Jihočeská univerzita v Českých Budějovicích

Pedagogická fakulta

Katedra anglistiky

Diplomová práce

Otázky učitele podporující komunikaci ve třídě (na materiálu výuky anglického jazyka)

Teacher questions supporting communication in the classroom (on the material of ELT)

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České Budějovice 2021

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Anotace

Diplomová práce se zabývá otázkami učitele ve třídních interakcích ve výuce anglického jazyka na 2. stupni ZŠ. Mnoho výzkumů totiž ukazuje, že kvalitní otázky učitele vedou k rozvoji komunikace u žáků v cizojazyčné výuce, zvyšují kvalitu a množství žákova jazyka.

Teoretická část práce nejprve představuje postavení angličtiny jako školního předmětu v Rámcovém vzdělávacím programu. Nejrozsáhlejší část práce se zabývá vymezením pojmů třídní komunikace a interakce mezi učitelem a žákem nazývanou v anglicky psané literatuře jako IRE nebo IRF. Práce se zaměřuje na iniciaci ve formě otázky a na základě odborné literatury popisuje typy otázek podle různých typologií a zabývá se tím, které otázky učitele jsou ve třídní interakci nejefektivnější.

Praktická část vychází z videonahrávek hodin anglického jazyka na 2. stupni ZŠ. Otázky analyzuje na základě popsané typologie a sleduje, které typy otázek nejvíce rozvíjejí komunikaci ve třídě a které ji naopak limitují.

Klíčová slova: Otázky učitele, pedagogická komunikace, pedagogická interakce, IRF struktura, dialog

Abstract

The diploma thesis deals with the teacher questions in classroom interaction in the teaching of English at the second stage of primary school. Many studies show that quality teacher questions develop pupils' communication in foreign language teaching, increase the quality and quantity of the pupil's language.

The theoretical part of the thesis first presents the position of English as a school subject within the Framework Educational Programme. The most extensive part of the thesis deals with the terms of classroom communication and interaction known as IRE or IRF. Based on the literature, the thesis focuses on initiation in the form of a question and describes the types of questions according to different typologies and tries to find out which teacher questions are most effective in classroom interaction.

The practical part is based on video recordings of English language lessons at the second stage of primary school. This part analyses the questions based on the described typology and observes which types of teacher questions develop classroom communication and which, on the contrary, limit it.

Key words: Teacher questions, classroom communication, classroom interaction, IRF Structure, dialogue

Contents

Introduction

The topic of this diploma thesis is '*Teacher questions supporting communication in the classroom*'. During the final year of my bachelor's degree, I was given the first opportunity to teach at a primary school. I stood in for an English teacher for two months and taught pupils from fifth to ninth grade. During my master's degree, I followed up on this experience through compulsory school experience at primary schools in České Budějovice and Netvořice. I experienced classroom communication and interaction with different classes and with different pupils at different schools, and that was one of the main reasons why I chose this topic for my thesis.

According to Framework Educational Programme, Communication Competency is one of the key competencies that form pupils' future personal and professional life. However, communication in English is generally problematic for primary school pupils. From my own experience, I found that they pupils are often afraid to say something wrong in English and therefore rather avoid it or express themselves briefly, often in one word. This was another reason why I decided to devote my thesis to this topic.

The thesis is divided into two parts – theoretical and practical. The thesis will first introduce the position of English as a school subject in the Framework Educational Programme. The most extensive part of the work will focus on defining terms classroom communication and interaction and their specifics. I will describe the IRF structure, which is an important feature of classroom discourse and one of the key concepts of this thesis.

Another extensive chapter will be devoted to questioning and typology of questions from different perspectives and according to different authors. Although I will describe various classifications of questions in this chapter, they often overlap. In the final chapter of the theoretical part, I will focus on nonverbal communication, which is an integral part of classroom discourse. The theoretical part will be based on reference books of Czech and foreign authors.

The practical part will be based on transcribed video recordings of three English lessons, which were recorded at primary school Dukelská in České Budějovice. The aim of the practical part will be to find out which types of questions develop classroom communication the most and which limit it. I will try to find out by dividing the teacher's questions into four categories. Then I will observe how the pupils respond to these questions - in one-word answers, short answers, or full sentences.

Theoretical part

1. Framework Educational Programmes

In the opening chapter of the theoretical part, I will introduce the term Framework Educational Programme and key competencies. I will generally introduce the educational field Language and Language Communication and then I will focus in more detail on English Language teaching and its expected outcomes.

Framework Educational Programmes "define the general obligatory framework for creating school curricula (School Educational Programmes) for all fields of study in preschool, basic education, art, language and secondary education."[1]

In 2021, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport of the Czech Republic issued a revised Framework Educational Programme (FEP) for basic education with a modernized content of education. Primary schools could start teaching following this programme from September 1, 2021 and must start it from September 1, 2024 at the latest.[2]

FEP determines general aims of education and emphasises seven multifunctional key competencies which penetrate each other, are developed in each school subject, and have cross-curricular character. They form the basis for the student's future personal life, education, and profession. The key competencies are Learning Competency, Problem-Solving Competency, Communication Competency, Social and Personal Competency, Civic Competency, Entrepreneurial Competency and Digital Competency.

The content of education in FEP for basic education is divided into nine educational areas and each educational area is further formed by one or more educational fields. The English language is included in the first educational area Language and Language Communication, which includes the educational fields of the Czech Language and Literature, Foreign Language and Second Foreign Language.

In language teaching, the development of communication competencies is emphasised, and since language culture currently means certain general maturity, the educational area of

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[1] http://www.nuv.cz/our-work/framework
[2] http://www.nuv.cz/t/rvp-pro-zakladni-vzdelavani

Language and Language Communication plays a key role in the educational process. Language skills are also developed across all educational areas.

The educational content of individual fields of education is then made up of expected outcomes and curriculum. The expected outcomes are practically oriented so that pupils can use them in everyday life and are binding for School Educational Programmes.

The educational fields Foreign Language and Second Foreign Language reduce the language barrier, enable pupils to communicate with people around the world and increase their mobility in all areas of their future lives.

The requirements of the FEP for the teaching of foreign languages in primary schools are based on The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

In most primary schools in the Czech Republic, English is the first foreign language that children learn. The expected outcomes of the second stage of elementary school follow the expected outcomes of the first stage.

The expected outcomes of the second stage are divided into four categories: listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension and writing.

In listening comprehension, students should understand information in slow and simple listening and understand the content of a simple and clear conversation or speech.

In speaking, students can ask for basic information and react appropriately in everyday situations, as well as talk about topics that are close to them, such as family, friends, free time or school. They should be able to tell simple stories and describe people, places and events from their everyday lives.

In reading comprehension, students can search for information in everyday materials and simple short texts that they also understand.

Among the expected outcomes in writing is that students can fill in basic data in forms, write simple texts on topics that are close to them and respond to simple texts.

The second stage curriculum is (just as the first stage curriculum) also divided into four categories: phonic and graphic form of the word (e.g., intelligible pronunciation, spelling of words, intonation, accent), vocabulary (related to thematic areas), thematic areas (close topics, such as family, sports, culture, weather, travel ...) and grammar.

The current problems of the contemporary world are represented by six cross-curricular subjects, which are a compulsory part of basic education. Cross-curricular subjects for basic education are Personal and Social Education, Education of a Democratic Citizen, Education towards Thinking in European and Global Contexts, Multicultural Education, Environmental Education and Media Education. (RVP pro základní vzdělávání 2021[3])

2. Communication

The topic of this diploma thesis is called '*Teacher questions supporting communication in the classroom*' and that is why most of the theoretical part is devoted to communication, especially verbal communication. Communication is an integral part of our normal, school and work life and each of these types of communication has its own rules and specifics. First, I will shortly define communication in general and then I will focus on classroom communication with its specifics in detail.

The origin of the word communication comes from the Latin word *communicare*, meaning to connect something, to share something. (Sklenářová, 2013) Communication is defined very similarly in various publications. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2008, p. 307) defines communication as "the process by which people exchange information or express their thoughts and feelings." Allen (2005, p. 276) understands communication as "the exchange of information, or the use of a common system of symbols, signs, behaviour, etc for this."

Because communication allows us to exchange information with each other, Zelinková (2011) considers it to be a life principle. Communication that takes place only among people is called social communication, in which the three basic aspects of social contact come together: joint operation, interaction, and interpersonal relationships. (Zelinková, 2011)

3. Classroom communication (T-P communication)

A special type of social communication that occurs among the participants in the educational process is called classroom communication (Průcha, 2017) that "is governed by personal qualities, individual values, social background and group dynamics." (Sage, 2000, p. 35) In his

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[3] http://www.nuv.cz/file/4982/

earlier publication (2009), Průcha also uses the term teacher-pupil communication. In this thesis, I will work with the term classroom communication.

Classroom communication "is focused on achieving educational goals, the content and social role of participants is defined, rules are set. It takes place not only at school but also in the family, in sports and hobby facilities, in educational and re-education facilities, in the working environment."[4] (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003, p. 155)

Classroom communication differs from ordinary social communication in many aspects, such as the role of the participants, the temporal and spatial boundaries and the content and purpose of the communication (Gavora, 2005) which is a pedagogic one. (Malamah-Thomas, 1987) Classroom communication has its typical functions, which include mediation of joint activities of participants and their interaction, mediation of personal and impersonal relationships, formation of all participants (especially the personality of pupils) and mediation of upbringing and the educational process. (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995)

Gavora (2005) mentions four aspects of classroom communication: communication and teaching, relationships between communicators, hidden curriculum, and social life in the classroom. According to the author, communication is the basis of education, because without communication, education would not be possible.

Communication is the basis of educational processes. (Šeďová a kol., 2012) Thanks to communication, educational goals, teaching content and teaching forms and methods are realized in the form of concrete verbal and non-verbal communication of teachers and pupils.

A class is a small community of people who enter relationships through communication - asymmetric (the teacher is superior to the pupils), symmetrical (equal relationships among pupils) and preferential (the teacher prefers certain pupils). All relationships that take place within a class are generally called classroom climate. (Gavora, 2005)

Classroom climate affects the quality of classroom communication. If the participants communicate and respect each other, it is a positive communication climate. If the participants

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[4] Je zaměřena na dosažení pedagogických cílů, mívá vymezen obsah, sociální role účastníků, stanovena či dohodnuta komunikační pravidla. Odehrává se nejen ve škole, ale také v rodině, ve sportovních a zájmových zařízeních, ve výchovných a převýchovných zařízeních, v pracovním prostředí. (Vlastní překlad.)

compete and hide their feelings or opinions, it is a defensive communication climate. (Nelešovská, 2002)

Teachers follow the official curriculum, but also the unwritten so-called hidden curriculum implemented exclusively through communication. The hidden curriculum includes social behaviour, the rules of the relationship between teacher and students and among students and how students feel at school. Pupils not only learn at school but also construct a life together, learn the rules and understand the established conventions. Some conventions may be so typical of a particular class that no one else would understand them. (Gavora, 2005) Classroom communication is limited by many factors – rules of classroom communication, organizational forms of teaching, space, time and teaching methods. (Vališová, Kasíková, 2011)

3.1   Rules of classroom communication

Classroom communication, like any social communication, has its own rules. These rules are set by the school rules written in the school code, the general rules in the society and the result of the conflict of interest process among the teacher and his/her pupils. (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995)

Communication rules are divided into codified and conventional according to their origin. Codified communication rules are created by a social institution and may be defined orally or in written form. Conventional communication rules are common among people.

Classroom communication is a relatively strictly organized sequence of speeches among the teacher and pupils. To organize classroom activities and regulate students, rules must be set. (Gavora, 2005) However, if the teacher sets too many rules, students may stop following them. Therefore, it is better to set fewer rules which pupils find important and easier to remember. In addition, the rules do not have to be created only by the teacher, the whole class can participate. (Nelešovská, 2002)

Rules can be created during the school year, but the most appropriate period is the so-called initiation period, the beginning of the school year. In the first weeks of teaching, the basic communication rules are set and, if necessary, more can be gradually introduced. The established rules must be constantly consolidated, otherwise, pupils do not get used to them.

Therefore, it is good to write the agreed rules and hang them on some visible place, for example, on the wall in the classroom and thus codify them.

The teacher has a dominant position in classroom communication. The teacher is functionally superior to the pupils because his/her task is to educate them, and he/she is responsible for them. Teachers are always older than students and are therefore socially superior to them. The dominant position of the teacher is further determined by experience and professional qualifications. According to how teachers understand their dominance over pupils, they can be divided into two groups - directive teachers and democratic teachers.

In directive teaching, teachers can talk whenever they want and with whom they want, they can choose the topic of the conversation and decide on its length. Furthermore, teachers can speak from anywhere in the classroom and choose a position that is comfortable for them.

Pupils' rules, on the other hand, are very limited. They can only speak if the teacher allows it and talk to whoever the teacher allows. They can't choose their own topic or decide for how long they can talk. They can only speak in a given place, or a designated position. These rules limit students, reduce their independence and lead to passivity. Pupils can try to gain at least some powers by trying to disrupt class - they interrupt, prompt each other, do not fulfil tasks or do not pay attention to the teacher.

In democratic teaching, the teacher is still the dominant figure, but the rules are more tolerant and support pupils' activity and initiative. In democratic communication, for example, students have enough time to think about the answer, they can digress from the topic, lead communication, and ask questions to the teacher and classmates. (Gavora, 2005)

3.2   Organizational forms of teaching

One of the factors that influence the effectiveness of classroom communication is how pupils are divided in the classroom. The three main types of organizational forms of teaching are mass, group and individualized teaching. (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995)

3.2.1   Mass teaching

The most common form of teaching in Czech schools is mass teaching, mostly in the form of so-called frontal teaching. (Nelešovská, 2002) Mass teaching takes place in the three most

common communication structures: two-way communication between teacher and one pupil, one-way communication from teacher to the whole class and one-way communication from teacher to the individual pupil.

In two-way communication between teacher and one pupil communication, the teacher asks questions that the pupil answers. The teacher should prepare the interview in advance, consider its difficulty for the pupils, formulate the questions correctly and address them appropriately. The teacher should also create a friendly atmosphere to activate the pupils and involve as many of them as possible in the dialogue.

One-way communication from teacher to the whole class is the teacher's monologue – explanation of new topic, evaluation of pupils or addressing them. In this type of communication, the teacher is focused on passing on information, pupils are passive listeners. (Mareš, Křivohlavý ,1995)

3.2.2   Group teaching

During group teaching, pupils cooperate and communicate. If the group consists of only two members, it is pair teaching. Pupils work together in pairs and communicate with each other. They work relatively independently, the teacher observes them, advises them if necessary, and evaluates them at the end of the work. (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995)

If the group consists of three or more pupils, it is group teaching. Group teaching is quite demanding for teachers in all its stages - preparation, organization, teaching, and evaluation. If all these stages are successful, the result is the cooperation of students. The rules for group teaching are not written in the school rules, so the teacher must define them precisely and clearly.

The first thing a teacher needs to think about is to divide students into groups. Pupils can be divided randomly, for example by drawing lots or calculating. Another possibility is that the students divide into groups themselves. The next possibility is that the teacher divides the pupils according to their academic achievement. The last option is that the teacher creates diverse groups by intent.

Group teaching is generally popular among pupils. Pupils who have difficulty participating in mass teaching usually manage group lessons much better, feel safer and communicate easier in a group. (Nelešovská, 2002)

3.3 Spatial limitation and distribution

Classroom communication is limited by the space in which it takes place (usually a classroom, gymnasium, laboratory, or school library, for example) and how pupils and the teacher are distributed in that space. (Vališová, Kasíková, 2011) Classroom layout is influenced by the size, shape, acoustics, furniture, and didactic equipment of the classroom. (Nelešovská, 2002)

In the traditional classroom set-up, typical of frontal teaching, school desks are arranged in rows. The teacher is in front of the pupils and can thus communicate with the whole class and individual pupils. All pupils see the teacher but not the faces of their classmates. Their mutual communication is very limited or even impermissible.

U-Shaped or circle layout of the classroom still allows the teacher to control all pupils. Pupils see not only the teacher, but also the faces of their classmates. As pupils can easily communicate with each other, this class arrangement is suitable for discussion or collective solution of problem-solving activities. (Gavora, 2005)

4. Classroom communication and interaction

Classroom communication is a closely related to the term classroom interaction. As part of the search for a definition of the term interaction, I worked with different dictionaries that all define interaction very similarly.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2008, p. 847) defines interaction as "a process by which two or more things affect each other" and as "the activity of talking to other people, working together with them etc." Macmillan English Dictionary (2002, p. 748) defines it similarly as "the activity of being with and talking to other people, and the way that people react to each other." Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005, p. 777) says that to interact means "to communicate with sb, especially while you work, play or spend time with them."

Čábalová (2011, p. 149) says that "classroom communication is a means of classroom interaction, which we understand as a mutual relationship and action of subjects in the educational process with a certain goal focus."[5]

Mešková (2012) even considers classroom communication to be the basis of classroom interaction between teacher and pupil. Čábalová (2011) shares the same opinion and emphasises that classroom communication and classroom interaction between pupil and teacher and between pupils are among the important features of the teacher-pupil relationship, which plays an important role in the structure of the teaching process.

Classroom interaction is affected by three aspects that penetrate each other - a social, interpersonal, and individual psychological. (Janíková, 2011)

The social aspect is concerned with the location (such as town or village), type and economic conditions of the school. The interpersonal aspect is determined by the social role of the participants in the educational process and deals with their mutual relations (between the headmaster and the teachers, among the teachers and among the pupils and between the teachers and the pupils). The individual psychological aspect is concerned with the congenital and gained dispositions influencing behaviour of the individual participants. (Janíková, 2011)

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[5] Pedagogická komunikace je prostředkem pedagogické interakce, kterou chápeme jako vzájemný vztah a působení subjektů ve výchovně-vzdělávacím procesu s určitým cílovým zaměřením. (Vlastní překlad.)

Tsui (1995, p. 1) defines the classroom as a "place where more than two people gather together for the purpose of learning" and "a place where various elements interact. These elements are the students and the teacher, including their educational and social backgrounds, experience, knowledge and expectations." (Tsui, 1995, p. 22)

The teacher is aware of her or his/her role, to be a key player dominating the classroom talk, having certain expectations about the class. (Tsui, 1995) The subject of teaching are pupils who become active co-creators of interaction and communication. Both communication and interaction should respect the needs of all participants. (Čábalová, 2011)

The teacher should have clear ideas about the course of the lesson. However, since school interaction is influenced by many factors, the teacher's idea of the lesson and its actual course usually differ. The course of the lesson and its success depend on the interaction between the teacher and the students. (Tsui, 1995)

Lessons are usually based on a plan which shows "that the teacher knows what he or she wants to do in the lesson" (Malamah-Thomas, 1987, p. 3) and knows what he or she wants to communicate to his or her students. While newly qualified teachers usually prepare the lesson plan in detail, more experienced teachers may already follow a more general plan. A well-designed lesson plan is the first step to a successful lesson.

