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TEACHER TALKING TIME IN EFL CONTEXT

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Theories and Practical Ideas on Using Communicative Language to Engage Students in the Classroom Interaction

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PREFACE

I am grateful, first of all, to Allah SWT for His Mercy and Blessing. Second, the writer's sincere gratitude also goes to some people: the chairwoman of STAIN Ponorogo, head of P3M, head of Tarbiyah, and head of English department who have kindly guided and allowed me to profit from their advice in writing this textbook.

This textbook is designed for English students or teachers who teach or will teach English as a foreign language that need to re-learn or grasp some teaching methodologies in order to explore appropriate teaching methods for their own classroom context. It provides adequate theories and practical ideas on how to engage students in such communicative interaction in the classroom. Moreover, this reshapes the readers' thought how to expose their effective language optimally in the classroom and provide a wide chance of opportunity for students to involve actively using the target language.

In accord to this, the first chapter of this textbook highlights the nature of teaching English in EFL context. It provides the readers with the nature of approaches and methods in ELT as a basis of teacher's language exposure, current communicative language teaching and its strategies and activities. Chapter two discusses learner learning styles & strategies. Additionally, chapter three over views teacher talking time. It highlights the nature of teacher talk and the

features of communicative teacher talk. Meanwhile, chapter four presents basic classroom techniques.

In particular, the next chapter discusses teacher talking time. Some features of teachers' classroom language that are regarded as communicative teacher talks are presented in greater detail; they are questioning strategies, content feedback, speech modification, and negotiation of meaning. They are presented respectively followed with examples. Finally, this text book presents the theory of schemata and gives practical ideas on how to build students' schemata.

My thanks are kindly extended to my wife, Restu Mufanti, and my daughter, Meutea Orchidta Asyraf Susilo, for graciously encouraging me to be hard working. I am also thankful to my teaching colleagues and my students for any motivation and assistance.

Lastly, it is expected that this textbook provides advantages to the readers. Finally, I feel indebted to all of those who have offered positive comments and criticism for the improvement of this textbook.

Ponorogo, October 2014
Writers,

Andi Susilo, M.Pd

CONTENTS

1 TEACHING ENGLISH IN EFL CONTEXT

A. The Nature of Approaches and Methods in ELT

The field of foreign or second language teaching (e.g. TESL, TEFL, or TESOL) has undergone rapid fluctuation and shift over the years. We notice that some essential changes have been underlining the teaching practices of English in the classroom in order to meet with students' proficiency levels, preferences, as well as the need of achieving learning objectives. Some important areas of changes in English language teaching (ELT) cover instructional goals and objectives, syllabus and lesson planning, language teaching methodology and instructional materials, assessment and evaluation. To cope with the students' need in learning, it is suggested that the English teachers are always aware and cognizant with the changes. They are required not only to have adequate knowledge of the areas above, but also to be able to design and deliver the instruction well to help students succeed in learning.

In term of language teaching methodology, it vacillates between two types of approaches: getting students to analyze a language (i.e. to learn its

grammatical rules) versus getting students to use a language (i.e. to speak and understand it). It cannot be denied that some teachers are keen on getting the students to always memorize a lot of new words discretely, learn the language forms frequently, ask them to produce language correctly and do a series of monotonous tasks in the classroom. However, recently, language teaching methodology has widely been tailored to get students to be able to use language fluently and communicatively due to the ever-growing need for good communication skills in English.

Briefly speaking, language teaching methodology is concerned with approaches, methods, and techniques of how language is learned and taught. In order to provide sufficient knowledge on understanding the application of some kinds of approaches, methods, and technique in ELT, it is essential to overview the definition and distinctions of those terms as well as discusses the core of approaches in language teaching. This is due to the fact that many of us may have insufficient knowledge on those terms whether they are synonymous or different.

Richards and Rodgers provide definition of the term "method" in which it encompasses approach—a theory of the nature of language and a theory of the nature of language learning; design—the general and specific objectives of the method, a syllabus model, types of learning and teaching activities, learner roles, teacher roles, and the roles of instructional materials; and procedure—classroom techniques, practices, and

behaviors observed when the method is occupied or employed.[1]

Particularly, it can be highlighted that an approach is viewed as an overall theory about learning language, which then lends it-self to "approaching" language teaching and learning in a certain manner. A method is often viewed as a series of procedures or activities used to teach language in a certain way. Meanwhile, a technique is usually seen as one activity or procedure used within a plan for teaching. The reality is, however, that language-teaching professsionals often find themselves in disagreement over these terms.

In most case, the terms of approach, method, and technique are frequently used interchangeably by teachers in the teaching practices. Depending on how one is defining the term and the circumstances in which the term is being used, an approach may become a method or a method may become a technique and vice versa. In order to avoid misconception and understanding among readers or students, it is essential to sum up those terms clearly.

The following table provides important summary to seek the light on the distinction of those terms.

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[1] Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T.S. *Approaches and methods in language teaching (2nd ed.)* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001)

Approach	Method	Technique
A certain model or research paradigm	A set of ways	A set of steps/activities
A set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning	An overall plan for the orderly presentation of language materials based on the selected approach	Implementation – taking place in a classroom on the basis of the selected approach and method
The broadest term	More specific term than an approach	The narrowest term

Fundamentally, adopted from language acquisition theory, approaches to language teaching are derived from three models /views: behaviorist / structuralist, innatist /nativist, and interactionist. The behavioral approach focuses on the immediately perceptible aspects of linguistic behavior – the publicity observable responses – and the relationships or associations between those responses and events in the world surrounding them.[2] In other words, the behaviorist model views language learning as a behavior change through habit formation, conditioned by the presence of stimuli and strengthened through practice and selective reinforcement (punishment or reward). In short, the behaviorist model deals with imitation, practice, reinforcement/feedback, and habit

[2] (Brown, 2007)

formation following a stimulus-response model. One example of a behaviorist - based instructional approach is the audio-lingual approach.

Meanwhile, the nativist /innatist approach is derived from the fundamental assertion that language acquisition is innately determined, that we are born with a genetic capacity that predisposes us to a systematic perception of language around us, resulting in the construction of internalized system of language.[3] The nativist /innatist model sees language as rule-based and generative in nature in which it is processed and produced through complicated cognitive processes and mechanisms. The underlying assumptions of this model is that people possess an innate mental capacity for language which has been biologically programmed for language learning called Language Acquisition Device (LAD). This is often supported by the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) firstly put forward by Lenneberg. He argued that a critical point for language acquisition occurs around puberty. One example of an innatist-based instructional approach is the natural approach.

Different from the two previous approaches, the interactionist model focuses on how language and cognitive developments take place within the key contexts of interaction. One of the most influential theories within this model is called Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) defined by Vygotsky. It is believed

[3] (Brown, 2007)

that learning can occur only when someone is presented with a new task or knowledge that is just beyond his/her present level like Krashen's input hypothesis (i + 1). In accordance to this notion, learning is about bridging the gap between actual and potential development through interaction with an adult or a more competent peer. The example of an interactionist-based instructional approach is communicative language teaching approaches (e.g. cooperative language learning, content-based, and task-based learning).

In case of the application of approach in ELT, Norland and Pruett-Said confirm that there is no one best approach because the circumstances and needs of ESL students vary so greatly.[4] Even within certain group, there may not be one best approach. To choose approaches that are the most appropriate for the students, some important variables should be taken into account by teachers. They are suggested to regard some essential questions when they apply particular approaches, as follows:

- How old are they?
- What are the students' needs and wants?
- How much time do they have to learn English?
- Have they studied English or another language before?
- How well do they know their own language?

[4] Norland, Deborah L and Pruett-Said, Terry, *A Kaleidoscope of Models and Strategies for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages,* (USA: Libraries Unlimited, 2006), x

- Where will they use their English?
- Will they need their English for school or for work?

In addition, to be professional and effective teachers, they must be aware of the different theories and approaches that have developed. Most effective teachers choose from a number of approaches, methods, and techniques to create a learning environment that fits the needs of their students. They put these approaches together to create a varied syllabus and an optimum learning experience. Sometimes this is referred to as selective eclecticism. It may also be referred to as an organic or integrated syllabus or curriculum. This does not mean that teachers can just put together a bunch of activities to create a plan. Good teachers must always consider what the results of the instructions they conduct will be and how these will form a long-term, effective program to teach another language.[5]

Furthermore, EFL teachers should be aware of the approach they occupy. Although it is true that some approaches become out dated, as practitioners find that they do not do a very good job of meeting either teachers' or students' needs, most have some strong points about them that tend to be borrowed to use with other approaches and thus have become a part of contemporary teaching approaches.

In addition, there is a tendency in education for the popularity of approaches to swing back and forth.

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[5] Norland and Pruett-Said, *Ibid.*, 2006, x-xi

Thus, an approach that may be popular one decade may find itself out a favor in the next. This makes it all the more important that teachers be aware of the many approaches, with their strengths and weaknesses, so that they can use this knowledge to create an effective curriculum.

B. Current Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The demand for good communication skills in English has triggered a huge innovation for English teaching. Within the last quarter century, communicative language teaching (CLT) has been put forth around the world as the "new" or "innovative" way to teach English as a second or foreign language. For example, perhaps, the majority of language teachers or student-teachers, when asked to identify the methodology they employ in their classrooms, identify "communicative" as the methodology of choice. When they are pressed to give a detailed account of what they mean by "communicative", however, explanations vary widely.

What do you understand by CLT? Does Communicative Language Teaching or CLT mean teaching conversation, an absence of grammar in a course, or an emphasis on open-ended discussion activities as the main features of a course? In accord to answer these questions and even broaden our view about CLT, this chapter attempts to highlight the framework of CLT and provides practical activities to implement it in the classroom.

CLT is best understood as an approach rather than a method.[6] The primary goal of CLT is student development of communicative competence in a foreign language (i.e. English). At a basic level, this includes development of students' ability to comprehend and produce written and spoken English in communicatively proficient and accurate way.

Savignon categorizes communicative competence into: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic.[7] Each is discussed clearly as follows.

a. Grammatical competence

Grammatical competence is linguistic competence in the restricted sense of the term as it has been used by Chomsky and most other linguists. The descriptions of grammar have been different. Traditional grammars, which provides rules of usage that are proper for written language, have their foundation in the word classes or categories of meaning established for classical Greek and Latin. Structural grammar has emphasized spoken language and provides an analysis of observable surface forms and their patterns of distribution. Though definitions differ, the goal in each case is an adequate description of the sentence-level formal features of language.

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[6] (Richards & Rogers, 2001)

[7] Savignon, S.J. *Communicative language teaching for the twenty-first century* in M. Celce-Murcia (ed.), (Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 2001), 13-28.

Thus, grammatical competence is mastery of the linguistic code, the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences. It is crucial note that grammatical competence is not linked to any single theory of grammar and does not include the ability to state rules of usage. One demonstrates grammatical competence not by stating a rule but using a rule in the interpretation, expression, or negotiation of meaning.

b. Socio-linguistic competence

Socio-linguistic competence is an inter-disciplinary field of inquiry having to do with the social rules of language use. This competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Although we have not provided a satisfactory description of grammar yet, we are even further from an adequate description of socio-cultural rules of appropriateness.

Besides, we already use them to communicate successfully in many different contexts of situation. For example, in multi-cultural communication, participants are sensitive not only to the cultural meanings attached to the language itself, but also to social conventions concerning language use such as turn-taking, appropriateness of content, nonverbal language, and

tone of voice. These features are also called cultural awareness.

c. Discourse competence

Discourse competence or textual competence is concerned not with the interpretation of isolated sentences but with the connection of a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole. The text might be a poem, an email message, a sportscast, a telephone conversation, or a novel. Identification of isolated sounds or words contributes to interpretation of the overall meaning of the text; this is known as bottom-up processing.

On contrary, understanding of the theme or purpose of the text helps in the interpretation of isolated sounds or words; this is known as top-down processing. Two other familiar concepts in discussing discourse competence are text coherence and cohesion. Text coherence is the relation of all sentences or utterances in a text to a single global proposition. The establishment of a global meaning or topic for a text is an integral part of both expression and interpretation and makes possible the interpretation of the individual sentences make up the text. Local connections or structural links between individual sentences provide cohesion. Thus, like socio-linguistic competence, the discourse competence is the subject of interdisciplinary inquiry.

d. Strategic competence

Strategic competence is analogous to the need for copying or survival strategies. Some of the strategies may be par phrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoid nce, and guessing as well as shifts in register and style. Examples of such strategies are knowing how to ask someone to repeat what s/he said in differen words, paraphrasing to check understanding, and being able to guess the meaning of words (in print o speech) from the context.

