TEACHERS' QUESTIONING PRACTICES IN MALAYSIAN SECONDARY ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine teachers' questioning practices in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms as well as how these practices influence classroom discourse. While there have been numerous studies on various dimensions of questioning, most have focused on the investigation of individual dimensions; there has been little attention dedicated to examining the interplay between dimensions. Other than this, classroom data on questioning and classroom discourse, particularly video data in English language classrooms has been insufficient. This is even more so in the Malaysian context, where studies on questioning and classroom discourse especially at the broader level are harder to come by. Such data will be important to inform change and improvement efforts for teaching and learning. Fundamentally, this study is driven by two research questions: (1) What are teachers' questioning practices in terms of three dimensions of questioning: types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves?; and (2) How does the interplay between these aforementioned dimensions of questioning influence classroom discourse? In this study, classroom discourse was examined through the lens of Bakhtin's notion of dialogism. To answer the research questions of this study, a video study design was used. A random sampling of 17 schools out of almost 2,000 national secondary schools was done to obtain a representative sample of this population. From these randomly selected schools, 31 video recordings of lessons from 31 teachers teaching Form One English Language were examined. In total, about 1,514 minutes of video data were analyzed. This study found out that teachers generally used questioning practices which were often associated with monologic classroom discourse, i.e. the dominant use of display questions and short wait time, as well as the use of reaction moves such as 'wait out/ignore', 'give answer', and 'impose'. Teachers' questioning

practices which were usually associated with dialogic classroom discourse were also discovered, but discourses never became dialogic. With further analysis on the interplay between dimensions, an overarching continuum of monologicality emerged, comprising three variations of monologicality: teacher-dominated classroom discourse, IRE-structured classroom discourse, and extended classroom discourse. There was practically no opportunity provided for interactions of multi-voices and for students to influence classroom discourse. Opportunities for student thinking and student voice were provided but within the rigid facilitation of teachers, characterized by a strong commitment to answers, low expectations of discourses, and a constant control on discourses. The findings of this study suggest a continuum-based and more nuanced conception of monologicality, where nurturing dialogicality is not a mere issue of strategy use.

ABSTRAK

AMALAN PENYOALAN GURU DALAM BILIK DARJAH

BAHASA INGGERIS SEKOLAH MENENGAH DI MALAYSIA

Tujuan penyelidikan ini adalah untuk mengkaji amalan penyoalan guru dalam bilik darjah Bahasa Inggeris sekolah menengah di Malaysia dan bagaimana amalan ini mempengaruhi wacana bilik darjah. Walaupun banyak kajian mengenai pelbagai dimensi penyoalan telah dilaksanakan, kebanyakan kajian hanya bertumpu pada satu dimensi dan kurang memberi fokus kepada interaksi antara dimensi-dimensi. Selain itu, berkenaan penyoalan dan wacana bilik darjah, data bilik darjah terutamanya data video dalam bilik darjah Bahasa Inggeris adalah tidak mencukupi. Lebih-lebih lagi dalam konteks Malaysia, penyelidikan secara keseluruhan mengenai penyoalan dan wacana bilik darjah adalah jarang didapati. Data ini adalah penting untuk memaklumkan usaha-usaha pengubahan dan penambahbaikkan pengajaran dan pembelajaran. Penyelidikan ini mempunyai dua soalan kajian: (1) Apakah amalan penyoalan guru dari segi tiga dimensi penyoalan: jenis soalan, *wait time*, dan *reaction moves*?; dan (2) Bagaimanakah interaksi antara dimensi-dimensi yang dinyatakan mempengaruhi wacana bilik darjah? Dalam penyelidikan ini, wacana bilik darjah dikaji daripada perspektif *dialogism* yang diperkenalkan oleh Bakhtin. Untuk menjawab soalan-soalan kajian penyelidikan ini, reka bentuk kajian video telah digunakan. Satu sampel rawak sebanyak 17 sekolah diperoleh daripada hampir 2,000 sekolah menengah kebangsaan di Malaysia untuk mendapatkan satu sampel yang mewakili populasi ini. Daripada sekolah-sekolah yang telah disampel secara rawak, 31 rakaman video pengajaran daripada 31 guru yang mengajar Bahasa Inggeris Tingkatan Satu telah dikaji. Kira-kira 1,514 minit data video telah dianalisis. Penyelidikan ini mendapati bahawa guru-guru biasanya menggunakan amalan

penyoalan yang selalunya dikaitkan dengan wacana bilik darjah *monologic*, iaitu penggunaan soalan *display* dan *wait time* pendek yang dominan, serta penggunaan *reaction moves* seperti '*wait out/ignore*', '*give answer*', dan '*impose*'. Penggunaan amalan penyoalan yang lazimnya dikaitkan dengan wacana bilik darjah *dialogic* turut ditemui, namun wacana tidak pernah menjadi *dialogic*. Dengan analisis selanjutnya ke atas interaksi antara dimensi-dimensi, satu kontinum *monologicality* yang merangkumi semua wacana bilik darjah telah ditemui. Kontinum ini mengandungi tiga variasi *monologicality*: wacana bilik darjah yang didominasi oleh guru, wacana bilik darjah dalam struktur *IRE*, dan wacana bilik darjah yang dilanjutkan. Boleh dikatakan peluang untuk interaksi antara *multi-voices* dan untuk pelajar mempengaruhi wacana bilik darjah tidak disediakan. Peluang untuk pemikiran dan *voice* pelajar diperuntukkan tetapi di bawah fasilitasi guru yang tidak fleksibel, iaitu dengan komitmen yang kuat kepada jawapan, jangkaan yang rendah terhadap wacana bilik darjah, dan kawalan yang berterusan ke atas wacana bilik darjah. Penemuan penyelidikan ini mencadangkan konsepsi *monologicality* yang berdasarkan kontinum dan lebih mendalam, di mana pemupukan *dialogicality* bukan suatu isu penggunaan strategi semata-mata.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

In the context of English language classrooms, teachers' questioning practices have been actively explored from several perspectives:

(i)   types/levels of question (Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Brock, 1986; David, 2007; Groenke & Paulus, 2007; Habsah Hussin, 2006; Hill & Flynn, 2008; Ho, 2005; Jiang, 2014; Kao, Carkin, & Hsu, 2011; Long & Sato, 1983; McNeil, 2012; Meng, Zhao, & Chattouphonexay, 2012; Noorizah Mohd Noor, Idris Aman, & Rosniah Mustaffa, 2012; Rosniah Mustaffa, Idris Aman, Teo, & Noorizah Mohd Noor, 2011; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh & Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad, 2013; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh, Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad, Abdul Jalil Othman, & Rosalam Che Me, 2014; Shomoossi, 1997; Tan, 2007; Wu, 1993; Yang, 2010; Zhang, 2011b);

(ii)   rate of questioning (Hoetker, 1968);

(iii)   distribution of questions (Zhang, 2011a);

(iv)   strategies of questioning (Wu, 1993);

(v)   wait time (Fagan, Hassler, & Szabo, 1981; Tan, 2007; Tobin, 1986; Zhang, 2011a);

(vi)   questioning moves (Lundy, 2008);

(vii)   reaction moves (e.g. uptake, feedback/follow-up strategies) (Groenke & Paulus, 2007; Jiang, 2014; Nystrand, 1997; Zhang, 2011a; Zhang, 2011b).