The prepared lesson plan is then put into practice and the pupils naturally react to it somehow. The advantage is if the teacher knows his pupils because then he or she can assume their reactions to a certain extent. (Malamah-Thomas, 1987)

The author (1987, p. 6) emphasises that "action and reaction are not interaction." Interaction is a two-way process which "means acting reciprocally, acting upon each other." (1987, p. 7) To talk about classroom interaction, the teacher must respond to the reactions of his students. (Malamah-Thomas, 1987)

The following two pictures show the different progress of the lesson - without classroom interaction and with classroom interaction. *Figure 1* (1987, p. 6) shows the progress of the lesson without interaction (the teacher doesn't respond to his student's reactions). *Figure 2* (1987, p. 7) is an example of proper classroom interaction.
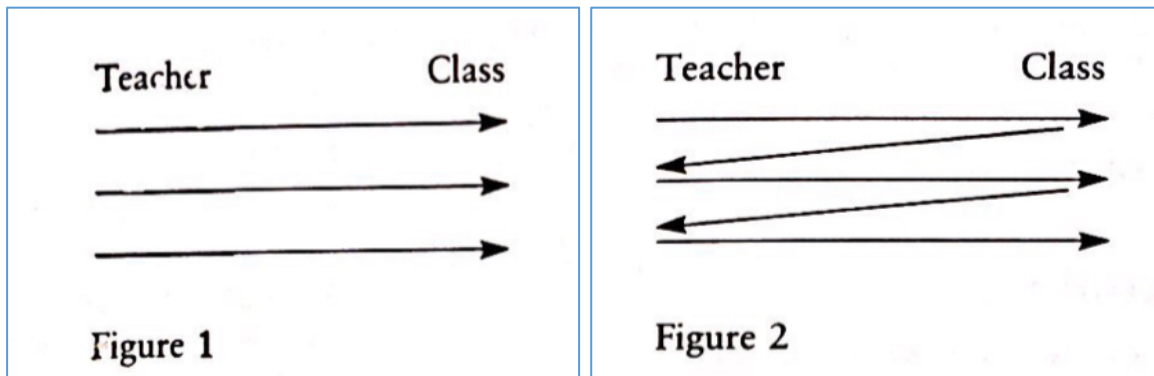
Figure 1. The progress of a lesson without interaction.

Figure 2. The progress of a lesson with interaction.

There can be no communication without interaction and communication cannot work with the conflict in the interaction Only if both sides, the teacher and his students, co-operate, learning can occur. (Malamah-Thomas, 1987)

Interaction and communication have their rules, which create clear boundaries for students and serve to achieve the aims of education. Each school has these rules written in its school code, but the teacher can come up with his/her own unwritten extra rules of teacher-pupil interaction. For teachers, it is most advantageous to introduce these rules in the first lesson. (Mešková, 2012)

4.1 Interaction style

Each teacher is represented by specific repetitive elements of interaction, collectively referred to as interaction style. On account that the interaction style is relatively strong and lasting characteristics, the pupils can predict the teacher's behaviour. The interaction style of a teacher is commonly distinguished as authoritarian or democratic, eventually benevolent. (Gavora, 2005)

However, Wubbels and Brekelmans (2005, p. 9) introduced a two-dimensional model illustrating interpersonal teacher behaviour (Figure 3) which shows eight types of teachers – Leading, Helping/Friendly, Understanding, Leading to responsibility/freedom, Uncertain, Dissatisfied, Admonishing and Strict.

The dominance-submission dimension shows how the teachers determine the pupil's activities. The cooperation-opposition dimension shows how much the teachers approve or disapprove of the pupils and their behaviour. (Wubbels and Brekelmans, 2005)
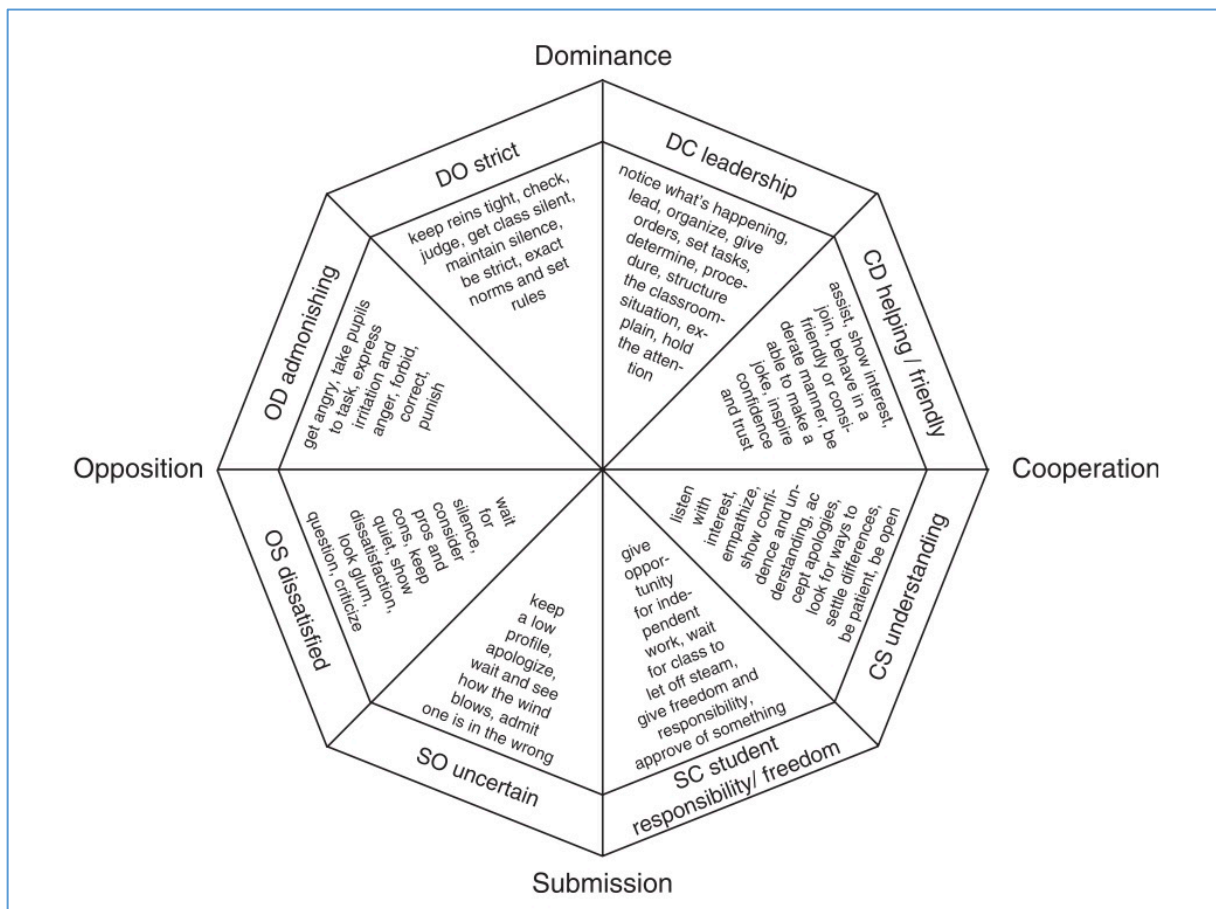
Figure 3. Model for Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour.

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In 1984, based on the Model for Interpersonal Teacher Behaviour, the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) was developed in The Netherlands "to gather student and teacher perception data." (Fisher, 2011, p. 189) The research with the QTI has resulted in a typology of interpersonal profiles of secondary education teachers labelled as Directive (Di), Authoritative (A), Tolerant-Authoritative (TA), Tolerant (T), Uncertain-Tolerant (UT), Uncertain-Aggressive (UA), Repressive (R) and Drudging (Dr), graphically represented in Figure 4. (Fisher, 2011, p. 191)
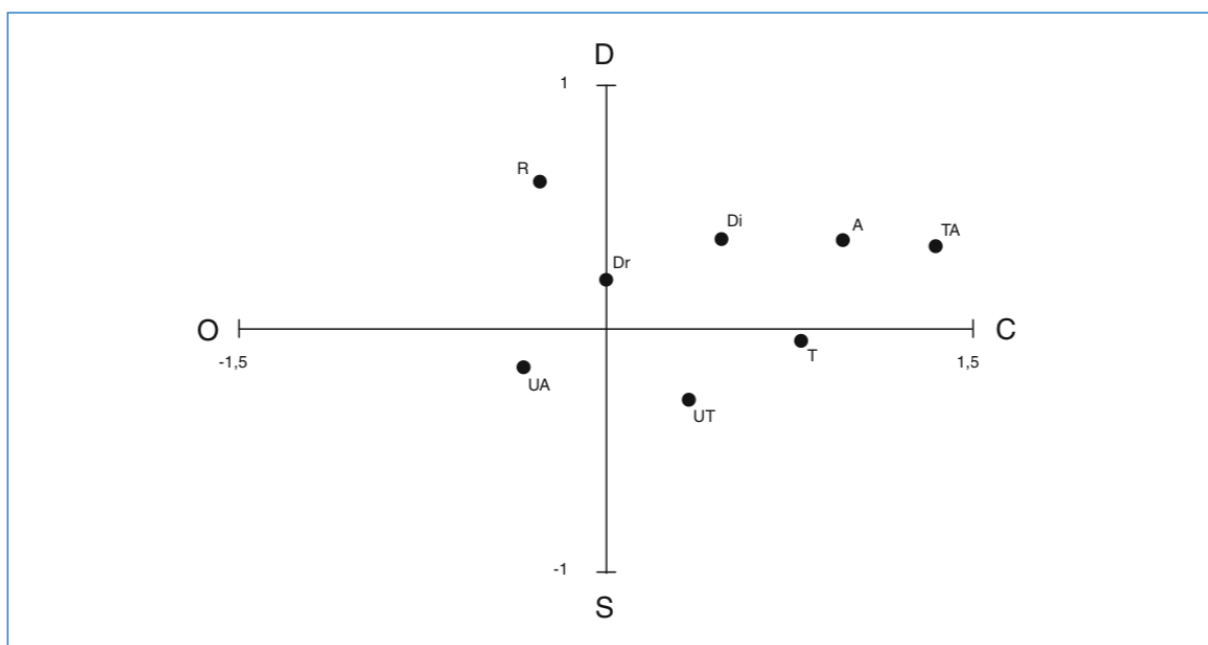
Figure 4. The interpersonal profiles of teachers positioned on the two-dimensional model.

Figure 4 illustrates that while Repressive teachers are the most dominant, Uncertain-Tolerant teachers are the least dominant. Tolerant-Authoritative teachers are the most cooperative, followed by Authoritative and Tolerant teachers. The least cooperative profiles are demonstrated by Repressive and Uncertain-Aggressive teachers. (Fisher, 2011)

The interaction style of the teacher influences not only the classroom climate (Janíková, 2011), but also the pupils' academic achievement and motivation. (Gavora, 2005) The highest cognitive achievement occurred in classes taught by Tolerant, Directive and especially Repressive teachers. On the contrary, the lowest cognitive achievement was realised in classes taught by Uncertain-Tolerant and Uncertain-Aggressive teachers.

Pupils are the most motivated by Directive, Authoritative and Tolerant-Authoritative teachers who were, in addition, found as the best or ideal teachers. On the other hand, the lowest motivation was found in classes of Uncertain-Aggressive and Drudging teachers. (Fisher, 2011)

Pupils notice and respond to the teacher's personal interaction style and qualities, both the positive (such as friendly, fair, honest, open, organised, knowledgeable or confident) and the negative ones (such as stuffy, nervous, talkative, monotonous, or lazy). "Whatever combination of the positive qualities a person perceives, any of them will result in a willingness to become an interested listener. The reverse happens in respect of the negative qualities." (Sage, 2000, p. 38)

Class, or any other group of people, into three main types of personalities called the snaps, crackles and pops whose responses are shaped by their dominant set of motivations. Everyone has all these types of personalities in them, but one of them always dominates.

The snaps, making up about 10% of the class, are independent and disciplined goals-achievers enjoying researching and preferring individual pursuits. The crackles, making up about 80% of the class are team-players who want to be part of the crowd. They co-operate, value friendships and try to create a happy atmosphere. The pops, making about 10% of the class, are self-confident, like to influence others and desire to be the leaders. (Sage, 2000)

5. Verbal communication

Verbal communication is expressed in words (Šeďová, 2019) and language (Gavora, 2005), both written and spoken. (Janíková, 2011) The origin of the word comes from the Latin word *verbum*, meaning the word. (Šeďová a kol., 2019)

Word is the basic unit of speech (Nelešovská, 2011), which is the most universal means of communication (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995) and the most common means of classroom communication. (Nelešovská, 2011).

Word as a means of communication is informationally accurate. As word and verbal communication are a basic means for students to obtain new information, this feature is (concerning educational goals) very important. (Mešková, 2012)

Verbal communication is divided into formal and informal communication. Formal communication takes place between the teacher and the students and is determined by the rules of classroom communication. Mostly it is about communication during teaching. Informal communication includes, for example, spontaneous communication of students, which is not related to teaching. (Janíková, 2011,)

In a family environment, children tend to be verbally active from an early age, asking questions to adults and talking about what they want. However, this changes after starting school. Most of the verbal expression belongs to the teacher and the verbal expressions of the pupils are rather modest. (Gavora, 2005)

"Teachers dominate the exchanges in keeping with the well-known two-thirds rule initially postulated by Ned Flanders (1970) and confirmed by numerous other studies." (Galton, 2007, p. 68) According to this rule, verbal speech takes two-thirds of the lesson while silent activities such as writing or silent reading take only one-third. Two-thirds of the verbal speech belong to the teacher and only one-third to all students. Two-thirds are the teacher's direct influence (such as explaining, instructing, or criticizing) and one-third is the teacher's indirect influence (such as asking questions or praising). (Gavora, 2005)

After entering school, children must learn the so-called school language (specific code typical of classroom communication) and its specific rules. (Gavora, 2005) The school language is linguistically specific and has a specific vocabulary, especially terminology. The ideal school language should be standard, grammatically correct, abstract, and explicit. (Šeďová a kol., 2012) The explicitness of the school language is related to specific vocabulary and accurate and informatively dense discourse. That is why sometimes the school language is more difficult for listeners. (Šeďová a kol., 2019)

Verbal communication in teaching be carried out through as a monologue or as a dialogue. (Janíková, 2011) The monologue is a speech by one person. Other participants of the communication do not actively participate in this speech. Monologue occurs more often in the second stage of primary school, its frequency in the first stage is lower. Teachers most often use monologue for explaining of a new topic and then use dialogue to find out if students understand the topic. (Gavora, 2005)

5.1 Dialogue education

The most common form of classroom communication is a dialogue (Gavora, 2005) between the teacher and the pupils or among the pupils. As a teaching method, which is characterized by interaction, it is one of the activating methods. (Janíková, 2011)

In the 20th century, the approach to teaching began to change and the first tendencies to introduce dialogue into teaching emerged, and personalities such as M. Montessori, J. Dewey, or P. Peterson are associated with its origins. They also demanded a change of attitude towards children who should be understood and respected. Their aim was to create a school that supports children's activities and develops not only their knowledge but especially their mental abilities.

In the second half of the 20th century, the role of the teacher also changed. He/she acts as a guide to the student's learning and creates a confidential environment, conditions for students' self-realization, and conducts a dialogue with them, which develops the competencies of both pupils and teachers. (Kolář, Šikulová, 2007)

Dialogue in teaching develops cognitive (explaining and demonstrating new topic, revision and diagnosing and verifying students' knowledge and skills), affective (motivation of students, development of their opinions and attitudes), and social skills of students (coordination of students' activities and classroom climate). (Janíková, 2011)

Alexander[6] mentions five essential features of the dialogic classroom: collective (teachers and pupils cooperate), reciprocal (teachers and pupils listen to each other and share ideas), supportive (pupils help each other and share their ideas without fear of embarrassment), cumulative (teachers and pupils link their ideas and build on them) and purposeful (teachers plan and try to achieve educational goals).

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[6] ALEXANDER, Robin. *Towards Dialogic Teaching*: Rethinking classroom talk. Metamorphosis: Teaching Learning Communities [online]. [cit. 2021-9-20]. Dostupné z: https://metamorphosistlc.com/images/Resources/Handouts/Towards%20Dialogic%20Talk.pdf

5.2 IRF (E) Structure

Discourse in classroom communication has its specific structure. (Šeďová a kol., 2019) The commonly known discourse model was developed in 1975 by English linguists J. Sinclair and M. Coulthard. "The model proposed to show how interaction in the classroom takes place by taking a linguistic and functional look at discourse." (Nicholson, 2014, p. 200)

Since teaching three-part sequence consists of teacher Initiation, pupil Response and teacher Feedback (or Follow-up), this pattern was termed as IRF. Sometimes the term Evaluation is used instead of the term Feedback and the structure is then termed as IRE. Although this classroom discourse is the oldest pattern of traditional Western-type schooling, it still may be the most common one. (Cazden, 2001) Especially "for language teachers, understanding the discourse of the classroom itself is crucial, for we teach discourse with our learners." (Nunan, 2003, p. 176)

Cullen (2002, p. 117) illustrates the following sequence of the three moves:

"T: What's the boy doing? (I)

 S1: He's climbing a tree. (R)

 T: That's right. He's climbing a tree. (F)"

Everyday social communication in the out-of-school world also follows the IRF structure, but with certain differences. The responses do not answer the test questions and the speaker does not evaluate what was said but expresses, for example, an understanding or satisfaction. (Nunan, 2003)

As mentioned above, the IRE pattern represents a traditional lesson that is composed of three border phases – an opening phase, an instructional phase, and a closing phase. In the first (opening) phase, students will get acquainted with what they will learn in the lesson and how they will participate in the lesson. The second (instructional) phase focuses on specific aspects of the taught topic. The last (closing) phase "provides both informative and procedural information about what students will be expected to do with what they have learned." (Betáková, 2010, p. 83)

The IRF pattern consists of three moves (initiation, response and feedback) and these moves are composed of acts, the smallest units of Sinclair and Coulthard's model of classroom discourse. There are twenty-two types of acts in total, but the three most important of the opening move are elicitation, directive, and informative which are all the heads of initiation move. (Brown, 2010-2011,) "Elicitations function to request a linguistic response, directives request a non-linguistic response such as writing or listening, and informatives convey facts or ideas." (Brown, 2010-2011, p. 32)

The base of each dialogue is a question (Janíková, 2011) and it is the teacher question that opens and influences the form of the whole IRF structure. (Šeďová a kol., 2019) The initiator of the new communication sequence is therefore mostly the teacher, which only confirms his dominant position in classroom communication.

The teacher's question (initiation) is followed by the student's answer (response), which is almost always automatic. If the student does not respond to this question, the teacher repeats it (Šeďová a kol., 2012) or reformulates it. Pupils' answers usually tend to be relatively brief, but they should correspond to the cognitive demands of the teacher's question - a cognitively demanding question requires a cognitively demanding answer and vice versa.

