation) 47% were "adequate answers" and besides, 5.3% were "developed answers" (number 4). However, the number of „evaluative“ questions rose from the previous ones, but more importantly, the answers to them got significantly better. It is to be assumed that the higher level of English pupils have, the more complex and developed answers they produce.

question type	count	response type		
		no response	partial response	adequate response
evaluation	19	21.1% (4)	26.3% (5)	47.4% (9)
synthesis	0	-	-	-
analysis	3	0% (0)	33.3% (1)	66.7% (2)
application	0	-	-	-
comprehension	74	6.8% (5)	28.4% (21)	63.5% (47)
knowledge	30	16.7% (5)	33.3% (10)	50% (15)



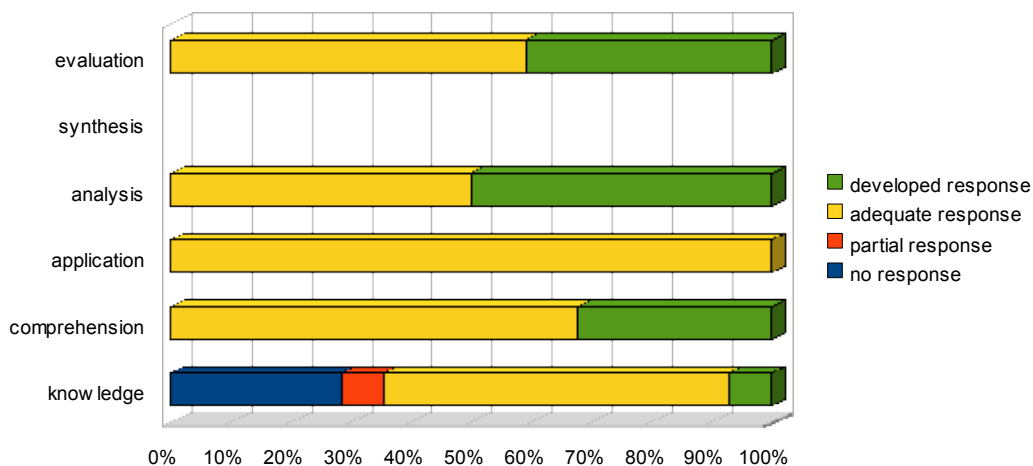
**Chart 5:** classification of the questions and answers in year 8

### Evaluation of the 4<sup>th</sup> year of junior grammar school

The attention is drawn to the chart number 6 which represents the 4<sup>th</sup> year of junior grammar school. Typically, the relevant data samples are question types: (B2 - Comprehension, B6 - Evaluation, B1 - Knowledge). It needs to be said that this class reached the best results of all the observed classes in all aspects. The level of pupils' English was high and that was proved even by the results. The pupils' answers reached the outstanding results as the number of 'developed answers' (number 4) was significant indeed. 'Evaluative level' reached 40.9%, the 'Comprehension level' got 32.3% and 'Knowledge questions' scored 7.1% in pupils' answers number 4( developed response). What is worth mentioning is the minor percentage in pupils' answers qualified as number 1 (no response) and number 2 (partial response) in all the levels of

Bloom's Taxonomy. To conclude, the high level of pupils' English induces complex answers to the questions asked.

question type	count	response type		
		no response	partial response	adequate response
evaluation	22	0% (0)	0% (0)	59.1% (13)
synthesis	0	-	-	-
analysis	2	0% (0)	0% (0)	50% (1)
application	1	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (1)
comprehension	31	0% (0)	0% (0)	67.7% (21)
knowledge	14	28.6% (4)	7.1% (1)	57.1% (8)

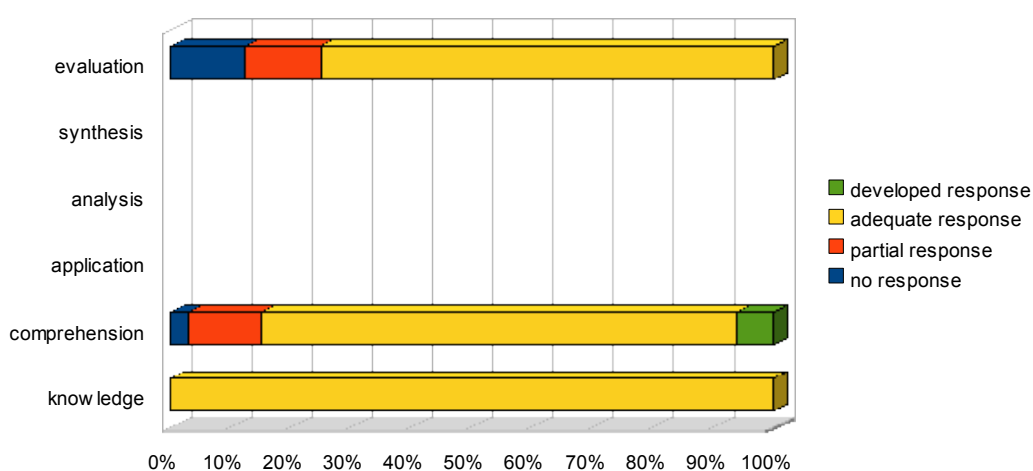


**Chart 6:** classification of the questions and answers in 4<sup>th</sup> year of junior grammar school

### Evaluation of the 1<sup>st</sup> year of senior grammar school

Finally, the class with the highest level of English is to be evaluated: the 1<sup>st</sup> year of senior grammar school. First of all, it needs to be said that this class was observed the least number of lessons. Thus, the data sample gained from the class should not be considered the most relevant. Nevertheless, the pattern of the most used types of questions has not changed. The first position gained B<sub>2</sub> (Comprehension), the second one B<sub>6</sub> (Evaluation) and the third one is B<sub>1</sub> (Knowledge). The chart shows a very high percentage of 'adequate pupils' answers' (number 3) which reached approximately 75%. The number of 'developed responses' (number 4) scored 6.1% in B<sub>2</sub> (Comprehension).

question type	count	response type		
		no response	partial response	adequate response
evaluation	8	12.5% (1)	12.5% (1)	75% (6)
synthesis	0	-	-	-
analysis	0	-	-	-
application	0	-	-	-
comprehension	33	3% (1)	12.1% (4)	78.8% (26)
knowledge	3	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (3)



**Chart 7:** classification of the questions and answers in 1<sup>st</sup> year of senior grammar school

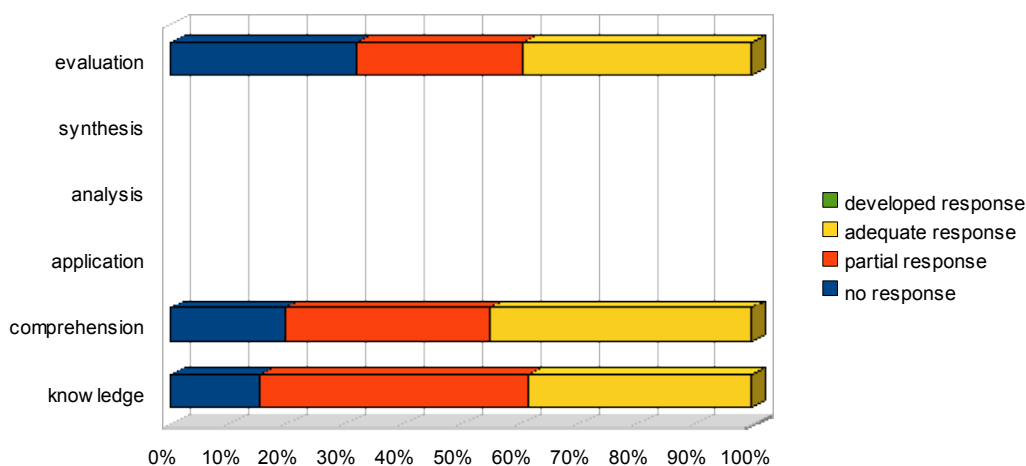
### Evaluation of the year 9

As previously stated, the 9<sup>th</sup> graders is the class which was marked as 0 as the level of English did not correspond to pupils' age group, in addition, was significantly lower. What is more, the other factors influencing the course of the lessons in a negative way were noticeable (the level of disruptive behaviour was high, discipline problems occurred very often, pupils avoided communication with the teacher). The overall classroom climate had an impact on the communication to a great extent. The results revealed that the highest score in pupils' responses reached number 3 (adequate response). However, the percentage of pupils' answers (number 3) did not even reach the results from the overall preview as pupils scored approximately 40% only, while in the overall preview, it was 50%. Level 5 in pupils' answers is not present at all. Moreover, the observations made in this particular class showed that pupils' reluctance to communication influenced



teacher's communication with the pupils in a negative way. The types of questions B<sub>3</sub> (Application), B<sub>4</sub>(Analysis), and B<sub>5</sub> (Synthesis) were not present at all.