While there have been numerous studies on various dimensions of questioning, few studies have actually focused on understanding questioning based on the conceptualization that it is a practice which comprises not just any one dimension of questioning, but which actually includes the interplay between dimensions. There have been calls to expand our understanding on questioning by looking beyond the isolated examination of an individual dimension of questioning by examining within context how various dimensions of questioning work to influence classroom discourse (Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Ho, 2005; Kirchhoff & Klippel, 2014; Nystrand, 1997; Reznitskaya, 2012; Yang, 2010).

Most studies on questioning irrespective of subject areas have focused heavily on certain individual dimensions, especially question types and question frequency. Yang (2010) suggested that aside from teacher questions, teachers' use of reaction moves needs to be taken into consideration to better encourage "students to expand on their responses and produce longer responses" (p. 18). And this goal can be further facilitated with the provision of wait time accordingly, as recommended by studies on wait time (Honea, 1982; Ingram & Elliott, 2014; Jegede & Olajide, 1995; Rowe, 1974, 1986, 1996; Swift & Gooding, 1983; Tobin, 1980, 1984, 1986).

In this regard, research in language classrooms has found and suggested certain teachers' questioning practices to be important indicators of effective questioning and more helpful in engendering classroom discourse where student participation and engagement could be enhanced. At large, these practices have revolved around three dimensions of questioning: types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves. Respectively, the use of referential questions is generally encouraged to elicit higher order student responses (Arnold, Atwood, & Rogers, 1974; Cole & Williams, 1973 as cited in Brock, 1986; Lamb, 1976), wait time should be provided

to facilitate student thinking (Tobin, 1986), and student responses should be followed up with appropriate reaction moves for further discussion (Nystrand, 1997; Tobin, 1986; Wu, 1993; Yang, 2010). Therefore, these three dimensions of questioning were identified as the primary focus of this study.

With this, the present study aims to examine teachers' use of three dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) and also teachers' questioning practices in English language classrooms in its multi-dimensionality, by looking into how the interplay between the aforementioned dimensions influences classroom discourse. The interplay between dimensions of questioning is important to be studied because in real contexts, questioning in its complexity involves multi-dimensionality as more than one dimension will be in play in most question-answer sequences. In this study, not only the types of questions asked by the teacher were investigated, the ways the teacher used those questions, provided wait time, reacted to student responses, and facilitated the overall discourse were also examined. What is of more interest to the study is how teachers utilize a range of questions and build on student responses within classroom discourse, rather than only what or how many questions constitute that range (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Alexander, 2005; Kaya, Kablan, & Rice, 2014; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Odegaard & Klette, 2012; Sedova, Salamounova, & Svaricek, 2014). It is the overall quality of classroom discourse revolving around questions that should matter most (Nystrand, 1997; Nystrand, Wu, Gamoran, Zeiser, & Long, 2003).

Classroom discourse is fundamentally important in providing students opportunities to be engaged in thinking and to use the language. Classroom discourse providing greater exposure to and use of the language has been found to be positively related to student proficiency (Jones, 2013). To gear towards this direction,

classroom discourse facilitated in the dialogic manner could help increase student talk (Alexander, 2005). Not only so, dialogic discourses also support the development of students' thinking (Reznitskaya, 2012). Therefore, quality classroom discourse is critical to allow for more advanced use of the language in the classroom. In this regard, questioning has a significant role in the classroom as one of the main instructional and interactional tools (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Cotton, 2001; Tienken, Goldberg, & DiRocco, 2009; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007) and a large part of classroom discourse can generally be characterized by questioning exchanges (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Nystrand, 1997). This is to say, classroom discourse is directly influenced by teachers' questioning practices. Using effective questioning, students can be driven towards deeper contemplation and interaction with others, and enhanced learning (Nystrand, 1997). To think and to dialogue are processes of learning; by thinking in depth students are making meaning, and practising and using the language at more complex and sophisticated levels, and by dialoging students are activating and regulating their higher cognitive processes for the connection and articulation of thoughts (Iakovos, 2011; Wood, 1988).

To have a clearer understanding of the quality of discourse in the classroom, a multi-dimensional perspective looking into the interplay between dimensions of questioning is needed. This perspective however has not been given explicit attention by past studies. Moreover, as classroom data on questioning and classroom discourse especially in terms of video data which could instantiate details of questioning and discoursing processes in the classroom is much needed for teacher reflection and improvement of teacher practice (Najvar, Najvarova, & Janik, 2009b; Reznitskaya, 2012), it was against this background that this study was conceived.

Further, considering the Malaysian context, questioning has largely been an under-researched area (Habsah Hussin, 2006). From the volume of literature available, research on questioning has been conducted in primary science classrooms (Tay & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2008), in primary mathematics classrooms (Cheah, 2007; Ong, Lim, & Munirah Ghazali, 2010; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007), in secondary mathematics classrooms (Ong et al., 2010), in secondary Malay Language classrooms (Zamri Mahamod & Nor Razah Lim, 2011) and in secondary chemistry classrooms (Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2013; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Tan & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014). The majority of past studies on questioning in Malaysia regardless of subject were generally interested in investigating the types of questions which teachers use in the classroom (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Ong et al., 2010; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007; Tan & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Tay & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2008; Zamri Mahamod & Nor Razah Lim, 2011) and have paid less attention to other dimensions of questioning.

With regard to English language classrooms in Malaysia, the available literature on questioning has been more concentrated on the primary school level (Noorizah Mohd Noor et al., 2012; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh & Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad, 2013; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh et al., 2014). Research on questioning in the context of secondary English language classrooms however has been less active. Although studies in the secondary school setting are available (Etemadzadeh, Seifi, & Far, 2013; Habsah Hussin, 2006), more in-depth research is needed to provide a broader understanding of teachers' questioning practices in Malaysia.

An overview of the existing information on questioning in secondary English language classrooms in Malaysia shows the mention of issues such as urgency to

cover the syllabus and examinations being the main driver of teaching and learning (Habsah Hussin, 2006). Another concern was also highlighted by Habsah Hussin (2006) where she arrived at the conclusion that there is "a mismatch between what is stipulated by the curriculum and how teachers actually teach in terms of posing questions" (p. 9). Her findings imply that while the curriculum emphasizes the facilitation of students' thinking skills, teachers' questioning practices prioritize the acquisition of textbook knowledge. Instead of guiding students on how to learn by developing their thinking skills, teachers tend to impose upon students what to learn during classroom questioning (Habsah Hussin, 2006).

This issue should not be taken lightly as student thinking is clearly stated as one of the broader educational goals for students at both the primary and secondary levels in Malaysia (MOE Malaysia, 2012). As shown in the recent Preliminary Report of the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 (MOE Malaysia, 2012), students' higher order thinking skills are allocated strong emphasis especially in the recent KSSR (Primary School Standard Curriculum) and KSSM (Secondary School Standard Curriculum). Right from the primary level, students are expected to be nurtured for the mastery of not only the basic 3R (i.e. reading, writing, and arithmetic), but also reasoning skills in order to develop students' higher order thinking, which will continue to be developed at the secondary level (MOE Malaysia, 2012).

In this regard, issues of incoherence in terms of policy and practice are not a first and they have been a universal concern especially in the field of education (Altrichter, 2005; Banbrook & Skehan, 1989; Klein, 1992; Olson, 2003). Often, theoretical admonitions and/or success cases in other contexts help impact policy making and curriculum development, but not necessarily classroom practice. The

important question is to what extent is this described phenomenon happening, in terms of teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse in Malaysian classrooms?