For the sake of simpli ity and directness, Brown offers four interconnected ch racteristics as a definition of CLT:[8]

1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communi ative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistics competence.
2. Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organizational language forms are not the central focus, but rather aspects of language that enable the learner to accomplish those purposes.
3. Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.

[8] Brown (2007: 241)

4. In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed context.

To sum up, current CLT methodology involves various dimensions of language teaching approaches and methods in which the main goal is to develop learner students' communicative competence. Because the original impetus for this orientation is in reaction to grammar-based and audiolingual approaches, the strength of CLT is that it creates a learning environment that closely replicates how students will use language in real-life situations. That is, students participate in real, authentic, and interactive language use in the classroom.

However, a caveat to this approach is that some practitioners may see communication as only oral/aural skills and may not put enough emphasis on the reading and writing skills that some students may need. Another caveat is that in an attempt to produce communicative skills quickly, accuracy may be over looked or given little attention. Whether students will obtain that accuracy in time on their own continues to be an area of discussion in the ESOL field.

The following table provides brief summary on the nature of communicative language teaching.

Theory of Language	:	anguage is a system for the xpression of meaning; rimary function – interaction nd communication
Theory of learning	:	oing activities that involve eal communication, carrying ut meaningful tasks, and sing language which is eaningful to the learner romote learning.
Objectives	:	udents' ability to mmunicate in the target nguage
Activity type	:	haring, negotiating meaning, nteraction, authentic tasks
Characteristics	:	udents work in groups; udents engage in role plays, iscussions, lots of authentic aterials and tasks, integrated kills; the teacher should be ble to use the language luently.

C. Strategies and Activities of CLT

Because CLT is such a broad orientation, it is of course difficult to give specific strategies. However, the broad guidelines to implement CLT in the classroom are as follows:

1. Determine the communicative goals of the students.

2. Create situations and activities in which students produce authentic, meaningful, and contextualized communication.
3. Focus on accuracy only in as much as errors that would impede communication are corrected.

On the basis of the four components, CLT has the following tenets:

a) Encourage students to be engaged in interaction and meaningful communication;
b) Make real communication the focus of language learning;
c) Provide opportunities for students to experiment and try out what they already know;
d) Be tolerant of students' errors as they indicate that the learner is building up his or her communicative competence;
e) Provide chances for students to develop both accuracy and fluency. The former deals with reflecting natural use of language, focusing on achieving communication, requiring meaningful use of language, requiring the use of communication strategies, producing language that may not be predictable (authentic), and seeking to link language use to context. The latter is concerned about reflecting classroom use of language, emphasizing the formation of correct examples of language, practicing language out of context, practicing small samples of language, requiring

meaningless communication, and controlling choice of language;

f) Link the different skills such as speaking, reading, and listening together, since they usually occur together in the real world;
g) Let students induce or discover grammar rules;
h) Provide chances for both inductive and deductive learning of grammar;
i) Making use of content that connects to students' lives and interests;
j) Allow students work in pairs or groups (e.g. cooperative learning);
k) Integrate four components of competence (e.g. grammatical, socio-linguistic, discourse, and strategic);
l) Give the students greater choice over their own learning;
m) Provide students lots of authentic language input (e.g. authentic materials) and valid models of language;
n) Involve different students' learning styles and strategies;
o) Give the students activities (e.g. problem solving, information sharing, or role play), which lead to communication, interaction, and negotiation of meaning;
p) View teachers as co-students or facilitators;
q) Involving students in providing feedback (e.g. student-student or teacher student conferences);

r) Focus more heavily on feedback on content than on feedback on form; and
s) Employ authentic assessments (i.e. portfolios, journal writing, observations, sample student work, or interviews), which focus on a process-oriented assessment.

In accord to the aforementioned characteristics and tenets, some examples of activities in CLT can be drawn as follows:

1. Information gap activities
   In an information gap activity, one person has certain information that must be shared with others in order to solve a problem, gather information, or make decisions.[9] These types of activities are extremely effective in the L2 classroom for a number of reasons. First, the information gap activities give every student the opportunity to speak in the target language (i.e. English) for an extended period of time, and students naturally produce more speech than they would otherwise. Second, speaking with peers is less intimidating than presenting in front of the entire class and being evaluated. Third, in information gap activities, students are forced to negotiate meaning because they must make what they are saying

[9] Raptou, V., ***Using Information Gap Activities in the Second Language Classroom,*** (Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers, http://www.caslt.org/research/ gap.htm., 2002)

comprehensible to others in order to accomplish the task.

2. Jigsaw activities
   These are also based on the information-gap principle that is similar with group-to-group exchange with one important difference; every single student teaches something. Typically, the class is divided into groups and each group has part of the information required to complete an activity. The class must fit the pieces together to complete the whole. It is an exciting alternative whenever there is material to be learned that can be segmented or chunked and when no one segment must be taught before the others.[10]
3. Task-completion activities
   These include puzzles, games, map-reading, and other kinds of classroom tasks focusing on using one's language resources to complete a task.
4. Information gathering activities
   Students conducted surveys, interviews, and searches in which they were required to use their linguistic resources to collect information.
5. Opinion sharing or problem solving activities
   These require students to compare values, opinions, beliefs, such as a ranking task in which students list six qualities in order of importance which they might consider in choosing a date or spouse.
6. Information-transfer activities

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[10] Silberman, 1996

These require students to take information presented in one form, and represent it in a different form.

7. Reasoning-gap activities
   These involve deriving some new information from given information through the process of inference, practical reasoning, and so forth.
8. Role-plays
   These involve students in improvising a scene or exchange on the basis of given information or clues. See the examples below:

   Read the following situations and choose one of them for your short dialog or conversation activity. Plan it with your partner and act it out.

   Situation 1

   

   Person A is spending more money each month then he or she is earning. Person B gives suggestions for helping Person A to manage money. (Example: Don't use credit cards.)

   Situation 2

   Person A bought a radio and paid cash for it. Unfortunately, he or she didn't keep the receipt. Two days later the radio broke. Person A asks Person B for advice on how to get his or her money back.

Situation 3

Person A doesn't trust banks and keeps all his/her extra money in a box under the bed. Person B explains why this is a bad idea and gives Person A advice about safer places to keep money.

Situation 4

Person A, an American student, is planning a vacation to Person B's home city. Person A asks Person B for advice on ways to have a good time without spending a lot of money. (Example: Person A asks about inexpensive places to stay and eat.)

2 LEARNER LEARNING STYLES & STRATEGIES

A. The Nature of Learning Styles & Strategies

One of the current trends in teaching English for foreign language is that the notion of learner-centeredness. It is generally asserted that the most fruitful English instruction is that student becomes the initiator of the learning process and the teaching methods applied by teachers are suited with students' need in learning with their own learning strategies. Language learning styles and strategies are used by individual student consciously or unconsciously when s/he is processing language input or accomplishing tasks. Since language classroom is like a problem-solving environment in which language learners are likely to face new input and various tasks given by teachers, learners attempts to find the quickest or easiest way to do what is required, that is, using language learning strategies is inescapable.

In the context of TEFL/TESL, besides what teaching approaches or methods teachers employ, they are required to know their students' learning styles and strategies so that what input they provide is relevant to the students. The terms learning styles and strategies are often interchangeable; in fact, the two are different. Keefe confirms that learning styles might be thought of

as cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how students perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environments.[11] Additionally, Skehan defines learning styles as a general predisposition, voluntary or not, towards processing information in a particular way.[12]

Deriving from those definitions, it can be highlighted that learning styles are simply different approaches or ways of learning possessed by a learner. In other words, they deal with the way an individual learns something involving his/her natural habits and preferred ways of absorbing, perceiving, processing, and retaining new information, knowledge, and skills.

On the other hand, Wenden and Rubin define learning strategies as any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information.[13] The concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques.[14]

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[11] Keefe, J., *Student learning styles: Diagnosing and prescribing programs.* (Reston, VA: National Association of secondary school principals, 1979), .

[12] Skehan, P., *Individual differences in second language learning.* (Studies in second language acquisition, 1991), 13, 275.

[13] Wenden, A., & Rubin, J., *Learner Strategies in Language Learning,* (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1987), 19.

[14] Stern (1992:261),

Additionally, Richards and Platt emphasize that learning strategies are intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information.[15]

From these definitions, it can be pointed out that learning strategies deal with behaviors employed by students to aid acquisition directly, control and storage incoming knowledge, and retrieve information. learning strategies are related to specific actions taken by the students to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. Brown states that learning strategy is related to input – to processing, storage, and retrieval, that is, to taking in messages from others.[16] In language learning, the learning strategies are concerned about steps or actions taken by the learner to enhance the development of their language skills. There are a number of categories of learning styles and strategies.

B. Learner Learning Styles

Learning styles could generally be categorized on the basis of: cognitive styles, sensory styles, multiple intelligence, and personally styles.

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[15] Richards, J. and John Platt, *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics,* (Essex: Longman, 1992), 209.

[16] H. Douglas Brown, *ibid,* 2007, 132.

1. Cognitive styles: within this category, learning styles are grouped into:
   a) Field Dependent—learns best when information is presented in context. They are often more fluent language students;
   b) Field Independent—learns most effectively step-by-step and with sequential instruction. They are often more accurate language students;
   c) Analytic—works more effectively alone and at learner's own pace:
   d) Global—works more effectively in groups:
   e) Reflective—learns more effectively when they have time considering new information before responding; and
   f) Impulsive—learns more effectively when they can respond to new information immediately; as language students, they are risk takers.

2. Sensory styles: in this sense, learning styles are categorized into:
   a. Perceptual, involving:
      - Visual—learns best when there is visual reinforcement such as charts, pictures, graphs, or drawings,
      - Auditory—learns more effectively by listening to information,
      - Tactile—learns more effectively when there is a chance to use manipulative resources, and
      - Kinesthetic—learns more effectively when there is movement associated with learning.

b. Environmental, including:
   - Physical—sensitive to learning environment, such as light, temperature, or furniture, and
   - Sociological—sensitive to relationships within the learning environment.

3. Multiple Intelligence styles: in this category, learning styles are classified into:
   a. Verbal-Linguistic—the ability to use words and language;
   b. Logical-Mathematical—the capacity for inductive and deductive thinking and reasoning, as well as the use of numbers and the recognition of abstract patterns;
   c. Visual-Spatial—the ability to visualize objects and spatial dimensions, and create internal images and pictures;
   d. Body-Kinesthetic—the wisdom of the body and the ability to control physical motion;
   e. Musical-Rhythmic—the ability to recognize tonal patterns and sounds, as well as a sensitivity to rhythms and beats;
   f. Interpersonal—the capacity for person-to-person communications and relationships; and
   g. Intrapersonal—the spiritual, inner states of being, self-reflection, and awareness.

4. Personality styles: in this case, learning styles are broken down into:
   a. Tolerance of ambiguity—how comfortable a learner with uncertainty; some do well in situations where there are several possible answers; others prefer to one correct answer;
   b. Left brain—learns to be more preferably visual, analytical, reflective, and self-reliant; and
   c. Right brain—learns to be more preferably auditory, global, impulsive, and interactive.

Of the four broad categories of learning styles, in this chapter, the two—sensory and multiple intelligence styles are treated in detail.

❖ **Sensory Learning Styles**

As previously mentioned, sensory learning styles include visual, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic. Each of these learning styles has particular characteristics. Firstly, students can be categorized into visual students when they dominantly prefer: (1) to seeing words written down, (2) to having a picture to view when something is being described, (3) a time-line or some other similar diagram to remember historical events, (4) written instructions rather than verbal instructions, (5) to observing all the physical elements in a classroom, (6) to organizing their learning materials carefully, (7) to decorating their learning areas, (8) photographs and illustrations with printed content, (9) to remembering and understanding through the use of diagrams, charts and maps, (10) to

appreciating presentations using OHP transparencies or handouts, (11) to learning materials by reading notes and organizing it in outline form, and (12) visual art activities, (13) to enjoying diagrams, charts, and maps, and (14) to understanding information best when they see it.

Secondly, students can be considered auditory students when they best enjoy: (1) remembering what they say and what others say, (2) remembering through verbal repetition and by saying things aloud, (3) remembering verbal instructions, (4) opportunities to present dramatically including the use of music or any auditory media, (5) verbally expressing interest and enthusiasm, (6) class and group discussions, (7) understanding information when they hear it, (8) reciting out loud the information they want to remember several times, (9) submitting some work (if appropriate) as an oral presentation or on audio tape, (10) remembering and listening to something repeatedly, and (11) re-phrasing points, questions with varied speed, volume, and pitch to help create interesting aural textures.