question type	count	response type		
		no response	partial response	adequate response
evaluation	28	32.1% (9)	28.6% (8 )	39.3% (11)
synthesis	0	-	-	-
analysis	0	-	-	-
application	0	-	-	-
comprehension	20	20% (4)	35% (7)	45% (9)
knowledge	13	15.4% (2)	46.2% (6)	38.5% (5)



**Chart 8:** classification of the questions and answers in year 9

### 9.6.1c Zero usage of levels Application, Analysis, Synthesis

In the analysis of the observation sheets, there is a remarkable point to be made. As it could be seen from the charts, the distribution of various types of questions is not equal. Besides, the occurrence of teacher's questions B<sub>3</sub> (Application), B<sub>4</sub> (Analysis), and B<sub>5</sub> (Synthesis) is nearly irrelevant. One can wonder why is that so. One of the reasons might result from the fact that teachers are not familiar with using the Bloom's Taxonomy and its possibilities in their own teaching. Thus, if the Taxonomy is unknown to them, the teachers might not even consider asking such questions of higher-levels and they might

follow the same questioning pattern every time. Consequently, the pupils are disadvantaged not only in their learning of English, but also in the overall learning process. Their creative and critical thinking might drag behind as they would not be used to think in such a way the Bloom's Taxonomy enables. As it can be derived from the chart number 1: B<sub>3</sub>, B<sub>4</sub>, and B<sub>5</sub> questions played a minor role in teacher's questioning. The total number of B<sub>3</sub> questions were 4, the number of B<sub>4</sub> questions were 6 and B<sub>6</sub> questions were not present at all.

### 9.6.2 Evaluation of the data collected through pupils' questionnaires

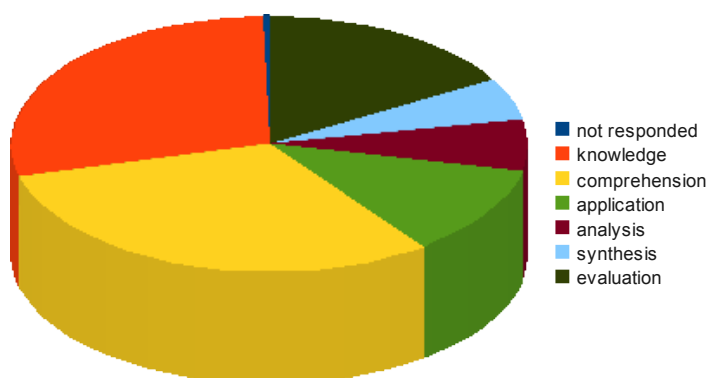
The questionnaires were distributed among pupils who were involved in the research, in other words, in the classes where observations were made and teachers were interviewed. The number of questionnaires obtained was 169 in total. This third data collection instrument was used to obtain the data from the pupils and to get yet another point of view on the topic of the thesis. The definite advantage of using the questionnaires was that the researcher obtained the data from many pupils in a relatively short time. The main aim was to find out what types of questions prevail in the lessons according to Bloom's Taxonomy. The questionnaire included 11 questions and was constructed in Czech language to simplify and make the process easier. The sample questionnaire is enclosed in the appendix. The questionnaire was more a closed one with multiple-choice answers. However, three questions were opened and closed at the same time. They consisted of multiple choice and a space for a pupil to fill in any other possibility.

The data were collected, then analysed and put in the chart to make them more visually understandable. The most crucial questions (numbers 5, 6 and 8) from the questionnaire are put into a graph to make them more visual-friendly. The thesis will analyse each question separately. Sometimes a few questions were left unanswered for unknown reasons.

From the first question it was clear, that the majority of teacher's questions are answered in the middle of the lesson in which the questions concern the subject matter. The second item are the procedural questions which deal with pupils' absence, homework etc.

The answers to the following questions were almost equally distributed. Nevertheless, the pupil-pupil interaction is the activity in which pupils answer the majority of questions. The third question concerned wait time in which pupils responded positively about teachers' providing them with sufficient time for their answers, the second item was entirely positive. The fourth question was answered both positively and negatively in a way that the majority of pupils enjoy responding to teacher's questions and likes discussing in the lesson. On the other hand, the second item was negative in which pupils express the dislike of answering the questions, moreover, they wait for somebody else to answer. The third item is worth mentioning as well because there were only 4 responses less than the previous one. Pupils stated that it makes them feel uncomfortable if nobody in the classroom answers a teacher's question.

not responded	knowledge	comprehension	application	analysis	synthesis	evaluation
1	75	81	30	17	14	43



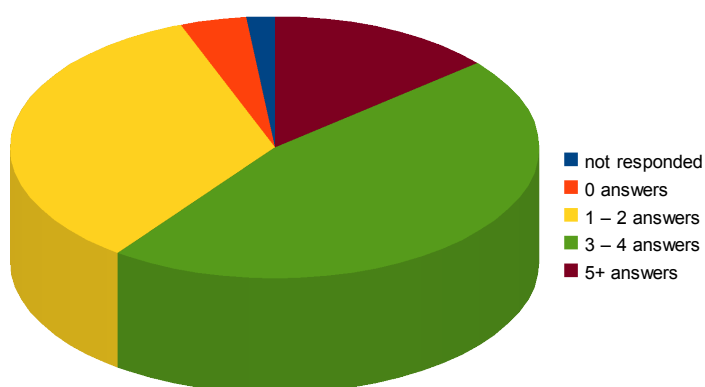
**Chart 8:** results from the question number 5 (adaptation of Bloom's taxonomy) in the pupil's questionnaire

The fifth question constituted the most important one from the whole questionnaire as it is closely related to the aim of the entire thesis. It concerns the types of the questions mostly asked by teachers and their mutual correlation to pupils' answers. The typology used in the questionnaire was adapted from the Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives and the questions for each level of the Bloom's pyramid were adjusted and simplified to make them more understandable for the pupils. All the levels from Knowledge to Evaluation were included and applied to a classroom situation. Not

surprisingly, the prevailing questions asked are of the second level (Comprehension) which is marked by a yellow colour. Nearly the same result but slightly less got the lowest level of Bloom's pyramid (Knowledge) which is marked by an orange colour. The third position is taken by the highest-level (Evaluation) marked by a dark green colour. However, the number is twice as low as the second position - Comprehension. The other numbers are not very significant. The fourth position was classified as Application marked by a bright green colour (the third level of Bloom's Taxonomy., The next one denotes Analysis marked by a violet colour (the third highest level of Bloom's Taxonomy). The last of the questions used is Synthesis marked by a blue colour (the second highest level of Bloom's taxonomy).