Unfortunately, there has not been a more descriptive account on this to tell us what is going on in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms to analytically illuminate those outside the classroom; such data and analysis have been scant. Limited information may be available from small-scale, single-site studies (Etemadzadeh et al., 2013; Habsah Hussin, 2006), but they would not suffice to understand teachers' questioning practices across Malaysian classrooms to better inform reform efforts. More classroom data will be critical in understanding teachers' questioning practices in the classroom and essentially in different discourse contexts.

In a nutshell, this study offers a view on teachers' questioning practices in their naturalistic settings in the classroom with fine-grained investigation (Chin, 2006b) which can provide turn-by-turn analysis to understand teachers' questioning practices. The examination of classroom discourse requires close attention to the discourse actually spoken by teachers and students in the classroom because only from there can the manner in which questioning shapes classroom discourse be observed (Skidmore & Gallagher, 2005). In the context of this study, aside from understanding teachers' questioning practices in regard to the three dimensions, one major focus of this study is to understand how the interplay between these dimensions contributes to the dialogicality or monologicality of classroom discourse, based on Bakhtin's notion of dialogism/monologism. Research on teachers' questioning practices need to look at the 'whole' (the influence of the interplay between dimensions of questioning on classroom discourse) rather than only at

'chunks' (the influence of an individual dimension of questioning on classroom discourse).

Statement of the Problem

Deliberated above are several key issues (research gap) in studying teachers' questioning practices in English language classrooms: (1) the lack of multi-dimensional research focus (i.e. the interplay between dimensions) (Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Ho, 2005; Kirchhoff & Klippel, 2014; Nystrand, 1997; Reznitskaya, 2012; Yang, 2010); (2) inadequate classroom data on questioning, particularly video data for the improvement of teacher practice (Najvar et al., 2009b; Reznitskaya, 2012); and (3) the insufficiency of research on questioning (Habsah Hussin, 2006), especially large-scale, video-based studies on Malaysian classrooms.

First of all, the majority of the studies in the existing pool of literature have a uni-dimensional, rather than a multi-dimensional research focus. Various dimensions of questioning have usually been studied separately; the interplay between dimensions of questioning in contributing towards the quality of classroom discourse has not been given enough attention to understand questioning and discoursing processes in the classroom. Little research has been dedicated to viewing effective questioning as a practice comprising a range of dimensions, which is influenced by teachers' dialogic or monologic stance (Boyd & Markarian, 2011) and underlying principles of teaching and learning (Cox, 2011). This will help with the deciphering of teachers' expectations which inform the goals for classroom discourse and which mould the manner teachers facilitate student thinking, student talk, and student learning during discussion (Groenke & Paulus, 2007). This perspective would likely

offer a more holistic and thorough way to examine the complexity and multi-dimensionality of teachers' questioning practices within classroom discourse.

Second, researchers have found in classrooms teachers' questioning practices which are largely associated with monologic classroom discourse (Albergaria-Almeida, 2010a; Alexander, 2005; Barnes, 1969; Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman, & Smith, 1966; Brock, 1986; Cotton, 2001; David, 2007; Gall, 1970; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Habsah Hussin, 2006; Hannel, 2009; Ho, 2005; Hollingsworth, 1982; Hyman, 1980; Jiang, 2014; Lange, 1982; Long & Sato, 1983, Meng et al., 2012; Noorizah Mohd Noor et al., 2012; Nystrand, 1997; Myhill, Jones, and Hopper, 2006 as cited in Yang, 2010; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh & Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad, 2013; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh et al., 2014; Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012; Shomoossi, 1997; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Tan, 2007; Tan & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Tienken et al., 2009; Tobin, 1984; Vogler, 2005; Wragg & Brown, 2001; Yang, 2010; Zamri Mahamod & Nor Razah Lim, 2011; Zhang, 2011b).

A major concern highlighted by a number of studies as gathered by Reznitskaya (2012) is that students rarely experience dialogic discourses in the classroom despite its potential for facilitating student-centred learning and development of student thinking. Reznitskaya (2012) suggested that one reason for the prevalence of monologic classroom discourse in today's classrooms is that teachers have fewer opportunities to observe and understand their own practice and the effects of their practice on student discourse and learning. This view points to the lack of information on teacher practice in the classroom for teachers to self-examine their questioning practices in a more systematic and deliberate manner. In a research-theory-policy-practice relationship, practice is often at the receiving end, somehow

segregated from the others, and receives little attention. This may be one of the probable factors of the incoherence in the aforesaid relationship. For a change, more studies have shifted research focus to zoom in on the broader practice to inform the development of research, theory, and policy but these studies are still inadequate. To improve teachers' questioning practices to better support student learning (Chin, 2006b), the use of video data in teacher education to stimulate teacher dialogue and reflection can be useful (Janik, Seidel, & Najvar, 2009b; Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001); however, research particularly large-scale, video-based studies have not sufficiently paid attention, in specific to teachers' questioning practices in English language classrooms (Najvar et al., 2009b). Thus, a big picture of these practices has been less common. This database has been in part illuminated by multi-faceted, national/international, comparative, cross-cultural studies, but richer understanding which focuses on classroom discourse revolving around teacher-student question-answer exchanges is still much needed.

This has led to the third and last key issue: the scarcity of large-scale, video-based classroom studies on questioning in English language classrooms specifically in the context of Malaysia. These studies are important because the understanding of the patterns of teachers' questioning practices at the broader level is still unclear and not enough to be able to better inform the development and improvement of teacher practice. In Malaysia, questioning is one of the most widely used pedagogical and interactional practices in the classroom (Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007). Just like how it was learned from Habsah Hussin's (2006) study that teachers' questioning practices were often limited to the asking of lower cognitive questions, it is imperative to find out whether the same or otherwise, or even more could be said for the rest of the Malaysian classrooms. It will be even more essential

to investigate how teachers' questioning practices considering the three dimensions, affect classroom discourse. Unfortunately to date, there has been little understanding of teachers' questioning practices in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms especially when compared with research at the primary level. In both contexts there has been a lack of investigation on how teachers' questioning practices influence classroom discourse through detailed analysis of classroom discourse revolving around questioning exchanges.

To a large extent, the issues above revolve around one fundamental problem: current empirical and theoretical work is inadequate in describing the multi-dimensionality of teachers' questioning practices in English language classrooms based on large-scale in situ video data, specifically in the Malaysian context. By obtaining this information, the present study can better address issues regarding similarities and variances (the broad patterns) within teachers' questioning practices in Malaysian classrooms to be able to identify ingrained practices which may subsequently be resistant to change (Seidel & Prenzel, 2006; Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001). This discovery of deeper issues in teacher practice in terms of questioning and discoursing will be critical as the base for improvement and change purposes, for improvement and change which are not superficial and not temporary.

Significance of the Study

The goal of this study is to examine teachers' questioning practices and their influence on classroom discourse. Unlike previous studies which have commonly singled out individual dimensions of questioning for investigation, the present study focuses on examining three dimensions of questioning as well as the interplay between them. "While much language research has focused on counting and

classifying question taxonomies" (Chang, 2009, p. 3), this study proposes that teachers' questioning practices involve various dimensions in play and together they influence classroom discourse. More research attention has to be directed at delineating teachers' questioning practices within classroom discourse in a contextualized manner (Carlsen, 1991; Chang, 2009; Hsu, 2001). With this perspective, the present study will contribute to theory, practice, methodology, and further research.