The response move consists of four phases: perception of the question, interpretation of the question, creation of the answer, and verbalization of the answer. Pupils first hear the question, then translate it into their own language and understand it, then create an answer in their thoughts and finally pronounce it or write it down. (Gavora, 2005)

The last move is the teacher's feedback or follow-up, which mostly occurs "in exchanges involving asymmetrical role in relationships, such as a teacher-to-student and parent-to-child." (Cullen, 2002, p. 118) Since the teachers provide feedback to the individual pupils about their responses, the primary function of this move is the evaluative one. Evaluative follow-ups are typically connected to the teacher's display questions in the initiation move – "questions which the teacher asks in order to elicit a pre-determined response." The pupil's response may be accepted or rejected. (Cullen, 2002, p. 119)

If the answer is accepted, the teacher asks another question and starts a new IRF structure. However, if the answer is rejected, the teacher asks the question again or reformulates it

(Šeďová a kol., 2019) and the IRF structure is re-initiated. (Cullen, 2002) Only after the pupil responds correctly, the new IRF structure can be started. (Šeďová a kol., 2019)

The teacher's feedback does not have to be just verbal, but can also be nonverbal, such as a nod. It is best for pupils if the teacher praises them for their own opinion or some personal experience because this type of feedback motivates them the most. (Gavora, 2005)

The other function of the F-move is the discoursal one which is typically connected to the teacher's referential questions (the right or wrong answer is not pre-determined). The purpose of this function is to involve the pupils into the classroom discourse and develop a dialogue between the teacher and the pupils. (Cullen, 2002, p. 120)

6. Questioning

The Collins concise dictionary of the English language (1988, p. 943) defines a question as "a form of words addressed to a person in order to elicit information or evoke a response; interrogative sentence." Crystal (1993, p. 429) understands a question in a similar way as: "a sentence that asks for information or a response."

Allen (2005, p. 1144) defines question is "a word, phrase, or sentence used to elicit information or test knowledge." However, this sentence would rather define the teacher's question in the classroom, because in a normal daily conversation, people usually do not test each other's knowledge.

Questions are judged by their communicative function (Čechová, 2000) and for this reason, questions do not necessarily have to take the form of an interrogative sentence but can be also expressed by a declarative ("*Katko, try to answer my question.*"[7]) or imperative sentence ("*I want to hear your answers.*"[8]) or a wish clause ("*I wish someone would answer it correctly.*"[9]).

Asking didactic questions in the classroom is rather different from asking questions in daily conversation. In everyday life, people are usually likely to ask questions when they want to know something and they do not know the answer. If they already know the answer, there is no reason to ask. (Wragg and Brown, 2001)

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[7] Katko, pokus se odpovědět na mou otázku. (Vlastní překlad.)
[8] Chci slyšet vaše odpovědi! Vlastní překlad. (Vlastní překlad.)
[9] Kéž by to konečně někdo správně odpověděl. (Vlastní překlad.)

In classroom communication, teachers almost always ask questions to which they already know the answer. Questions that they do not know the answer concern, for example, the class management, such as the attendance. (Gavora, 2005) or whether the pupils are ready for the class. (Wragg and Brown, 2001)

However, questions that the teacher does not know the answer to in advance do not necessarily have to be related to class management. In my opinion, teachers ask questions to which they do not know the answer quite often. In English lessons, this would include questions that teachers commonly use as a warm-up activity at the beginning of the lesson, such as, '*What did you do until yesterday?*', '*How many hours did you sleep?*', ' *What did you eat for breakfast?*' or '*Did you watch TV last night?*'

According to Gavora (2005), the difference is also that in the normal dialogue, the roles of the participants are balanced - both participants ask questions and answer. In the school dialogue, the teacher has a dominant position and asks many questions to his/her students.

Teachers' questions are generally reckoned as the key elements of effective teaching (Kyriacou, 1996) and the main means of class talk. (Šeďová a kol., 2019) Asking questions is also, after interpretation, one of the most frequent activities of a teacher in classroom communication. The high frequency of questions often does not allow pupils to think carefully about their answer and its formulation, and therefore their answers are brief or only one word (Kolář, Šikulová, 2007), moreover, most of them are just learned facts. (Šeďová, *Co je dialogické vyučování*?) Although gathering information and learning facts is important, pupils need to process data and use the information to reason and make conclusions. (Barell, 2012)

Because of the high frequency of questions, teachers need to master the strategy of asking questions and their students need to be prepared to respond to their teacher's questions. (Gavora, 2015)

Questioning should fulfil various didactic aims. Questions should be based on educational goals and respect them. Questions should be concise but precise and comprehensible, as well as appropriately difficult. Another important factor is that the questions should be asked in a logical sequence. The last criterion that a teacher should consider is a reasonable number of questions. (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995)

For a teacher to verify his students' knowledge as accurately as possible, his/her question must be formulated to stimulate the student's answer as accurately as possible. The teacher should pay attention to the structure of the question and the choice of the interrogative expression. The content of teachers' questions is also influenced by the answers they expect from the student in advance. (Sborník PF v Hradci Králové, 1990)

The history of questioning goes back to the classical philosophy of ancient Greece, the Socratic method. The aim of the teacher's (Socrates) questions was to stimulate critical thinking of his students and motivate them. (Šeďová a kol., 2012)

The purpose why teachers usually ask questions of pupils is to check out their comprehension, knowledge and understanding (Tsui, 1995), how they came to their answers (Šeďová a kol., 2012), and encourage them to participate verbally in class. (Šeďová a kol., 2019) Teachers need to check their students' knowledge, as this allows them to adapt their teaching. (Sage, 2000)

In addition, in language lessons, questions also serve to enable students to practice certain grammar. (Tsui, 1995) "Other reasons for asking questions are to stimulate recall, to deepen understanding, to develop imagination and to encourage problem solving." (Wragg and Brown, 2001, p. 7)

The questions that teachers ask their students not only motivate and activate them but also serve as feedback. Pupils can check for themselves whether they have understood the content or not. If so, they will be able to answer the question correctly. (Mešková, 2012)

When asking questions, teachers must consider that answering (especially in front of all classmates) is emotionally demanding for some students and therefore there should be a relaxed atmosphere in the class. (Kyriacou, 1996)

If there is a positive atmosphere in the class, students feel comfortable and they are more open, which leads to longer answers and the teacher can realistically assess their knowledge and skills. Conversely, if there is a negative atmosphere in the classroom, students may be afraid to answer, or their answers are as short as possible. In this case, the teacher can't achieve a realistic diagnosis. (Gavora, 2015, p. 48)

In my opinion, the positive atmosphere in the English lessons is even more important than in other subjects, because the pupils learn a language that is not only foreign to them but moreover

is not like Czech in anything because while Czech is the Slavic language, English is the Germanic language. For some students, communication is difficult in their mother tongue, let alone in a foreign language. Communication is extremely important in English lessons, which is why it is important to create a positive and friendly climate so that pupils are not afraid to speak English.

The teacher should first ask a question and then call on the student, as this is more likely to get the class's attention. Questions should always be simple and understandable. If students do not understand the question, it is important to reformulate it. Besides, the teacher should make his students feel that he is genuinely interested in their answer, for example through eye contact. (Kyriacou, 1996)

The teacher should ask questions to all students, not just a certain part of the class. He/she should also ask various additional questions but needs to make sure that these questions are on the same topic. (Gavora, 2005) If the student does not know how to answer the question, then the teacher's task is to support him in thinking instead of giving him obvious clues. Teachers should also try to understand the thought processes of their students and therefore verify how the pupils got their answers, regardless of the answers were correct or not. (Kyriacou, 1996)

Another important function of the questions in the lesson is dynamics. Through questions, the teacher keeps the pupils' attention and prevents the lesson from being monotonous. This would reduce the pupils' attention - some would be passive, while others could start interrupting the lesson. (Mešková, 2012)

Wragg and Brown (2001, p. 11) define three reasons for asking questions – "cognitive (knowledge and understating), affective (to do with emotions), social and procedural – or in terms of immediate short-term and long-term goals." These reasons are related to the types of questions.

6.1   Types of questions

There are many ways to classify types of questions, but it is important to realize that the different typologies usually overlap. The most common is the division of questions according to their cognitive level into *closed* and *open* questions.

6.1.1   Closed and open questions

Closed questions

Closed questions accept only one correct answer, which is usually one-word, or in the form of a short sentence. Closed questions require lower cognitive abilities (Gavora, 2005); however, they can be further divided into *lower cognitive closed questions* and *higher cognitive closed questions*.

According to Šeďová (2019), ***lower cognitive closed (reproductive) questions*** are the most used type of class talk questions. This type of question is generally used to find out factual knowledge, so if students have understood the topic, it is very easy for them to answer it because they only recall what they already know. As mentioned above, the typologies often overlap. For this type of questions, Tsui (1995) uses the term ***display questions***. These questions typically occur in the repetitive phase of the lesson, when the teacher finds out what his students have remembered and can therefore also be called ***reproductive.*** (Šeďová a kol., 2019) Teachers also use this type of question to work with some picture or text in which pupils search for certain information. (Gavora, 2005) An example of reproductive question is the following question "*What's your name, Martina*?" (Šalamounová, 2015, p. 37)

As we can see, the question itself contains the answer and is therefore perhaps intended more for pupils in the 3rd or 4th grades of primary schools, for whom English is a new language and school subject and they only learn basic questions and answers. Other common examples of this type of question in English lessons include for example '*How do you say… in English?*' or '*What does… mean in Czech?*' Teachers also use this type of question, for example, when working with a picture or text in which pupils search for information.

As mentioned above, this is the most common type of class talk questions, accounting for more than 50% of the questions asked. Teachers need to keep in mind not to use them too much, as

then they do not have the opportunity to find out whether the pupils have understood the topic, or not. To get an objective awareness, other types of questions need to be asked.

According to Šeďová (2019), **higher cognitive closed questions** cannot be answered only by factual knowledge, pupils must understand the topic and afterward be able to apply their knowledge. But since it is still a closed question, there is only one correct answer. This type of question predominates in the humanities, especially in language education.

The example is the following sentence: "*In which sentence is the premodifier?*"[10] (Šeďová a kol., 2019, p. 45) The teacher gives the students three sentences, and their task is to find the premodifier in one of them. It is not enough for students to know what the premodifier is, but they need to apply this knowledge. (Šeďová a kol., 2019)

Open questions

Open questions accept more than one correct answer. When answering these questions, pupils must compare, form their own opinion, and evaluate. Therefore, open questions require higher cognitive processes. Since it is not enough just to recall factual knowledge, it is much more difficult for students to answer open questions. The answers to open questions are significantly more extensive, a short (or one-word) answer is not sufficient. (Gavora, 2005)

Lower cognitive open questions are questions to which there are many correct answers. However, students recall a certain set of facts from their memory and there is no need to use higher cognitive operations, such as *What influenced the work of Jan Neruda*? They can answer that it was his life on Malá Strana, his family, or anything else and all these answers may be correct.

This question type also includes questions about the personal lives of students. Each student answers this question differently and each answer is correct, but it is a lower cognitive question. Because the teacher asks questions about pupils' own experiences, it is much easier to involve them in class talk.

Higher cognitive open questions accept many correct answers but require the use of higher cognitive operations. These questions make students think and create new knowledge. As these are mostly "*Why*" questions, students also learn to argue appropriately and form their own

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[10] Ve které větě je přívlastek shodný? (Vlastní překlad.)

opinions, such as: "*And why do you think Plato asked in ancient Athens if men and women were equal?*"[11] (Šeďová a kol., 2019, p. 46) This type of question, therefore, develops the pupils the most.

On the other hand, a certain disadvantage of this type of question is its difficulty not only for students but also for teachers, as they do not know in advance how students will answer the question. For this reason, the teacher must be thoroughly acquainted with the topic. Another disadvantage may be that some students are not able to answer these questions, so teachers ask only elite students to them, and the others ask lower cognitive questions. (Šeďová a kol., 2019)

This type of question occurs very often in English lessons. Its most common examples include questions such as '*What did you do yesterday*?' or '*What are you going to do at the weekend?*'. The teacher does not know the answer to these questions in advance and it is not enough for the pupils to recall some factual knowledge. On the contrary, they have to come up with their own answer, and moreover, the form of the question forces them to answer in a full sentence. For these reasons, this type of question is the most difficult for many pupils.

6.1.2   Bloom's taxonomy of questions

Bloom's taxonomy is a frame of hierarchical models used to classify educational goals, which allows questions to be classified according to their cognitive level - knowledge, comprehension, application (lower cognitive levels), analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (higher cognitive levels). In 2001, the original Bloom's taxonomy was revised, and the original terminology was replaced by verbs - remember, understand, apply, analyze, evaluate, and create. (Byčkovský, Kotásek, 2004)

According to cognitive level, questions can be classified into two larger groups – *lower-order questions* and *higher-order questions*.

Lower-order questions

Lower-order questions require only lower cognitive processes from pupils. It is a factual knowledge of data, rules, or formulas. Lower-order questions include *remembering, understanding*, and *applying* questions. (Gavora, 2015)

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[11] A proč myslíte, že se Platon ve starověkých Aténách ptal na to, jestli muži a ženy jsou na tom stejně? (Vlastní překlad.)

Remembering questions are easiest for students because they only recall facts they already know (Byčkovský, Kotásek, 2004), such as: "*How many continents do you know? Tell us*!"[12]. (Gavora, 2005, p. 83) The following questions would be another examples of recall questions in English lessons: '*What does this word mean?*', '*How would you translate this word into English?*' or '*What are the days of the week?*'.

Understanding questions are based on the fact that students understand the topic, can simplify it and reformulate it in their own words, give an example and deduce the main theme. Pupils also draw logical conclusions based on examples (for example, when explaining a new grammar, the teacher gives a few sentences and pupils derive a new grammatical rule). (Byčkovský, Kotásek, 2004) This type of questions often starts with: "*Why...? For what reason...? How do you explain...? What is the cause of...?"[13]* (Kolář, Šikulová, 2007)

Applying questions focus on the application of knowledge, rules, and methods to a specific situation (Byčkovský, Kotásek, 2004), such as: "*Can you tell which continents belong to the eastern, western and southern hemispheres?*"[14] (Gavora, 2005, p. 83), "*What are other examples of...?*"[15] or "*What would you do in a similar situation...?"[16]* (Kolář, Šikulová, 2007, p. 54) In English lessons, this type of question could be also used for the practical usage of vocabulary, for example for practicing adjectives, such as '*How would you use the words bored and boring in a sentence?*'.

Higher-order questions

Higher-order questions are more beneficial for students, but also more challenging, as they are forced to think, analyse, and evaluate. (Kyriacou, 1996) Precisely for this reason, Gavora (2015) emphasises that pupils must master the factual knowledge, which is the necessary basis for the involvement of higher cognitive processes. Higher-order questions include *analysing, evaluating,* and *creating* questions

Analysing questions require students to break complex topics into smaller parts, distinguish important information from less important information, and look for connections between information. (Byčkovský, Kotásek, 2004) An example of an analysing question are the

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[12] Kolik kontinentů znáš? Vyjmenuj je! (Vlastní překlad.)
[13] Proč…? Z jakého důvodu…? Jak vysvětlíš…? Co je příčinou…? (Vlastní překlad.)
[14] Umíš určit, které kontinenty patří do východní, západní a jižní hemisféry? (Vlastní překlad.)
[15] Jaké jsou další příklady…? (Vlastní překlad.)
[16] Co byste dělali v podobné situaci? (Vlastní překlad.)

following questions: "*Compare two continents. Focus on climate, population, resources, and environmental issues.*"[17] (Gavora, 2005, p. 83) or "*What are the main and secondary features of...?*"[18] (Kolář, Šikulová, 2007, p. 55) These questions could be used in English lessons, for example, while practicing reading skills, such as '*What is the main idea of the story?*'.

Evaluating questions teach students to review and judge various facts and methods, which they can explain. They also form their own opinions and conclusions. (Byčkovský, Kotásek, 2004) This type of question usually begins with "*What is the best way to…?* (Gavora, 2015, p. 43) These questions can be used to practice reading skills again, such as '*What do you think about the boy's decision?*' or grammar, such as '*Find the wrong prepositions and correct them.*'.

Gavora (2005, p. 83) also gives this example of an evaluating question: "*Which continent would you like to visit? Order the continents according to your preferences and give at least three reasons why you decided to order them like that.*"[19]

Creating questions are the cognitively most challenging. Pupils devise alternative hypotheses, suggest different ways to solve a given problem, and create plans. (Byčkovský, Kotásek, 2004) An example of the last and cognitively highest type of questions is the following question: "*Could you invent a new continent? Describe its location, population, resources, and environmental issues.*"[20] (Gavora, 2005, p. 83) This type of question would be suitable, for example, for practicing of the second conditional, such as '*What would you buy, if you won a lot of money?*' or '*What would you do, if you were famous?*'

6.1.3 Conceptual, empirical, and value questions

The purpose of ***conceptual questions*** is to evoke ideas, definitions, and reasoning. Based on their knowledge and criteria, students can identify key elements of the problem and thus adopt official rules. In biology classes, they are aware of the differences between animals and can divide them into the right groups (mammals, etc.). The teacher then verifies their answers, such as "*Why have you put cats and dogs in the same category*?" (Wragg and Brown, 2001, p. 17)

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[17] Porovnej dva kontinenty. Soustřeď se na klima, obyvatelstvo, hlavní zdroje a přírodní podmínky. (Vlastní překlad.)

[18] Jaké jsou hlavní a vedlejší znaky…? (Vlastní překlad.)

[19] Který kontinent bys chtěl(a) navštívit? Zařaď kontinenty podle svých preferencí. Uveď alespoň tři důvody, proč sis kontinent umístila na první místo a jiný na poslední místo. (Vlastní překlad.)

[20] Uměl(a) bys vymyslet nový kontinent? Popiš jeho polohu, obyvatelstvo, hlavní zdroje a přírodní podmínky. (Vlastní překlad.)

For **empirical questions,** it is typical to observe, speculate, recall and connect facts, or experiment. Other typical features of empirical questions are "using some kind of demonstration or visual aid, giving hints in the question or the preamble about what to look for, summarising, using pupils' ideas." (Wragg and Brown, 2001, p. 17) The authors (2001, p. 17 – 18) give the following example:

> "T: When I blew up the balloon, Sarah said that the air process against the side of the cup lifts the cup up with the balloon. So what do you think is going to happen if I let go of the cup?
>
> P: It's going to stay.
>
> T: It's going to stay with the balloon. What if I start to let go of the balloon?
>
> P: It will fall off."

Value questions focus on social, health, and environmental issues. This type of question addresses a wide range of topics, such as poverty, smoking, drugs, pollution or religion.

However, these three types of questions do not have strict boundaries between them, and therefore it happens that they overlap and may include elements of all three types of questions. This is typical, for example, of key questions. (Wragg and Brown, 2001)

6.1.4   Factual and reasoning questions

Questions can also be generally divided into two groups according to what question word they start with. **Factual questions** start with 'what', 'where', 'when', and 'who', while **reasoning questions** begin with 'why' and 'how'.