The results from the question number 5 were not satisfactory indeed as it can be seen that the types of the questions of Bloom's taxonomy are not employed fully. Moreover, the results revealed that the majority of questions asked in language classrooms do not promote higher-levels of thinking, nor communication skills. The results from the pupils' questionnaire correspond very closely to the results from the classroom observations .

not responded	0 answers	1 – 2 answers	3 – 4 answers	5+ answers
3	7	59	80	24



**Chart 9:** results from the question number 6 in the pupil's questionnaire

The sixth question was concerned with the quantity of pupils' responding to teacher's question. The results revealed that each pupil responds approximately three or

four times a lesson (marked by a green colour). In the second item (marked by a yellow colour) the number of responses came out negatively as pupils responded that they usually answer teacher's question once or twice in a lesson, which is not much. The third position (violet colour) presents 5 and more answers per lesson which can be considered a success, however, not many pupils chose this response. Surprisingly 7 pupils responded that they do answer none of teacher's question in a lesson (blue colour). The question was not responded by 3 pupils for unknown reasons.

The following question, number 7, was responded quite positively as pupils stated that if the teacher asks a question, they are able to express themselves sufficiently and adequately.

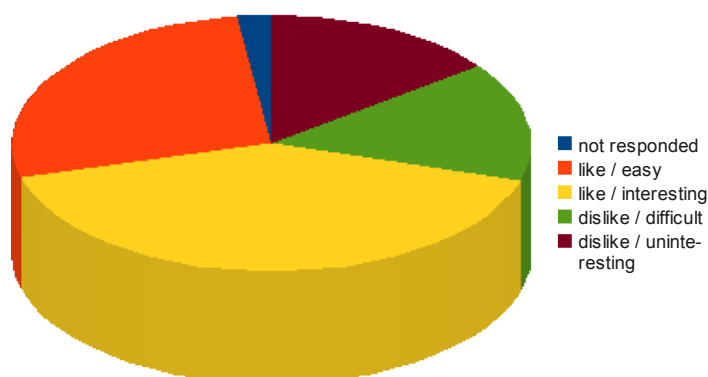
The responses in the question number 8 confirmed that pupils enjoy responding to teacher's question for two reasons. The first one corresponds with the fact that the questions teacher asks are interesting (marked by a yellow colour). This item scored the first position. The second reason is that those questions are easy (marked by an orange colour). The other 2 options which expressed negative attitude towards responding were answered with the equal numbers. Thus the third position (marked by a green colour) is occupied by responses which showed the dislike of answering because pupils consider them difficult. The last item were questions which pupils dislike as well because they are not interested in them (marked by a violet colour).

The question number 9 showed that pupils answer teacher's question on the average, nevertheless, the second and the third item revealed positive results as pupils declared that they like answering teacher's questions and the quantity of answers is high. The third position showed that pupils like answering questions despite the fact, that the number of questions asked is low.

The question number 10 dealt with the issue of a correct pupil's answer and the results confirmed that a teacher usually does not praise the pupils for a correct answer but rather confirms its correctness only. However, the second item which was teacher's praise,

showed similar number of responses as the first one, so it can be said that praising as well as confirming the right answer share both similar results. The third option of the question was open one, however, only 7 pupils used the possibility. The usual answer were the exact words of teacher's praise. The very last question in the pupils' questionnaire dealt with wrong answers and the results were nearly identical to the previous question dealing with correct answers. The first item was that the teacher does not comment on the wrong answer only disagrees with it, however, only two responses less got the open option in which pupils declared that if a pupil answers incorrectly, the teacher corrects him/her and says the correct answer.

not responded	like / easy	like / interesting	dislike / difficult	dislike / uninteresting
4	50	76	28	27



**Chart 10:** results from the the question number 9 in the pupil's questionnaire

### Overall results from pupils' questionnaire

To sum up the results from the pupils' questionnaire, it was revealed that the pupils respond to the questions to subject matter taught the most, the pupil-pupil interaction revealed to be the most used pattern in answering questions. Pupils usually have sufficient time to think and answer teacher's questions. When a question is asked by the teacher and the pupil knows the correct answer, he/she raises his/her hand because he/she likes answering to questions and discussion is also enjoyable. The type of question which is mostly asked according to Bloom's Taxonomy is the second level one (Comprehension).

A pupil usually answers a question 3 or 4 times per lesson and has a chance to express himself/herself sufficiently and adequately. The questions teachers ask are interesting for the pupils that is why they enjoy answering them. The number of answers in lessons of English are average, not excessive, neither insufficient. If a pupil's answer is correct, teacher usually does not comment on it, only confirms its correctness and if a pupil's answer is wrong, teacher again makes no comment on it, he/she only does not agree.

### **9.6.2 Evaluation of the data collected through the interviews with the teachers**

Each interview included the same questions and they were asked in the same order. The questions were as follows:

1. Do you prepare your questions for the lessons in advance?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages to have the questions prepared or unprepared?
3. Do you ask any type of questions on purpose or not? Do you expect diverse answers?
4. In your opinion, how much stress do you put on developing communication skills?
5. In your opinion, do you provide sufficient time for the pupils to answer your questions?
6. In your opinion, are there any types or typology of questions which incite pupils' communication?
7. In your opinion, what factors (aspects etc.) matter the most in question-asking when inciting communication is on focus?
8. Are you supported by any theoretical framework in your question-asking?

The thesis will analyse and compare all the responses from the teachers interviewed and made a final conclusion. Each question will be treated separately.

Not surprisingly, the questions asked were answered similarly in all three cases. The first question was answered in the same way by teacher C and teacher A who likewise declared that they do not prepare their questions in advance. Teacher A mentioned the pros of spontaneous way of asking and also stated that being pressured, it helps her to make up

better questions. Teacher C only stated that if the activity is not primarily aimed on speaking, the questions are not worth preparing. The opposite answer was given by teacher B who was positive about preparing questions in advance to each lesson.

The second question dealt with the pros and cons of prepared or unprepared questioning. Similarly, teacher C and teacher A shared the same opinion on the advantages or rather disadvantages of prepared questions as they declared that the particular questions need not to be prepared in advance because they emerge from the flow of the lesson themselves. Both the teachers want the lesson to be lively which, in their opinion, is not possible with prepared questions. Teacher A moreover states that it would be advisable to prepare at least some questions in advance, nevertheless, she adds that she would hardly ever follow them. However, teacher B differs from the previous opinions as she points out that she feels more secure when she has the questions prepared in advance so that the pupils cannot taken her by surprise so easily.

The following question was answered similarly by all the teachers. They congruently state that the majority of the questions are asked on purpose with the aim 'in mind'. The questions are aimed at reading comprehension or are related to grammar. Teacher B straightforwardly declared that some questions asked by her are primarily focused on inciting pupils' communication. Besides, the random questions are asked as well but they are of minor significance. The second part of the question dealt with the fact whether the teachers expect diverse responses. In this case, teacher C expressed her negative experience with pupils' communication as she admitted that she considers at least some response a success as pupils usually give one or two words answers only. In contrast, teacher A and teacher B expect diverse responses, However, they furthermore declare that it depends on the class and pupils involved to a great extent. In other words, some classes inclined to communication more, whereas others do not. Various other factors related to the issue will be stated further in the research.

One aspect in question number 4 was mentioned by all the teachers and it was that the focus on pupils' communication is crucial and very important, however, the teachers are



not really consistent with that. Teacher C and teacher B try to include some speaking activities in each of their lessons, however, teacher B points out that she is sometimes discouraged by pupils' not wanting to communicate enough and consequently she is not consistent with her intention. Teacher C solves the situation by preferring pupil-pupil interaction as she is able to involve all the pupils in the activity. Both teacher A and teacher C moreover add that during pair-work speaking activity, pupils need to be checked to speak the target language. In addition, teacher A admits that both her and the pupils are afraid of making mistakes, in spite of the fact, that she knows it is not the right way to learn the target language.