Theory-wise, this study aims to extend the literature on teachers' questioning practices in respect to each dimension of questioning as well as the interplay between the three dimensions examined. Detailed classroom evidence from the video data will help in deepening and adding layers to the conceptualization of dialogic/monologic classroom discourse. Other than that, as video-based studies on teaching patterns have more commonly been carried out in mathematics and science classrooms (Najvar et al., 2009b), this video study offers an understanding of questioning and discoursing in the context of English language classrooms.

Practice-wise, patterns of practice can be described to provide the big picture of questioning and classroom discourse in Malaysian classrooms. This will be important to find out as it was discovered in English language classrooms that the prevalent use of recitation script which would lead to monologic classroom discourse was not facilitative of student thinking and was negatively co-related with student learning (Nystrand, 1997). With this data, teachers' questioning practices can be better understood and the ways these practices can be improved and used to enhance student learning during classroom discourse may be subsequently framed and delineated with more clarity and specificity.

Essentially, the findings of the present study will be useful for the planning and development of teacher education to initiate change in principles and practice for teaching and learning. This is an important goal of this study as intervention and teacher training have been recommended as being positive in improving teachers' questioning practices (Brock, 1986; Hannel, 2009; Ong et al., 2010; Tobin, 1986; Vogler, 2005).

The lack of effective questioning in the classroom has been attributed to the lack of systematic training in practical pedagogy of questioning for teachers (Hannel, 2009). "The act of asking a good question is cognitively demanding because it requires considerable pedagogical content knowledge and it necessitates that teachers know their learners well" (Ong et al., 2010, p. 89). Whereas in Malaysia, teachers seem to be bound to their sociocultural responsibility as the all-knowing figure in the classroom and this has sustained students' role as the expectant and recipient of knowledge (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007). Should this situation be left unattended to, dialogic interactions between teachers and students through the use of effective questioning, in line with the Malaysian aspiration of student thinking and student communicative ability (MOE Malaysia, 2012; Pandian, 2002; Ratnawati Mohd Asraf, 1996) may well continue to be a far-fetched educational ambition.

This brings to our attention that teacher education programmes have been lacking in preparing teachers especially in terms of questioning, thus improvement is needed (Cotton, 2001; Gall, 1970; Hannel, 2009; Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012). One of the most reliable ways is to use research data from classroom practice to inform teacher development and professionalization. Video data of teacher practice relevant to the improvement of teaching and learning can be used as "the bases of teacher education programmes" (Janik et al., 2009b, p. 12). As

discussed in Brophy's (2004) book, there has been a growing interest in using video recordings in teacher education (as cited in Seidel, Sturmer, & Blomberg, n.d.). In fact, video recordings can be very useful in stimulating dialogue and reflection about classroom practice (Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001). On these merits, video recordings have been used in various ways in teacher professionalization (Jacobs, Borko, & Koellner, 2009; Janik et al., 2009a; Roth, 2009b; Seidel, Blomberg, & Renkl, 2013; Seidel et al., 2009; Seidel, Sturmer, Blomberg, Kobarg, & Schwindt, 2011).

This video-based classroom data is necessary as teachers do not usually engage in ineffective practices on purpose; most of them believe and perceive that they are doing the best that they can (Elmore, 2002 as cited in Reznitskaya, 2012). Even the perception of what constitutes high-quality teaching had been reported to be way different between schools and school inspectors (MOE Malaysia, 2012). Realizing the possibility of divergence in how good teacher practice may be understood, this helps explain Gall's (1970) assertion in her review that "teachers cannot be expected to learn the inquiry method or any new pedagogy if it is presented to them in the vague, general, undefined terms" (p. 719). Teachers have to be cognizant of what actually is going on in the classroom and are able to monitor their own practice for them to be in a better position to achieve their instructional and personal goals (Good & Brophy, 2000). Seidel et al. (n. d.) explained that "a central purpose of the use of videos is to bring teachers into a situation where they can observe classroom situations and analyze aspects of teaching-learning processes" (p. 1). In this regard, the video evidences offered by this study have significance in the sense that they present clear and specific segments of discourse to explain in detail how teachers' questioning practices influence the quality of classroom discourse.

In terms of methodology, this study is a demonstration of a video study and video analysis being done in the context of secondary English language classrooms in Malaysia. The coding framework developed in this study may be continuously referred to and improved for use in future studies.

With regard to further research, as there has not been a clear picture of what is happening in the classroom in regard to teachers' questioning practices within classroom discourse in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms, this study may probably be one of the first few studies which attempts to provide a more explicit account of such practices. The findings of this study could well inspire further and deeper research in this field of interest. It may be most beneficial if some of the important questions and issues raised in this study could be addressed to work toward improved questioning and discoursing in the classroom.

Research Objective

The present study focuses on one important facet of classroom talk, which is questioning. Based on the context of Malaysian secondary English language classrooms, the objective of this study is to examine teachers' questioning practices in terms of three dimensions of questioning and how the interplay between these dimensions influences classroom discourse. The dimensions of questioning which formed the research focus of this study included:

(i) Types of questions

(ii) Wait time

(iii) Reaction moves

Research Questions

Based on the research objective stated above, the research questions of the present study are:

(i)   What are teachers' questioning practices in terms of three dimensions of questioning: types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves?

(ii) How does the interplay between these dimensions of questioning (identified in Research Question One) influence classroom discourse?

Theoretical Background

The theoretical underpinnings of this study are based on the theory of dialogism first introduced by Mikhail Bakhtin, a Russian literary theorist (Hall, Vitanova, & Marchenkova, 2005). The epistemological distinctions between dialogism and monologism which he posited offers a useful perspective in conceptualizing classroom discourse; the former portraying open exchanges of ideas and opinions among classroom participants while the latter, tightly controlled discourses dominated by the teacher (Lyle, 2008; Nystrand, 1997; Reznitskaya, 2012).

The relevance of dialogism as the theoretical framework of the present study is grounded in the essentiality of dialogicality in cultivating students' thinking and communicative skills; whereby these very skills are the explicit learning goals and aspirations of Malaysian English Language Teaching (ELT) and the education system as a whole (MOE Malaysia, 2003; MOE Malaysia, 2012; Pandian, 2002).

For Bakhtin, his notion of dialogicality primarily concerns how voices come into contact and how utterances in these voices can only be understood by understanding the relationships between them (Wertsch & Smolka, 1993). In other

words, an utterance has little meaning when on its own (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986). Bakhtin (1984) critiqued monologism as pedagogical dialogue, where "someone who knows and possesses the truth instructs someone who is ignorant of it and in error" (p. 81). Monologic approach in its pure form, according to Bakhtin (1984), stifles other voices as monologue is "finalized and deaf to the other's response, does not expect it and does not acknowledge in it any decisive force … pretends to be the ultimate word" (p. 293).

Dialogic approaches to teaching and learning have been gaining ground in education (Renshaw, 2004). Through these approaches, instruction becomes student-centred, students become active participants of learning processes, co-construction of meaning within social interaction becomes an integral part of learning, and language becomes an instrumental tool for thinking and learning instead of just a medium to convey information (Nystrand, 1997; Reznitskaya, 2012; Skidmore & Gallagher, 2005; Yuksel, 2009). In contrast, monologic instruction is grounded in instruction which is teacher-centred and teacher-controlled, students are passive recipients of knowledge, meaning is formed internally by individual student in isolation, and language is merely a medium to transmit information (Nystrand, 1997; Reznitskaya, 2012; Skidmore & Gallagher, 2005; Yuksel, 2009).