Lastly, students are deemed to be tactile-kinesthetic students when best: (1) remembering what they do, (2) remembering through getting physically involved in whatever is being learnt, (3) enjoying acting out a situation relevant to the study topic, (4) enjoying making and creating, (5) enjoying the opportunities to build and physically handle learning materials, (6) liking taking notes to keep busy, but being unwilling to

use them often, (7) enjoying using computers, (8) physically expressing interest and enthusiasm by getting active and excited, (9) disliking staying still or in one place for a long time, (10) enjoying hands-on activities, (11) tending to want to fiddle with small objects while listening or working, and (12) tending to want to eat snacks while studying.

❖ **Multiple Intelligence Learning Styles**

As previously discussed, this theory of human intelligence was developed by a psychologist Howard Gardner. He suggests there are at least seven ways that people have of perceiving and understanding the world. Gardner labels each of these ways a distinct intelligence. In other words, multiple intelligences are seven different ways to demonstrate intellectual ability. Those seven ways are:

1. Verbal-Linguistic—the ability to use words and language;
2. Logical-Mathematical—the capacity for inductive and deductive thinking and reasoning, as well as the use of numbers and the recognition of abstract patterns;
3. Visual-Spatial—the ability to visualize objects and spatial dimensions, and create internal images and pictures;
4. Body-Kinesthetic—the wisdom of the body and the ability to control physical motion;

5. Musical-Rhythmic—the ability to recognize tonal patterns and sounds, as well as a sensitivity to rhythms and beats;
6. Interpersonal—the capacity for person-to-person communications and relationships; and
7. Intrapersonal—the spiritual, inner states of being, self-reflection, and awareness.

C. Learner Learning Strategies

Recently, considerable definitions of learner learning strategies have still emerged. Learning strategies stand for special procedures a learner can employ to facilitate learning and make learning more effective.[17] Learning strategies, furthermore, are defined as systematic plans, design, procedures or maneuvers used during learning. It can be said that language learning strategies, unlike communication strategies which lay stress on the techniques of output, emphasize the importance of the techniques of input. As it is stated by Brown, learning strategies are associated with input-processing, storage, and retrieval; whereas communication strategies pertain to output-how we productively express meaning and how we deliver messages to others.[18]

Language learning strategies become the crucial factors to determine how well students learn and

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[17] Diaz-Rico, L.T, *Teaching English learners: Strategies and Methods*, (US: Allyn& Bacon, 2004), 106.

[18] Brown, H.D., *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (5th ed)*. (New York: Longman, 2000), 123.

acquire second language. The strategies factors influence the students' abilit to learn second language. In this notion, learning st ategies refer to specific actions, behaviors, steps, or t chniques, such as seeking out conversation partne s, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a di ficult language task used by students to enhance their o wn learning.[19]

Moreover, Oxford onfirms that language learning strategies are seen t be relevant to all parts of learning acquisition.[20] He ad ds that learning strategies as the specific actions take by the learner to make learning easier, faster, mo e enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferrable to new situations. Many researchers and education staff have started to apply strategies i to the field of language learning and teaching in orde to help students become more successful learners.

In accordance to the na ure of language learning strategies, Rebecca Oxfor d enumerates eleven fundamental features of them: [21]

1. They contribute to the m ain goal, communicative competence.
2. Allow students to become more self-directed.
3. Expand the role of teacher .
4. Are problem oriented.

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[19] Scarcella, R. C & Oxford, R L.,*The Tapestry of Language Learning: The Individual in the Commu icative Classroom,* (Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers, 1992), 6

[20] Oxford, Rebecca L. (1990), .

[21] Rebecca Oxford, (1990:9)

5. They are specific actions taken by the students.
6. Involve many aspects of the student, not just cognitive.
7. Support learning, both directly and indirectly.
8. Are not always conscious.
9. Can be taught.
10. Are flexible.
11. Are influenced by a variety of factors.

In other view, Wenden proposes six criteria to figure out the behaviour of using language learning strategies.[22] First, language learners are like risk takers and tend to take particular actions that are referred to as strategies. Second, these actions sometimes can be observable or unobservable. Third, strategy use is problem-oriented or goal-oriented to facilitate learning and meet learning need. Fourth, strategies refer to language learning behaviors that contribute learning directly or indirectly. On the other hand, what learners do to control, transform, storage, and retrieve incoming knowledge, or regulate learning is called strategies which directly relate to language learning. For another hand, how learners communicate and how they create chances to use the language are regarded as strategies that indirectly facilitate learning. Fifth, strategies are consciously used when learners try to learn new things. Besides, strategies may become automatized.

Language Learning Strategies have been classified by many scholars. However, most of these

[22] Wenden (1987),

attempts to classify language learning strategies reflect more or less the same categorizations of language learning strategies without any radical changes. For example, Rubin classifies language learning strategies into Learning strategies, Communication strategies, and social strategies:[23]

1) Learning strategies
   These are categorized into: cognitive learning and meta-cognitive learning strategies. The former deals with the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin identifies 6 main cognitive learning strategies contributing directly to language learning: (a) clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, (c) deductive reasoning, (d) practice, (e) memorization, and (f) monitoring. The latter is concerned with overseeing, regulating or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes as planning, prioritizing, setting goals, and self-management.
2) Communication strategies
   These are less directly related to language learning since the focus is on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. Communication strategies are used by speakers

[23] Rubin, J. *Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology.* in A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1987), 15-29.

when faced with some difficulty due to the fact that their communication ends outrun their communication means or when confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker.

3) Social Strategies
These involve activities students engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practice their knowledge. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language.

Further, O'Malley and Chamot divide language learning strategies into three main subcategories:[24]

a. Meta-cognitive strategies

It can be stated that meta-cognitive is a term to express executive function, strategies that require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Among the main meta-cognitive strategies, it is possible to include advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation.

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[24] O'Malley, J.M., & Chamot, A.U. *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990).

In particular, metacognitive strategies deal with these activities:

1. Planning: Previewing the organizing concept of principle of an anticipated learning task (advance organization); proposing strategies for handling an upcoming task; generating a plan for the parts, sequence, main ideas, or language functions to be used in handling a task (organizational planning).
2. Directed attention: Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors; maintaining attention during the task execution.
3. Selective attention: Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assist in performance of a task; attending to specific aspects of language input during task execution.
4. Self-management: Understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish language tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions; controlling one's language performance to maximize use of what is already known.
5. Self-monitoring: Checking, verifying, or correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of language task. This has been coded in the think-aloud in the following ways: Comprehension monitoring, Production monitoring, Auditory monitoring, Visual monitoring, Style monitoring, Strategy monitoring, and Double check monitoring.

6. Problem identification: Explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task or identifying an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.
7. Self evaluation: Checking the outcomes of one's own language performance against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy; checking one's language repertoire, strategy use, or ability to perform the task at hand. This has been coded in the think-aloud as: Production evaluation, Performance evaluation, Ability evaluation, Strategy evaluation and Language repertoire evaluation.

b. Cognitive strategies

Cognitive strategies are the strategies which directly affect language learning in which they operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning.[25] Cognitive strategies involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically or applying a specific technique to learning task. These are more limited to specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, and inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies.

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[25] O'Malley and Chamot (1990:44)

These strategies dea with some activities as follows:

1. Repetition: Repeating a hunk of language (a word or phrase) in the course of performing a language task.
2. Resourcing: Using avai able reference sources of information about the rget language, including dictionaries, textbooks, a d prior work.
3. Grouping: Ordering, classifying, or labeling material used in a langu ge task based on common attributes; recalling infor nation based on grouping previously done.
4. Note taking: Writing down key words and concepts in abbreviat d verbal, graphic, or numerical form, to a sist performance of a language task.
5. Deduction/induction: Consciously applying learning or self devel p rules to produce or understand the target lar guage.
6. Substitution: Selecting alternative approaches, revised plans, or diffe nt words or phrases to accomplish a language ta k.
7. Elaboration: Relating n w information to prior knowledge; relating different parts of new information to each other; making meaningful personal associations t information presented. This has been coded in t e think-aloud data in the following ways: Pers nal elaboration, World elaboration, Academic e aboration: Between parts elaboration, Questioni g elaboration, Self

evaluative elaboration, Creative elaboration, and Imagery.

8. Summarization: Making a mental or written summary of language and information presented in a task.
9. Translation: Rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner.
10. Transfer: Using previously acquired linguistic knowledge to facilitate a language task.
11. Inferencing: Using available information to guess the meanings or usage of unfamiliar language items associated with a language task, to predict out-comes, or to fill in missing information.

c. Socio-affective strategies

Socio-affective strategies refer to strategies involving the interaction with others and the management of personal emotions, attitudes, and motivations.[26] These are related to social-mediating activity and transacting with others. In other words, social and affective strategies involve interaction with another person to assist learning or using affective control to assist a learning task, for instances, questioning for clarification, cooperation, self-talk and self-reinforcement.

1. Questioning for clarification
   Asking for explanation, verification, rephrasing, or examples about the material; asking for

[26] (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

clarification or verification about the task; posing questions to the self.

2. Cooperation
   Working together with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance.
3. Self-talk
   Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.
4. Self-reinforcement
   Providing personal motivation by arranging rewards for oneself when a language learning activity has been successfully completed.

Meanwhile, Oxford built a well-organized strategy system which has been widely accepted and used at present.[27] Accordingly, language learning strategies are categorized into six subcategories, they are memory, cognitive, comprehension, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Dealing with these subcategorizes, in addition, Oxford divides them into two main classes in which each mutually supports one another; the first class is direct (primary) strategies and the second class is indirect (supporting) strategies.

Direct strategies deal with the learning with language itself and mental processing of the language.

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[27] Oxford, R.L. *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know,* (Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers, 1990), 140.

This class covers three subcategories, including memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Memory strategies help students store and retrieve new information, such as grouping, association/elaboration, or using physical response or sensation. Cognitive strategies enable students to learn and produce new language by different ways, such as repeating, recombining, summarizing, analyzing expressions, or taking notes. Furthermore, compensation strategies help learners comprehend or produce language despite their insufficient knowledge, such as making a guess, coining words, or using gestures.

The second class, indirect strategies, concerns the general management of learning with indirectly involving the target language. These strategies can be subcategorized into metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Metacognitive strategies, such as setting goals, planning, monitoring or self-evaluating, allow learners to control their own cognition. Affective strategies are concerned with helping students regulate their emotions, such as relaxing when nervous, encouraging by a reward, or expressing feelings to other people. Social strategies involve communication and interaction with other people, such as asking for help from others, cooperating with peers, practicing English with other students.

Based on her classification, Oxford develops the 50-item strategy inventory for language learning (SILL) to measure learners' use of both direct and indirect

language learning strategies.[28] The SILL is designed to systematically represent all kinds of strategies regarded as significant elements in language learning. That is the reason why Oxford's framework, compared to other researchers' taxonomy of learning strategies, is more popular as a widely used instrument.

In particular, Oxford summarizes two classes of learning strategies which comprise six subcategories.

A. Direct strategies: memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies

1. Memory strategies: strategies to store and retrieve aspects of the target language

a. Creating mental linkages: Grouping (Classifying or reclassifying language material into meaningful units), Associating/Elaborating (Relating new language information to concepts already in memory), Placing New Words into a Context (Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful sentence, conversation, or story in order to remember it)

b. Applying images and sounds: Using Imagery (Relating new language information to concepts in memory by means of meaningful visual imagery), Semantic Mapping (making an arrangement of words into a picture, which has a key concept at the center or at the top, and related words and concepts linked with the key concepts by means of lines or arrows),

[28] Oxford, Rebecca L. (1990) 140.