But even here the line between the questions is not clear. Although a question starts with 'why', it may not always be a reasoning question. For example, if all students read the same newspaper article and the teacher asks a question that starts with why but requires only a factual answer that students easily read in the article, without any reasoning, it is a factual question. (Tsui, 1995)

6.1.5   Display and referential questions

Display questions are therefore didactic questions since being used by the teacher to verify the knowledge of his pupils (the teacher already knows the answer) (Tsui, 1995), such as: "*What is the past tense of go*?" (Betáková, Homolová, Štulrajterová, 2017, p. 76) Display question may

be also used to practise grammar or vocabulary, such as: "*What do you need to buy when you want to travel by plain or train*?" (Betáková, Homolová, Štulrajterová, 2017, p. 77)

This type of question also includes questions to which the answer is absolutely obvious, such as: "*Are you a boy or a girl? Are we at school or at home? What colour is your T-shirt? What's your name, Peter? Am I a teacher or a doctor? Are you in the classroom*?" (Betáková, Homolová, Štulrajterová, 2017, p. 77)

On the contrary, the answers to the ***referential questions*** are not known to the teacher in advance, which means that these are therefore more natural questions commonly appearing in social communication (Tsui, 1995, p. 27–28). The author (1995, p. 29 – 30) gives the following dialogue as the examples of referential questions:

> "T: *Have you got any brothers and sisters, Pedro*?
>
> S: Yes, I have.
>
> T: Yes, you have, good. *How many*?
>
> S: er no er I no…"

Teachers often use referential questions as a warm-up activity at the beginning of a lesson such as '*What did you do at the weekend?*', '*What did you watch on TV last night?*', '*What time did you wake up this morning?*' or '*Did you do any sport yesterday*?'. Pupils cannot just recall factual knowledge about these questions. On the contrary, they must think about their own answer, and since these questions concern their personal lives, each answer will be different. In addition, this type of question requires them to answer the full sentence or short answers.

Thanks to these questions, pupils develop their communication skills and, in addition, practice grammar. Teachers can focus questions on a specific tense or practice various tenses at the same time. However, the second option would be more suitable for advanced students. The disadvantage of referential questions may be that they are too demanding for some pupils. Therefore, it is important that teachers apply these questions as often as possible. Pupils will get used to these questions and it will be much easier to answer them.

6.1.6   Echo, pursuit and two-step questions

Echo questions are used to keep the conversation or to check the understanding, such as: "*San Francisco? You went to San Francisco*?" (Harmer, 2015, p. 35)

Teacher follow-up moves can be described like ***pursuit questions***, which allow students to support or defend their answers and show their confidence about their answers. Harmer (2015, p. 155) gives the following dialogue as the example of pursuit questions:

> "Student (Malgosia): Yesterday I saw my brother.
>
> Teacher: *You saw your brother*. (1)
>
> Student: Yes.
>
> Teacher: *That must have been nice.* (2)
>
> Student: Yes, very nice.
>
> Teacher: *Was he pleased to see you?* (4)
>
> Student: Yes, we are meeting by mistake.
>
> Teacher: *Oh, you met by accident.* (4)
>
> Student: Yes, by accident.
>
> Teacher: So you didn't expect to meet him? Where was this?"

Harmer (2015, p. 384) also mentions ***two-steps questions***, such as: "*Are you doing anything this evening? Can I come over then*?", which can be used instead of direct questions, such as: "*Can I come over this evening*?"

6.2   Dimensions of questions

According to Wragg and Brown (2001), the term dimension is closely connected to types of questions, because one type of question can be described on several dimensions. The most common dimensions useful for teachers include *the narrow/broad (closed/open) dimension*, the *observation/recall/thought dimension*, *the confused/clear dimension,* and *the encouraging/threatening dimension*.

The narrow/broad dimension

Narrow questions require short specific answers *(What is the capital of…?)*, **broad questions** allow a wide range of possible answers and support discussion (*What can be done to…?*). This dimension can be also called *closed/open* or *convergent/divergent.*

The observation/recall/thought dimension

Recall questions test existing knowledge and typically occur in the early part of the lesson, because the teacher asks them to check what the pupils remember and also warms their thinking processes up, such as asking them about the topic of the previous lesson. However, he/she must make sure that these questions are not too simple and boring. ***Thought questions*** use existing knowledge to create a new one.

The confused/clear dimension

Clear questions are direct, without any ambiguity. Pupils can be ***confused,*** for example, if they are not entirely sure what the teacher is asking them, or if the teacher asks more than one question at a time and they do not know which question to answer.

The encouraging/threatening dimension

This dimension of questions is related to the teacher's behaviour. Nonverbal features, such as body language, gestures, and facial expressions are also included. The same question can affect pupils completely differently depending on how the teacher asks it. If he says it kindly and smiling, he encourages his pupils in answering the question. However, if the teacher asks angrily or even annoyed, the pupils may be afraid to answer this question.

7. Non-verbal communication

The topic of this diploma thesis is 'Teacher questions supporting communication in the classroom' and is therefore closely associated with verbal communication. However, since verbal communication is not possible without non-verbal communication, which is also an important part of classroom communication, I decided to devote one chapter to this topic as well.

Non-verbal communication is "the act of conveying information without the use of words."[21] Non-verbal communication exposes current experience (Mešková, 2012), emotions and attitudes which occur through facial expressions or gestures.

Some nonverbal signals, especially facial expressions, are innate, but most of them children acquire later in the process of socialization and incorporation into society. Non-verbal communication is an important part not only of everyday social communication but also of classroom communication.

Although nonverbal communication is to some extent unconscious, it is still objectively descriptive, as it is expressed by so-called paralinguistic and extralinguistic elements of communication, alias body language. The body language includes gestures, facial expressions, eye gaze and eye contact, haptics, posture, proxemics and physical appearance. (Gavora, 2005) Some authors, such as Mareš and Křivohlavý (1995), also include environment and kinesics in non-verbal communication.

Kinesics deals with nonverbal behaviour related to any movement of the body. The origin of the term comes from the Greek word *kinema*, meaning movement. As it is very difficult to observe body language in schools, most attention is commonly paid to gestures. (Nelešovská, 2002)

7.1 Extralinguistic elements of communication

7.1.1 Gestures

Gestures typically accompany verbal communication (Gavora, 2005) and refer to the movements of the hands, shoulders, and head. (Mešková, 2012) This type of body language

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[21] https://dictionary.apa.org/nonverbal-communication

relates to a certain culture. For example, nodding in the Czech Republic means 'yes', while in countries such as Bulgaria or Greece it means 'no'. (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995) Different gestures are used by elegant French and others by lively Italians or restrained Englishmen. (Nelešovská, 2002)

Gestures are an important part of everyday classroom communication. However, if teachers are not thorough enough during the implementation of the rules in class, students may not understand them and then gestures cannot be effective. (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995) In addition, Gavora (2005) emphasises that it is important for teachers to use an appropriate number of gestures, as too many gestures may distract their pupils.

The three main types of gestures are adaptors, emblems and illustrators. Adaptors are specific self-touching behaviours and movements indicating internal states, typically anxiety or arousal. (Hans, 2015,) Adaptors are usually learned during childhood (Gordon, 2018) and to the common examples belongs scratching head, twirling hair, fidgeting with fingers and hands or throat-clearing sounds. (Hans, 2015)

Emblems "are nonverbal acts that have direct verbal translation and can substitute for words, the meaning of which is well understood by a particular group, class, or culture." (Gordon, 2018, p. 92) Emblems are commonly a part of everyday school communication. For example, if students want to say something, they must raise their hands at first. (Gavora, 2015)

The most common type of gestures are illustrators which "are used to illustrate the verbal message they accompany," such as using hands to indicate the shape, size (Hans, 2015, p. 47) or length of some object. Illustrators are socially learned through imitating adults that the children wish to resemble (Gordon, 2018). Unlike emblems, these gestures do not typically have a precise meaning and since they are more natural, people use them more subconsciously. (Hans, 2015)

7.1.2 Facial expressions

A major work of theory and empirical observation focusing on the face was Charles Darwin's *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* published in 1872. To him, "the study of emotional expression was closely tied to his case for evolution, for he held that the capacity to communicate through nonverbal signals had evolved just as the brain and skeleton had." (Knapp, Hall, Horgan, 2013, 261)

Facial expressions belong to the more important aspect of communication because they are responsible for communicating ideas, thoughts and most importantly emotions. (Frank, 2001) Gavora (2005) even describes them as the most important means of expressing emotions.

Since facial expressions of emotions are universal, they can help "in interactions with anyone regardless of his or her race, culture, ethnicity, nationality, sex, religion, or age." (Matsumuti, Frank, Hwang, 2013, p. 16) They also reflect personal attitudes and give nonverbal feedback on the others' speech. (Knapp, Hall, Horgan, 2013)

There are about a thousand facial expressions that are partly innate and partly learned. Facial expressions reflect a person's social and cultural background and professional status. (Gavora, 2005)

Sklenářová (2013) says that people can relatively accurately recognize the seven primary emotions in facial expressions. All these emotions have two forms that are: joy and sadness, happiness and unhappiness, surprise and fulfilled expectation, peace and anger, satisfaction and dissatisfaction, interest and disinterest and fear and security.

The basic emotions were also classified by Knapp, Hall and Horgan (2013), but they mention only six of them - surprise, fear, disgust, anger, happiness and sadness. According to the authors, all these emotions can be recognized all over the world.

The most frequent function of facial expressions is a *syntactic display*. Syntactic displays "act as markers, functioning as visible punctuation for words and clauses; they are directed toward the organizational structure of the conversation to mark beginnings, endings, restarts, continuations, and emphasis." (2013, p. 261) A typical syntactic display is raising and lowering eyebrows. Facial expressions that directly relate to the content of the speech are called *semantic displays*. (Knapp, Hall and Horgan, 2013)

Teachers and pupils use many facial expressions during the lesson, and the teacher should be able to read these facial messages, as it may allow him or her to better understand the pupils. The teacher's facial expressions serve the pupils mainly as feedback on their knowledge or behaviour. (Sklenářová, 2013)

The most important facial expression of teachers is their smile with which they create a positive and pleasant atmosphere in the classroom. A warm and sincere smile encourages pupils and arouses confidence in their teacher. (Gavora, 2005)

7.1.3   Eye gaze and eye contact

Eye gaze "refers to an individual looking at another person." (Knapp, Hall, Horgan, 2013, p. 296) When pupils look directly at the teacher, they show him or her that they are ready, confident and open. (Gavora, 2005) If pupils like their teacher, they look at him or her more often and for longer than their classmates who like him or her less. (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995)

Since eyes express a wide range of human traits and emotions (Knapp, Hall, Horgan, 2013), teachers should be able to diagnose these expressions correctly and analyse their pupils. Teachers must constantly make eye contact with their students. As visual control of the class is the most important non-verbal tool for teachers, they can't build authority without it. (Gavora, 2005)

7.1.4   Haptics

The origin of the term haptics comes from the Greek word *haptein*, meaning to touch. Haptics is thus a type of nonverbal communication in which people communicate via touch (Gavora, 2005). Sklenářová (2013) adds that these touches can be formal, informal, friendly or intimate. The most common form of haptics is a handshake. (Janíková, 2011)

Through haptics, people express positive emotions - feelings, support, interest, appreciation or affection. Touch also allows us to control other people's behaviour. For example, if we want someone to start listening to us, we can touch him/her. (Mešková, 2012)

Gavora (2005) says that the human body is divided into several touch zones. Teachers must not touch the so-called intimate zones of pupils. Zones that can be touched include the head, back, shoulders and arms. In general, female teachers tend to touch their pupils more than male teachers.

7.1.5   Posture

A discipline that examines body postures and positions with a communicative effect is called posturology. Dominance or submissiveness, self-confidence or uncertainty, and defence or aggression can be read from posture. There are three basic positions of a person: standing, sitting and lying down. While pupils usually speak sitting or standing, teachers usually speak standing or sitting or may be leaning on a desk, but always facing their pupils.

Body posture can be divided into open and closed. Open posture involves the chest exposed, hands are free along the body, or gesturing. On the other hand, it is typical for a closed posture that the arms are crossed on the chest. (Sklenářová, 2013)

7.1.6 Proxemics

Proxemics is a discipline that examines personal space and the amount of distance between communicators. Edward Hall classified four zones of interpersonal space according to the type of social relationship – intimate, personal, social and public. These spaces are known across all cultures, but they differ in their sizes. For example, Italian people interact more closely than Germans. (Matsamuto, Frank, Hwang, 2013)

The size of personal space is individual and depends on how we relate to a particular person. If we know someone and like the person, then we let him/her get closer to our personal space than someone we do not know or do not like. (Gavora, 2005) On the other hand, Hans (2015) mentions that even though people know each other, they may not feel comfortable if they spend too much time in this zone.

Both teachers and students have their personal space at school. Pupils often share one desk and some of them tend to defend their personal space, for example, by halving the desk. Teachers most often enter the personal space of their students when they control their work.

Teachers change the distance from their students during the lesson. When they introduce a new topic to the whole class, the distance is bigger. On the contrary, if they examine individual students, they interact closer. (Gavora, 2005)

7.2 Paralinguistic elements of communication

Paralinguistic is, according to the Cambridge Dictionary[22], "connected with the ways in which people show what they mean other than by the words they use, for example by their tone of voice, or by making sounds with the breath." Paralinguistic features of communication include the volume (or intensity), speed of a voice, pauses, timbre and word accent. (Gavora, 2005, p. 101)

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[22] https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/paralinguistic?q=Paralinguistic

Most authors consider paralinguistic aspects of communication as a part of non-verbal communication, but for example Mareš and Křivohlavý (1995) consider they as a formal aspect of verbal communication. In addition, they also include the pitch of the voice, the length of the speech or the accuracy of the speech.

Volume, or speech intensity, is expressed on a scale from a whisper to scream, and its physical unit is decibel. Teachers must adapt the volume of their voice to the size of the classroom and its acoustics and also the number of pupils. The volume should be modified by the content of the speech, for example, important information should be said louder. (Gavora, 2005)

The problem with adequate volume is typical for beginning teachers with minimal experience, who tend to speak too quietly. On the contrary, some teachers tend to shout, which can lead to vocal cord disease. Because teachers speak aloud for several hours per day, vocal hygiene is important to them.

The speed of the voice is affected by the amount of information the speaker wants to communicate to the audience. Too fast speech harms the quality of pronunciation, and it is difficult for learners to understand. Teachers commonly speak too fast if they are in a hurry to discuss all the schoolwork. In addition, the fast speed creates an unpleasant classroom climate. However, it is not suitable to speak too slowly, as students may get bored and stop paying attention. It is important that teachers change the speed of speech, but again it depends on their experience.

Everybody needs a break during a speech to take a breath. In this case, it is called a physiological pause. (Gavora, 2005) Each speech should be divided into several semantic utterances (Mareš, Křivohlavý, 1995), between which so-called logical pauses arise. Teachers sometimes suddenly interrupt their speech to get the attention of their pupils. In this case, it is a so-called warning pause. (Gavora, 2005)

Practical Part

In the first chapter of the theoretical part, I mentioned that language communication plays a key role in the educational process. In the practical part, I will put theory into practice. Based on three video recordings, I will observe types of teacher questions and pupils' answers to find out which types of questions develop classroom communication the most and which limit it.

As I mentioned above, the practical part is based on video recordings of three English lessons, which were taken in the 7th and 8th grade at primary school Dukelská in České Budějovice. PhDr. Petr Dvořák, Ph.D. provided me with these recordings, for which I thank him very much. English is the first foreign language for all pupils and, according to the CEFR[23], their English level at the end of primary education should be A2. Each lesson is taught by a different teacher all of whom are non-native English speakers.

To transcribe the lessons, I watched the recording of the whole lesson first, which made the transcription much easier for me. Then I started transcribing the lesson into my computer. I had separate shots of both the teacher and pupils, which was very helpful. I also focused on distinguishing the pupils from one another, and if possible, I also wrote down their names. However, I did not include the names of the students in my thesis, and I only worked with numbers, such as Student 1 (S1) and so on.

Since the sound quality of the recordings was not the best, it sometimes made it difficult for me to understand what the pupils were saying. To get a complete transcript of the lesson, I had to watch the individual parts of the video several times. Then I listened to the whole lesson again and checked the transcript and made the final revision. The whole process was very time consuming for me. I have to admit, I was surprised, because at first, I didn't think the transcripts would take me that long.

Then, in each transcript, I highlighted the teacher's questions in red and the students' answers in green, and I created another table, which I use in this thesis. In the first column of the transcript, I use the abbreviation **T** for the *teacher* and the abbreviation **S** for *students* and each of them has a number (student 1 – S1).

For the practical part, I have decided to work only with certain types of questions - *display* and *referential* questions and *open* and *closed* questions. For each of these types of questions, I will

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[23] Common European Framework of Reference

use abbreviations - **D** for *display questions*, **R** for *referential questions*, **C** for *closed questions* and **O** for *open questions*.

As has been explained in the theoretical part, ***display questions*** are used by teachers to verify the knowledge of their pupils, to practice grammar or vocabulary. For this type of question, the teachers know the answers in advance. ***Referential questions*** appear in social communication and are therefore more natural because the teacher does not know the answer in advance.

Closed questions accept only one correct answer, usually a one-word or short answer. As the pupils usually just recall something they already know, factual knowledge, it is relatively easy for them to answer these questions. On the other hand, ***open questions*** accept many correct answers. Since these questions require higher cognitive processes (it is not enough just to recall knowledge) and more detailed and extended answers, it may be difficult for some pupils to answer them.

I have decided to choose this typology of questions because of all the classifications of questions described in the theoretical part, I have found this one the clearest and most suitable for the practical part of my diploma thesis.

Based on this typology, I will then observe which types of questions most develop classroom communication and which, on the other hand, limit it.

The answers will be divided into three categories: *one-word answers*, *short answer*s, and *full sentences*. Again, I will use abbreviations - **OW** for *one-word answers*, **SA** for *short answers* and **FS** for *full sentences*.

1. Lesson 1

The first recording was taken in the seventh grade, so the pupils are 12 or 13 years old. This class consists of fourteen pupils - six girls and eight boys. The teacher (teacher A) is a young woman who can be about 30 years old. She is energetic and communicative and creates a positive and friendly atmosphere in the classroom.

The layout of the classroom is U-Shaped, so the pupils can see not only the teacher, but they can easily communicate with each other, and the teacher can still control all of them. I think that this layout also supports a friendly atmosphere in the class.

The topic of the lesson is the revision of the past tense, especially Wh-questions and Yes/No questions. The warm-up activity is done through communication of the teacher with her pupils. She is asking them various questions about their personal life, such as '*What did you do in the afternoon yesterday?*', '*How did you sleep?*' or '*Did you do any homework yesterday*?'.