The following question was answered in a similar way by all the teachers as they stated that they provide the pupils with sufficient time to answer. On the other hand, if the pupils do not answer in the time provided, another pupil is asked to answer or a teacher asks the whole class so that it would not take so much time. One interesting point was made by teacher C who mentioned the psychological side of a teacher's questioning as she pointed out that pupils always need to know that each teacher's question is expected to be answered by a pupil who is called and therefore, there is not worth hurrying for the answer.

Teacher C and teacher A gave similar responses to the question number 6 as they share the same view on yes/no questions which, in their opinion, do not incite pupils' communication at all. Teacher C mentioned description as the main tool that works very well with boosting pupils' communication. This corresponds with the second level of Bloom's Taxonomy (Comprehension) in which the action verb 'to describe' is mentioned. Teacher B, on the other hand, pointed out that comparing is a success in her lessons if she wants to make pupils communicate.

Question number 7 dealt with the factors influencing inciting pupils' communication. In conclusion, all the teachers mentioned one factor which they think to be vital in inciting communication and that is the topic which should correspond to the pupils' age, their interests and hobbies. Other factors that matter, according to teachers, are the classroom

atmosphere and also whether the pupils get on well with each other. Instantaneous moods and feelings and the stage of a school term were among the other factors stated. What teacher A pointed out was very interesting indeed. She noticed that such activities as role-playing or a theatre performance had a very positive influence on pupils' communication in a way that they feel the language is a real tool of communication and not only the subject matter taught at school. The fact seem to be very appealing for them. Moreover, the pupils are not afraid of making mistakes, feel more free to use the target language in a real life situations.

The last question on the list was surprising to the researcher as teacher C and teacher A responded negatively and stated that they do not follow any theoretical framework when preparing their questions to the lessons. Only teacher B declared that she prepares the key words in advance and sometimes the questions itself, however, she also prefers to adjust the speaking activity to the actual classroom situation.

### **Conclusion of the teachers' interviews**

To conclude the teachers' interviews, it needs to be said that all the teachers interviewed consider classroom communication and its development very important, however, they mostly do not prepare their questions in advance and do not perceive that as the most significant issue. As far as the various types or a typology of questions are concerned, the teachers do not follow any particular scheme or taxonomy and rely mostly on how the classroom situation develops. Nevertheless, they all are aware of the fact that yes/no questions are not the best option if one wants to incite pupils' communication. Regarding the wait time for pupils' to answer teachers' questions, it was considered sufficient in all the cases.

As a result, all the teachers accordingly agreed on the fact that various other factors apart from the adequate questioning more importantly influence pupils' communication. Among the most mentioned factors were predominantly the conversational topic or area which would be appealing for the pupils or which would suit their age group, interests etc. Simultaneously, the time of a school year was considered very considerable factor

influencing pupils' communication. Not less important was a "sense of collaboration" in the classroom and how pupils get on with each other. Moreover, the factor of the instantaneous pupils' mood was mentioned by all the teachers.

## **9.7 The analysis and the comparison of all the data collected from the three data collection instruments**

The thesis analysed and compared the data obtained from all three collection data instruments (observations, pupils' questionnaires, and interviews with the teachers). The final conclusion is to be made. To sum up all the analysed data collected, various similarities can be noticed. The data obtained from the interviews with the teachers revealed that the teachers consider the development of classroom communication skills a very important matter. This fact corresponds with the data obtained from the pupils' questionnaires which showed that the pupils interact at least 3 or 4 times in each lesson.

The teachers also declared that they consider the wait time provided for the pupils to answer their questions long enough. The same results were derived from the pupils' questionnaires as they stated they judged the time for answering teacher's questions sufficient.

The data obtained from the pupils' questionnaires discovered that the most used interaction pattern when answering questions is the pupil-pupil interaction. The interviews revealed the same data as the teachers stated that they prefer pair-work or group-work. Moreover, they add that they are fully aware of the fact that the pair-work or group-work activities provide pupils' with frequent communication as the teacher cannot communicate with each single pupils to such extent.

The teachers' interviews also discovered that the more advanced level of English pupils have, the more communication takes place. In other words, pupils are able to express themselves more accurately and adequately and the teachers are prone to communicate with them more frequently.

The last implication and the most crucial and relevant for the thesis is the use of question types according to Bloom' Taxonomy. The results of the observations and the interviews showed that the most used type of question is B<sub>2</sub> (Comprehension), the following one is B<sub>1</sub> (Knowledge), and the third is B<sub>6</sub> (Evaluation). The reasons for not using the other types more often are stated above.

## **9.8 Research conclusion**

The aim of the small scale research was to carry out the case study in order to answer two research questions which are stated in the beginning of this chapter. The theoretical part of the thesis provided the basis for the research. The first research question (Q<sub>1</sub>) was related to the use of teacher's questions and pupils' answers. The Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives provided the criterion for the classification of the questions. It was to find out whether there is a correlation between the teacher's question asked and the amount of pupil's communication. To be more precise, the question is, whether a higher-level question according to Bloom' Taxonomy promotes a more complex answer of the pupil. The second research question (Q<sub>2</sub>) concerned the possibility of pupils' level of English influencing a classroom communication based on a teacher's question.

The findings of the research questions are based on the data collected and analysed. As far as the first research question is concerned, the research results revealed that there is a directly-proportional correlation between the higher-level question asked and the pupil's progress to more complex answer. The adequacy of the pupils' answers increased with the higher-level questions asked. However, it must be pointed out that the analysis of the questions concerned mainly three types of the Bloom's Taxonomy which were predominantly used by the teachers. The total number of the remaining types of questions was insignificant. That is why they were not included in the analysis. The questions which prevailed in the classification were B<sub>2</sub> (Comprehension), B<sub>1</sub> (Knowledge), and B<sub>6</sub> (Evaluation) respectively.

Both of the research questions had mutual influence on each other. Thus, the results

obtained from Q<sub>1</sub> are interrelated with Q<sub>2</sub>. Regarding the second research question (Q<sub>2</sub>), the research results indicate that the pupil's level of English dramatically influences the classroom communication in relation to the teacher's question. Each class involved in the research was marked by 0 to 5 according to the year they were in. The directly-proportional correlation to the higher level of English and a pupil's communication or rather complex answer is observed. The chart depicts a rising tendency both in percentage and numbers as well. It needs to be said that the year 9 was an exception as the pupils' level of English did not correspond to their grade. Thus, the class was marked as 0. The results of this class revealed that the other factors (reluctance to cooperation and communication with a teacher, high level of disruptive behaviour and overall unfavourable classroom atmosphere) influencing the course of communication played a more significant role than the type of question asked. Those factors which have an impact on the course of classroom communication can be observed in each class, nevertheless, the ratio is different with each class and situation.

Undoubtedly, it is important to mention that the research worked with a limited amount of data and the research conclusion should not be generalized. However, it might serve as a basis for another research of similar kind.

## 10. Conclusion of the thesis

---

As it was stated in the beginning of the thesis, communication as well as questioning serve as a means of interaction among people and is encountered on a daily basis. Similarly, in a classroom setting, the teacher is considered to be a professional 'communicator', moreover, a 'question-asker'. Communication in the pedagogical context serves mainly for eliciting information. However, if a second language classroom is taken into account, communication in the target language is employed as a means for acquiring the target language. The purpose of the thesis was to present and analyse the relevant data on the issue of communication in general as well as other aspects related to it. The thesis was engaged with various factors which have an impact on the course of classroom communication. The thesis was divided into two parts: the theoretical and the practical part. Those are closely interrelated.

The first part of the thesis is subdivided into chapters which provide a theoretical coverage on the following issues: communication in general, various types of communication, the concept of communicative competence, interaction related to an English language classroom, participants of classroom communication, and the proportion of teacher's and learner's talk. The crucial chapter named Questioning skills, is engaged mostly in comparing various taxonomies of questions. The basis for this comparison is provided by the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives by Benjamin Bloom. The Taxonomy is further used in the second part of the thesis (the practical one) for the classification of questions obtained in the research. The theoretical part of the thesis provided the theoretical coverage and a valuable basis for the research.