Using keywords (Remembering a new word by using auditory and visual links), Representing sounds in memory (remembering new language information according to its sound)

c. Reviewing well: Structured reviewing (reviewing in carefully spaced intervals)
d. Employing action: Using Physical Response or Sensation (Physically acting out a new expression (e.g., going to the door), or meaningfully relating a new expression to a physical feeling or sensation (e.g., warmth)

2. Cognitive strategies: strategies for using the language and for understanding how it works

a. Practicing: Repeating (saying or doing something over and over), Formally practicing with Sounds and writing Systems (practicing sounds or practicing the new writing system), Recognizing and Using Formulas and Patterns (Being aware of and/or using routine formulas and unanalyzed patterns), Recombining (combining known elements in new ways to produce a longer sequence), Practicing Naturalistically (Practicing the new language in natural, and realistic settings).
b. Receiving and sending messages: Getting the idea quickly (using skimming to determine the main ideas or scanning to find specific details

of interest), and using Resources for Receiving and Sending Messages (using printed or non-printed resources).

c. Analyzing and reasoning: Reasoning deductively (using general rules and applying them to new target language situations), analyzing expressions (determining the meaning of a new expression by breaking it down into parts), Analyzing Contrastively (comparing elements (sounds, vocabulary, grammar)), Translating (converting a target language expression into the native language or converting the native language into the target language), Transferring (Directly applying knowledge of words, concepts, or structures from one language to another).

d. Creating structure for input and output: Taking Notes (Writing down the main idea or specific points), Summarizing (making a summary or abstract of a longer passage), and Highlighting (using a variety of emphasis techniques).

3. Compensation strategies: strategies for using the language gaps in knowledge

a. Guessing intelligently: Using Linguistic Clues (seeking and using language-based clues), Using Other Clues (seeking and using clues that are not language based)

b. Overcoming limitation in speaking and

writing: Switching to the mother tongue (Using the mother tongue for an expression), Getting help (asking someone for help), Using mime or Gesture (Using physical motion), Avoiding communication partially or totally (partially or totally avoiding communication), Selecting the topic (choosing the topic of conversation), Adjusting or approximating the message (Altering the message), Coining Words (Making up new words), Using a circumlocution or synonym (Getting the meaning across by describing the concept/circumlocution or using a word that means the same thing/synonym)

B. Indirect strategies: metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

1. Metacognitive strategies: strategies for planning, organizing and evaluating learning

a. Centering Your Learning: Over viewing and linking with already known Material (Over viewing comprehensively a key concept, principle, or set of materials), paying attention (Deciding in advance to pay attention in general), and delaying speech production to focus on listening (Deciding in advance to delay speech production).

b. Arranging and Planning Learning: Finding Out about language learning (making efforts to find out how language learning works),

Organizing (Understanding and using conditions related to optimal learning of new language; organizing one's schedule, physical environment and language learning notebook), Setting Goals and Objectives (Setting aims for language learning), Identifying the Purpose of a Language Task (Deciding the purpose of particular language task involving listening, reading, speaking or writing), Planning for a Language Task (Planning for the language elements and functions necessary for an anticipated language task or situation), Seeking Practice Opportunities (Seeking out or creating opportunities to practice the new language in naturalistic situations)

c. Evaluating learning: Self - Monitoring (Identifying errors in understanding or producing the new language), Self-Evaluating (evaluating one's own progress in the new language)

2. Affective strategies: Strategies for approaching the task positively

a. Lowering anxiety: Using Progressive Relaxation, Deep Breathing or Meditation (Using Progressive Relaxation, breathing deeply, and Meditating by Focusing), Using Music (Listening to soothing music, such as a classical concert, as a way to relax), Using

laughter (Using laughter to relax by watching a funny movie, reading a humorous book, listening to jokes and so on).

b. Encouraging yourself: Making Positive Statement (Saying or writing positive statements to oneself in order to feel more confident in learning the new language), Taking Risks Wisely (Pushing oneself to take risks in a language learning situation, even though there is a chance of making a mistake or looking foolish. Risk must be tempered with good judgment), Rewarding Yourself (Giving oneself a valuable reward for a particularly good performance in the new language)
c. Taking Your Emotional Temperature: Listening to your body (paying attention to signals given by the body), Using a Checklist (Using a checklist to discover feelings, attitudes and motivations concerning language learning in general, as well as concerning specific language tasks), Writing a Language Learning Diary (writing a diary or journal to keep track of events and feelings in the process of learning a new language), Discussing Your feelings with someone else (Talking with another person (teacher, friend, relative) to discover and

express feelings about language learning)

3. **Social strategies: strategies for working with others to get input and practice**
   a. Asking questions: Asking for clarification or verification (Asking the speaker to repeat, paraphrase, explain, slow down, or give examples; asking if a specific utterance is a correct), Asking for Correction (Asking someone for correction in a conversation)
   b. Cooperating with others: Cooperating with Peers (Working with other language learners to improve language skills), Cooperating with proficient users of the new language (Working with native speakers or other proficient users)
   c. Empathizing with others: Developing cultural understanding (Trying to empathize with another person through learning about the culture), Becoming the behaviors of others as a possible expression of their thoughts and feelings; and when appropriate, asking about thoughts and feelings of others.

BASIC CLASSROOM TECHNIQUES

A. Classroom Interaction

It is broadly asserted that most researches in the field second or foreign language context have revealed to a great extent the importance of classroom interaction that involves both input and output.[29] Classroom instruction, both in the form of meaningful interaction and in the form of linguistic rules, may influence the students' level of acquisition.[30] Successful outcomes of learning may depend on the type of language used by the teachers and the type of interactions occurring in the classroom. In sum, it is clear that the language used by teachers in the classroom affects the nature of the interaction, which in turn affects the success of students' learning.

In L2 learning, input plays a crucial role to the students' language development. Krashen confirms that learning only takes place by means of a learner's access to comprehensible input.[31] It is understood that comprehensive and right quantity input is the central

[29] (Allwright, 1984; Ellis 1990; Long, 1983; Swain 1985)
[30] Ellis (1985)
[31] Krashen (1982)

concern that students are able to learn language. The implication for language teaching is that the language occupied by teacher or teacher talk should be comprehensible in different forms and in right quantities. This is because teacher talk affects the language produced by students, the interaction generated, and hence the kind of learning that takes place. However, due to the fact that students cannot be at the same level of linguistic competence at the same time, it is suggested that natural communicative input should be created in order that each learner receive some input that is appropriate for his/her current stage of linguistic competence. Beside that, two-way interaction is a particularly good way of providing comprehensible input because it enables the students to obtain additional contextual information and optimally adjusted input when meaning has to be negotiated because of communication problems.

On the other view, Long (1983) suggests that while exposure to comprehensible input is necessary, it alone cannot ensure acquisition. For acquisition to occur, students should be afforded ample opportunity to negotiate meaning when communication breaks down. Negotiation raises students' awareness of those language features which do not match the standard of the target language (TL) and the parts that are still beyond them (Gass, 1997). Also through negotiation, students obtain feedback from interlocutors on their language output, normally in the form of comprehension check, clarification request and

confirmation check. The feedback serves as an indication for students to modify their production. Like Krashen, Long has given prestige to comprehensible input but he puts more emphasis on two-way interaction, conversational adjustments as a result of negotiation (Johnson, 1995) and how negotiation can make the input more comprehensible.

Swain (1995) encompasses that in addition to comprehensible input, students' output should not be obeyed. This is because it has at least three important contributions to make in enabling second language learning. Talk can encourage students to pay attention to not only semantic processing of the language but also syntactic processing. Furthermore, the process of using the target language is also the process for students to test their hypotheses about it. It is also when students have to produce the target language that they realize how limited their interlanguage is. It is also when faced with negative feedback that they are "pushed" to come up with alternative linguistic forms to get their meanings across. Lastly, talk plays a metalinguistic function: students use language to reflect upon their language use. Unlike reception-based theories represented by Krashen and Long, Swain's theories have credited language development to students' attempts at actually producing the target language.

Based on the theories discussed, it can be pointed out that each reveals the effects of different types of classroom interaction on L2 acquisition from

different perspectives. Some theorists have accorded importance to comprehensible meaning-focused exposure to the target language and other theorists have given significance to students' active negotiation and their production of comprehensible output. Despite different points of view, they all emphasize out the importance of interaction and negotiation in facilitating students' second language acquisition. Taken as a whole, they have the following important implications for language teachers, such as teachers should ensure that the input that they provide to students is comprehensible, make every effort to be understood by each other by negotiating meaning, give students ample practice in actually using the target language especially for communicative purposes, need to broaden opportunities for students to participate in a wide array of communicative contexts which allow their full performance of language functions.

B. Basic classroom techniques

The efficacy of learner learning styles and strategies should be taken into account by teachers in designing and delivering instruction. It is because the success of learning depends much on the way how individual can learn optimally on their own, process the input s/he receives, and react as well as practice output. For this reason, it is important to note that the success of teaching is obviously in line with the way how teachers are able to engage students in such productive and meaningful instructions that lead them

process and practice their language input-output proportionally on their own. Hence, teachers are required to have adequate knowledge and experience about effective classroom techniques to facilitate and help students in learning.

In any class, students' participations are greatly encouraged. In doing so, a teacher is required to explore classroom techniques so as to deliver successful language teaching. As an example, Haycraft outlines 14 basic classroom techniques, as follows:[32]

1) Look at all the students in the class
   While teaching, a teacher has to switch her/his gaze evenly from one side to another in the same way as a well-regulated lighthouse does. In this way, s/he will be able to know what is going on in the class throughout the lesson so that s/he is able to recognize who is paying attention and who is not.
2) Vary your techniques for asking questions
   Questions are a way of catching students' eyes. If a student is yawning in the back row, ask him a question. However, do not commence with the name of the students you are addressing. There are five basic questions, which a teacher asks: display – a question in which the teacher already knows the answer and wants the student to display

[32] Haycraft, J., *An introduction to English language teaching,* (Singapore: Longman, (1990).

knowledge, referential – a question in which the teacher does not know the answer, comprehension check – a question to find out if a student understands, confirmation – a question to verify what was said, and clarification check – a question to further define or clarify.[33]

3) Do not go round the class
   It is suggested not to ask questions or to do exercises in rote around the class so that they can prepare the answers, and then relax or vice versa.
4) Include everyone
   Ensure that everyone is called on equally to build or foster encouragement and motivation.
5) Make sure the class is seated in the best possible way
   It may be hardly possible to avoid having students in rows facing a teacher. If it is the case, make sure that empty seats are only at the back and that everyone is grouped near the front as possible. Ideally, everyone should be able to see one another.
6) Limit teacher talking time
   The more a teacher talks, the less the students will express themselves. Ideally, the teacher should be a stimulator who encourages the students to talk.

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[33] Gebhard, J.G. *Teaching English as a foreign or second language: A teacher self-development and methodology guide,* (Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 2006).

7) Write clearly
   Clear and well-written blackboard work is crucial.
8) Encourage your students
   Providing reinforcement both positive and negative should be managed with care.
9) Be careful with the use of grammatical terms
   Making use of a few grammatical terms is advisable to avoid wrong interpretation of a certain grammar rule, but be as practical as possible. Emphasizing the functions would be better than focusing on the terms.
10) Encourage your students to practice English outside the classroom
    Besides performing well in the class, a teacher is required to encourage the students to improve their skills (e.g. asking them to read English written newspapers or English spoken radios) outside the class.
11) Take account of different levels within the class
    A teacher should be aware that her/his class is comprised of different students in terms of intelligence, learning styles, or learning strategies. For this reason, s/he ought to ask the students to do a certain task on the basis of their own capacity or learning pace.
12) Deal with individual problems
    It is often best to deal with individual problems after the class. It is suggested that a teacher keep her/his student learning progress.

13) Correct your students
When a student makes a mistake, a teacher should correct it gently.
14) Pair or group work
Working in pairs or groups will encourage the students to participate more in the class and share some ideas as well as help one another.
15) Use students' names correctly
If a teacher is teaching other nationalities or races, ensure s/he pronounces her/his students' names correctly.

Meanwhile, Renandya proposes 10 commandments in language teaching. Among them are:[34]

1) You shall provide lots of good language input
The best way to learn a foreign language is to live in the country where the language is spoken or the second best way is to read extensively in that language.
2) You shall give students opportunities to use the target language
In any language class, teachers are experiencing two situations: **teacher-centered** or **learner-centered**. The former focuses on teacher-fronted lesson, high percentage of teacher talk, and tiny percentage of learner talk in the classroom. The

[34] Renandya, W. *The ten commandments in TESOL*, An unpublished article (Singapore: RELC, 2006).

latter concentrates on pair work/group work and communicative tasks.