	Turn		D	R	C	O	SUM	OW	SA	FS
T	3	Do you like it?		R	C		RC			
S	4	Yes.						OW		
T	5	Beátko, how are you today?		R		O	RO			
S1	6	I'm fine.								FS
T	7	How is she?	D		C		DC			
S2	8	She is fine.								FS
T	9	Honzí, how are you today?		R		O	RO			
T	11	Are you fine, too?		R	C		RC			
S3	12	Yes. I'm fine.								FS
T	13	How did you sleep, Daví?		R		O	RO			
S4	14	I sleep well.								FS
T	15	I?								
S4	16	I slept well.								
T	17	How did he sleep?	D		C		DC			
S5	18	He slept well.								FS
T	19	How did you sleep?		R		O	RO			
S6	20	I slept well.								FS
T	21	How many hours did you sleep?		R		O	RO			
S7	22	I sleep six…								FS
T	23	Six hours? And you say I sleep or I slept?	D		C		DC			
S7	24	I slept.						OW		
T	25	How many hours did she sleep?	D		C		DC			

S8	26	She slept six o'clock.							FS
T	27	Six o'clock or six hours?	D		C		DC		
S8	28	Six hours.						OW	
T	29	Terezko, what did you do yesterday after school?		R		O	RO		
S9	30	I was home.							FS
T	31	And after you came home yesterday? What did you do in the afternoon?		R		O	RO		
S9	32	I eat.							FS
T	33	And what did you eat?		R		O	RO		
S9	34	I eat…. Ehm… Food?							FS
T	35	Davídku, what did you do in the afternoon yesterday?		R		O	RO		
S10	36	I played computer games.							FS
T	37	And were you outside?		R	C		RC		
T	37	Did you do any sport?		R	C		RC		
S10	38	Handball.						OW	
T	39	Was it like training?		R	C		RC		
S10	40	Yes.						OW	
T	41	And when was the training?		R		O	RO		
S10	42	In hall.						OW	
T	43	And when was it in the gym?		R		O	RO		
S10	42	Ježišmarjá. Ve Vrbnym.						OW	
T	45	What time did it start?		R		O	RO		
S10	46	In eight o'clock.						OW	
T	47	What about your yesterday's afternoon? What did you do?		R		O	RO		
S11	48	I slept.							FS
T	49	How many hours did you sleep?		R		O	RO		
S11	50	I don't remember.							FS
T	51	Did you sleep the whole afternoon?		R	C		RC		
S11	52	No, I didn't.							SA	
T	53	And how long?		R		O	RO		
T	53	OK, and when did you go to bed?		R		O	RO		
S11	54	I went to bed when I came to school.							FS
T	57	And when was it? When did you come home? When?		R		O	RO		
S11	58	At half past two.						OW	
T	59	So, you slept from two o'clock.		R	C		RC		
S11	60	Yes.						OW	

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T	61	Nikolko, did you do any homework yesterday?		R	C		RC		
S12	62	No, I didn't write homework yesterday.							FS
T	63	Did you do any homework yesterday?		R	C		RC		
S12	64	No, I didn't do write homework.							FS
T	65	I didn't do or didn't' write?	D		C		DC		
S12	66	I didn't write yesterday…							FS
T	67	OK?		R	C		RC		
S12	68	Jo.						OW	
T	69	How are you today?		R		O	RO		
S13	70	I'm fine.							FS
T	71	Did you do any homework yesterday?		R	C		RC		
S13	72	No, I didn't.						SA	
T	73	And Davídku, did you have any homework?		R	C		RC		
S13	74	No, I didn't.						SA	
T	75	Ondro, did you play computer games yesterday?		R	C		RC		
S14	76	No, I didn't.						SA	
T	77	You didn't? Did you?		R	C		RC		
S14	78	Yes.						OW	
T	79	Did you play or you didn't play?		R	C		RC		
S14	80	I didn't play.							FS
T	81	And Ondro, what did you do yesterday?		R		O	RO		
T	81	Did you learn?		R	C		RC		
S14	82	Yes.						OW	
T	83	And do you write any tests today?		R	C		RC		
S14	84	Yes.						OW	
T	85	And in what subject?		R		O	RO		
T	85	In Maths? In Czech? In Biology?		R	C		RC		
S14	86	Maths.						OW	
T	87	Is it difficult test today?		R	C		RC		
S	88	No.						OW	
T	89	Where was she born?	D		C		DC		
S13	90	She born…							FS
T	91	Where WAS she born?	D		C		DC		
S13	92	She was born in London.							FS
T	93	In London? Are you sure?	D		C		DC		

S13	94	Já nevím.								
T	95	What is it actually?	D		C		DC			
T	95	What is it?	D		C		DC			
S	96	To je ten London Bridge.								FS
S	97	Tower Bridge.						OW		
T	98	Do you know actually the numbers there?	D		C		DC			
T	98	Do you know what number is there?	D		C		DC			
S	99	Padesát.						OW		
S	100	Sedmnáct.						OW		
S	101	Seventeen.						OW		
T	102	X is for…	D		C		DC			
S	203	Ten.						OW		
T	104	V is…	D		C		DC			
S	105	Five.						OW		
T	106	And II is…	D		C		DC			
S	107	Two.						OW		
T	108	So, we have the first number and it is what?	D		C		DC			
S	109	Sedmnáct.						OW		
T	110	The second number is what?	D		C		DC			
S	111	Nine.						OW		
T	112	And what is the year?	D		C		DC			
S	114	Two thousand…						OW		
T	116	And?	D		C		DC			
S	117	Seven.						OW		
S	118	Three.						OW		
T	119	What? Two thousand and?	D		C		DC			
S	120	Three.						OW		
S	121	Four?						OW		
T	122	When was she born?	D		C		DC			
S13	123	Seventeen…						OW		
T	124	She…								
S13	125	She was born in London…								
T	126	On…								
S13	127	On seventeen…								
T	128	On the seventeenth…								
S13	129	Seventy-nine.								
T	130	On the seventeenth of …								
S13	131	September.								
T	132	Is it correct?	D		C		DC			
T	132	And what year?	D		C		DC			
T	132	Two thousand…								
S13	133	Two thousand three.								

			D		C	O	DC	OW		FS
T	134	Where did she move?	D		C		DC			
S3	135	New York?						OW		
T	144	In New York or to New York?	D		C		DC			
S3	146	To New York.						OW		
T	146	Why did she move? What was the reason?	D		C		DC			
S3	147	Za prací?						OW		
T	148	And who?	D		C		DC			
S3	149	Job?						OW		
T	150	And WHO? Who? Who? Who? Luky, who?	D		C		DC			
S5	151	Dad?						OW		
T	152	Who got a job?	D		C		DC			
S5	153	Her father get a job in New York.								FS
T	154	As?	D		C		DC			
S5	155	As scientist.						OW		
T	156	What is my question?	D		C		DC			
S	157	What did she do in her free time?						OW		
T	158	Linduško, what did she do in her free time?	D			O	DO			
S6	159	She wrote…								FS
T	162	Do you know what is a poem?	D		C		DC			
S11	163	Báseň.						OW		
T	164	And Nikolko, what did she do?	D			O	DO			
S7	165	She read books. [ri:d].								FS
T	166	When she was thirteen she read [ri:d] or she read [red]?	D		C		DC			
S6	167	Read [red]?						OW		
T	170	What sports did she do?	D			O	DO			
S4	171	She did karate.								FS
T	172	What's next?	D			O	DO			
T	172	What did she do?	D			O	DO			
T	172	She did karate and…	D			O	DO			
T	172	What else?	D			O	DO			
S3	175	She plays tennis.								FS
T	176	What?	D		C		DC			
S3	177	Plays?						OW		
T	178	Really?	D		C		DC			
S3	181	Played.						OW		
T	182	Míšo, the next one, the last one?	D		C		DC			

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Speaker	#	Utterance	D	R	C	O	Code	OW	SA	FS
S2	183	She dance?								FS
T	184	Who knows?		R	C		RC			
S10	185	Danced [dencid].						OW		
T	186	Danced [dencid] od danced [dɑ:nst]?	D		C		DC			
S10	187	Danced [dɑ:nst].						OW		
T	188	What sports did she do?	D			O	DO			
S9	189	She played tennis.								FS
T	192	She played tennis and she…	D			O	DO			
S8	193	Danced.						OW		
T	194	A Nikolko, she…	D			O	DO			
S12	195	And she plays, she played box.								FS
T	196	Is it box?	D		C		DC			
S12	197	Teda, she played karate.								FS
T	202	How was her school day?	D		C		DC			
T	202	When did she wake up?	D		C		DC			
S11	203	She woke up at seven o'clock.								FS
T	204	Is it correct, Beátko?	D		C		DC			
T	204	Did she?	D		C		DC			
S1	205	Yes.						OW		
T	206	Beátko, when did she get up?	D		C		DC			
S1	207	She get up… She got up at half… Quarter past…?								FS
T	212	Is it correct? At quarter past seven?	D		C		DC			
S	213	Yes.						OW		
T	214	How did she go to school?	D		C		DC			
S10	215	She go to school…								FS
T	216	She what?	D		C		DC			
S10	217	She goes? Ne, počkat. She went to school by bus.								FS
T	218	Nikolko, is it correct?	D		C		DC			
T	218	Did she go to school by bus?	D		C		DC			
S12	219	Yes.						OW		
T	220	And did she go to school by bike?	D		C		DC			
S12	221	No.						OW		
T	224	And Nikolko, did she walk to school?	D		C		DC			
S12	223	No, she… No, she didn't.							SA	
T	226	Terezko, did she eat at school?	D		C		DC			
S9	227	Yes, she… did.							SA	

Speaker	Line	Text								
T	230	Luky, did she eat in her classroom? Did she?	D		C		DC			
S5	231	No, she didn't?							SA	
T	232	Where did she eat?	D		C		DC			
S5	233	School canteen.						OW		
T	236	When did she get home?	D		C		DC			
T	236	When did she go home?	D		C		DC			
T	236	Or when did she get home?	D		C		DC			
S2	237	She… She go…								FS
T	238	Go?	D		C		DC			
S2	239	She went.								FS
T	248	What places did she visit?	D			O	DO			
S3	249	She visited…								FS
T	250	She visited…								
S3	251	Sydney.								
T	252	Sydney in… Where is Sydney?	D		C		DC			
S10	253	In Australia.						OW		
T	259	And?	D			O	DO			
S3	260	Big Ben.						OW		
T	261	In?	D		C		DC			
S3	262	London.						OW		
T	263	And what is this?	D			O	DO			
S2	264	Italy.						OW		
T	265	This one is in Italy?	D		C		DC			
T	265	Where is it?	D			O	DC			
S3	266	Berlin.						OW		
T	267	Do you know it?		R	C		RC			
S	268	Yes.						OW		
T	269	Where was she born?	D		C		DC			
S4	270	She was born on the 17th Sptember, 2003.								FS
T	271	Where was she born?	D		C		DC			
S5	272	She were born in London.								FS
T	273	She were born?	D		C		DC			
T	273	Are you sure?	D		C		RC			
S5	274	Ne. She was born.								FS
T	277	Daví, when was she born?	D		C		DC			
S4	278	She was born on the 17th of September.								FS
T	279	How did she go to school?	D		C		DC			
S1	280	She went to school by bus.								FS
T	281	Where did she have lunch?	D		C		DC			
S6	282	She had lunch at school.								FS
T	285	When did she wake up?	D		C		DC			

Speaker	#	Utterance								
S3	292	At quarter past seven?						OW		
T	293	Is it correct?	D		C		DC			
S	294	No.						OW		
T	295	What did she do at that time? At quarter past seven? She didn't wake up but she…	D		C		DC			
S	296	Got up.						OW		
T	297	But Honzíku, when did she wake up?	D		C		DC			
S3	298	At… She woke up at seven o'clock.								FS
T	299	Is it correct now?	D		C		DC			
T	301	Soni, what sport did she do?	D			O	DO			
S8	302	She sports…								FS
T	303	Did she do karate?	D		C		DC			
S8	304	Karate.						OW		
T	305	Did she? Did she do karate?	D		C		DC			
S8	306	She…						OW		
T	307	Did she? Or she didn't?	D		C		DC			
S8	308	Yes.						OW		
T	311	Nikolko, did she dance?	D		C		DC			
S12	312	Ehm…								
T	313	Did she dance?	D		C		DC			
S12	314	Yes, she danced.								FS
T	315	Did she play football?	D		C		DC			
S13	316	No, she didn't.							SA	
T	317	Did she play tennis?	D		C		DC			
S1	318	Yes, she did.							SA	
T	319	Did she visit Paris?	D		C		DC			
S7	320	No, she didn't.							SA	
T	321	What did she visit?	D			O	DO			
S7	322	She visit…								FS
T	323	She visit **[visiti…]**.	D		C		DC			
S7	324	Visited.						OW		
T	327	Did she visit Sydney?	D		C		DC			
S14	328	Yes, she did.							SA	
T	329	Did she visit China?	D		C		DC			
S11	330	No, she didn't.							SA	
T	331	And what did she visit?	D			O	DO			
S11	332	She visited Rome in Italy.								FS
T	333	And did she visit Germany?	D		C		DC			
S5	334	Yes, she did.							SA	
T	335	And what city did she visit?	D		C		DC			
S5	336	Berlin.						OW		
T	339	And who was it?	D			O	DO			

T	339	Is it my brother?	D		C		DC			
S	340	No.						OW		
T	341	Who is she?	D			O	DO			
S5	342	Your friend.						OW		
T	345	How old was she?	D		C		DC			
S	346	Fifteen.						OW		
T	347	Fifteen?	D		C		DC			
S	348	Thirteen.						OW		
T	351	How old is she now?	D		C		DC			
S5	352	Fifteen.						OW		
T	353	Is she now fifteen?	D		C		DC			
T	353	How many?	D		C		DC			
T	355	So, the first question?	D		C		DC			
S	356	Did you brush your teeth yesterday?						OW		
T	359	How is the question?	D		C		DC			
S	360	Where did you travel last summer?						OW		
T	363	How is it correct?	D		C		DC			
T	375	How is the question?	D		C		DC			
S	376	What time did you wake up yesterday?						OW		
T	392	Do you see it?		R	C		RC			
T	392	Can you see my mistake there?	D		C		RC			
S11	393	Je tady napsaný bevor a má tam být before.								FS
T	394	And is it with v?	D		C		DC			
T	394	Is it correct like this?	D		C		DC			
S	395	Yes.						OW		
T	396	Is it correct now?	D		C		DC			
S	397	Yes.						OW		
T	400	Did you brush your teeth yesterday?		R	C		RC			
S2	401	Yes, I did.							SA	
T	406	Davídku, what did Míša do yesterday?	D		C		DC			
S4	407	He brushed his teeth.								FS
T	408	Linduš, where did you travel last summer?		R		O	RO			
S6	409	I travelled to Spain.								FS
T	410	Terezko, where did she travel?	D		C		DC			
S9	411	She travelled to Spain.								FS
T	412	Davídku, did she travel to Germany?	D		C		DC			

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S13	413	Ehm…								
T	414	Did she…?	D		C		DC			
S13	417	No, she didn't.							SA	
T	420	Davídku, where did Linduška travel last summer?	D		C		DC			
S13	421	To Spain.						OW		
T	424	Travel or travelled?	D		C		DC			
S13	423	She travelled to Spain.								FS
T	426	Honzíku, where were you last weekend?		R		O	RO			
T	426	Were you at home or were you at school?		R		O	RO			
S3	427	At home?						OW		
T	428	Honzí, were you at home or were you at school last weekend?		R		O	RO			
S13	429	I was at home.								FS
T	430	Luky, was he at school?	D		C		DC			
S5	431	No, he wasn't.							SA	
T	432	Beátko, was Honzí at his grandma?	D		C		DC			
S1	433	No, he didn't.							SA	
T	434	Was he at his grandma?	D		C		DC			
S1	435	Ehm.								
T	436	Honzí, were you at your grandma?		R	C		RC			
S3	437	Ehm…								
T	440	And were you at your grandma?		R	C		RC			
S3	441	No.						OW		
T	442	No, I…								
S3	443	No, I didn't.								
T	444	Didn't?	D		C		DC			
T	444	Are you sure?	D		C		RC			
S3	445	No, I wasn't.							SA	
T	446	Beátko, was he at his grandma?	D		C		DC			
S1	447	No, he wasn't.							SA	
T	448	Nikolko, what time did you wake up today?		R		O	RO			
S12	451	I woke up at half past six.								FS
T	452	Míšo, when did she wake up?	D		C		DC			
S2	453	She woke up at half past six.								FS
T	454	Nikolko, did she wake up at six?	D		C		DC			
S7	455	No, she didn't.							SA	

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T	456	And when did she wake up?	D		C		DC			
S7	457	She wake up…								
T	458	She…								
S7	457	She woke up.								
T	460	She woke up…								
S7	461	At half past six.								
T	462	Beátko, do you know when was Linduš born?	R		C		RC			
T	464	Do you know the day?	R		C		RC			
S1	465	No.						OW		
T	466	When were you born?	R			O	RO			
S6	467	I was born on the one…								FS
T	468	On the one?	D		C		DC			
S6	469	First.						OW		
T	470	On the first…								
S6	471	On the first of… srpen. August.								
T	472	And what number is it?	D		C		DC			
S6	473	Eight.						OW		
T	474	And what year?	R			O	RO			
S6	475	Two hundred…Ne.						OW		
T	478	When was she born?	D		C		DC			
S6	475	Two hundred…Ne.						OW		
T	524	How do we start the question?	D		C		DC			
S13	525	Did.						OW		
T	538	So, what did we do today?	D			O	DO			
T	538	We just revised what?	D			O	DO			
T	538	What did we do in this lesson?	D			O	DO			
T	540	We talked about what?	D			O	DO			
S	541	Past tense.						OW		

The topic of this English lesson was the revision of the past simple and the lesson can be divided into four parts - speaking (Turn 1–88), working with a text (Turn 87–353), making questions (Turn 353–397) and speaking again (Turn 400–451). As we can see, the longest part of the lesson was devoted to working with the text about the childhood of Chloe Maples. All these individual stages of the lesson are described in more detail in the next part of this chapter.

Sentences that are not highlighted in red or green also appear in the table, such as Turn 124-131 or 457-461. These are not questions, but clues that the teacher used to help her students. I included them in the table just as a matter of interest.

In this lesson, the teacher asked the students a total of 195 questions – 119 display closed, 22 display open, 27 referential closed and 28 referential open questions. Of all the three lessons, this one was the richest in the interaction between the teacher and the pupils.

Types of questions (Lesson 1)

■ Display closed   ■ Display open   ■ Referential closed   ■ Referential open
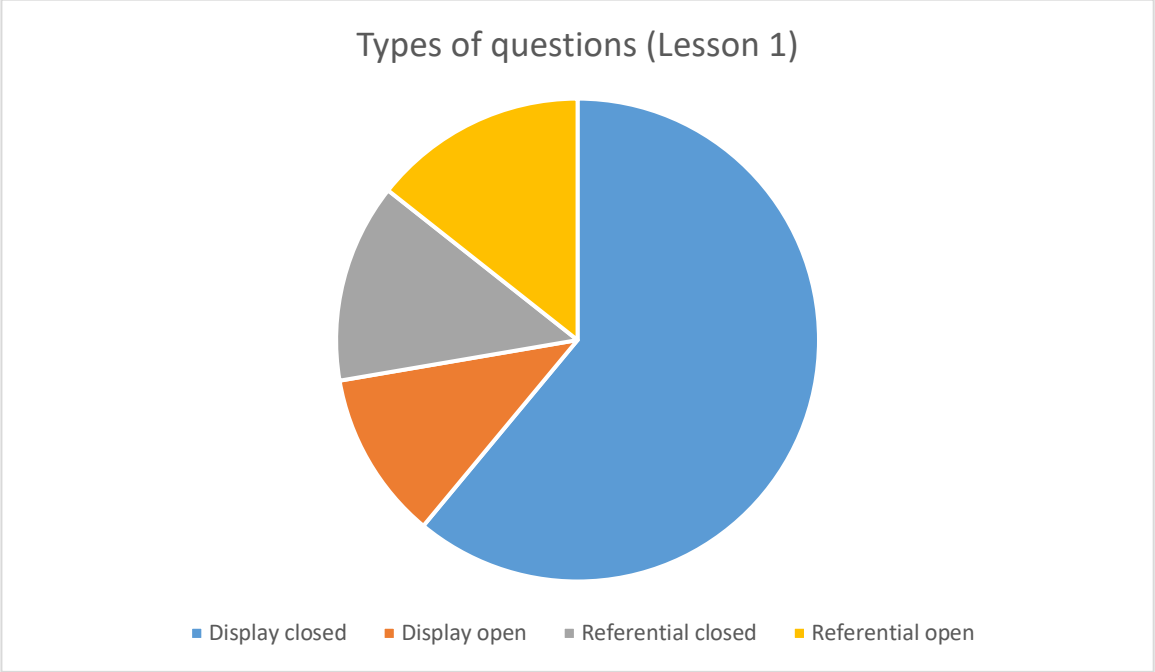
Since the teacher asked many questions in this lesson, I have decided to elaborate the answers to each type of question separately and also graphically.