In teachers' questioning practices, as dialogism acknowledges the multiplicity of and reciprocity between voices, it emphasizes student contribution, not only teacher input, to be included in collaborative knowledge construction and negotiation between the teacher and students (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 1997; Wertsch & Smolka, 1993). A dialogic teacher uses questioning to engage students in meaningful meaning-making, meaningful in the sense that meaning is not only to be discovered but also to be interpreted and formed based on students' own understandings,

assumptions, and expectations (Nystrand, 1997). Classroom discourse which is dialogic allows for students' elaborated talk and expands from their contribution in the classroom. This will enhance language learning as student output and their contribution of ideas help form the focus of classroom discussion.

On the other hand, monologic classroom discourse has largely been associated with the traditional, recitation format of talk (Lyle, 2008; Nystrand, 1997). During questioning exchanges, monologic teachers hear only their own voice and do not expect or acknowledge decisively student responses, by overriding students' voices; only responses which concur with teachers' point of view are audible and accepted during discussions, the rest would most likely be ignored or dismissed (Bakhtin, 1984). This is one illustration of Bakhtin's (1984) contention that monologism "denies the existence outside itself of another consciousness with equal rights and equal responsibilities" (p. 292). Classroom discourse is mostly independent of students' prior knowledge, ideas, and experience, where teachers operate mainly from a predetermined script, asking most of the questions, and usually requiring students to answer questions to demonstrate the ability to recall taught information (Yuksel, 2009). In a way, it does not seem necessary for students to think any more than knowing and remembering what the teacher says (Nystrand, 1997). From the perspective of language learning, students will lose the opportunity to employ higher cognitive processes and to use the target language at a higher level as their responses and output will be limited to short and simple answers.

Especially in language classrooms, it will be crucial to encourage students' use of the language because then are students given the opportunity and pushed to pay attention to the form and meaning of the language to be able to convey the intended meaning more appropriately and precisely (Hsu, 2001; Jones, 2013; Swain,

1985). Having said this, the effectiveness of language learning does not concern only increased opportunities for student talk, but also induction of student talk which has been thought through. There is a close relationship between language learning and thinking (Iakovos, 2011). In dialogism, talk has to be reasoned and reasoned talk is essentially dependent on competency in both language and thinking (Wood, 1988). The relationship is two-way: a dialogic environment filled with verbal reasoning helps nurture students' language and thinking advancement, and the development of language and thinking enables students to participate meaningfully in dialogic discourses revolving around reasoned talk (Iakovos, 2011; Wood, 1988). Throughout these processes, they ought to be accompanied by critical teacher input (Ellis, 1994) and stimulating exposure to the language and its use (Jones, 2013; Nunan, 2003) to adequately engage students (and the teacher) in dialogic discourses.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study is summarized in Figure 1.1. In this study, first of all, teachers' questioning practices were examined in terms of three individual dimensions of questioning. As illustrated in Figure 1.1, the dimensions were types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves. Secondly, the influence of the interplay between the three dimensions on classroom discourse was examined.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Teachers' Questioning Practices

Classroom Discourse

(1) Types of Questions

(2) Wait Time

(3) Reaction Moves

- Dialogic
- Monologic
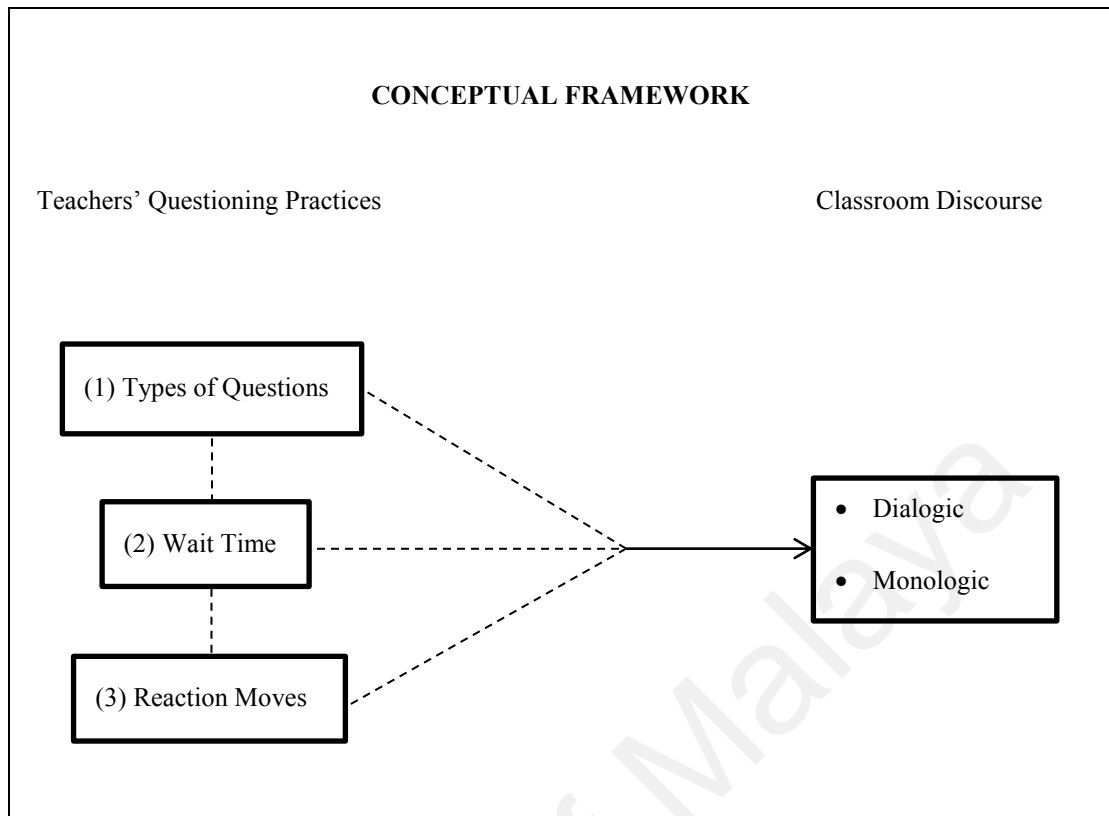
Figure 1.1. Conceptual Framework

In the following sub-sections, the research focus of each dimension of questioning and the characteristics of dialogic classroom discourse and monologic classroom discourse are discerned. They are further deliberated in Chapter 2: Literature Review.

Teachers' questioning practices. The literature concerning dialogicality in classrooms has consistently displayed the inclusion of questioning when studying classroom interaction. Good questioning is an indicator of dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2005). According to Nystrand (2004), classroom interaction is dominated by question-answer exchanges and the questions asked during a lesson can to a large extent represent the entire discussion; classroom discourse can be investigated by focusing on these questions. Hence, from teachers' questioning practices the quality of classroom discourse can be examined (Nystrand, 2004).

Particularly in language classrooms, teachers' questioning practices can affect classroom interaction (David, 2007). Good questioning has been found to promote student thinking (Etemadzadeh et al., 2013) and increase student output (Brock, 1986; Etemadzadeh et al., 2013; Fagan et al., 1981). Student participation in meaningful communicative language can also be enhanced (Etemadzadeh et al., 2013; Kao et al., 2011).

Nevertheless, research has identified the triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1990) to be the dominant interactional pattern practised by teachers. It comes in the recitation format referred to as Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) or Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) (Mehan, 1979) – where in general the teacher initiates a discourse with a question, a student answers the question, and the teacher provides evaluative feedback before initiating another new cycle of questioning (Cazden, 2001; Lange, 1982). This rigid questioning pattern has been largely criticized for its monologicality as it does not generate open responses, and student talk and initiative (Christie, 2007). Discourses revolving around the typical IRF/IRE sequences are generally accepted as being monologic (Lyle, 2008; Nystrand, 1997). These discourses involve minimal contact and interanimation of voices, as opposed to the emphasis on the reciprocity between utterances and the interaction of voices found in a more dialogic setting (Wertsch & Smolka, 1993).