3) You shall respect local varieties of English
   Native speaker competence is **not desirable**—because of needs to preserve cultural and personal identity; **not attainable** due to extremely talented and time constraints; and **not practical**—because there are more non-native speakers than native speakers and more likely to come into contact with non-native speakers.
4) Thou shall not teach too much grammar
   There are **bad reasons** for teaching grammar—it is there, teachable, and testable; on contrary, there are **good reason** for teaching grammar—communicative reasons (comprehensibility and clarity of ideas) and sociolinguistic reasons (nice, reliable, educated persons, pleasant personality, etc.).
5) You shall not overcorrect
   Error is part of learning. Overcorrection can have negative impacts (e.g. low esteem and fear of making mistakes). For this reason, the teacher needs to understand nature of error. It is kept in mind that there is no best method for error corrections, but effective feedback should be positive and specific as well as be focused on leverage **on strengths**, not just **on weaknesses**.
6) You shall not use mundane examples
   Many teachers use mundane examples such as: (1) My mother goes to the market everyday or (2) The

Sun rises in the east. The problems are **discrete sentences** and **absolutely uninteresting**. Consider the following examples:

- **Conditional Clause**

Jeane	: Don't you think I sing with feeling?
Roommate	: No, honey! If you had any feeling, you wouldn't sing.

- **Simple Past**

Wife	: You're wearing your wedding ring on the wrong finger.
Husband	: I know I married the wrong man.

- **A Short Text**

Mrs Muthu really *let herself go to pot* after her marriage, putting on weight rapidly. One day, halfway through her Mutteon Briyani, she had *a guilt pang* and asked her husband, "Will you still love me if I become too fat?" "Of course not," he replied. "I promised to love you *for better or worse*, not *through thick or thin*."

7) You shall not treat all words equally
   Words are not created equally meaning; there are high and low frequency words.
8) You shall give thy students a lot if success experience
   Success leads to more success—focusing on achievements not just on shortcomings And providing more practice in what students can do, not just in what they cannot do.
9) You shall not use de-contextualized tests
   There are two options for language teachers: **teach to test** or **test to teach**. De-contextualized tests are widespread; most of which are multiple choice questions (MCQs). It is suggested that a teacher test the way s/he teaches.
10) Thou shall obey the first nine commandments.

4 TEACHER TALKING TIME

You can tell students a lot what they need to know very fast, but they tend to forget what you tell them even faster.
- Mel Silberman -

A. Teacher Talk

Teacher talk plays a crucial role in language learning as a tool used by teachers in implementing teaching plans and achieving teaching goals. The term teacher talk is defined and viewed variously by some experts. Richards (1992: 471) confirms that teacher talk is the variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching. In addition, Rod Ellis (1985: 145) notes that teacher talk is the special language that teachers use when addressing L2 students in the classroom in which it is treated as a register with its own specific formal and linguistics properties.

From those definitions, it can be pointed out that at least there are two important features that underlying the concept of teacher talk. Firstly, the use of teacher's language in the classrooms is different from that of in the out side context of classroom since it has

its own specific features which other varieties do not share. Teacher talk has its own special style of speech because it is restricted of the physical classroom setting, special participants, and the goal of teaching as well.

Secondly, teacher talk is seen as a special communicative interaction between teacher and students. The use of teacher talk is aimed at delivering the materials to the students, creating communicative interaction, and developing the students' language proficiency. In this sense, teacher talk is a kind of communication-based or interaction-based talk. Teacher talk is occupied in the classroom when teachers are conducting instructions, cultivating their intellectual ability and managing classroom activities.

Another view is proposed by Nunan (1991) who points out that teacher talk is crucially importance, not only for the organization of the classroom but also for the processes of acquisition. It is noted that teacher talk plays important role for the organization and management of the classroom since the language that teachers occupy impact on the success or fail in implementing their teaching plans. Meanwhile, in terms of acquisition, teacher talk is important because it functions as the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive. In sum, the amount and type of teacher talk is even regarded as a decisive factor of success or failure in classroom teaching.

In teaching English at secondary level in Indonesia, classroom is regarded as the chief source for

students. This means that teacher talk serves as the major target language input for the students. It is in line with Stern's ideas (1983:400) who says that if the second language is learnt as a foreign language in a language class in a non-supportive environment, instruction is likely to be the major or even the only source of target language input. Shortly speaking, it is clear that amount and the quality input provided through teacher talk is the crucial element for successful language learning in the classroom.

Since the distribution of teacher talk time is crucial as an important factor that affects language learning, therefore, teachers should be able to offer enough high-quality English language input and offer more opportunities for students to use the target language. It is suggested that language teachers can use their talk not only neutrally to convey comprehensible information but also to express positive attitudes toward their students in the language classroom through their talk. Consequently, language teachers can use their talk as a tool to maximize their students' performance and interaction and to promote positive students' attitudes toward their teachers.

In general, the discussion of teacher talk has been mainly focused on oral form of teacher talk in case of how it can promote communicative classroom interaction. Since not all teacher talks are appropriately effective and communicative in the classroom context, teachers should be aware of the nature of the language

they use in classrooms whether it is appropriate and able to promote communicative interaction or not.

B. Features of Communicative Teacher Talk

When reflect to the English teaching practice, it is quite often that teachers encounter some problems in engaging the students in such productive communication in the classroom even though they have applied communicative language teaching practice. The term communicative teacher talk does not always refer to the amount of the language that teachers use in the classroom communication. This implies that not all types of teacher talk occupied by teacher guarantee that successful interaction happen in the process of learning. In line with this case, Cullent (1998:179) suggests the teachers to pay attention not only on how much teacher talk should be occupied but also on how effectively it is able to facilitate learning and promote communicative interaction in the classroom, for instances, the kinds of questions they ask, the speech modifications they make when talking to the students, or the way they react to student errors.

In respond to creating fruitful interaction, Thornbury (1996:281-282) notes the characteristics of the language used by teacher which are considered as being communicative, some of them are the use of referential questions, content feedback, speech modifications and negotiation of meaning. The criteria of communicative classroom interaction above are of course hard to implement in the teaching practice. For

instance, the use of exclusive display questions and form-focused feedback are still dominant in the process of learning. On the context of teaching English at secondary level in Indonesia it cannot be denied that commonly teachers still concern on the use of exclusive or excessive use of display questions that are far from being called communicative since it cannot result in genuine communication. Besides, the feedback provided by teachers is mainly focusing on form in which teachers only show interest in the correct formation of the students' contribution. This matter must be one of crucial aspects that cause the students reluctant in learning, passive in joining the lesson, have less confidence and self-reliance, and have bad attitude toward teacher talk. The absence of those criteria may result in less or uncommunicative interaction in the classroom.

QUESTIONING STRATEGIES

A. **Teacher's Questioning in ESL Classroom**

Questioning is widely accepted to play a vital role in ESL teaching. The term questioning is defined variously by some experts. According to Seime (2002:10) questions in the classroom refer to any statements intended to evoke a verbal response. Furthermore, Hyman (1972:216) defines question as a word that refers to the eliciting of a verbal response and may take any grammatical form, such as declarative, interrogative or imperative. Moreover, Hunkin (1995:4) notes that questions are devices by which the teacher evaluates specifics of learning to conceptualizing questions as a means of actively processing, thinking about, and using information productively. Drawing upon these definitions, it can be pointed out that teacher's questioning is the instructional cues or stimuli employed by the teacher to convey the students about certain content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it.

Richards & Lockhart (1994) state that questioning is one of the most common techniques used by teachers and serves as the principal way in which the teacher controls the classroom interaction.

The use of sufficient questioning in the classroom can promote the teaching and learning language more effective and motivating. A good question plays significant role in deepening the lesson in language classroom. However, in order that questioning can assist the students' learning optimally, the teacher should structure his question in a way that they can be applicable and understood easily. The following sections highlight the discussion of the function of questioning, types of questions, and questions in interaction.

B. Function of Questioning

Teacher's questioning has been broadly asserted to take crucial roles in the instructional process especially in the field of second language learning. According to Banbrook and Skehan (1990), teacher's questions are of extreme significance in which they can be used to let students keep taking part in the discourse and even modify it so that the language will be more comprehensible. Teacher's questioning is pivotal to the instructional process because questioning is one of instructional tools that is frequently occupied by the teacher to deliver the instruction.

Particularly, Brualdi (1998) confirms that questions are used to help the teacher to ascertain the level at which their students understand the concepts presented during the instruction. They are importantly occupied by the teacher in several different purposes, such as to engage or encourage students' active

participation in the lesson, allow students to express their thoughts and hear explanations offered by their peers, and keep students alert or on task during class time. Additionally, questions are recognized to provide significant contribution in English language teaching because students' achievement and their level of engagement may be affected by the types and quality of questions teachers formulate and use in the classroom.

In accord to the purpose of questions, Donald & Eggen (1989) endeavor to group questions into three general areas, they are diagnostic, instructional, and motivational. In case of diagnostic tool, classroom questions allow the teacher to glimpse into the students' mind to figure out not only what they have already known or do not know but also how they think about particular topic. By using strategic questioning, for example, the teacher can evaluate the level of students' thought to identify not only what students know but also gaps and misconceptions. In other words, teachers' questions are imperative to students' learning because they mediate the interactive processes in the learning environment in a number of important ways, for instance, the questions that teachers formulate and ask the students are considered to be cues and clues which focus their attention on what needs to be learned and the teachers' questioning patterns affect which students learn and how much they learn.

Another important function that questions perform is instructional. The instructional function is related with the role that questions take account in facilitating students learn new lesson and integrate it with the old one. Questions alert students to the information in such lesson. Beside that, questions are also valuable in the learning of integrated bodies of knowledge. Toward this goal questions can be used to review previously learned material to establish a knowledge base for the new material to be learned. In addition, as the new material is being developed, questions can be used to clarify relationships within the content being discussed.

In addition to its important roles, questioning in L2 teaching is recognized to be beneficial for the teacher to motivate students to attend the lessons attentively. This means that classroom questions deal with motivational function. Through questionings, the teacher can engage students actively in the lesson, challenge their thinking, and pose problems for them to consider. Questions at the previous stage of the lesson can be used to capture students' attention and provide a focus for the lesson. In addition to this, frequent and periodic questions can encourage active participation and provide opportunities in the lesson for continued student involvement.

Based on the ideas explored, it can be underlined that there are a variety of purposes and reasons for asking questions in the classrooms by teachers. Broadly speaking, teachers' questions can be considered as the

most powerful device to lead, extend and control communication in the classroom.

C. Types of Questions

Teachers in ESL classroom mostly employ different types of questions in order to make the teaching practice run smoothly and effectively, to help the students gain optimum results of learning, and to enhance students' proficiency in the target language. There are different types and classifications of teachers' questions in teaching and learning process. In accord to this, Richards and Lockharts (1994:186) describe three types of questions posed by teachers in facilitating the students in L2 learning; they are procedural, convergent and divergent questions.

Procedural questions deal with regular classroom management as opposed to the content of learning. Richards and Locharts (1994:186) state that these sorts of questions occur in the classroom while teachers are checking that assignments have been completed, that instructions for a task are clear, and that students are ready for a new task. In this way, procedural questions are designed to engage students in the content of the lesson, facilitate students' comprehension, promote classroom interaction and ensure the smooth flow of the teaching process.

In addition, convergent questions encourage students' responses which focus on the topic being discussed. Convergent questions have a more narrowly defined correct answer in which the answer is

commonly short, requires li le reflection and requires that the responded recall fr n memory a bit of factual information, for example, y s/no answers or simple statements. Convergent ques ions may also be referred to as closed-ended questions meaning that the teacher is looking for an anticipate d response that requires students' little original tho ght. In other words, the answer will have been pr vided within the context assigned by the teacher.

Furthermore, diverge nt questions are quite different from convergen questions. Divergent questions are regarded as op n-ended by nature. These questions encourage diverse student responses which are not short answers and which require students to engage in higher-level th nking. They encourage students to provide their ow information rather than recall previously presented information. In general, divergent questions often re uire students to analyze, synthesize, or evaluate a k owledge base and then project or predict different ou comes.

Beside that, another cl ssification of questions is based on Bloom's taxonomy There are six levels of Bloom's Taxonomy and ques ions at each level require the students responding to use a different kind of thought process. These six evels cover: knowledge comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Cooper, 1986).

There are also oth r scholars who have explained the art of asking uestions. Erickson (2007) divides the types of questio s in three general terms,

such as factual, conceptual, and provocative questions. These types of classification are similar with the one that have been discussed earlier. For example factual questions refer to questions that are easily answered with definitive and comparatively simple answers. Conceptual questions might be ones that are convergent, divergent or evaluative in construction. The provocative are questions that entice and can not be answered with easy answers.