Display closed questions

As mentioned above, the longest part of the lesson was devoted to working with a text about Chloe Maples. The aim of this activity was reading comprehension that was checking that the children can find out particular information in the text. The teacher asked the pupils questions she knew the answer to in advance, and usually, only one answer was correct, such as '*When was she born?*', '*Where did she move?*' or '*Did she visit Sydney?*'.

These questions are called ***display closed questions,*** of which 119 were heard in this lesson. To these 119 questions, the teacher received 96 answers from her pupils - 55 one-word, 14 short answers and 27 full sentences.
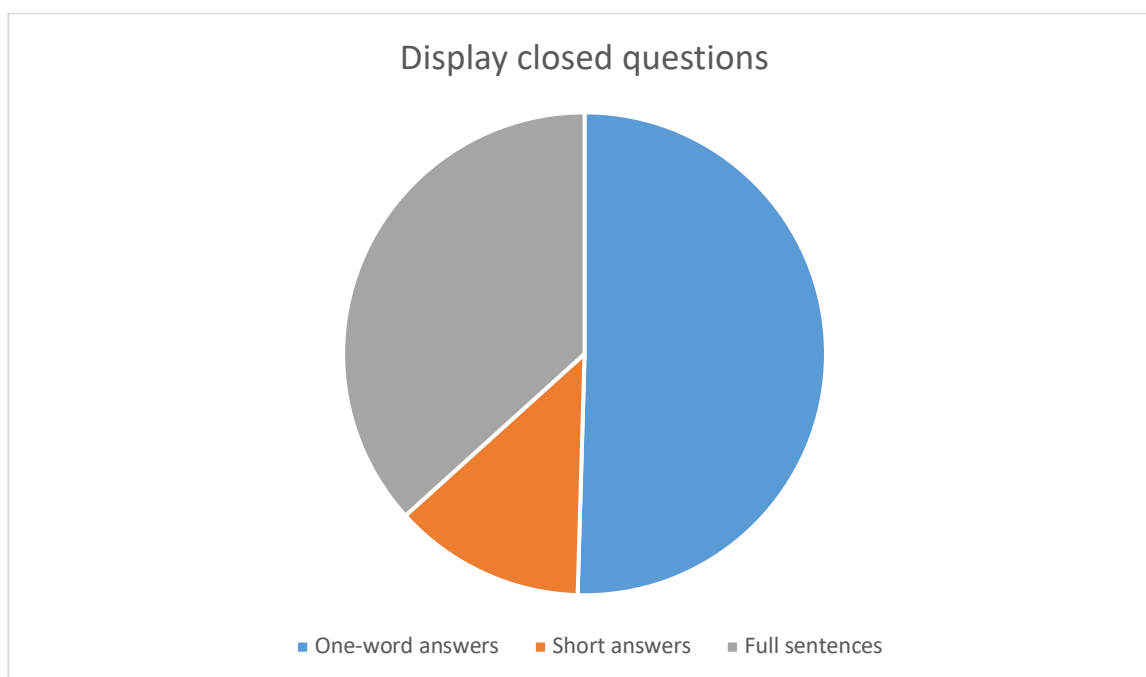
However, since all these questions were only used to search for information in the text and although the pupils also answered in full sentences, these questions do not develop communication.

Display closed questions also occurred in the speaking part of the lesson, as we can see in the following illustration (Turn 5–8):

> T: *Beátko, how are you today*? (RO)
>
> S1: I'm fine.
>
> T: *How is she?* (DC)
>
> S2: She is fine.

The teacher first asked S1 the question '*How are you?*'. She did not know the answer in advance, so this was a referential question. But then she asked how S1 is – '*How is she?*'. In that case, she already knew the answer because S1 had said it before.

The teacher used this question to find out if the other pupils pay attention and if they can reformulate their classmate's answer, such as changing the subject and the predicate. Since there was only one correct answer to this question, which the teacher knew in advance, it was a display closed question.

Display open questions

As part of the work with the above-mentioned text, the teacher also asked questions, to which she knew the answer in advance, but there were several correct answers. These questions included, for example, '*What did Chloe do in her free time?*'. The pupils could answer that she wrote poems, read books, did karate, played tennis, or danced.

This type of question is called ***display open questions***, of which 22 were asked in this lesson. To these 22 questions, the teacher received 14 answers from her pupils - 5 one-word and 9 full sentences. Because these were open-ended questions, there was no short answer from the pupils.

Display open questions

■ One-word answers   ■ Full sentences
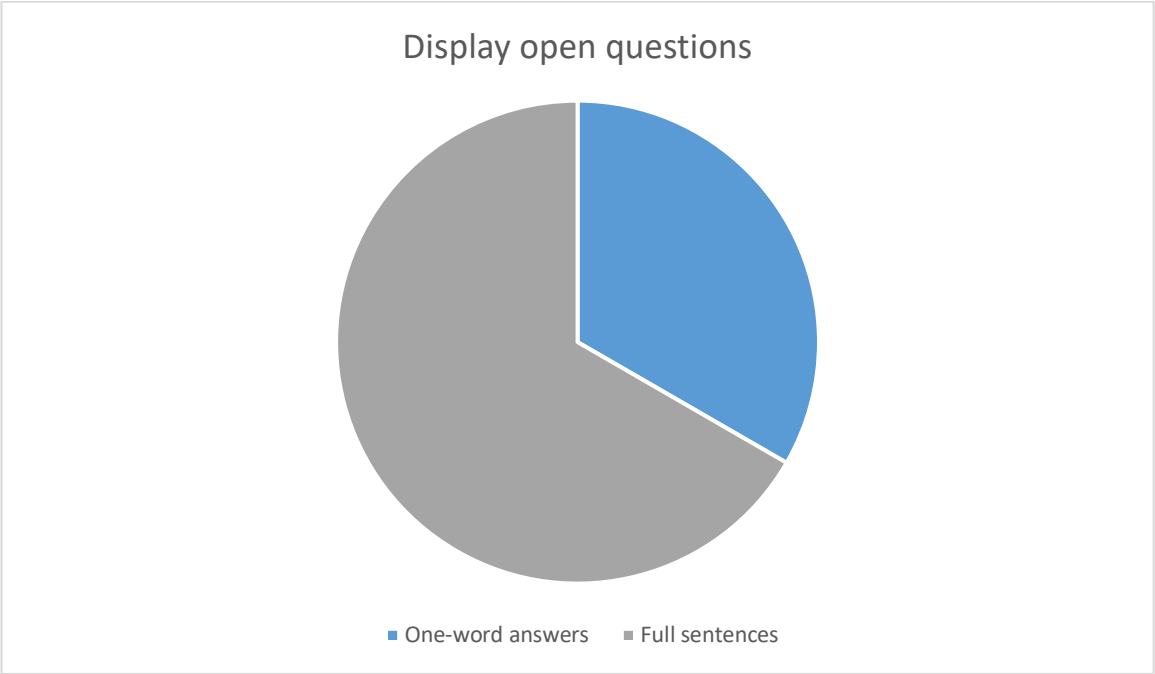
Referential closed questions

The beginning and the ending of the lesson were focused on the teacher's conversation with her pupils. She asked the pupils personal questions to which she did not know the answer in advance, such as '*Did you do homework yesterday*?' or '*Did you play computer games yesterday*?'.

This type of question is called *referential closed questions* and the teacher asked 26 of them. To these 26 questions, the pupils gave 25 answers to their teacher - 14 one-word answers, 6 short answers and 5 full sentences.
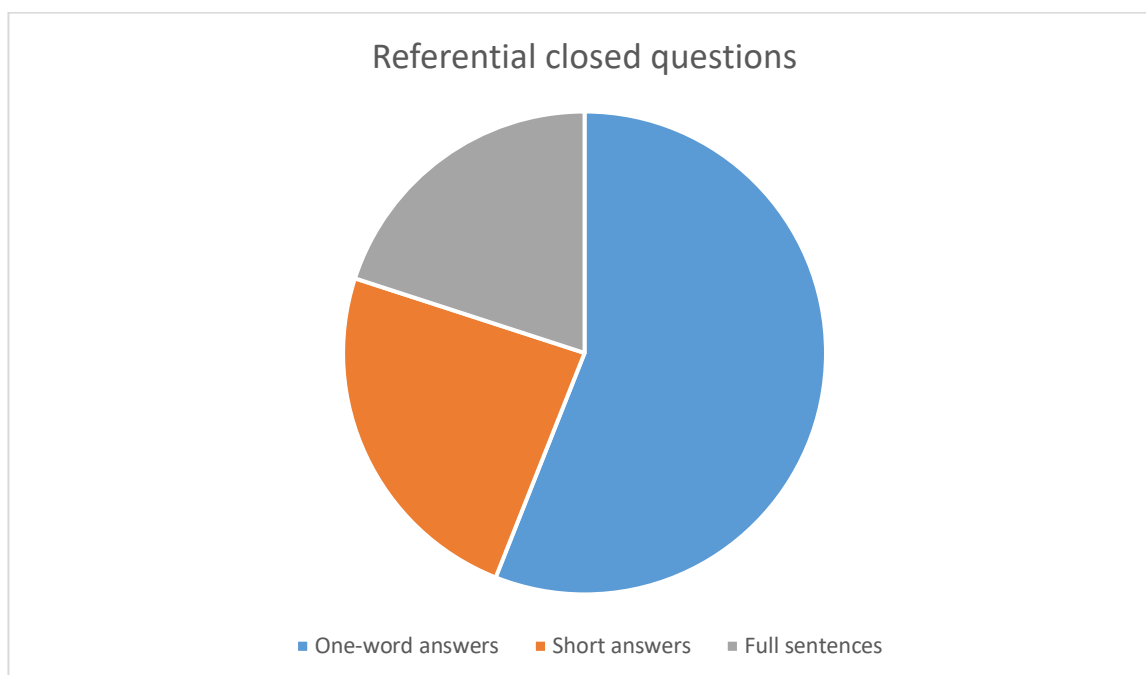
As we can see, teacher A was the only one who supported her pupils to use short answers (Turn 71–76):

> T: Did you do any homework yesterday?
>
> S13: *No, I didn't.*
>
> T: And Davídku, did you have any homework?
>
> S13: *No, I didn't.*
>
> T: Ondro, did you play computer games yesterday?
>
> S14: *No, I didn't.*

Referential open questions

The last type of questions that the teacher asked her pupils in this lesson were so-called ***referential open questions***. These include, for example, '*What did you do in the afternoon yesterday?*', '*How many hours did you sleep?*' or '*Where were you last weekend?*'.

These are mostly Wh-questions and the teacher asked 28 of them. To these 28 referential open questions, the teacher received 22 answers in total - 6 one-word answers and 16 full sentences. As mentioned above, since these were open-ended questions, there was no short answer from the pupils.

This type of question requires higher cognitive processes and more extensive answers and is the most natural of all the four types. These are the questions that appear in everyday social communication and develop classroom communication the most. As we can see in the following graph, the pupils mostly answered these questions in full sentences, 79% in total.

I would say that the teacher asks referential questions regularly and practices them with her pupils, because most of them did not have problems answering these questions in short answers and full sentences. If it was difficult to answer these questions for some pupils, the teacher motivated them and helped them.

Referential open questions

■ One-word answers ■ Full sentences
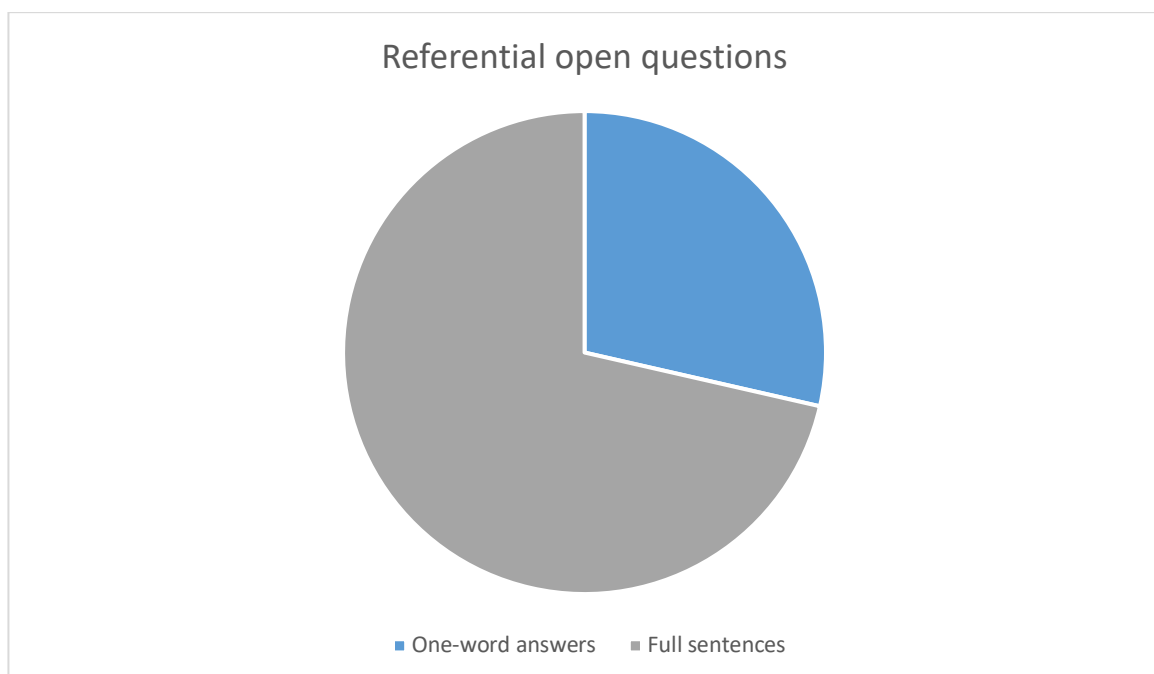
2. Lesson 2

The second recording was taken in the eighth grade, so the pupils are 13 or 14 years old. The second class consists of ten pupils – six girls and four boys. The teacher (teacher B) is a young man, who can be about 25 years old. At the time the recording was taken, he was not yet a fully qualified teacher because he only had a bachelor's degree. He is also energetic and communicative, and he seems to have a friendly relationship with his pupils.

The set-up of this classroom is traditional, typical of frontal teaching. The school desks are arranged in rows and three or four pupils sit in each row. Since they sit in rows, they cannot see their schoolmates but only their teacher.

The topic of the lesson is health and illnesses and the usage of *should*. The pupils practice the vocabulary and phrases connected to illnesses and then they give advice to each other. In the last part of the lesson, the pupils also work with their workbooks.

	Turn		D	R	C	O	SUM	OW	SA	FS
T	1	Do we understand it or not?		R	C		RC			
T	5	Česky řekneš jsem hladový, nebo řekneš mám hlad?	D		C		DC			
S1	6	Mám hlad.						OW		
T	11	Do you know what does it mean? I'm bored.	D		C		DC			
S3	12	Jsem znuděný.						OW		
T	22	Tady máme dvě možnosti.	D		C		DC			
S5	23	Mám horečku.						OW		
T	24	Anebo…	D		C		DC			
S5	25	Jsem sexy.						OW		
T	28	Víme, jaká část těla by bylo back?	D		C					
S	30	Záda.						OW		
T	31	Takže, co bude to hurts? My back hurts.	D		C		DC			
S	32	Bolí mě záda.						OW		
T	43	What is it?	D		C		DC			
S9	44	Nachlazení.						OW		
T	59	Ale do Vánoc máme ještě kolik dnů?		R	C		RC			
S	60	Čtrnáct.						OW		
T	61	To znamená kolik hodin angličtiny?		R	C		RC			
S1	62	Šest, pět. Pět.						OW		

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			D	R	C	O		OW		FS
T	68	Nebo třeba…	D			O	DO			
S3	69	I'm hungry.						OW		
T	71	Víme, co je sore throat?	D		C		DC			
S	72	Bolest v krku.						OW		
T	84	Co znamená sore eyes?	D		C		DC			
S7	85	Pálivé oči.						OW		
T	86	Do you know the difference between I am bored and something is boring?	D		C		DC			
S8	87	Jsem znuděný a něco je nudné.						OW		
T	90	Tak řekneš, že…	D		C		DC			
S7	91	Že jsem nudná.						OW		
T	96	Víme, jak se řekne rada?	D		C		DC			
T	98	Jo?		R	C		RC			
T	100	Všichni máme lísteček?		R	C		RC			
T	102	Najdeme ho tam?	D		C		DC			
S	103	Should.						OW		
T	111	Má tam ještě někdo něco, čemu by nerozuměl?		R		O	RO			
T	113	Tak jste všichni všechno našli?		R	C		RC			
S	114	Jo.						OW		
T	117	Co budou asi eye drops?	D		C		DC			
S10	118	Kapky do očí.						OW		
T	121	Co jsou cartoons?	D		C		DC			
S	122	Seriály.						OW		
T	123	Co děláte, když máte rýmu?		R		O	RO			
S9	124	Koukám do mobilu.								FS
T	138	And the last one?	D		C		DC			
S1	139	I'm hungry. You should eat something.						OW		
T	149	Napadla vás nějaká rada?		R		O	RO			
S	150	No.						OW		
T	159	Are you tired or do you have sore eyes?		R	C		RC			
S10	160	Sore eyes.						OW		
T	175	He should wear sunglasses, věděli byste?	D		C		DC			
S	176	Sluneční brýle.						OW		
T	178	Tak, víme?	D		C		DC			
S	181	Her back hurts.								FS
T	184	Ještě něco kromě masáže?		R		O	RO			
S8	185	Pills. Take pills.								FS
T	192	No?		R	C		RC			
T	194	What's her problem?	D		C		DC			