The practical part of the paper contains the description of the small-scale research and its results. The aim of the practical part was to investigate and to reveal what was suggested in the theoretical part and to answer the two research questions.

Q<sub>1</sub> concerned the issue whether there is a correlation to the higher-level type of question asked, and the pupil's more complex answer. In other words, the question investigated, whether pupils' communication is promoted by these types of questions. The research results revealed the theoretical background to be true. Pupils' answers are more complex if the higher-level question is asked and the communication is promoted. However, there are many other factors which influence the course of the classroom communication (disruptive behaviour, reluctance to cooperate and communicate etc.). These and more factors have an impact on the overall classroom interaction.

Q<sub>2</sub> dealt with the influence of pupils' level of English on classroom communication which is promoted by teacher's question. The results indicated that the level of pupils' English is remarkably important as the teachers' questions are answered more adequately and the classroom communication is promoted more significantly. The charts displayed a rising tendency in relation to the grades the pupils attend. However, as the first research question one revealed as well, the exception was year 9 as the results of this class corresponded neither to the grade, nor the pupils' age. Moreover, other factors had a more considerable influence on the course of the classroom communication.

It is necessary to be aware of the complexity of the topic of the thesis as the researcher worked with the limited amount of the data. Thus, the results of the research cannot be generalized. However, in my opinion, the practical as well as the theoretical part of the thesis provided the valuable insight into the topic of communication and questioning especially in relation with the Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. The paper may be used for other researches concerning this topic.

## 11. Resumé

---

Trend současné výuky cizích jazyků, i ve vyučovacím procesu obecně, klade důraz na rozvoj komunikativních dovedností, a již neupřednostňuje pouze sumu encyklopedických znalostí, jak tomu bylo dříve. V rámci tohoto posunu ve výchovně-vzdělávacím procesu došlo i k rozsáhlejší a detailnější diskuzi na téma komunikace ve třídě, komunikativní kompetence, interakce a dalších aspektů vyučovacího procesu. Všechny tyto aspekty výrazně přispívají k lepšímu osvojení si cizího jazyka. Efektivní dotazování ze strany učitele a následné žákovy odpovědi jsou dalšími faktory, které přispívají k rozvoji komunikativní kompetence. Pokud je tato metoda využívána vhodným způsobem, komunikace ve třídě může výrazným způsobem posílit a osvojení jazyka se následně stane snazším a přirozenějším. Existuje mnoho typologií, které se kladením otázek ve třídě zabývají, ale pouze málo z nich se specializuje na cizojazyčnou výuku. I tato diplomová práce, a především její praktická část, vychází z taxonomie vzdělávacích cílů Benjamina Blooma, která nebyla vytvořena specificky pro výuku cizích jazyků, ale pouze na úrovni obecného dotazování různé hierarchie a metakognice. Avšak je zajímavé, že ostatní významné typologie sdílejí značnou podobnost právě s taxonomií Benjamina Blooma. Navíc je nutno říci, že Bloomova taxonomie může být, a je využívána ve třídách s cizojazyčnou výukou.

Cílem diplomové práce je se na základě teoretických znalostí i praktického výzkumu pokusit dokázat, zda existuje vztah mezi otázkou položenou učitelem a žákovou odpovědí, a to ve smyslu podpory schopnosti komunikace žáků. Jinými slovy v diplomové práci hledáme odpověď na to, zda tzv. otázky vyššího řádu (podle Bloomovy taxonomie) podporují komplexnější odpovědi na straně žáka, se zřetelem k rozvoji jeho komunikativních dovedností. K tomu se práce věnuje i jinému aspektu, který souvisí s učitelovou prací ve třídě při výuce cizího jazyka, a to problematikou, již vyvolává otázka, zdali úroveň anglického jazyka dané třídy nějakým (příp. jakým) způsobem ovlivňuje žákovskou komunikaci.



Diplomová práce se skládá z části teoretické a praktické, které jsou úzce propojeny. Všechny kapitoly teoretické části mají společného jmenovatele, a tím je komunikace, na niž nahlížíme z různých úhlů pohledu. První kapitola pojednává o komunikaci v obecném slova smyslu, podrobněji pak o komunikaci sociální a komunikaci ve třídě. Zmíněny jsou zde také tzv. konverzační maximy, které představují zásady o vyvážené komunikaci. Dále se diplomová práce zaměřuje specificky na školní vyučování ve smyslu skrytého kurikula, které představuje další zásady o správném jednání a interakci se členy výchovně-vzdělávacího procesu. Různým druhům komunikace (verbální, neverbální a komunikaci činem) je věnována nemalá část teoretické části, z níž ta nejobsáhlejší pojednává o verbální komunikaci, jež je ústředním bodem analýzy celé práce.

Následující kapitola nazvaná komunikativní kompetence pojednává o této komplexní problematice od jejich počátků až po současnost. Zmiňujeme je také řadu autorů, kteří se daným tématem zabývali a jejichž práce se orientují několika směry, jak teoretickými (Chomsky, Bachman), tak i praktickými (Hedge, Krashen).

Další oddíl diplomové práce nastiňuje problematiku interakce, zabývá se pojmy sociální a pedagogická interakce, a ty úzce korespondují s pedagogickou komunikací, navíc jsou její součástí. Neméně významným aspektem výuky, kterému se věnujeme, jsou interakční žánry ve vyučovacím procesu a interakční styl učitele, který může výrazně ovlivnit průběh komunikace ve třídě. Faktem je, že každý učitel má svůj specifický interakční žánr a v tomto smyslu se každá hodina stává jedinečnou, přestože interakční styl má tendenci se opakovat. Faktorem stojícím za zmínku je také interakční zóna učitele, která charakterizuje rozvržení komunikace ve třídě. I když je tato zóna určitým způsobem zadána, svou roli hraje i zasedací pořádek, k tomu i sympatie nebo naopak antipatie každého učitele k jednotlivým žákům. S daným problémem úzce souvisí interakční kompetence, která se týká žáků, přičemž se zabýváme jedním jejím aspektem, a to kdy klást otázky a odpovídat na ně.

Následující kapitola je zaměřena na účastníky komunikace ve třídě a zabývá se rolí, která každá osoba naplňuje a které ovlivňují interakci s ostatními. Jedná se tedy o role

učitele a žáka. Přestože je zřejmé, že obě dvě role jsou ve vyučovacím procesu úzce propojeny, je potřeba zmínit, že role žáka není v odborné literatuře zdaleka popsána v takové míře jako role učitele. Dále se v této kapitole věnujeme asymetrii účastníků výchovně-vzdělávacího procesu, kde na jedné straně stojí dospělá osoba, učitel, a na straně druhé skupina žáků. Jelikož učitel většinou nekomunikuje s každým žákem jednotlivě, dochází ke komunikaci masové. Dalším důležitým prvkem, který kontroluje průběh výuky, jsou pravidla určující dominantní postavení učitele ve třídě a jeho kontrolu celého vyučovacího procesu. Míra dominantního a na druhé straně liberálního postoje je u každého učitele různá, navíc se míra dominance může postupem času měnit.

Kapitola sedmá se zabývá poměrem žákovské a učitelovy komunikace ve vyučování. Mnoho autorů vyjadřuje znepokojení nad přemírou učitelovy komunikace a jejím nedostatkem ze strany žáků, což může vést k pouhému zprostředkování poznatků a ne k cílenému rozvoji komunikace. Tento známý nepoměr byl pojmenován „zákonem dvou třetin“, který říká, že z celkové komunikace ve vyučování zaujímá žákovská komunikace pouhou třetinu a dvě třetiny učitel.