In the context of this study, to answer Research Question One, each dimension of questioning had a research focus, as presented below.

For the dimension 'types of questions' (refer to "Definition of Terms" and "Types of Questions"), this study looked at how teachers used different types of questions during questioning in the classroom. In this study, non-content-specific questions were not taken into consideration for analysis (Tobin, 1986). The study

began with two main types of questions (i.e. display and referential questions) before

adding the third (i.e. rhetorical questions), which became emergent in the data. Thus,

the three types of questions analyzed in this study were (1) display questions (Ho,

2005; Long & Sato, 1983), (2) referential questions (Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983),

and (3) rhetorical questions (Good & Brophy, 2000). The use of these questions by

teachers examined in this study is discussed in "Types of Questions in Teachers'

Questioning Practices".

In the context of this study, 'wait time' (refer to "Definition of Terms" and

"Wait Time") is basically pauses offering opportunities for thinking or contemplation

of a response. As the aim of this study is to examine teachers' questioning practices,

the research focus is on teacher-initiated or teacher-provided wait time; pauses within

a student's utterance were not analyzed. Wait time in this study was measured in

seconds up to one decimal point. The categories used were for instance 0.1-0.9

second, 1.0-1.9 seconds, 2.0-2.9 seconds, 3.0-3.9 seconds, and so on (refer to "Wait

Time in Teachers' Questioning Practices").

For the dimension 'reaction moves' (refer to "Definition of Terms" and

"Reaction Moves"), this study determined how teachers reacted to students'

responses or unresponsiveness succeeding teacher questions. What teachers say or do

subsequently is crucial because "we may need to accept that the child's answer can

never be the end of a learning exchange (as in many classrooms it all too readily

tends to be) but its true centre of gravity" (Alexander, 2005, p. 24). In this study, a

final 10 main reaction moves were focused on for analysis. These ten were 'probe',

'prompt', 'redirect', 'reinitiate', 'nudge', 'nominate', 'wait out/ignore', 'give

answer', 'abandon', and 'impose'. They were refined based on adaptation from the

literature and the emergent data from this study. These reaction moves are further

explained with example(s) from the video data in "Reaction Moves in Teachers' Questioning Practices".

For addressing Research Question Two, the interplay between these three dimensions of questioning was analyzed to look into their influence on classroom discourse, with 'content unit' as the unit of analysis (refer to "Unit of Analysis: Content Unit"). For each content unit, teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse were analyzed and subsequently interpreted based on three features of dialogism/monologism, as explained in the forthcoming sub-section.

Classroom discourse. The dialogicality or monologicality of classroom discourse as conceptualized in this study is based on three key features:

1. Student thinking and student voice. A fundamental in the notion of dialogism is the cultivation of thinking and the nurturing of individual voices (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 1997; Sedova et al., 2014). Each voice is original and unique, and closely corresponds to one's thinking; it has its own perspective and consciousness (Bakhtin, 1981). Conceptualized in the context of this study, a voice importantly is underlain by ongoing thinking processes. Thus, student voice is deemed most meaningful when it is continually supported and improved with higher cognitive functions, in relation to their own opinion/view/perspective/belief, reasoning, meaning-making, personal background and experiences, prior knowledge which is beyond mere recall/display of information and which actually enhances their meaning-making processes, or initiatives in inquiring and exploring, as well as in relation to other voices (elaborated in the next paragraph). For this reason, student thinking and student voice are interspersed as thinking cannot be directly seen but gauged from its manifestation in voice, and a voice without thoughts and reasoning is hardly meaningful by itself. In this study, opportunities for student thinking and

student voice are observed from how teachers' questioning practices provide room for students' higher cognitive functions and allow space for students' expression of ideas during classroom discourse (Alexander, 2005; Sedova et al., 2014; White, 2011).

2. Interactions of multi-voices. Consciousness is a social network (Kubli, 2005) as varying perspectives affect and develop shared understandings in a collaborative manner (Nystrand, 1997). In the social context of a classroom, multiple voices exist, e.g. the teacher's and every student's. The interactions of multi-voices can be observed from the opportunities created by the teacher to engage similar or different ideas for collaborative knowledge construction. Interactions of voices basically involve the exchange and negotiation of teacher and student ideas for more enriched understandings and conclusions. When there are interactions of multi-voices, ideas are connected and informed one another, instead of being stand-alone entities.

3. Students' influence on classroom discourse. This can be observed from the opportunities created by the teacher to allow all the above (i.e. student thinking, student voice, and interactions of multi-voices) influence discourse progression. In other words, there is certain flexibility and openness for the discourse to develop with student contribution. Underlying this flexibility and openness for students' influence on classroom discourse is the teacher's control (Nystrand et al., 2003; Reznitskaya, 2012; Shor & Freire, 1987); it can be observed from the teacher's command of the overarching direction, the ending/conclusion, or the final answer(s) of the discourse.

From a dialogic perspective, the basic understanding is that students have to learn to talk and talk to learn (Alexander, 2005); meaning that there has to be

sufficient space for the appreciation and exploration of student thought and student talk in the classroom. When voices meet and interact, there has to be substantial thinking to support and sustain the cognitive connection between these voices. To experience dialogic classroom discourse, students have to participate and contribute their ideas while sharing the responsibility with the teacher and other students in constructing knowledge (Wells, 1999a). On the other hand, from teachers' questioning practices in the classroom, monologism will be understood as the absence or minimal existence of student thinking, student voice, interactions of multi-voices, and students' influence in steering classroom discourse, which generally leads to monotonous and authoritative diffusion of information from the teacher to students (Sedova et al., 2014).

Questioning plays a key role in regulating classroom discourse and the role played by students in the classroom (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Barnes, 1969; Hall, 1998). Dialogic classroom discourse and monologic classroom discourse fundamentally have several distinct characteristics. They can be described more clearly in relation to the role played by the teacher – as influenced by the stance or underlying principles of teaching and learning (Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Cox, 2011) – and by students during classroom discourse.

Within dialogic classroom discourse, the teacher is a facilitator who engages students in discussions and dialogues in the classroom (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 1997). A dialogic teacher stimulates students' thinking and values student voices (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 1997; Sedova et al., 2014). The teacher is open to students' ideas and provides opportunities for student authority and student initiative in leading the direction of classroom discourse (Reznitskaya, 2012; Shor & Freire, 1987). The teacher will try to incorporate students' contribution into classroom talk

and orchestrate competing student voices to enhance the discussion (Boyd &
Markarian, 2011). With the facilitation of the teacher, students are encouraged to
think and talk, thus be engaged in meaning-making. In dialogic classrooms, the
teacher and students together construct shared knowledge (Bakhtin, 1984; Shor &
Freire, 1987; Skidmore, 2000). Students are co-inquirers and treated as a source of
input (Reznitskaya, 2012) as they share their prior knowledge and personal
experience during classroom discussion. Student responses are usually stimulators
for more questions and discussion (Alexander, 2005). Together, the teacher and
students ask and answer questions to work out possible answers and understandings.
In a dialogic setting, both the teacher and students play important roles in influencing
classroom discourse. Here, instruction (discourse) is viewed