			D	R	C	O		OW	FS
S3	195	She is hot.							FS
T	196	So, what's your advice?		R		O	RO		
S5	197	You should take off your sweater.							FS
T	204	Ještě něco vás napadne?		R		O	RO		
S1	205	Jo, do mrazáku jít.							FS
T	206	Víme, jak se řekne mrazák?	D		C		DC		
S7	207	Ice box.						OW	
T	208	Ice box?	D		C		DC		
T	217	So, what is your advice?		R		O	RO		
S9	218	She should drink red bull.							FS
T	225	So, what is your advice?		R		O	RO		
S7	226	You should eat some food.							FS
T	229	So, what is your advice?		R		O	RO		
S7	230	Take some pills.							FS
T	242	Kam byste dali slovíčko koleno?	D		C		DC		
S6	243	My knee hurts.						OW	
T	244	So, what about a cold?	D		C		DC		
T	253	Napadlo by vás teda, jak bude opak k tomuhle? I've got a cold?	D		C		DC		
S6	254	I've got a hot.						OW	
T	258	Co?		R		O	RO		
S1	259	Že je to strašně dlouhé slovo.							FS
T	260	So, the third word, thirsty.	D		C		DC		
S6	261	I'm thirsty.						OW	
T	262	And the fourth one?	D		C		DC		
S	263	I'm bored.						OW	
T	264	So, now hot.	D		C		DC		
S	265	I'm hot.						OW	
T	266	Now a new word. Spot.	D		C		DC		
S7	267	I've got a spot.						OW	
T	270	Dalmatini mají…	D		C		DC		
S1	271	Jooo, flíčky.						OW	
T	274	What about back?	D		C		DC		
S	275	My back hurts.						OW	
T	276	A sore throat.	D		C		DC		
S	277	I've got a sore throat.						OW	
T	278	Sore eyes.	D		C		DC		
S8	279	I've got sore eyes.						OW	
T	280	Tired.	D		C		DC		
S	281	I'm tired.						OW	
T	282	And toothache.	D		C		DC		
S7	283	I've got a toothache.						OW	

T	284	Víme, co je toothache?	D		C		DC			
T	286	Co nám tam zbylo?	D		C		DC			
T	286	Slyšeli jste někdy slovíčko itches?		R	C		RC			
T	286	Takže, dokázali bychom vymyslet česká jména pro Itchyho a Scratchyho?	D			O	DO			
S	287	Svědění a …						OW		
T	290	What about this phrase? I feel sick.	D		C		DC			
S2	291	Jsem nemocný.						OW		
T	293	A I don't feel well.	D		C		DC			
S3	294	Necítím se dobře.						OW		
T	295	So, what about picture B?	D		C		DC			
T	297	She…	D		C		DC			
S3	298	She has got toothache.								FS
T	303	Viděli jste Pána prstenů?		R	C		RC			
T	305	Frodo měl žihadlo a víme, jak se jmenovalo anglicky	D		C		DC			
T	305	So, what about picture C?	D		C		DC			
T	307	She…	D		C		DC			
S7	308	Chce se jí zvracet, takže ji bolí břicho.								FS
T	309	Or maybe she feels…	D		C		DC			
S3	310	She feels ill.								FS
T	312	Or maybe she feels…	D		C		DC			
S3	313	Sick.						OW		
T	314	So, what about picture D?	D		C		DC			
S3	315	His knee hurts.								FS
T	316	What about picture E?	D		C		DC			
S	317	She's tired.								FS
T	318	Picture F?	D		C		DC			
S2	319	His back hurts.								FS
T	320	What about picture G?	D		C		DC			
S	321	She has got a cold.								FS
T	326	What about I? Picture I?	D		C		DC			
S3	327	He has got sore throat.								FS
T	331	Picture K.	D		C		DC			
S3	332	She has got a spot.								FS
T	335	And the last picture?	D		C		DC			
S6	336	He is cold.								FS
T	343	Co nás napadne na bolest v břiše?		R		O	RO			
S2	344	Vezmi si prášek.								FS

The topic of this English lesson was health and illnesses and giving advice. The lesson can be divided into five parts. The first part of the lesson (Turn 5-44) was focused on practicing vocabulary. The teacher asked his pupils to translate or act the phrases, such as '*I'm hungry*' and the pupils always chose the first option to translate it.

In the second part of the lesson (Turn 68–91), the pupils worked with their books and their task was to match to correct word to the correct column and make phrases. In the third part (Turn 96-139), the pupils matched the problems with the correct advice.

In the fourth part (Turn 149–230), one of the pupils acted some problem. The task of the rest of the class was to guess the problem and give correct advice. Within this activity, the pupils practiced the vocabulary and also the usage of should. In the last part of the lesson (Turn 242–336), the pupils worked with their books again. Their task was to complete the phrases with correct words, such as '*My knee hurts*' or '*I've got a cold*'.

In this lesson, the teacher asked the pupils 74 questions – 51 display closed, 2 display open, 10 referential closed and 11 referential open questions. Of these 74 questions, 38 were in Czech, which is more than half. In my opinion, there was no reason for formulating the questions in Czech, and I think that the pupils would understand the English questions without any problems. I think it is a pity also because the teacher's English was very good. At first, I even thought he was a native speaker.

Types of questions (Lesson 2)

■ Display closed ■ Display open ■ Referential closed ■ Referential open
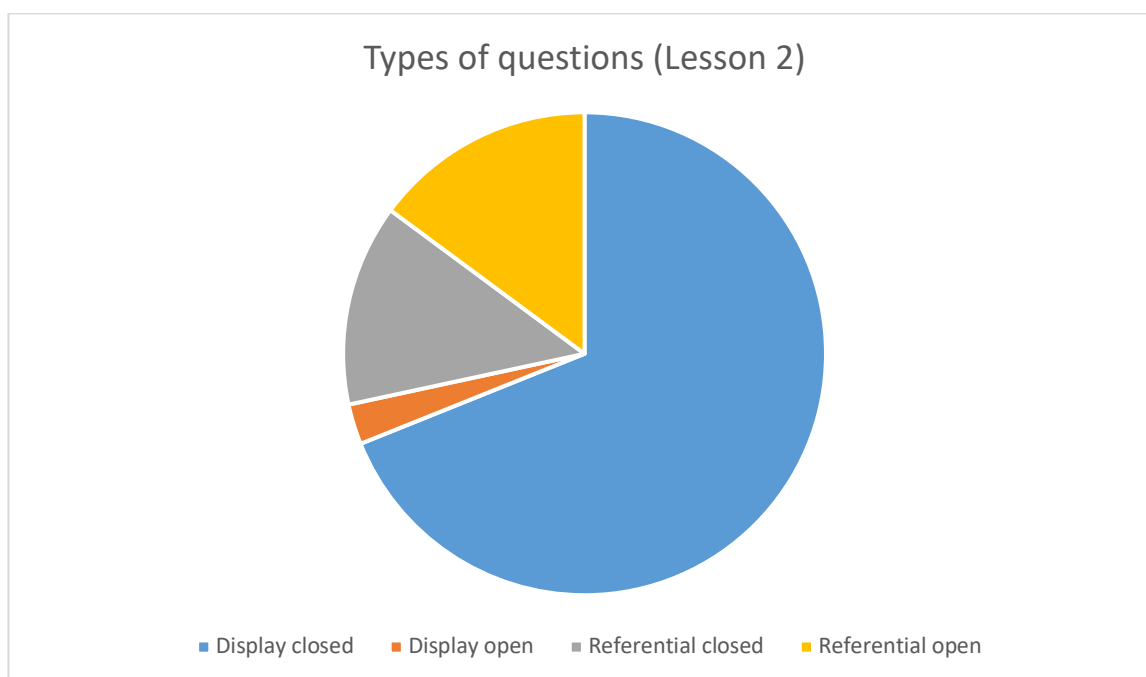
The teacher asked 51 ***display closed questions*** in this lesson and his pupils gave him 32 one-word answers and 12 full sentences. As these questions were asked to check the knowledge and practice the topic, they do not develop communication in any way. The teacher also asked 2 ***display open questions*** and both of them were answers by a one-word answer.

The teacher also asked the students 21 referential questions - 10 closed and 11 open. The ***referential closed questions*** were mostly related to the organization of the lesson, such as '*Do we understand it or not?*' or '*Všichni máme lísteček?*' The pupils usually did not reply to these questions and the teacher received only 3 one-word answers.

He used ***referential open question*** to practise giving advice and the usage of should – e. g. '*Co děláte, když máte rýmu?*', '*So, what's your advice?*' or '*Ještě něco vás napadne?*'. He asked 11 referential open questions and all of them were answered. The pupils answered them in 9 full sentences and only two one-word answers.

3. Lesson 3

The last recording was taken in the seventh grade, so the pupils are 12 or 13 years old. The class consists of thirteen pupils – six girls and seven boys. The teacher (teacher C) is a man who is older than the other two teachers. He can be about 50 years old. He seems to have a friendly relationship with his pupils, the atmosphere is positive. The set-up of this classroom is traditional again. The school desks are arranged in rows and the pupils sit in pairs. The topic of this lesson is asking the way and giving directions.

	Turn		D	R	C	O	SUM	OW	SA	FS
T	1	I want you to tell me what will be the sentences, the phrases, that someone who lost his way in a town will use.	D			O	DO			
S1	2	Excuse me, do you help me?						OW		
T	3	What are the other phrases? Excuse me…	D			O	DO			
S2	4	Can you help me?						OW		
T	5	Ondra?	D			O	DO			
S3	6	How can I get to…?						OW		
T	7	Anything else?	D			O	DO			
S4	8	What are the directions to…?						OW		
T	9	Anything else?	D			O	DO			
T	9	If you want to ask where is the nearest, I don't know, building or…?	D		C		DC			
S1	10	Where is the nearest hotel?						OW		
T	11	Anything else people say when they get lost?	D			O	DO			
T	13	What they say afterwards?	D		C		DC			
T	13	If someone helps you, you say… Magic word!	D		C		DC			
T	15	If someone helps you, then you say…	D		C		DC			
S5	16	Thank you.						OW		
T	19	So, do you think is that all?		R	C		RC			
S1	20	There are so much…								FS
T	23	So, what are the phrases that someone who is from the town can explain the way?	D			O	DO			
T	23	What phrases does he use?	D			O	DO			
S6	24	Turn right.						OW		

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T	27	Is it necessary to write turn left?		R	C		RC		
T	29	David?	D			O	DO		
S8	30	Go along?						OW	
T	31	Go along what?	D			O	DO		
S8	32	The street.						OW	
T	33	Yes, you can say go along the street, but you can go along the…	D		C		DC		
S8	34	Park?						OW	
T	37	And what can you go through?	D			O	DO		
S9	38	Park?						OW	
T	39	Anything else?	D			O	DO		
S10	40	Stop						OW	
T	43	So, Emma, what do you think?	D			O	DO		
T	43	Do you remember anything else?	D			O	DO		
S5	44	Go under the bridge.						OW	
T	45	David?	D			O	DO		
S8	46	Turn right on the corner?						OW	
T	47	Kája?	D			O	DO		
S1	48	Take the first turning to.						OW	
T	49	And how do you use it?	D		C		DC		
S1	50	When you're on a crossroad or roundabout.							FS
T	51	But what is afterwards?	D		C		DC		
S1	52	Left or right.						OW	
T	53	Anything else?	D			O	DO		
T	55	So, what do you say?	D			O	DO		
S5	56	Behind? Nebo next to.						OW	
T	57	If it's like this…	D		C		DC		
S9	59	Opposite.						OW	
T	62	Kryštof?	D			O	DO		
S5	63	Next to the station.						OW	
T	64	And if it's here…	D		C		DC		
S7	65	It's behind the station.							FS
T	68	Do you know how to write it?		R	C		RC		
T	70	What do you think about them?	D			O	DO		
T	70	What do you think you are supposed to do?	D			O	DO		
T	72	So, what do you think?	D			O	DO		
T	72	What to do with the words?	D			O	DO		

T	76	And who's going to say a place in a town?		R		O	RO			
S	77	Anička.						OW		
T	82	What to do with the stadium?	D		C		DC			
T	86	Tell me what you have found.	D		C		DC			
S1	87	Ice.						OW		
T	92	What does it mean?	D		C		DC			
S5	94	Železniční nádraží.						OW		
T	96	And how to say it in another way?	D		C		DC			
T	96	You can say railway station or maybe easier way is to say…	D		C		DC			
S5	97	Train station.						OW		
T	100	We know what it means.	D		C		DC			
S8	101	Autobusová zastávka.						OW		
T	104	We know what it means.	D		C		DC			
S12	105	Pošta.						OW		
T	114	Do you know any other places in a town that can help you to explain the way somewhere?	D			D	DO			
S2	117	Hospital.						OW		
T	135	Anything else?	D			O	DO			
S1	136	We have Sokolák. I don't know how to say it in English.								FS
T	143	And places which are not buildings?	D			O	DO			
S4	144	Park?						OW		
T	157	And what about something we have in the middle of the square?	D			O	DO			
S1	158	Fountain.						OW		
T	159	And in the middle of the fountain there's a…?	D		C		DC			
T	159	There's Samson. It's a…	D		C		DC			
S4	160	Je to socha.								FS
T	166	So, what about Town Hall to Solnice?	D			O	DO			
T	166	Do you know the places?		R	C		RC			
T	166	Do you know where it is?		R	C		RC			
T	168	Do you know it?		R	C		RC			
T	170	And maybe Town Hall?	D		C		DC			
S1	171	Here.						OW		
T	177	Kája?	D			O				

S5	178	Go round the corner of the Town Hall and turn…								FS
T	179	You mean like this.	D		C		DC			
S5	180	Yes.						OW		
T	183	Do you mean it like this.	D		C		DC			
S5	184	Yes.						OW		
T	185	You mean go straight on.	D		C		DC			
S5	186	Straight on…						OW		
T	191	On the left?	D		C		DC			
T	191	First or second?		R	C		RC			
S5	192	Second.						OW		
T	200	Rozumíš?		R	C		RC			
T	200	So, what to say?	D			O	DO			
S5	201	You are on square and go behind the… Jak se řekne…? Cathedral?								FS
T	204	Kristýna?	D			O	DO			
S4	205	There's a statue. If you go to the street, you will see a statue.								FS
T	206	And then what?	D			O	DO			
T	206	What's in the corner of the square?	D		C		DC			
T	206	I don't know if we will be able to see the Solnice from here.		R	C		RC			
S	207	No.						OW		
T	208	So, what to say?	D			O	DO			
S1	209	You must go on square and there's a building with faces.								FS
T	210	So, go past the church and you will see the building with…	D		C		DC			
S1	211	Faces						OW		
T	217	Do you know what courthouse is?		R	C		RC			
S	218	Yes.						OW		
T	225	And our school?	D		C		DC			
S5	226	Tady.						OW		
T	227	And now what?	D			O	DO			
S4	228	So, you should cross the street.								FS
T	237	Do you mean the library which is here?		R	C		RC			
T	241	Yeah, so it will be better if you say…	D		C		DC			

			D	R	C	O		OW	FS
S5	243	Go over the bridge.						OW	
T	244	And then…	D			O	DO		
S4	245	Then cross the street.							FS
T	248	What's the date today?	D		C		DC		
S	249	The eleventh…						OW	
T	250	The eleventh of what?	D		C		DC		
S	251	June.						OW	
T	254	First, do you know where the places are?		R	C		RC		
S	255	Yes.						OW	
T	264	Do you want this map or this one?		R	C		RC		
S5	265	Yes.						OW	
T	266	So, shall I zoom it?		R	C		RC		
S5	267	Jo, děkujeme.						OW	
T	268	And what do you want?		R		O	RO		
S5	269	Museum.						OW	
T	272	And the other place is what?		R		O	RO		
S5	273	Town Hall.						OW	
T	280	Dokážeš to říct?	D			C	DC		
S9	281	Go to the end of the street.						OW	
T	291	Nechcete se spíš pohádat, že jste manželé?		R	C		RC		
T	297	So, where are you?	D			O	RO		
S4	298	We are in front of the courthouse.							FS
T	304	Which one, maybe?	D		C		DC		
T	304	The left one?	D		C		DC		
T	304	The right one?	D		C		DC		
S4	305	The…							
T	312	Mountain?	D		C		DC		
S4	313	Fountain.						OW	
T	319	So, tell me where you are.	D		C		DC		
S1	320	We are opposite the Black Tower.							FS
T	334	So, we are somewhere here.	D		C		DC		
S1	335	Yes.						OW	
T	345	And tell us where you are standing.	D		C		DC		
S6	346	In front of the post office.					DC	OW	
T	354	Then what?	D			O	DO		
S9	355	Then turn right.							FS
T	360	But where?	D			O	DO		
S9	361	Tak to uvidí.							FS
T	366	Jak bys to ještě popsal? Třeba, že je to velká budova.	D		C		DC		

S9	367	It's a big yellow building.						OW		
T	368	So, maybe, Jindra, are you a tourist or someone from the town?		R	C		RC			
S11	369	Tourist.						OW		
T	374	Do you understand?		R	C		RC			
S5	375	No.						OW		
T	376	My už jsme to dělali, ne?	D		C		DC			
S	377	Ne.						OW		
T	380	Where are you standing?	D		C		DC			
S11	381	In front of our school.						OW		
T	390	And, maybe…	D		C		DC			
S5	391	Turn left.						OW		
T	392	OK. So, go across the park to the river, turn…	D		C		DC			
S5	393	Turn right.						OW		

The topic of the lesson was asking the way and giving directions and it can be divided into four parts. In the first part of the lesson (Turn 1–68), the teacher revised the vocabulary and phrases with his pupils. The pupils said the phrases and then wrote them on the whiteboard. The pupils knew the phrases well, so this was a simple warm-up activity for them.

The second part of the lesson (Turn 70-160) was focused on creating words or phrases. Each pupil chose a piece of paper with a part of some word or phrase and the task was to find someone with the other part and create a place in a town, such as a railway station, post office or police station. They also practiced the Czech equivalents of these words.

In the third part of the lesson (Turn 166-245), the pupils worked with the phrases from the previous activity. Their task was to describe the way from one place to another, such as from the Black Tower to the swimming pool or from the Town Hall to Solnice. The teacher chose only the places located in České Budějovice, which helped the pupils to describe the way.

The last part of the lesson (Turn 248–393) was focused on making dialogues. The pupils worked in pairs, one of them was a tourist in České Budějovice and the other one was a person who lives in the city. At first, they wrote the script into their exercise books and then acted it. To make it easier for the pupils, the teacher projected a city map on the board.

In this lesson, the teacher asked the pupils exactly 100 questions – 43 display closed, 36 display open, 17 referential closed and only 4 referential open questions. All but one of the questions were asked in English.
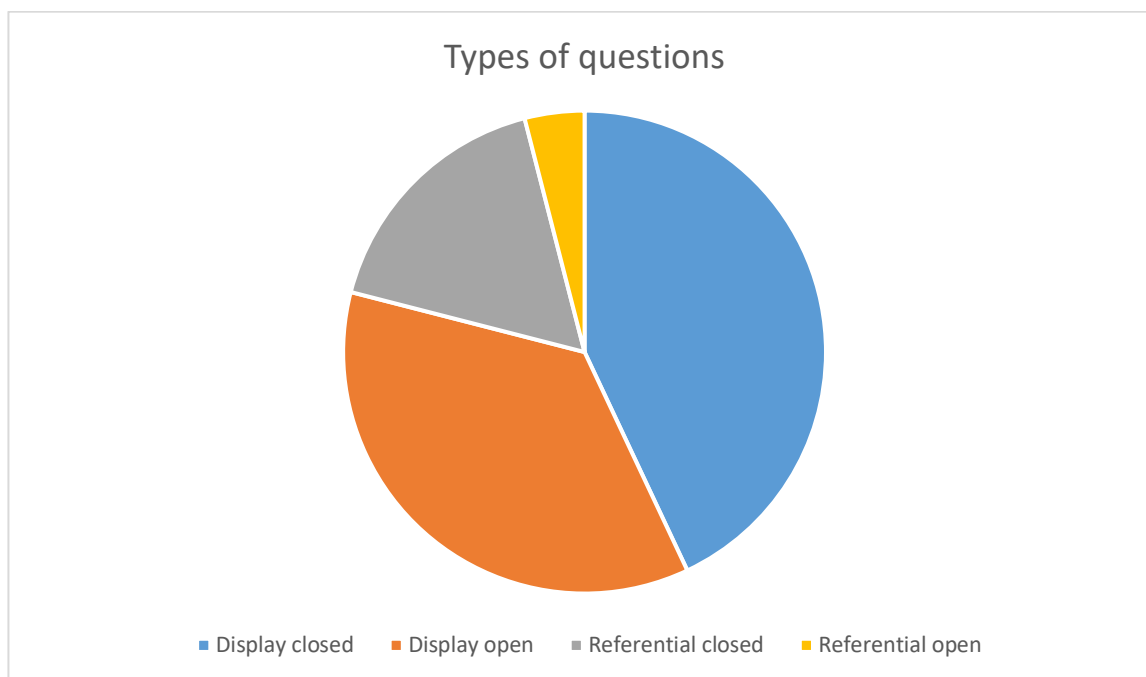
As we can see, the teacher asked mainly ***display question***s to his pupils, 79 % in total. With this type of question, he checked the knowledge of the pupils, such as '*What are the other phrases? Excuse me…*'. To these 79 display questions, the pupils gave him 50 one-word answers and 13 full sentences.