Moreover, Nunan (1989) has indicated the distinction between display and referential questions. He states that a display question is one to which the teacher knows the answer, whereas a referential question is one to which the person asks the question does not know the answer. In particular, it is explained that referential questions provide wide range of opportunity for the students to express their ideas without any restrictions and develop the out put of the target language. On the other hand, display questions are those to which the answers are already known and which are designed to elicit particular structures, while referential questions are ones to which teachers, in naturalistic and classroom discourse, do not know the answers already (Richard & Lockhart, 1994).

D. Questioning in the Classroom Interaction

The most important key to creating an interactive language classroom is the initiation of interaction by the teacher (Brown, 2001:169). It is suggested that the English teacher initiate the

communication during the instruction starting from previous stage of instruction to the end of post-activity by providing sufficient stimuli to create communicative interaction in the classroom. One of ways to create sustainable interaction in the classroom is by developing a repertoire of questioning strategies. In accord to this, Richards and Lockharts (1994:185) justify that teacher's questionings can stimulate and maintain students interest, encourage students to think and focus on the content of the lesson, enable the teacher to check students understanding, enable the teacher to elicit particular structures or vocabulary items and encourage student participation in a lesson.

In addition to the roles of teacher's questioning in creating interaction, Cotton (1988) recommends the teachers to frequently incorporate questioning into classroom teaching/learning practices. In this notion, teachers are recommended to provide questions which focus mainly on such elements in the lesson, avoid questioning students about extraneous matters, pose a majority of higher cognitive questions, and ask questions before as well as after material is read or studied. Furthermore, it is also suggested to avoid vague or critical responses to student answers during recitations by using praise sparingly and make certain it is sincere, credible, and directly connected to the students' responses.

In order to promote and sustain interaction in the classroom, there are some techniques that can be employed by the teachers, such as by employing

comprehension checks, confirmation checks and clarification request (Allwright and Bailey, 1991:123). Comprehension check is used by the teacher to find out whether the students understand what has been said or not. Beside that, a clarification request is a request for further information or help with understanding something the teacher has previously said. While a confirmation check is that the teacher queries about whether or not the students understand his correct meaning.

Meanwhile, the effective use of communication skills by the teacher is conducive to the development of positive interaction in the classroom. In line with this case, McComas and Abraham (1995) convey that there are some components that cause successful interactions in the classroom which the teacher should pay attention when occupying questions. They cover physical setting, teacher's attitude, hints for calling on students to maximize student participation, wait-time after asking questions, handling student responses to questions and responding to students' questions.

Firstly, the teacher needs to be aware of the acoustics of the room in which they teach and make sure whether or not students can hear the questions asked by teachers and other students. Additionally, teachers should be able to listen attentively to the students' response, encourage him to continue, and help them to focus the attention of the class on the student who is responding to the question by maintaining eye contact or using nonverbal gestures. In

order to maximize student' participation, there are several ways that teachers should do, for instances, asking questions of the entire class and trying to encourage all students to participate, calling students by their names as opposed to pointing in their general direction, making an attempt to randomly select students to respond, trying to avoid repeating all student responses and anticipate the students who dominate in class and giving students a wide range of opportunity to ask questions.

Another factor that might be possibly to have powerful effects on student participation is the amount of time the teacher pauses between asking a question and doing something else. It is generally asserted that the use of appropriate wait time will be able to improve students' participation in the classroom questioning as students are better able to comprehend the question, consider the available information, formulate an answer and provide optimal response. In addition, an important aspect of questioning in order to create classroom interaction is that the strategy used by the teacher to handle students' responses. The teachers should be able to choose suitable questioning strategies, for instances, reinforce, code-switching, probe, refocus, rephrase or redirect when the students respond or ask questions. The following section highlights various strategies of questioning that the teacher commonly practices in the classroom.

E. Previous Research on Questions in ESL Classrooms

There is a wide range of research on questioning in the teaching process. Inspired by the new trend in language teaching pedagogy in which more emphasis is placed on the role of teachers, Farahani & Mirsharifi (2008) conducted an experimental study to find out whether there is any significant difference between effective and less effective teachers in terms of their questioning behavior and feedback in the classroom. This study involved 60 university students majoring in English that were randomly selected and representing two proficiency levels of L2 as intermediate and post-intermediate students. The question types chosen included display and referential ones and the feedback categories under investigation encompassed explicit correction, recasts, clarification feedback, metaliguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. The study firmly supports the conclusion that effective teachers ask significantly more questions than less effective ones and provide significantly more corrective feedback than their less effective counterparts. The present study also reveals that effective teachers ask referential questions far more often than they ask display questions.

Furthermore, Shomoossi (2004) in his study "The effect of teachers' questioning behavior on the classroom interaction: A classroom research study" endeavored to explore the patterns of questioning behavior and their interactive impacts. This study employed non-participant observation to gain the data

needed focusing on two question types, display and referential. Forty reading comprehension classes in Tehran universities were observed by the investigator. The findings indicated that display questions were used by teachers more frequently than referential questions, and showed that not all referential questions were able to create enough interaction. Some factors leading to the reduced amount of interaction were found such as repeated questions, low language proficiency, and limiting the class to the textbook, while the factors that enhanced the amount of interaction such as interesting topics, teacher's attention, misunderstanding, information gap and humor. But, it was quite difficult to justify whether referential questions were more useful for language learning or display ones were useless as the use of questioning strategy depend on each particular context itself.

Sahin, Bullock & Stables (2002) have also examined the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices at Key Stage 2 (ages 7- 11) as regards to the use of questioning by using interview and observation techniques. Questions used by pre-service teachers were also investigated by Moyer and Milewicz (2002). They pointed out that pre-service teachers use questions for checking, probing and for instruction.

In addition, Zee et. al. (2001) conducted a case study to investigate ways of speaking that encourage students to formulate insightful questions about science topics and express their own ideas during reflective

discussions. Student and teacher questions during the three ways of speaking (guided discussions, student-generated inquiry discussions, and peer collaborations) were documented and interpreted. Results indicate that student questions occurred when discourse structures were set up that explicitly elicited student questions, engaged students in conversations about familiar contexts, created comfortable discourse environments in which students could try to understand one another's thinking, and established small groups where students were collaborating with one another. Typically they elicited student thinking by asking questions that develop conceptual understanding, such as questions to help students clarify their meanings, explore various points of view in a neutral and respectful manner, and monitor the discussion and their own thinking. They also elicited student thinking by practicing quietness through long wait times, attentive silence, and reticence.

Sounders, Gall, Nielson and Smith (2001) did an experimental study in order to evaluate alternative methods for training pre-service teachers in questioning skills. In their study, some treatment groups received videotape and handbook instruction and regular microteaching practice with junior high school students. Two other groups received the same instruction and regular microteaching or classroom observation experience. One group received instruction based on a traditional exposition method. Comparisons revealed **that** regular and peer micro teaching

produced the most consistent gains in use of questioning skills.

Hamilton and Brady (1991) investigated individual and class wide patterns of teachers' questioning in social studies and science classes. The data was gathered from classroom observations. The results showed that there were no differences in teacher questioning between content areas for either mainstream or regular education students at the micro level (teacher to individual student). However, it was found that the teachers asked more academic questions than non-academic questions at the macro level.

Most of studies above suggest that teacher should sharpen their effective questioning skills by becoming familiar with different types of questions in order to help students think more critically and creatively. In addition, teachers must understand the elements of verbal questioning and have a willingness to practice them. Teachers need to have expertise in the skill of asking questions. However, effective questioning skills require technical knowledge. Teachers' questions give the students a wide range of opportunity to connect what they know with what they needed to examine and reflect on in their own thinking.

Given the importance of questions in eliciting students' responses and engaging their participation, a lot of studies of questions have been done both in content and language classrooms. They have different points of emphasis. Some studies focused on demarcating question types and the effects of the

question types on student learning. Others looked at questions in interaction, exploring the ways teachers modified questions to facilitate student learning. Still others centered on how teachers jointly constructed knowledge with students by way of questions. However, little has been researched on how questioning strategies assist on the L2 learning, for instances, the extent to which the teacher use code-switching, probing, redirection and reinforcement in the classroom questionings. Therefore, this present study endeavor to explore the teacher's questioning strategies focus on the four aforementioned strategies in the secondary school.

F. Questioning Strategies

Admitting the significant role of teachers' questioning in creating an interactive language classroom, Brown (2001) suggests that the teacher is inclined to enhance his role as an initiator of interaction to develop a repertoire of questioning strategies. Developing appropriate questioning techniques is an important part of teaching and assessing students' learning. It is suggested that the teacher should be able to identify the types of questions asked, why he occupies that sort of questions, and what techniques are utilized to improve the questioning that occurs in the classrooms.

In wider context of classroom interaction, how questions are asked has a great impact on students' outcomes. These outcomes are shaped not just by how

the teachers phrases and uses some types of questions, but are also shaped by the ways in which students are encouraged to generate their own questions (Wilen, 1991). In other words, teachers are expected to develop students' questioning skills and employ different types of questions in ESL Classrooms in order to improve the learning opportunities for the class, motivate students to talk more, and provide responses.

It is believed that motivating students to communicate with the language entails knowledge of the types of questions on the part of the teacher. The teacher has to be well aware of the purposes and strategy of questioning. If questionings are properly handled and employed, they may facilitate interaction and bring about the necessary changes in the students language proficiency. To summarize, it can be underlined that the teacher should be able to apply such effective strategy of his questioning practice in order to promote students' learning and achieve the targeted instructional objectives.

As well as knowing what questions to ask, teachers also need to know how to organize questions, what strategies to employ, and answer in the classroom. There are many different ways of asking questions to the students. For example, teachers can make a use of nomination strategies (Doff, 1988). By using this strategy, the teacher can ask each student in turn round the class, let any student call out the answer, choose a student to answer or get the class to answer in chorus, and so forth. These Strategies are

helpful for language teachers to encourage students to answer questions in group or individually.

Apart from nomination strategies, there are various questioning strategies that may help language students if employed by language teachers in ESL classrooms. McComas and Abraham (1995) note some techniques for successful questioning as follows:

- Phrasing: teacher communicates the question so that the students understand the response expectation.
- Adaptation: teacher adapts the question being asked to fit the language and ability level of the students.
- Sequencing: teacher asks the questions in a patterned order indicating a purposeful questioning strategy.
- Balance: teacher asks both convergent and divergent questions and balances the time between the two types. The teacher uses questions at an appropriate level or levels to achieve the objectives of the lesson.
- Participation: teacher uses questions to stimulate a wide range of student participation, encouraging responses from volunteering and non-volunteering students, redirects initially asked questions to other students.
- Probing: teacher probes initial student answers, and encourages students to complete, clarify, expand or support their answers.
- Wait Time: teacher pauses three to five seconds after asking a question to allow students time to think. The teacher also pauses after students' initial responses to questions in class.

In addition, an important aspect of classroom interaction is the manner in which the teachers handle student responses. When the teacher asks a question, students can respond with the anticipated answer, respond with an unanticipated answer, ask a question of the instructor, or even give no response at all. When an initial question fails to elicit student verbal responses or when the teacher senses that a question is difficult or ambiguous, s/he tends to modify the form and/or content of the question by a variety of means, such as, repetition, rephrasing, offering cues or providing examples. Depending upon how the student reacts, the teacher may take one of several actions. Goodwin et al. (1992) suggest that teacher should reinforce the student response, probe for further information, refocus the question, redirect the question to another student, use code-switching or rephrase the question for the same student. In this present study, the teacher's questioning is mainly focused on the investigation of these four kinds of strategies; they are code-switching, probing, redirection and reinforcement. These questioning strategies are discussed in more detail in the following subheadings respectively.

a. Code-Switching

In L2 classrooms context, using code switching is a frequent practice. The term code switching is defined variously by some experts. Richards and Schmidt (2002:91) defines code switching as a change

by a speaker from one language or language variety to another one, and it can take place in a conversation when a person start speaking one language and then change to another one in the middle of their speech, or sometimes even in the middle of a sentence. In line with this definition, Myers-Scotton's (2006:239) confirms that code switching is the use of two languages varieties in the same conversation. Furthermore, it is confirmed that code switching occurs when bilinguals alternate between two languages during one interaction with another bilingual person. In other words, code switching deals with the change of language made by teachers from the target language to native language.

Teachers' code-switching behaviors have been widely addressed in ESL classroom studies. Piasecka (1988) suggests that teachers' use of students' native language is a joint decision between the teacher and students. It has been listed some possible occasions for using students' native language, including classroom management, presentation of grammar, discussion of cross-cultural issues, and the assessment of comprehension. In line with this, extensive research has been carried out on using code switching in the classroom as a contextualization cue, as Martin-Jones (2000) pointed out that such contextualization cue range from phonological, lexical and syntactic choices to different types of code switching and style shifting.