Z hlediska celé diplomové práce je nejdůležitější kapitola osmá, která se věnuje přímo otázkám, možnostem jejich kladení a mnoha dalšími faktory, které tento akt řeči ovlivňují, například jak může kladení efektivních otázek zlepšovat žákovo učení. Zcela zásadní roli hraje již několikrát zmíněná taxonomie vzdělávacích cílů Benjamina Blooma, která tvoří základ pro srovnávání s dalšími taxonomiemi otázek. Bloomovu taxonomii jsme využili jak v teoretické, tak v praktické části práce, kde ve druhé zde uvedené tvoří nejpodstatnější část výzkumu. Ten se zabývá vzájemným vztahem otázek kladených učitelem a odpověďmi žáků, přičemž otázky jsou klasifikované podle Bloomovy taxonomie. Zmíněná taxonomie je důležitá nejen z hlediska kladení otázek, ale také z pohledu rozvíjení žákova kreativního myšlení a uvažování, které se pomocí efektivních otázek výrazně lepší. Ve výzkumu se objevují další dva typy otázek, které ovšem nespádají do Bloomovy taxonomie, ale které také patří mezi neméně významné typologie otázek. Jsou to otázky, na něž učitel předem zná odpověď, a otázky, které se nazývají reálné, jejichž odpověď dopředu známá není. Dalším faktorem ovlivňujícím žákovskou

komunikaci ve třídě je doba, po kterou učitel čeká na žakovu odpověď a která by měla poskytnout prostor na promyšlení si odpovědi. Související záležitostí je také učitelova pochvala anebo kritika, která má především motivační vliv. V neposlední řadě tato kapitola obsahuje vzorové otázky ke každému stupni Bloomovy taxonomie a navíc popis informující o tom, jaké aspekty každý stupeň obsahuje. Každá taxonomie a její specifika jsou popsány zvlášť.

Druhou částí diplomové práce je samostatný výzkum, který si klade za cíl odpovědět na dvě zásadní otázky. Zda existuje přímo úměrný vztah mezi učitelovou otázkou a žakovou odpovědí, tzn. zda dochází k podpoře komunikace kladením otázek vyššího řádu. Druhá otázka se zabývá problematikou úrovně anglického jazyka žáků a jejím potenciálním ovlivněním komunikace ve třídě. Výzkum probíhal na dvou školách v Třebíči a jedné v Brně, konkrétně se ho účastnili tři učitelé celkově v osmi třídách. Praktická část diplomové práce je věnována popisu jednotlivých fází výzkumu, tedy sběru, analýze a evaluaci dat. Samotnému výzkumu předcházely problémy s videonahrávkou pozorovaných tříd, která se nakonec (kvůli nesouhlasu některých rodičů) nemohla uskutečnit, a tak musela být kamera nahrazena diktafonem. Výzkum byl proveden případovou studií. Ke sběru dat jsme použili strukturovaného pozorování ve třídě, rozhovorů s učiteli a žakovské dotazníky, k samotné observaci ve třídách potom výše zmíněný diktafon a také záznamový arch. Žakovské dotazníky (které jsme v pilotní fázi výzkumu vyzkoušeli), spolu s rozhovory s učiteli, jsme využili k dotvoření celkového obrazu dané třídy.

V následující části se zabýváme analýzou získaných dat. Tato data získaná z pozorování, rozhovorů a z dotazníků jsou následně interpretována a evaluována. Analýza dat ze strukturovaného pozorování ve třídách ukázala, že ne všechny položené otázky mohly být klasifikovány podle Bloomovy taxonomie, a proto byly některé z nich byly z různých důvodů (např. otázky byly kladeny v českém jazyce nebo měli spíše funkci rozkazu) vyřazeny z klasifikace. Je nutné říci, že v každé třídě byly výsledky pozorování zcela rozdílné, zejména z důvodu různorodosti výukových stylů učitelů a jejich používání cílového jazyka. Každá třída byla označena číselně od 0 do 6 v závislosti na dané znalosti

anglického jazyka, přičemž třídy nejnižší byly označeny číslem 1 a nejvyšší číslem 5. Výjimku tvořila devátá třída, která se vymykala téměř všemi aspekty, a proto dostala označení 0. Výsledky rozboru (očekávaně) prokázaly, že kladením otázek vyššího řádu dochází k podpoře žákovské komunikace, eliminují se jedno a dvouslovné odpovědi a odpovědi žáků jsou celkově komplexnější. Na druhé straně jsme narazili na mnoho faktorů, které jsou následně v analýze uvedeny a které tuto komunikaci ovlivňují, a zároveň jsou neméně důležité

Výše zmíněné rozhovory s učiteli posloužily jako další nástroj ke sběru dat a jejich výsledky prokázaly, že dotazovaní učitelé skutečně kladou důraz na rozvoj komunikace ve třídě, nicméně své otázky si do výuky nepřipravují předem a neřídí se žádnou z typologií otázek, protože tento aspekt nepovažují za rozhodující, spíše aktuálně reagují na danou situaci ve třídě. K danému také uvádíme faktory, které podle učitelů významně ovlivňují průběh žákovské komunikace. V neposlední řadě se musíme zmínit o žákovských dotaznících, které také sloužily jako další nástroj sběru dat, jež odhalil podobné výsledky jako observace ve třídách. Nejvýznamnější položkou je zajisté typ otázek, které učitel nejčastěji pokládá. Analýza observací, stejně jako dotazníku, prokázala, že nejčastějším typem otázky je druhý stupeň Bloomovy taxonomie, tedy „porozumění“, druhým nejčastějším typem je první, nejnižší stupeň a tím je „znalost“, a třetím typem je nejvyšší stupeň tedy „hodnocení“. Kladně byly vyhodnoceny další otázky z žákovských dotazníků, jež odhalily, že učitelé žákovi typicky poskytují dostatečně dlouhý čas na rozmyšlení si odpovědi a většina otázek, které učitel klade, jsou zajímavé a žáci na ně rádi odpovídají.

Je zřejmé, že případová studie pracovala jen s omezeným množstvím dat, a proto by výsledky výzkumu neměly být zobecňovány. Je tomu tak zejména z toho důvodu, že rozsah i specifikace diplomová práce na danou problematiku umožňují pouze limitovaný náhled. Na druhé straně výsledky práce poskytují cenný materiál o tom, jak může být Bloomova taxonomie vzdělávacích cílů využita ve vyučovacím procesu a jaké výsledky přináší. Tyto informace by tedy mohly posloužit jako výchozí bod pro další zkoumání dané problematiky.

## 12. Bibliography

---

ALCORN, Christopher G. *Improving Student Knowledge through Experiential Learning – A Hands-On Statics Lab at Virginia Tech* [online]. Virginia Polytechnic Institute, 2003 [cit. 2009-06-30]. URL:

<<http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/theses/available/etd-07012003-215241/unrestricted/ETD-AlcornReport-072803.pdf>>

ALLWRIGHT, Dick et al. *Focus on the language classroom: An Introduction to Classroom Research for Language Teachers*. Cambridge University Press: 1991.

ISBN 0521269091, 9780521269094.

BACHMAN, Lyle F. *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford University Press 1990. ISBN: 0-19-437003-8.

BELZ, Horst – SIEGRIST, Marco. *Klíčové kompetence a jejich rozvíjení*. Kursbuch Schlüsselqualifikationen, překlad Dana Lisá. Praha: Portál, s.r.o., 2001.

ISBN 80-7178-479-6.

BROWN, James Dean. *Understanding Research in Second Language Learning: A Teacher's Guide to Statistics and Research Design*. Cambridge University Press, 2002.

ISBN: 0521315514.

CANGELOSI, James S. *Classroom management strategies: Gaining and Maintaining Students' Cooperation*. New York: Longman Inc, 1988. ISBN 0-582-28638-7.