> not as what teachers provide or do to students but rather as what teachers and
> students collaboratively negotiate. High-quality classroom discourse is
> characterized by substantive reciprocity between teachers and their students
> … students and not just teachers have a lot of input into the business of the
> classroom and hence what is learned. (Nystrand, 2004, pp. i)

On the contrary, within monologic classroom discourse, the teacher is an
expert (Hall & Walsh, 2002) who didactically hands over knowledge as prescribed
information to students using the recitation or lecture format (Lyle, 2008; Nystrand,
1997; Shor & Freire, 1987; Wells, 2006). A monologic teacher dominates classroom
discourse (Lyle, 2008; Nystrand, 1997; Skidmore, 2000) and does not expand on
student voices in terms of students' own interpretations or ideas. Typically, only the
teacher's perspective, seldom the students', transcendently dictates the content and
goal of discourse and learning (Nystrand, 1997). With the teacher treated as the only
valid and authoritative voice and source of knowledge (Nystrand, 1997; Shor &
Freire, 1987), students are mainly absorber of knowledge and responder to teacher

talk (Yuksel, 2009). Students are neither driven to do any higher order thinking any more than reproducing known information, nor encouraged to talk outside the course set by the teacher. Most of the time, the teacher decides what questions to ask, who to answer the questions, and what the answer to each question is (Yuksel, 2009). Student responses then often serve as the closure to questions without further development of understanding (Alexander, 2005).

Overall, classroom discourse, be it dialogic or monologic, can be influenced by the manner in which questioning is done by teachers (Nystrand, 1997). From their questioning practices, teachers mould students' role and the kind of classroom discourse desired. Using questioning, teachers have a powerful role in creating and distributing learning opportunities during classroom discourse as they can covertly signal to students what their role as a student should be (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Barnes, 1969; Hall, 1998).

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were employed:

(1)   Question

A question is typically an utterance which has interrogative form or function (Cotton, 2001) and which usually ends with a rising intonation (Banbrook, 1987 as cited in Yang, 2010; Engin, 2013). Teacher questions are utterances characteristically used to seek information (Wu, 1993) or to try evoking a response (Albergaria-Almeida, 2010b) from students. In the context of this study, utterances expressed through the three means (Wu, 1993) below were taken into account as questions:

(i)   interrogative sentences

        e.g. "What is your name?"

(ii)   imperative sentences

        e.g. "Please tell me your name."

(iii)   declarative sentences (usually uttered with falling intonation)

        e.g. Teacher: "So your name is Daisy."

        Student: "Yes."

Teachers' occasional gestures such as writing a question on the whiteboard and/or pointing at a question and/or looking at/calling upon student(s) as a signal to start responding were also regarded as the asking of a question.

(2)   Types of questions

        (i)   A display question is a question to which the teacher already knows the answer (Long & Sato, 1983). Answers elicited using display questions can often be evaluated as right or wrong. Display questions are generally used to gauge students' understanding or check students' acquired knowledge (Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983).

        (ii)   A referential question is a 'genuine' question (Gould, 2014) to which the teacher does not already know the answer (Long & Sato, 1983). In general, there is no right or wrong answers to a referential question. Referential questions can be used to elicit students' experiences, opinions, and reasoning (Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983).

(iii) Rhetorical questions or questions used with rhetorical purposes are questions which are used to cursorily/perfunctorily seek student responses (Good & Brophy, 2000), rendering student responses largely unnecessary. These may also include questions which the teacher asks and self-answers immediately.

(3) Wait time

Wait time in the context of this study refers to pauses initiated or provided by the teacher which could give rise to opportunities for thinking or contemplation of a response.

(4) Reaction moves

In the context of this study, what the teacher said or did following students' responses or unresponsiveness to teacher questions, other than mere evaluation, was examined as reaction moves.

(i) Probe – Probing is done when the teacher requests further answers by asking another question after obtaining an answer to the initial question.

(ii) Prompt – A prompt is generally a guide provided by the teacher for students. Teacher prompts may include rephrasing a question, giving clues/hints, purposely suggesting wrong answers, or suggesting possible answers.

(iii) Redirect – To redirect is to forward answers to other students for evaluation or improvement purposes.

(iv) Reinitiate – To reinitiate a question is a reaction move used to request other answers to the same question after obtaining an acceptable answer.

(v) Nudge – Students are nudged (given reminders) to respond commonly when they did/could not answer questions, or when the teacher would like to give emphasis to certain answers by asking students to repeat them.

(vi) Nominate – A nomination is the calling upon of students to answer questions.

(vii) Wait out/Ignore – Waiting out or ignoring is when the teacher does not respond specifically to answers.

(viii) Give Answer – To give answer is to reveal answers to students without further discussion.

(ix) Abandon – When a discourse is abandoned by the teacher to move on to the next question or topic, it is left unconsolidated without any closing.

(x) Impose – To impose is to place on students the teacher's own ideas or ideals without further discussion.

(5) Content unit

A content unit contains a piece of discourse made up of a main question and all subsequent talk which is related to that main question (Hsu, 2001).

Conclusion

This first chapter introduces the research issues and discusses the statement of the problem and the significance of the present study. The research objective of this study together with a theoretical background based on the notion of dialogism/monologism is presented. This chapter is aimed for building a case to answer two research questions: (1) What are teachers' questioning practices in terms of three dimensions of questioning: types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves?; and (2) How does the interplay between these dimensions of questioning (identified in Research Question One) influence classroom discourse? The Conceptual Framework of this study is then discussed. This chapter ends with the definition of terms and the next chapter discusses the literature review of this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In line with the research context of this study, this chapter begins with an overview of English Language Teaching (ELT) and also of the literature on teachers' questioning practices in Malaysia. The three main dimensions of questioning – types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves – which formed the research focus of this study are each elaborated. Following this is a discussion on the notion of dialogism which was the theoretical lens through which teachers' questioning practices were investigated and discussed. Subsequently, dialogic approaches to teaching and learning, and the characteristics of dialogic and monologic classroom discourse are delineated.

English Language Teaching (ELT) in Malaysia

The English language has been deeply rooted in Malaysia since the era of British colonialism (Pandian, 2002). Since then, it has now become one of the main languages used and taught in Malaysian classrooms. As stated in the Curriculum Specifications document, "English is taught as a second language in all Malaysian primary and secondary schools …" (MOE Malaysia, 2003, p. 1). With its status as a second language, English is generally both a language being learned in the classroom and a language being used by the community at large (Hall & Walsh, 2002; MOE Malaysia, 2003).

The developments in the field of ELT at large have shown how syllabus emphasizing rules of grammar was prevalent before ELT was reformed by

communicative approach to language teaching in the mid 1970s; these developments too have impacted ELT in Malaysia (Ratnawati Mohd Asraf, 1996).

At the secondary school level in Malaysia, ELT saw the reform from grammar-based syllabus (Hjh Noor Rezan Bapoo, 2007) to communicative-based syllabus, and to the KBSM (Integrated Secondary Schools Curriculum) – English Language Secondary School Syllabus which was introduced back in 1989 (Pandian, 2002; Ratnawati Mohd Asraf, 1996).

As the KBSM continued prioritizing communicative ability in language learning, it also intended to improve students' competency to use language forms and structures, and to perform language functions in the correct manner (Pandian, 2002; Ratnawati Mohd Asraf, 1996). According to Pandian (2002), what was present in the KBSM and which was absent in the previous ELT syllabi was the introduction of and emphasis on the development of students' higher order thinking through communicative learning activities.