Some studies suggest that code switching in the classrooms not only just normal but useful tool of

learning. In accordance to this matter, Cook (2001) refers to code switching in the classroom as a natural response in a bilingual situation and it is highly desirable among students. Moreover, in eliciting teachers' reflections to their classroom teachings, Probyn (2010) notice that most notable strategy that teachers used is code switching to achieve a number of communicative and metalinguistics ends.

Additionally, Baker (2006) confirms that code switching can be used to emphasize a particular point, substitute a word in place of unknown word in the target language, express a concept that has no equivalent in the culture of the other language, reinforce a request, clarify a point, express identity and communicate friendship, ease tension and inject humor into a conversation. Broadly speaking, code-switching is broadly employed in L2 language classrooms to facilitate students' comprehension. Alternatively, code-switching is a strategy for teachers to adapt to students' English proficiency, teaching goals, and teacher roles.

b. Probing

Although the role and importance of probing questions has long been known by educators, the use of probing questions is not a frequent practice by many teachers (Newmann, 1988). Probing questions is a type of open-ended or higher order questions that not only extend students' knowledge beyond factual recall and repeating learned skills, but also push students to use previous knowledge to explore and develop new

concepts and procedures. In other words, probing deals with teacher probes initial student answers, and encourages students to complete, clarify, expand or support their answers. Probing questions are intended to help the students think more deeply about the issue at hand. This may be the case that the initial response provided by students may be superficial. Therefore, the teacher needs to use a questioning strategy called probing to make students explore initial comments. The main reason is that probes are useful in getting students more involved in critical analysis of their own and other students' ideas.

Probing can be done in several ways depend on the teacher's purpose. McComas and Abraham (1995) say that probes can be used to: (a) analyze a student's statement, make a student aware of underlying assumptions, or justify or evaluate a statement, (b) help students deduce relationships. Instructors may ask student to judge the implications of their statements or to compare and contrast concepts, and (c) have students clarify or elaborate on their comments by asking for more information.

c. Redirection

Redirection deals with questioning strategy in which the teacher endeavor to guide students to convey their ideas. Redirecting students' responses can be done in several ways. For instance, when a student responds to teacher's question, then the teacher can ask another student to comment on his statement, give

additional information, or reject his ideas. In other words, this strategy can also be used to allow a student to correct another student's incorrect statement or respond to another student's question. The ultimate purpose of using this technique in the classroom questionings is that to enable more students to participate in the classroom interaction.

d. Reinforcement

Another important strategy in handling the students' response is that the use of teacher's reinforcement. In the classroom questioning, reinforcement refers to the strengthening of a response as a result of repetition followed by a positive reward. The teacher should be able to reinforce in positive way students' responses and questions in order to encourage them engage more actively in future participation. In accord to this, the teacher can reinforce students by making positive statements or using positive nonverbal communication. Proper nonverbal responses include smiling, nodding, and maintaining eye contact, while improper nonverbal responses include looking at notes while students speak, looking at the board or ruffling papers. McComas and Abraham (1995) state that the type of reinforcement provided will be determined by the correctness of the answer and the number of times a student has responded. If a student gives an answer which is off target or incorrect, teacher may want to briefly acknowledge the response but not spend much time on

it and then move to the correct response. Beside that, Teachers may want to provide a student who has never responded in class with more reinforcement than someone who responds often. It is suggested to vary reinforcement techniques between various verbal statements and nonverbal reactions and avoid the overuse of reinforcement in the classroom by overly praising every student comment.

6 BUILDING STUDENTS' SCHEMATA

A. Schemata Theory

Schemata theory departs from a conception that every activity always involves understanding the knowledge that has been owned by someone.[35] Widdowson states that a person's cognitive schemata is a construction arrangement contains various information in long-term memory.[36] Furthermore, the concept of schemata as Landry lays out the process of how knowledge stored in the brain and how that knowledge is used.[37] From these statements, it can be said that schemata is an initial knowledge possessed by a person comes from previous experiences that are recorded in the memory.

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[35] Al-Issa, A., "Schema Theory and L2 Reading Comprehension: Implication for Teaching," *Journal of College Teaching & Learning*, vol. 3/7, (2006, July), 41.

[36] Widdowson, H.G., *Learning Purpose and Language Use*, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1983), 143

[37] Landry, K. L., "Schema theory-based pre-reading tasks: A neglected essential in the ESL reading class," *The Reading Matrix*, 3/1, (2002),34

In learning activities, when students acquire new knowledge, they try to relate the concept that knowledge into their memory structure to help them understand new knowledge. In reading comprehension, students should not only know the meaning of the word or sentence level, but they must be able to identify and interpret the content of reading. Activation of schemata assists students in predicting discourse or new information and also assists them in developing new information.

In order that students are able to understand the reading well, their schemata must be active before they begin to read the text.[38] Schemata activation is so petrified in the success of students to understand the content of reading. The students' prior knowledge will be active when the new information from the outside can be accepted and linked to information that has been previously owned by them.

B. Types of schemata

Generally, schemata can be divided into three main types, namely: linguistics schemata, formal schemata and content schemata. The three types of schemata above may affect the success of students' reading comprehension. These three types of schemata are reviewed comprehensively in the following

[38] Wallace, *Reading*, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992), 33.

subheadings in order to facilitate our understanding of its application on reading class.

1. Linguistics schemata

Linguistics schemata are language skills owned by the reader covering the mastery of vocabulary, sentence structure, pronunciation and idioms. Among the three types of schemata, linguistics schemata play an important role in understanding a reading text. If the students do not have good linguistics knowledge, they will get difficulties or even not able to capture the contents or messages of the text. In other words, the information from the reading text, whether implicit or explicit message, will not be captured well because of limited language skills they have. As a result, communication between authors and readers can be fail or break down. Therefore, the higher or lower linguistics abilities of readers result in their high or low understanding of the reading passage.

2. Formal schemata

Formal schemata can be defined as the prior knowledge of the students related with rhetorical structure and organization of a written text. These schemata include various aspects, such as knowledge of the types of text, generic structure, organization and language features that are used in every type of text as tense, verb, conjunctions and so forth.

When readers or students read the text, they will observe and recognize the type of texts that is being

read and the structure of the various styles of the language used. Students' prior knowledge related to formal schemata will help them identify text that is being read, such as essays, poems, novels, fiction, articles or a procedure to help them understand the information. Thus, by having sufficient knowledge of this field, they are going to grasp easily the intent, purpose and content of the text well.

3. Content schemata

Content schemata can be defined as students' prior knowledge related with the topic, theme, or story ideas of a text. These schemata can be manifested in the form of initial empirical experiences of the students in reading, cultural understanding, and their knowledge of the topic prior to reading passage.

In the process of reading, content schemata are very important because they can help student improve their comprehension. Possessing sufficient content schemata will help students understand the content or message of a text by predicting, sorting the information, and relate it to what happened before. Therefore, in order to help students understand the content of reading, it is important for the lecturer to associate the material with events that closely related to the students' experience.

Implementation schemata Theory based Pre-Reading Activities

Schemata theory is a systematic process to activate students' prior knowledge to link and develop

knowledge with new knowledge. Students' prior knowledge activation process includes an understanding of the purpose of reading and builds their new knowledge with respect to the contents and structure of the material they are learning.

The study of the application of schemata in pre-reading activities, which are focused to see the advantages and disadvantages have been done. Khemlani and Lynne state that prior knowledge plays an important role in building understanding of the child in an effort to understand a new text; activation of prior knowledge would make children be motivated to read because they are able to predict and construct their knowledge with the general or detailed information in a text.[39] It is highly recommended by the expert to enable schemata possessed by the students before the process of learning reading. In this study, schemata were implemented in pre-reading activities to gain knowledge and develop activities and to understand the reading material.

There are several methods that can be applied to activate prior knowledge of students, for example, with the application of brainstorming.[40] Brain storming is a technique of teaching where the lecturer explores prior knowledge by giving the students questions or

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[39] Khemlani, M. D. and Lynne, N.,. "Selection of reading texts: Moving beyond content schema," *Literacy Across Cultures*, vol. 4, 1 (2000).

[40] *Ibid.*

problems related with the reading passage being learned which are contextualized with students' knowledge or experience in order that they can make connection of the content and assess the information more easily without fear of making mistakes.[41]

This technique can help students organize and develop their prior knowledge and assist them in understanding the reading process effectively and optimally. Activating students' schemata with brainstorming can be done by asking questions, giving examples, facts, and short stories with accompanying images as a medium of learning, then inviting them to remember, associate, predict and record everything that relates to the content of reading.

C. Previous Research Findings

Researches in the area of schema theory and reading comprehension have been generally concluded that closer the match between the readers' schemata and the text, the more comprehension occurs. Comprehension of any kinds depends on knowledge; that is, relating what we don't know to what we already know, which is not a random collection of facts but a theory of the world. Schemata are the base of planning for retrieval. In reading comprehension, proper schemata need to be activated to search for

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[41] Carrell, P. dan Floyd, P., "Effects on ESL Reading of Teaching Cultural Content Schema," *Language Learning*, vol. 37, (1987), 93.

information in memory and to rebuild representation of memory.

There are some previous research findings dealing with the nature of schemata theory on the process of reading. For instance, the experiment done by Anderson et.al. in Xie had provided adequate proofs for the hypothesis of plan for retrieval.[42] In their study, the subjects were divided into two groups: one group read the story as robbers, and the other as house-purchasers, and was asked to recall the story. Afterwards, the subjects were required to change their roles. The results of the second recall have shown 10% more than the first recall revealing that, with the change of the viewpoint, many details which were not recalled and not seen as important previously but now important have been recalled. From this, it can be stated that the information that was not recalled previously was retrieved when the participants changed their role because the schema in accordance with the new viewpoint was activated and the information related to the new schema was searched in a 'top down' way and retrieved.

A classroom action research conducted by Restu mufanti and Sugihariyono tried to improve the quality of reading process at SMA Negeri 1 Banyuwangi by employing Schemata theory based pre-reading

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[42] Xuping Xie, "The influence of schema theory on foreign language reading comprehension", *The English Teacher,* Vol.XXXIV, (2005), 67-75

activities.[43] This study was started by conducting preliminary study to get the first hand data about the English teaching and learning process, and to identify the initial problems faced by the English teacher and students, especially in the process of reading. In addition, classroom action research with cycle model was carried out in two cycles; each cycle consisted of two meetings covering four main steps, they were preparation of the action, implementation, classroom observation and reflection. The research subjects were the students of SMA Negeri 1 Banyuwangi, especially class XI IPS 2. The result of reflection of the actions revealed that the students' reading achievement had improved from 66.9 in Cycle I up to 73.1 in Cycle II. Furthermore, the improvement of students' achievement in reading comprehension was in line with the increasing of their participation in the reading activities. In sum, the actions given could improve the quality of the teaching and learning reading process and fulfilled the criteria of success.

Furthermore, the qualitative study conducted by Nurmilasari attempted to investigate the underlying reasons and strategies the teacher used to activate

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[43] Restu Mufanti and Sugihariono, *Meningkatkan kualitas pembelajaran ketrampilan membaca bahasa Inggris di SMA Negeri 1 Banyuwangi melalui schemata theory based pre-reading activities,* (Proceeding:Untag Banyuwangi, 2009), 1-16

students' schemata in pre-reading activity.[44] This study was conducted at SMKN 1 Ponorogo involving two RPL classes of tenth grade consisted of 79 students. The result of study revealed that the teacher occasionally used questioning, previewing and mind mapping. Those techniques were used by the teacher to activate students' schemata including the content schemata (knowledge of subject matter, topic, and culture) and formal schemata (knowledge of the language, genre, metalinguistics, and metacognitive) in order that the students could understand the material easily.

In line with the above study, Farahani & Mirsharifi conducted an experimental study to find out whether there is any significant difference between effective and less effective teachers in terms of their questioning behavior and feedback in the classroom.[45] This study involved 60 university students majoring in English that were randomly selected and representing two proficiency levels of L2 as intermediate and post-intermediate students. The question types chosen included display and referential ones and the feedback categories under investigation encompassed explicit correction, recasts, clarification feedback, metaliguistic

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[44] Nurmilasari, Dila, *Activating schema theory through pre-reading activities in reading comprehension to the tenth grade students of SMKN 1 Ponorogo in Academic Year 2011/2012,* (Unpublished Thesis: STAIN Ponorogo, 2012)

[45] Farahani, D.B. & Mirsharifi, F. "Effective and Less Effective Teacher Questioning and Corrective Feedback Behavior in an EFL Context." *English Forum,* 1, (2008), 5-23

feedback, elicitation, and repetition. The study firmly supports the conclusion that effective teachers ask significantly more questions than less effective ones and provide significantly more corrective feedback than their less effective counterparts. The present study also reveals that effective teachers ask referential questions far more often than they ask display questions.