Council of Europe. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* [online]. 2004 [cit. 2009-06-30] URL:

<[http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework\\_EN.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Framework_EN.pdf)>

DALTON-PUFFER, Christiane. *Discourse in Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms*. John Benjamins Publishing Company: 2007. ISBN 9027219796, 9789027219794.

GAVORA, Peter. *Učitel a žáci v komunikaci*. Brno: Paido, 2005. ISBN 80-7315-104-9.

GAYLE, Barbara Mae et al. *Classroom Communication and Instructional Processes: Advances Through Meta-Analysis*. Routledge: 2006. ISBN 0805844244, 9780805844245

HARMER, Jeremy. *The Practice of English language teaching*. Harlow: Longman, 1992. ISBN 0-582-04656-4.

HEDGE, Tricia. *Teaching And Learning In The Language Classroom*. Oxford University Press, 2000. ISBN: 0194421724.

HINKEL, Eli. *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Routledge: 2005. ISBN 0805841806, 9780805841800.

JACOBSON, Rodolfo – FALTIS, Christian. *Language Distribution Issues in Bilingual Schooling*. Multilingual Matters, 1990. ISBN 1853590452, 9781853590450.

KALHOUS, Zdeněk – OBST, Otto et al. *Školní didaktika*. Praha: Portál, 2002. ISBN 80-7178-253-X.

KASÍKOVÁ, Hana – VALIŠOVÁ, Alena et al. *Pedagogika pro učitele*. Praha: Grada Publishing a.s., 2007. ISBN 978-80-247-1734-0.

KOLÁŘ, Zdeněk – ŠIKULOVÁ, Renata. *Vyučování jako dialog*. Praha: Grada Publishing a. s., 2007. ISBN 978-80-247-1541-4.

KYRIACOU, Chris. *Klíčové dovednosti učitele – Cesty k lepšímu vyučování*. Essential teaching skills, přeložili Dominik Dvořák a Milan Koldinský. 2. Vydání. PORTÁL 2004. ISBN 978-80-7367-434-2

LIER, Van, Leo; CORSON, David. *Encyclopedia of Language and Education. Volume 6: Knowledge about Language*. Springer: 1997. ISBN 0792349334, 9780792349334.

LIU, Wei. *Design of Text-based Questions from the Study of Typology of Questions*. USA. Jishou University: 2005. ISSN 1539-8072.

LYNCH, Tony. *Communication in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1996. ISBN 978-0194335225.

MAREŠ, Jiří - KŘIVOHLAVÝ, Jaro. *Komunikace ve škole*. Brno: Masarykova univerzita, 1995. ISBN 80-210-1070-3.

MIELL, Dorothy – DALLOS, Rudi. *Social interaction and personal relationships*. SAGE, 1996. ISBN 0761950362, 9780761950363.

NEILL, Sean Rupert St. John. *Classroom nonverbal communication*. Routledge, 1991. ISBN 0415026636, 9780415026635.

NELEŠOVSKÁ, Alena. *Pedagogická komunikace v teorii a praxi*. Praha: Grada Publishing a. s., 2005. ISBN 80-247-0738-1.

NUNAN, David. *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge University Press, 1989. ISBN 0521379156, 9780521379151.

- NUNAN, David. *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge University Press, 1992. ISBN 0521429684.
- NUNAN, David – LAMB, Clarice. *The Self-directed Teacher: Managing the Learning Process*. Cambridge University Press: 1996. ISBN 0521497736, 9780521497732.
- NUNAN, David. *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: CUP, 2001. ISBN 0-521-37915-6.
- NUNN, Roger. *The Purposes of Language Teachers' Questions* [online]. International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching (IRAL). MOUTON DE GRUYTER 1999. ISSN: 0019-042X. URL: <<http://iii.cc.kochi-u.ac.jp/~nunn/IRAL1.pdf>>
- PETTY, Geoffrey. *Moderní vyučování*. Teaching Today, překlad: Štěpán Kovařík. Praha: Portál, 2004. ISBN 80-7178-978-X.
- POWELL, G. Robert – CASEAU, Dana. *Classroom Communication and Diversity*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: 2004. ISBN 0805840265, 9780805840261.
- PRŮCHA, Jan. *Moderní pedagogika. 2. přepracované a aktualizované vydání*. Praha: Portál, 1997. ISBN 80-7178-170-3.
- RICHARDS, Jack C. – LOCKHART, Charles. *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge: CUP, 1996. ISBN 0-521-45803-X.
- RICHARDS, Jack C. – RODGERS, Theodore S. *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001. ISBN: 0-521-00843-3.
- SKALKOVÁ, Jarmila. *Obecná didaktika*. Praha: ISV, 1999. ISBN 80-85866-33-1..
- SWANSON, Terri Cooper – BEAHM, Jenna. *The Hidden Curriculum of Postsecondary Education and Employment* [online]. 2008 [cit. 2009-06-30]. URL: <<http://soe.ku.edu/uploads/specialedu/temp-docs/50th-Anniversary/PDD%20Sessions/K8.ppt>>
- SYMLOG Consulting Group. *What is SYMLOG* [online]. 2009 [cit. 2009-06-30]. URL: <[http://www.symlog.com/internet/what\\_is\\_symlog/what\\_is\\_symlog-01a.htm](http://www.symlog.com/internet/what_is_symlog/what_is_symlog-01a.htm)>
- WAJNRYB, Ruth. *Classroom observation tasks: a resource book for language teachers and trainers*. Cambridge University Press, 1992. ISBN 0521407222, 9780521407229.
- WALSH, Jackie A. – SATTES, Beth Dankert. *Quality questioning: research-based practice to engage every learner*. Corwin Press, 2004. ISBN 1412909864, 9781412909860

WILEN, W. William. *Questions, Questioning Techniques, and Effective Teaching*. Washington. D. C. National Education Association: 1987. ISBN 0-8106-1485-5.

WRIGHT, Tony. *Roles of teachers and learners*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1987. ISBN 0 19 437133 6.



# 13. Appendices

## 13.1 Sample questions and answers

Question type	Partial response	Adequate response	Developed response
<b>B1 - knowledge</b>	Q: Any news from the field of culture? A: yes	Q: What disasters do you know? A: <i>twister, tornado, car accidents</i>	Q: What about the celebrities in the news? A: <i>Alexandr Rybalkov from Russia won the European song contest...</i>
<b>B2 - comprehension</b>	Q: Could you tell us what happened on 9/11? A: <i>Planes crashed</i>	Q: What did you do at the weekend? A: <i>I was at home and I worked with my father.</i>	Q: Doro, can you describe your stay in Germany? A: <i>We arrived in German on Friday night, on Saturday we went to visit some castle and on Mercedes-Benz museum, on Sunday we had...</i>
<b>B3 - application</b>	Q: Could you make a sample sentence? A: <i>I going to school.</i>	Q: Katko, can you see any ellipsis? A: <i>Hope people get into it.</i>	- no developed response was given -
<b>B4 - analysis</b>	Q: Can you compare your real holiday and your dream holiday? A: <i>I want to fly by plane.</i>	Q: What was the problem with the killer? A: <i>He did not know what to do.</i>	Q: How does the story might end? A: <i>Lucy might win milion dollars and buy a new car.</i>
<b>B5 - synthesis</b>	- not a single question was asked-		
<b>B6 - evaluation</b>	Q: What is good about video games, Tome? A: <i>Killing time.</i>	Q: Domco, tell us why do you think the video-games are bad? A: <i>I think video games are bad because we will have a bad sight.</i>	Q: What is your opinion on the Matrix, Emil? A: <i>They see everything in a different way. You doubt whether everything is real or not. Is it fiction, are we on drugs or is it real?</i>

## 13.2 Pupil's questionnaire

### Dotazník studenta

1. V jaké části hodiny angličtiny nejvíce odpovídáš na otázky?
  - na začátku hodiny (otázky týkající se docházky, domácích úkolů atd.)
  - uprostřed hodiny (otázky týkající se probíraného tématu)
  - na konci hodiny (otázky týkající se učitelovy zpětné vazby, domácích úkolů..)
  