Such a high number of one-word answers proves again that display questions do not develop communication in any way. Pupils just recall what they have learned or what they know and say it out loud. The teacher is satisfied to hear the correct answer and does not care how extensive the answer was.

The teacher also asked some ***referential questions***. Referential questions were quite rare in this lesson, the teacher asked only 21 of them – 17 referential closed and only 4 referential open. The pupils gave him only 14 answers, 10 one-word answers and 3 full sentences. There were no short answers at all in this lesson.

Although referential questions should develop communication, unfortunately, this was not the case in this lesson. The teacher asked his pupils questions to which he did not know the answer in advance but they were related to certain activities, such as '*First, do you know where the*

places are?' or '*So, shall I zoom it?'*. Although these were referential questions, the teacher did not ask them with the intention of developing communication.

The teacher used a lot of directives, starting with 'Can', such as '*So, can we write it on the whiteboard?'*, '*So, can you write opposite the bank?'*, '*Can you describe it?'*, '*So, can I ask someone to come here and make the dialogue?'* or '*And Kryštof, could you explain the way?'*. Since these directives are not proper questions, I did not include them in the table.

4. Conclusion

The practical part of my thesis aimed to find out which types of questions develop classroom communication the most and which limit it. My research was based on three video recordings of English lessons taken at Dukelská Primary School in České Budějovice. Each recording was recorded in a different class and taught by a different teacher. The teachers were two men and one woman.

On the ground of the types of questions, which I described in one of the chapters in the theoretical part, I decided to work with display and referential questions. I further divided them into closed and open questions. In the practical part, I used four types of questions – display closed, display open, referential closed, and referential open questions. All these types of questions occurred in all three lessons.

I must admit that sometimes it was not easy for me to determine the type of question. I had to assess the questions according to the activity during which they were asked, in what context, and with what intention the teacher asked them. For example, the question '*Do you know any other places in a town that can help you to explain the way somewhere?*' may seem as closed yes/no question at first glance.

However, the teacher's aim was not for the pupils to answer him '*Yes, I do*.' or '*No, I don't*.' He asked this question so that the pupils could come up with and other places in a town, such as a hospital, a church or a post office. As there are many correct answers to this question, it is an open question. This example shows the difference between form and function. Although this utterance takes the form of command for pupils to say the places they know, functionally it is a question.

Table 1 – Display and referential questions

	Lesson 1 (Teacher A)	Lesson 2 (Teacher B)	Lesson 3 (Teacher C)
Display questions	141 (72 %)	53 (72 %)	79 (79 %)
Referential questions	54 (28 %)	21 (28 %)	21 (21 %)
	195 questions	74 questions	100 questions

Table 2 – Closed and open questions

	Lesson 1 (Teacher A)	**Lesson 2 (Teacher B)**	**Lesson 3 (Teacher C)**
Closed questions	145 (74 %)	61 (82 %)	60 (60 %)
Open questions	50 (26 %)	13 (18 %)	40 (40 %)
	195 questions	74 questions	100 questions

As I wrote above, ***display questions*** are asked for different purposes and in different stages of the lesson than referential questions. Display questions have pedagogical aims and teachers usually ask them to verify knowledge of their pupils. Teachers commonly use them to practice grammar, vocabulary, reading or listening skills. These are questions that teachers know the answers to. Display questions usually require only short or one-word answers and are therefore time-efficient for teachers, as they manage to ask lots of questions in a relatively short time.

On the other hand, as the teacher does not know the answer to ***referential questions*** in advance, these are natural in everyday social communication. In addition, this type of question requires more extensive and detailed answers. Their disadvantage is that they are more time-consuming than display questions. As these questions require higher cognitive processes, pupils must think about their answers, and it often takes them longer time to answer.

The biggest amount of display questions was asked in Lesson 3 – 79 %. Moreover, the biggest difference between the number of display and referential questions is visible in this lesson – 79 % : 21 %. This lesson was focused mainly on practising vocabulary, so it is natural that display questions predominated in the lesson. The second part of the lesson was focused on giving directions, but since these were places in České Budějovice and the teacher knew the way, he also asked mainly display questions in this part. On the other hand, as can be seen in Table 2, teacher C was the one who asked the highest proportion of open questions in his lesson – 60 %.

The interesting thing is that the ratio between display and referential questions was identical in lessons 1 and 2 – 72 % : 28 %. However, the lessons differed in the amount of interaction between the teacher and the students. While teacher A asked her students 195 questions, teacher B only 74, which is substantially less. However, since the teacher asks questions almost exclusively in Czech, there is no development of communication in English.

Another important difference is in the amount of closed and open questions. Teacher A asked her pupils 50 open questions, which is 26 %. Teacher B asked 13 open questions during the whole lesson, which is only 18%. Table 2 has confirmed, that closed questions are the most common type of teacher questions.

Table 3 – Types of questions

	Lesson 1 (Teacher A)	Lesson 2 (Teacher B)	Lesson 3 (Teacher C)
Display closed q.	119 (61 %)	51 (69 %)	43 (43 %)
Display open q.	22 (11 %)	2 (3 %)	36 (36 %)
Referential closed q.	26 (13 %)	10 (13 %)	17 (17 %)
Referential open q.	28 (14 %)	11 (15 %)	4 (4 %)
	195 questions	74 questions	100 questions

Table 3 shows an overview of all types of questions that occurred during the three English lessons. As we can see, all teachers used all types of questions. As I have already mentioned, the biggest amount of interaction between teacher and students was in Lesson 1, in which the teacher asked her students 195 questions. On the contrary, teacher C asked his pupils the least questions – only 74.

In all three lessons, the teachers most often asked their pupils display closed questions. Teachers generally use display closed questions frequently because they can easily and quickly check their pupils' knowledge. Moreover, this type of question does not require long answers, so teachers can ask the pupils a lot of questions in a short time. The fact that display closed questions occur the most in the lessons, has been confirmed in this research.

Most display open questions were asked by teacher C (36 %) and the least by teacher B (only 2 %). Teacher A asked 22 of them, which is 11 %. She used this type of question to develop the reading skills of her pupils. She introduced them a text about the childhood of Chloé Maples. For example, pictures of places Chloé visited appeared in the text, and the teacher then asked: *'What places did she visit?'*. The pupils answered that she visited Berlin, Prague, or London and all these answers were correct.

Teacher C asked more referential closed questions than teachers A and B. However, in my opinion, the referential closed questions asked by teacher A, were the most interesting. At the beginning and the end of the lesson, she asked personal questions to her pupils, such as '*Did you do any homework yesterday?*', '*Ondro, did you play computer games yesterday?*' or '*Did you brush your teeth yesterday?*'.

Most referential questions were used by teacher B but since he used the same question several times ('*What is your advice?*'), I will focus on the questions asked by teacher A. At the beginning and at the end of the lesson, she focused on the development of her pupils' communication skills. She asked many referential open questions – e. g. '*How did you sleep?*', '*How many hours did you sleep?*', '*Terezko, what did you do yesterday after school?*' or '*Linduš, where did you travel last summer?*'.

If the pupils needed to be corrected in grammar, for example, the teacher interrupted the referential questions with display questions (Turn 466–469).

> T: *When were you born?* (R)
>
> S6: I was born on the one…
>
> T: *On the one?* (D)
>
> S6: First.

Table 4 – Types of answers

	Lesson 1 (Teacher A)			Lesson 2 (Teacher B)			Lesson 3 (Teacher C)		
	OW	SA	FS	OW	SA	FS	OW	SA	FS
DC	55 (57 %)	14 (15 %)	27 (28 %)	32 (73 %)	-	12 (27 %)	33 (55 %)	-	27 (45 %)
DO	5 (36 %)	-	9 (64 %)	2 (100 %)	-		17 (68 %)	-	8 (32 %)
RC	14 (56 %)	6 (24 %)	5 (20 %)	3 (100%)	-		8 (80 %)	-	2 (20 %)
RO	6 (27 %)	-	16 (73 %)	2 (18 %)	-	9 (82 %)	3 (75 %)	-	1 (25 %)
	80 (51 %)	**20 (13 %)**	**57 (36 %)**	**39 (65 %)**	**0**	**21 (35 %)**	**61 (62 %)**	**0**	**38 (38 %)**

Table 4 shows an overview of all types of questions that the pupils answered during the lessons. I divided the pupils' answers into three groups – one–word answers, short answers, and full sentences. However, the table shows that all these types were represented only in Lesson 1. In Lessons 2 and 3, only one-word answers and full sentences occurred. In these lessons, the pupils did not use any short answers.

From the first line of the table, it is clear that the pupils most often answered the display closed questions with only one-word answers. As these are the didactic questions that teachers use to check pupils' knowledge, one-word answers are natural in this case. A typical example is the following situation (Lesson 2, Turn 117–118).

T: Co budou asi eye drops?

S10: *Kapky do očí.*

Teacher A asked her pupils display closed questions also in the parts of the lesson, which were focused on conversation (Turn 448–453).

> T: Nikolko, what time did you wake up today? (RO)
>
> S12: *I woke up at half past six*. (FS)
>
> T: Míšo, when did she wake up? (DC)
>
> S2: *She woke up at half past six*. (FS)

The teacher first asked S12 the question '*Nikolko, what time did you wake up today*?'. She did not know the answer in advance, so this was a referential question, and the pupil answered this question in a full sentence. Then the teacher asked S2 when S12 woke up. This time it was a display closed question, to which the pupil answered in a full sentence again.

In lessons 2 and 3, the pupils usually replied to display open questions with one-word answers (100 % and 68 %). As an example, I chose an excerpt from Lesson 3 (Turn 143–158). As we can see, the teacher accepted the student's one-word answer and immediately asked another question.

> T: And places which are not buildings? (DO)
>
> S4: *Park?* (OW)
>
> T: And what about something we have in the middle of the square? (DO)
>
> S1: *Fountain*. (OW)
>
> T*:* And in the middle of the fountain there's a…?

Referential questions are natural for ordinary social communication. Pupils usually answered referential closed questions in one-word answers and in Lesson 1, they also used short answers. As we can see in the following dialogues from Lesson 2, the teacher was satisfied with yes/no answers and did not motivate his pupils to use short answers.

> **A:**
>
> T: I don't know if we will be able to see the Solnice from here.
>
> S: *No*.
>
> **B:**
>
> T: Do you understand?
>
> S5*: No, I didn't*.

The following dialogues show that pupils in Lesson 1 (Turn 71–76) used short answers often. If one of them answered only *yes* or *no*, the teacher usually led him/her to use a short answer.

> T: Did you do any homework yesterday?
>
> S13: *No, I didn't.*
>
> T: And Davídku, did you have any homework?
>
> S13: *No, I didn't.*
>
> T: *Ondro, did you play computer games yesterday?*
>
> S14: *No, I didn't.*

Teacher B received the highest percentage of full-sentence answers to referential open questions. However, as he repeatedly asked the same question ('*What is your advice?*'), this result is not valid at all. On the contrary, teacher A purposefully asked her pupils diverse referential open questions. All these questions concerned their daily lives, such as '*What did you do yesterday after school?*', '*When did you go to bed?*', '*How many hours did you sleep?*' or '*Where did you travel last summer?*'. Of all the answers to these questions, a total of 73% were in full sentences.

Teacher A led her students to use one-word answers as little as possible. Of all pupils' answers in this lesson, only 51% were in one-word answers, which was the least of all three lessons. This was also the only lesson with short answers. Overall, this teacher organised the conversation with her pupils as close as possible to the daily social conversation.

In all three English lessons, it has been confirmed that teachers ask display questions, both open and closed, with pedagogical goals - to verify students' knowledge, to practice and improve grammar and vocabulary, or to develop their reading and listening skills. Pupils commonly answer these questions with one-word answers, which the teachers do not longer develop. Teachers usually provide feedback in their F-move and then start a new IRF structure. As display questions lack the communicative quality, they limit classroom communication.

On the other hand, referential questions are much more authentic than display questions and therefore prepare pupils for the practical use of English in real-life communication. Referential open questions call for more extensive and complex answers and develop classroom communication the most. However, as these questions require higher cognitive processes, they may be too difficult for some pupils. Teachers should therefore be patient, motivate and support

their pupils. It is also important that this type of question occurs regularly in the lessons, as it is easier for pupils to get used to it and it will be much easier for them over time.

As I mentioned at the beginning of this conclusion, teachers use both display and referential questions for different purposes and at different stages of lessons. For this reason, it is not possible to say whether referential display questions are better. Although teachers use display questions more frequently, referential questions are also an integral part of the lessons because they develop classroom communication the most.

Summary

The aim of my diploma thesis was to find out which type of teacher questions supports and develops classroom communication and which, on the contrary, limits it. The starting point for this thesis was participation in the project of the Faculty of Education and the materials for the practical part were provided to me by PhDr. Petr Dvořák, Ph.D., for which I would like to thank him very much.

My participation in the faculty project consisted in the fact that the Faculty of Education provided me video recordings of ten English lessons, which were taken at the second stage of various primary schools in České Budějovice. From these ten lessons, I chose three, which I subsequently transcribed. These three lessons, on which I based the practical part of my diploma thesis, were recorded at the Dukelská primary school and each of them was filmed in a different class and taught by a different teacher. These two factors made the results of the practical part of this thesis more objective.

The thesis was divided into a theoretical part and a practical part. The theoretical part was based on reference books of Czech and foreign authors. Within this part, I defined the terms communication and described the specific features of classroom communication and interaction. I also focused on the IRF structure, one of the most important features of classroom discourse. An extensive part of the theoretical part was devoted to questioning and the types of teacher questions that occur in lessons.

The practical part was based on transcripts of three English lessons. From all the types of questions that I described in the theoretical part, I chose *display and referential questions* for the practical part, which I further divided into *closed and open*. I worked with four types of teacher questions - display closed, display open, referential closed and referential open questions. Then I observed how individual pupils reply to these questions and how extensive their answers are - whether they are one-word, short answers, or whole sentences.

Based on the analysis of the three English lessons, I found that classroom communication is developed by referential questions, most of all by referential open questions. This type of question is authentic for real-life communication and therefore most beneficial for the development of pupils' communication skills. Since referential questions require higher cognitive processes and more extensive and detailed answers, they may be difficult for pupils to answer. In addition, these questions are more time-consuming and therefore occur

significantly less than display questions in class. If teachers ask them to their pupils, they usually use them in certain parts of the lesson, usually at the beginning or end of the lesson.

The teacher and positive classroom climate play a key role in developing the pupils' communication skills. It is important that the teacher is patient and motivates and supports pupils to communicate. It is also associated with the fact that for teachers to get their pupils' interest in English and motivate them to speak English, they should serve as an example, speak English in class and do not use Czech at all, or only when necessary. On the other hand, teachers should always use a level of English that corresponds with the age and abilities of the students.

In the practical part, it was further confirmed that teachers most frequently ask display closed questions. These are questions that teachers know the answer to and use them to verify their pupils' knowledge, to develop their reading and listening skills, and to practice grammar or vocabulary. Although this is the most common type of teacher question, it does not develop classroom communication in any way.

To sum up, both referential and display questions should be embodied in each English lesson because they are used for different purposes. While display questions are commonly used to practice grammar, vocabulary, reading, and listening skills and to verify students' knowledge, referential questions are those that are the most effective and develop classroom communication the most.

Of all three teachers, only teacher A supported and developed communication in English. This teacher asked her pupils all four types of questions, spoke to them exclusively in English and motivated them not to answer in one-word answers. On the contrary, she supported her pupils to use short answers or full sentences.

The second lesson was also interesting. Unfortunately, teacher B did not use the potential of his high-quality English, because he spoke only Czech to his pupils for almost the entire lesson. This lesson showed that it does not matter what type of questions the teacher uses if he does not speak English. At the same time, we can see that if a teacher speaks excellent English, it does not mean that he also has didactic qualities.

Resumé

Cílem mé diplomové práce bylo zjistit, které typy učitelských otázek rozvíjejí komunikaci žáků, a které ji naopak limitují. Diplomovou práci jsem rozdělila na dvě hlavní části – na část teoretickou a na část praktickou. Při psaní praktické části jsem vycházela z rozsáhlého množství odborných publikací českých i zahraničních autorů.

V úvodní kapitole teoretické části jsem vymezila postavení angličtiny jako školního předmětu v rámci Rámcového vzdělávacího programu pro základní vzdělávání a stručně jsem představila očekávané výstupy 2. stupně základní školy. V této kapitole jsem také zdůrazňovala, že vzdělávací oblast Jazyk a jazyková komunikace v současné době hraje klíčovou roli ve výchovně vzdělávacím procesu.

Ve druhé kapitole jsem stručně charakterizovala pojem komunikace a v kapitole následující jsem se zaměřila na pedagogickou komunikaci mezi učitelem a žáky v edukačním procesu. V jednotlivých podkapitolách jsem popsala její specifika – jaká pro ni platí pravidla, jaké mohou být formy vyučování a jakou roli hraje prostor, ve kterém tato komunikace probíhá. Na tuto kapitolu jsem navázala další kapitolou, ve které jsem se zabývala pedagogickou interakcí, tedy vzájemným vztahem účastníků výchovně vzdělávacího procesu. V páté kapitole jsem se věnovala verbální komunikaci a dialogickému vyučování a zaměřila jsem se zejména na IRF strukturu, jež je jeho základem.

V šesté kapitole jsem se zabývala kladením otázek. Nejprve jsem vymezila otázku jako pojem a poté jsem se detailně zaměřila na to, jaký je rozdíl mezi otázkami v běžné komunikaci a otázkami v pedagogické komunikaci. Dále jsem klasifikovala typy učitelských otázek podle různých autorů. V závěrečné kapitole teoretické části jsem se věnovala neverbální komunikaci, bez které by se pedagogická komunikace neobešla.

Východiskem pro zpracování praktické části byly nahrávky tří vyučovacích hodin anglického jazyka, které byly nahrány na ZŠ Dukelská 11, v Českých Budějovicích. Na základě přepisů těchto hodin jsem zjišťovala, které otázky učitele podporují komunikaci ve třídě, a které ji naopak limitují.

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