Furthermore, Shomoossi in his study "The effect of teachers' questioning behavior on the classroom interaction: A classroom research study" endeavored to explore the patterns of questioning behavior and their interactive impacts.[46] This study employed non-participant observation to gain the data needed focusing on two question types, display and referential. Forty reading comprehension classes in Tehran universities were observed by the investigator. The findings indicated that display questions were used by teachers more frequently than referential questions, and showed that not all referential questions were able to create enough interaction. Some factors leading to the reduced amount of interaction were found such as repeated questions, low language proficiency, and limiting the class to the textbook, while the factors that enhanced the amount of interaction such as interesting

[46] Shomoossi, N. "The effect of teachers' questioning behavior on EFL classroom interaction: a classroom research study." *The Reading Matrix*, Vol. 4, No. 2, (2004), 96-103

topics, teacher's attention, misunderstanding, information gap and humor. But, it was quite difficult to justify whether referential questions were more useful for language learning or display ones were useless as the use of questioning strategy depend on each particular context itself.

Having the discussion of some research findings above, some essential knowledge can be underlined. Most of researches above agree that pre-reading activity is obviously important to manage since this phase of reading help students activate their schemata that lead them focus on content or linguistic features in the text, understand socio-cultural or conceptual problems, remember and make a connection as well as improve their prior knowledge to develop activities and comprehend the material. However, little has been discussed on how the teacher assists on students' schemata, for instances, the extent to which the teacher uses effective strategy and/ or his/her language to engage students in pre-reading activity as well as activate their schemata. In this void, therefore, this present study endeavors to explore the ways how the lecturer used effective strategies and language to assist students activating their schemata.

D. The use of questioning strategies in assisting students' schemata activation

(SCHEMATA_DIPA2013 + ADD DATA DYSPALY)

As it has been highlighted before that the lecturer used to occupy questioning as the strategy to

build students' schemata in pre-reading activity. In accordance to its implementation, there were some essential phenomena that were noted during the two-periods of classroom investigation when the lecturer attempted to build students' schemata on pre-reading activity. The first observation revealed that students engaged less actively during the question-answer phase. It was frequently found that the lecturer's questions were followed by little or almost empty response from the students. However, the second observation found some improvement on the way how the lecturer managed the question-answer activities. It was seen that she was better able to engage students by occupying several well-organized strategies accompanied with the use of more effective language in her classroom questioning behaviors.

Some weaknesses found on the previous instruction might encourage the lecturer to always aware of using effective strategies to handle students' response. Probing question, for instance, was one of strategies that was not obviously employed in the previous instruction could be optimized by the lecturer. Although there were only some data that were found in this study, however, the way how the lecturer probed the students' ideas or understanding was adequately used to explain the nature of this technique to facilitate the students in learning English.

Primarily, the lecturer occupied probing questions when she found that the students' responses were vague, the language was unclear due to encounter

many grammatical errors, or the students' answer needed more detail explanation. In this regard, the use of probing questions seemed essential to be occupied to check for the completeness or clarity of the information provided and help students to analyze their own initial reasons critically. Furthermore, it revealed that the lecturer used probing questions to push students recall their previous knowledge or experience.

Probing question was also employed when the lecturer found the students' answer was superficial. In this notion, the lecturer wanted to seek for further information to understand what the student wanted to say by asking for clarification. This strategy was used to urge the students in order that they could explore or support the answer they provided so as to the ideas given were more comprehensible. Furthermore, the lecturer used probing question to evaluate the students' comprehension about the text that was going to discuss.

This strategy seemed quite effective to involve the student in the process of learning and create genuine conversation. The important of probing technique is in line with McCormas and Abraham's idea who state that probes can be used to: (a) analyze a student's statement, make a student aware of underlying assumptions, or justify or evaluate a statement, (b) help students deduce relationships. Instructors may ask student to judge the implications of their statements or to compare and contrast concepts, and (c) have students clarify or elaborate on their

comments by asking for more information.[47] In sum, it was possible to say that probing strategy was one of the lecturer's ways that took essential role in assisting students to engage in more productive learning, helping them to elaborate their ideas and increase critical thinking, and also creating genuine communication in the classroom.

In addition, from the result of observation, it revealed that redirection strategy was also employed by the lecturer in her questioning behaviors to assist students' schemata. However, this technique was only subsequently used by the lecturer in her classroom questionings. Unfortunately, the lecturer was less to optimize this technique to involve students in the question-answer activities. As a result of this matter, it was observed that the students tended to pay little attention to listen and share their ideas with others. Moreover, some of students were still reluctant to join in the question-answer activities and seem only to take it for granted.

On the other hand, the use of this technique in this study gave positive contribution in the process of learning. Although there were only little efforts in using this technique, the lecturer still could help the students participate in learning English, especially in

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[47] McComas and Abraham. *Asking More Effective Questions,* (Center for excellent in teaching, University of southern of California, 1995). Retrieved on January 25, 2012. Available on http://cet.usc.edu/resources/teaching_learning/pdf

pre-reading activities. The results showed that the lecturer used redirecting strategy in her classroom questioning by allowing the student to add information or correct another student's response. Allowing one of students to give any correction or add information from previous student's initial answer was more preferred.

The use of redirection strategy provided positive contributions in which the lecturer could facilitate students to participate more in learning English. This technique could facilitate them to share and receive information or experience from different point of view, give suggestion or rejection each other, help them comprehend the text or the content of discussion and involve them in more productive discussion. Moreover, the students could encourage themselves to give suggestion or rejection to other's opinion since they had been given a wide range of opportunity to practice their language. In short, when this technique was employed in the process of question-answer, the lecturer was able to get the students focus on the lesson and participate actively in the classroom interaction. Besides, she could dig the students' knowledge about the subject matter and share their knowledge to others to gain more comprehensive knowledge.

In accordance to the result of observation, it was also seen that the lecturer used to encourage students to involve more actively during the question-answer session. Reinforcement strategy was necessarily undertaken by her in order to get the students actively

engage in such productive and communicative interaction in the classroom. Positive and appropriate reinforcement was seen addressed very well in pre-reading activity. Hence, it provided motivation for students to be more active in future participation. It was possibly to say that students were motivated in learning when their work or performance is, even little, rewarded.

The results showed that the lecturer used reinforcement to encourage students to engage in classroom communication by responding or giving opinions, acknowledge the student's performance and help them focus on the task. Moreover, the use of encouragement was not merely directed to get the correct answer from the students. It was also occupied by the lecturer to dig the students' understanding about the topic, focus their attention toward the lesson, and encourage them to take part more in the lesson. Besides, the lecturer had occupied reinforcement to treat students' misbehavior, for instance, when the students made little noise or did not focus on the task. This technique was aimed to catch their attention, manage the lesson, and create conducive atmosphere.

In accordance to the use of reinforcement strategy in classroom questioning, McComas and Abraham suggest some practical ways. They state that the type of reinforcement provided should be determined by the correctness of the answer and the number of times a student has responded. If a student gives an answer which is off target or incorrect, the

lecturer may want to briefly acknowledge the response but not spend much time on it and then move to the correct response. Beside that, the lecturer may want to provide a student who has never responded in class with more reinforcement than someone who responds often. It is suggested to vary reinforcement techniques between various verbal statements and nonverbal reactions and avoid the overuse of reinforcement in the classroom by overly praising every student comment.[48]

C. The use of effective language in facilitating students' schemata activation

The use of language in the classroom instruction known as teacher talk was the other aspect that could affect the quality of pre-reading process delivered by the lecturer. The data showed that the lecturer was fairly good to facilitate and involve students in question-answer because she might be able to employ some suitable questioning strategies followed with the use effective language in her questioning behaviors. It was obviously seen that she could encourage the majority of students to focus on her instruction and engage in the question-answer activities.

The effective use of communication skills by the lecturer was the key factor to the development of

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[48] McComas and Abraham. *Asking More Effective Questions,* (Center for excellent in teaching, University of southern of California, 1995). Retrieved on January 25, 2012. Available on http://cet.usc.edu/resources/teaching_learning/pdf.

positive interaction in the classroom. The use of effective language in guiding questions was able to invite students' participation in learning and encourage them to share ideas to others. This notion was supported by Nunan who states that lecturer's language is crucially important, not only for the organization of the classroom but also for the processes of acquisition. The use of effective language plays important role for the organization and management of the classroom since the language that the lecturer occupies impact on the success or fail in implementing their teaching plans.[49] Additionally, Cullent suggests the lecturer to pay attention not only on how much teacher talk should be occupied but also on how effectively it is able to facilitate learning and promote communicative interaction in the classroom, for instances, the kinds of questions they ask, the speech modifications they make when talking to the students, or the way they react to student errors.[50]

Based on the result of observation, it was revealed that there were some types of language which were occupied by the lecturer appropriately and effectively in her questioning behaviors, such as using open-ended questions or known as referential question,

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[49] Nunan, David. *Language Teaching Methodology: a textbook for Teachers.* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991).

[50] Cullent, R. "Teacher Talk and the Classroom Context." *ELT Journal,* volume 52/3 (1998)179-187.

giving feedback focused on the content, and making speech modification.

Referential question was used occasionally by the lecturer in her questioning behaviors to build students' schemata. The closer analysis revealed that the use of referential question could facilitate the students in question-answer more dynamically and invite them to reply the lecturer's question as well as improve their motivation to always use the target language as their own. Furthermore, the genuine conversation happened when the lecturer endeavored to use referential question. It proved that the students attempted to participate in the discussion by asking or replying questions, offering suggestions, or giving additional information voluntarily.

Besides, the use of referential questions could involve the students in more negotiation of meaning between the lecturer to students or among the students themselves. The existence of negotiation of meaning was better able to promote target language usage and make classroom interaction more communicative. In other words, the use of referential questions did not only arouse the students' interests but also help them develop their output and communicative ability in learning.

In addition, feedback focused on the content was obviously given by the lecturer in her questioning behaviors. The result of analysis showed that the subsequent use of content feedback given by the lecturer had positive effects on the students'

subsequent performance. Providing feedback to students focusing on the content was one of important aspects of the lecturer's ways to create communicative teaching. As it is stated by Cook that this kind of feedback is regarded as the teachers' evaluation of the student response to help them improve the fluency of their speaking.[51] This could set up interactive communication, help students to be more aware to get involved in the classroom discussion, and facilitate them to be more confidence in conveying the ideas.

There were some strategies used by the lecturer in providing content feedback to the students towards their speaking, such as reformulation, elaboration, comment and repetition. Content feedback in the form of reformulation seemed to be used more frequently by the lecturer to reshape students' thought. Besides, elaboration was observed to extend the content of the student's reply and spice it up as well. Furthermore, the comment was used when the student's reply or answer was vague due to it encountered with grammatical errors on the sentence structure or the student's idea was definitely unclear due to very limited opinion provided. Meanwhile, repetition was used to reiterate the student's reply for confirmation.

The other type of lecturer's effective language was the use of speech modification. The result revealed that there were some speech modifications occurred

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[51] Cullen, R. "Teacher Talk and the Classroom Context." *ELT Journal* volume 52/3, (1998), 179-187.

during the question-answer process. The most dominant modifications made by the lecturer were such as the use of modified pronunciation, pauses, and self repetition. The lecturer under this investigation tended to use natural pronunciation but sometimes she emphasized the meaning of her speech by raising the intonation, volume, or the speed. The lecturer attempted to make pauses consciously when talking to students to get their attention toward the task and give them valuable knowledge on how to finish off the task.

Besides, the use of pause in her speech provided the students a wide range of opportunities to process the input, help them reduce cognitive load, and comprehend the content or topic being discussed. Furthermore, another way of speech modification revealed was that the use of speed. It was often that the rate of lecturer's speech appeared to be slower, especially when she tried to move on further question to dig the students' understanding about the material that had been discussed. Another factor that might be possibly to have fruitful effects on students' participation in question-answer was the amount of time the lecturer paused between asking a question and waiting for students' reply. It was found that the use of appropriate wait time enabled them to engage more in the classroom questioning as students were better able to comprehend the question, consider the available information, formulate an answer and provide optimal response.

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