2. Při jaké aktivitě v hodině angličtiny nejvíce odpovídáš na otázky?
  - organizační záležitosti
  - otázky na porozumění textu/ poslechu
  - otázky týkající se gramatiky
  - otázky týkající se slovní zásoby
  - diskuze na nějaké téma
  - práce v týmu/dvojici
  - rozhovor učitel-žák
  - rozhovor žák-žák
  
3. Když mi učitel v hodině angličtiny položí otázku mám dostatečně dlouhý čas si odpověď rozmyslet:
  - ano
  - většinou ano
  - většinou ne
  - ne
  
4. Pokud učitel v hodině angličtiny položí otázku celé třídě tak:
  - přihlásím se, pokud znám odpověď, protože...
    - rád(a) odpovídám a baví mě diskutovat
    - je trapné když nikdo neodpoví
    - jiný důvod (doplň): .....
  - nepřihlásím se, i když znám odpověď, protože...
    - nerad odpovídám, čekám až odpoví někdo jiný
    - nerad odpovídám, bojím se špatné odpovědi
    - jiný důvod (doplň): .....
  - nepřihlásím se, protože
    - většinou neznám odpověď
  
5. Nejčastěji v hodinách angličtiny odpovídám na otázky, ve kterých
  - vyjmenovávám, opakuji již probranou látku.  
Např. *Která zvířata na obrázku umíš anglicky vyjmenovat?*
  - popisuji, vysvětluji, vybírám  
Např. *Co dělají lidé na obrázku?*
  - používám svoje znalosti v praxi  
Např. *Jakou otázku bys položil svému oblíbenému zpěvákovi, kdybys měl tu možnost?*
  - porovnávám, zkoumám  
Např. *Jak se liší tvůj víkend s rodiči a s kamarády?*
  - plánuji, navrhuji, vytvářím  
Např. *Potkáš ve městě cizince, který se tě zeptá, co je tady k vidění. Jaký bys mu navrhl plán cesty? Kam se má podívat nejdříve, a co musí dále vidět, a kam zajít na oběd?*
  - hodnotím, kritizuji, oceňuji, obhajuji svoji volbu  
Např. *Která z předvedených postavíček z komiksu se ti líbila nejvíce a proč? Jaká postava z článku ti přijde nejvíce zajímavá a proč?*

6. V hodině angličtiny většinou odpovím učitelí na otázku:
- vůbec
  - velmi málo 1x – 2x během hodiny
  - průměrně 3x – 4x během hodiny
  - často 5x a více během hodiny
7. Když dostanu během hodiny angličtiny otázku, mám možnost a čas se vyjádřit úplně, tak jak chci a potřebuji.
- ano
  - ne, myslím si, že učitel na odpověď spěchá
  - ne, učitele nezajímají moje názory
  - nevím
8. Na otázky v hodinách angličtiny odpovídám:
- rád(a), protože jsou lehké
  - rád(a), protože jsou zajímavé
  - nerad(a), protože jsou těžké
  - nerad(a), protože mě nezajímají
9. V hodinách angličtiny odpovídám:
- hodně a rád
  - hodně a nerad
  - průměrně
  - málo a rád
  - málo a nerad
  - nevím
10. Při správné odpovědi v hodině angličtiny mě učitel většinou
- slovně pochválí
  - odpověď nekomentuje, pouze potvrdí její správnost
  - jiná možnost (doplň): .....
11. Při špatné odpovědi v hodině angličtiny učitel většinou
- moji odpověď zkritizuje
  - odpověď nekomentuje, pouze s ní nesouhlasí
  - jiná možnost (doplň): .....

### 13.3 Pupil's questionnaire results

Question	Not responded.	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h
<b>Question 1</b> V jaké části hodiny angličtiny nejvíce odpovídáš na otázky?	3	48	114	21					
<b>Question 2</b> Při jaké aktivitě v hodině angličtiny nejvíce odpovídáš na otázky?	2	22	42	27	35	50	44	38	51
<b>Question 3</b> Když mi učitel v hodině angličtiny položí otázku mám dostatečně dlouhý čas si odpověď rozmyslet:	1	52	82	23	13				
<b>Question 4</b> Pokud učitel v hodině angličtiny položí otázku celé třídě tak:	3	68	40	14	44	38	18	32	
<b>Question 5</b> Nejčastěji v hodinách angličtiny odpovídám na otázky, ve kterých	1	75	81	30	17	14	43		
<b>Question 6</b> V hodině angličtiny většinou odpovím učiteli na otázku:	3	7	59	80	24				
<b>Question 7</b> Když dostanu během hodiny angličtiny otázku, mám možnost a čas se vyjádřit úplně, tak jak chci a potřebuji.	3	103	33	6	24				
<b>Question 8</b> Na otázky v hodinách angličtiny odpovídám:	4	50	76	28	27				
<b>Question 9</b> V hodinách angličtiny odpovídám:	1	27	1	96	16	19	16		
<b>Question 10</b> Při správné odpovědi v hodině angličtiny mě učitel většinou:	3	79	87	9					
<b>Question 11</b> Při špatné odpovědi v hodině angličtiny učitel většinou:	2	31	69	67					

## 13.4 Draft of the observation sheet

### Observation sheet - draft

Lesson phase	Activity	Teacher's question	Wait time	Question type	No "hands up" rule	Student's response	Response type	Teacher's response	Comments

Lesson phase - opening, middle, closing

Activity - e.g. discussion, listening comprehension, reading comprehension... etc.

Teacher's question - exact words

Wait time [in seconds] - at least 3 seconds is preferable to promote communication

Question type (Bloom's taxonomy, display/referential q., processual q.,)

Observer tries to analyze which type of question (according to Bloom's taxonomy) is used, the verbs help to recognize whether a student recite facts or participate in routine practices or was engaged in higher levels of thinking in order to analyze, synthesize or evaluate. The higher-order questions are preferable.

1. Knowledge - *tell, recall, state, recognize, name, select, reply, write, identify, describe, list, give, find*
2. Comprehension - *understand define, explain, distinguish, report, outline, locate, predict, review, translate, discuss*
3. Application - *apply, practice, use, calculate, demonstrate, illustrate, dramatize, interpret, show, sort*
4. Analysis - *analyze, investigate, contrast, compare, question, separate, relate, estimate, adapt*
5. Synthesis - *judge, decide, rate, verify, evaluate, rank, argue, predict, choose, justify, prioritize*
6. Evaluation - *compose, improve, design, suggest, construct, propose, synthesize, build, generate, devise, invent, create, formulate, imagine*

**Display/Referential questions, Processual questions**

Display - for which a teacher knows the single correct answer and is checking student's knowledge of correct language pronunciation, a student is supposed to only recall facts already known.

Referential - for which there are real appropriate answers, the teacher is genuinely interested in the answer. This type of questions require students to use higher-level of thinking and possibly longer and more complex answer. Referential questions are preferable.

Processual q.- In language learning environment in which a target language is used, all questions contribute to the promotion of learning and better understanding of the language.

No "hands up" rule - any person can be called on for any question, not only volunteers. This means that students need thinking time (i.e. A wait time from you after students hear the question - and then another wait time after their response, while you wait for elaboration or qualification )

Student's response - exact words

(Student's) response type - scale 1 - 5 (1. no response, 2. responded partially, 3. responded, 4. responded and developed answer after another teacher's question, 5. gave a complex response and developed his thoughts without teacher's intervention)

Teacher's response - exact words, tell a student if the answer is acceptable or not (correct or incorrect), praise or criticize, prompts or probes (they are helpful in eliciting more information, clarity, e.g. Can you tell me more about...? Why do you think that's important? reflects or pauses.