As shown in the Education Blueprint document, in alignment with the National Education Philosophy, one of the core six student aspirations is thinking skills (MOE Malaysia, 2012). Specifically stated in the Malaysian English Language curriculum, in English language classrooms, one of the objectives is to enable students to "… express ideas, opinions, thoughts and feelings imaginatively and creatively in spoken … form" (MOE Malaysia, 2003, p. 1). Therefore, language learning in Malaysian classrooms prioritizes the development of students' thinking and language use within a communicative classroom environment.

Essentially, one way to inculcate thinking and communicative skills among students is through the facilitation of dialogic classroom discourse which can stimulate student thought and encourage student talk (Alexander, 2005; Chin, 2006a;

Reznitskaya, 2012). Being dialogical is a process of learning and should thus be encouraged in most lesson and classroom, with all students. In this manner of learning, student thinking and student talk are closely knitted, in that they develop in parallel; this process of dialogical thinking, discoursing, and learning ought to be inherent in the classroom, beginning at young ages (Alexander, 2005; Cox, 2011; Fisher, 1999; Wood, 1988).

Toward this goal, questioning has become immensely important in stimulating student thinking and creating opportunities for student participation during classroom discourse (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 1997; Pandian, 2002). Through verbal questioning in the classroom, students can be encouraged to perform to this objective in the spoken form where interaction of voices (Wertsch & Smolka, 1993) can be realized. With questioning done in a dialogic environment, students are nurtured to be able to think critically and to share their thoughts while learning. This aspect of learning is so significant that students' active role in learning and students' thinking skills have continued to be given prominence in the new KSSM (Secondary School Standard Curriculum) (MOE Malaysia, 2012).

In 1999, Berita Kurikulum found that classroom teaching was all about the typical chalk-and-talk drill approach despite the initial buzz created by the communicative approach underlined in the KBSM (as cited in Pandian, 2002). This situation implies that with a domineering presence of the drilling method, student thinking and student participation will most probably be limited in English language classrooms.

Also, reported in the Education Blueprint document (MOE Malaysia, 2012) was a study done by the Higher Education Leadership Academy (AKEPT) which had

observed 125 lessons in 41 schools across Malaysia. Its main findings are presented as below.

> … 12% of lessons were delivered at a high standard, utilising many best practice pedagogies and 38% met satisfactory standards. However, 50% of the lessons were observed to be delivered unsatisfactorily. Lessons did not sufficiently engage students, relying on a more passive lecture format of content delivery by the teacher. The focus was more on achieving surface-level content understanding for summative assessment purposes, rather than on cultivating higher-order thinking skills. For example, students were more likely to be tested on their ability to recall facts (70% of all lessons observed) than to analyse and interpret data (18%) or synthesize information (15%). (MOE Malaysia, 2012, pp. 5-2)

The report documented that most of the lessons observed were lecture-based, and did not sufficiently stimulate student thinking or promote student participation. Although there was no additional information provided as to which subject lessons were the findings based on, these findings are important in revealing, at least a glimpse of Malaysian classroom practice. Seeing that the learning focus was mostly directed at the recalling of facts or the achievement of surface-level understanding (MOE Malaysia, 2012), these findings essentially point out monologic classroom practices in the classroom.

In fact, several recent findings specifically in the context of English language classrooms have further cemented this concern, where classrooms at large have been found to be heavily teacher-centred with little meaningful interactions (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2014; Tee, Samuel, Norjoharuddeen bin Mohd Nor, & Shanthi Nadarajan, 2016). Seemingly, monologic ways of teaching and learning have continued taking root in the classroom amidst the decline of students' English proficiency in the country, especially in terms of speaking (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2014; MOE Malaysia, 2012).

The findings discussed above amplified the interest of this study to find out specifically the state of teachers' questioning practices in the context of English language classrooms, considering that questioning is one major instructional and interactional tool within classroom practice (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Cotton, 2001; Tienken et al., 2009; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007) to facilitate students' thinking and communicative skills during language learning.

Other than several studies providing some information on teachers' questioning practices in secondary English language classrooms in Malaysia (Etemadzadeh et al., 2013; Habsah Hussin, 2006), there has not been broad-based research on this area. What has been even more lacking is a deeper conceptualization of the reported practices in order to comprehend the principles and processes underlying those practices which lead to the development of student thinking and student talk during classroom discourse. The literature available in the area of questioning in the Malaysian context is reviewed in the following section, in order to provide a general understanding of the research on teachers' questioning practices at the local scene.

Teachers' Questioning Practices in Malaysia

To achieve the national aspiration of nurturing students with thinking skills and communicative ability (MOE Malaysia, 2012; Pandian, 2002; Ratnawati Mohd Asraf, 1996), questioning has become a crucial instructional tool in the classroom. In Malaysia, research on teachers' questioning practices though mushrooming, is yet comprehensive, thus requiring more research attention especially at the broader level.

The volume of literature available has shown that research has mostly focused on the dimension 'types of questions'. Teachers most commonly ask lower cognitive questions, leading towards monologic classroom discourse (Noorizah Mohd Noor et al., 2012; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh & Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad, 2013; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh et al., 2014; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Tan & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Zamri Mahamod & Nor Razah Lim, 2011). Generally, teachers engage students in uni-directional recitation or question-answer exchanges (Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007) without probing and incorporating students' input of ideas and opinions into classroom discussion (Ong et al., 2010); this points to the lack of building-on on student contribution. Other than that, some studies have also indicated that teachers are not familiar with the understanding and use of wait time in the classroom (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Ong et al., 2010; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2013; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014).

On average, teachers in Malaysian classrooms ask at least three questions per minute (Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007). Questioning is usually intended to have students recite procedures, repeat word(s) after the teacher, or complete the teacher's sentences (Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007). Further, scenarios where students together answer the teacher's questions in a choral manner are quite common (Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007; Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012). There are also times when the arrival at accepted answers is achieved through 'authority' instead of reasoning and logical arguments; this has been observed at a stage as early as the primary level (Cheah, 2007).

Teachers have generally been reported to have little knowledge of utilizing high- and low-level questioning methods (Ghazali Mustapha, 1997) and their

questions were found to be heavily related to standardized examinations (Habsah Hussin, 2006). Examination-related factors have often been a major underlying reason in teachers' manner of practising questioning with their students; teachers are often bound to covering the curriculum to ensure content delivery (Habsah Hussin, 2006). Teachers revealed that in mathematics classrooms they had to put the mastery of procedural techniques before conceptual grasp, again under the pressure to achieve examination targets set by the authorities (Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007). Other than that, some teachers were discovered to display poor command of the language, rendering them ineffective in developing classroom discussion using questioning techniques (Ong et al., 2010).

The questioning phenomenon in Malaysian classrooms indicates that our teachers are under-trained in the art and science of effective questioning (Hannel, 2009). Teachers are often bogged down by the sense of lack of control if classroom discourse diverts from the intended objectives and by the loss of confidence if they have to deal with unexpected questions which have no one definite answer (Morgan & Saxton, 1994). The trait of monologism where the teacher is expected to be the only expert during classroom discourse has been found to be a concern in Malaysian classrooms (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007).

On the positive side, it is encouraging to notice in the Education Blueprint document (MOE Malaysia, 2012) the added weightage given to thinking skills in the Malaysian education system at all levels. Nevertheless, the great deal of reliance on Bloom's Taxonomy to steer teacher questioning in daily instruction may bring us only temporary comfort as such a guideline may suffice in raising teachers' awareness on better selection of questions, but far from being adequate in guiding teachers as to how they can use questioning for a more dialogic classroom discourse.

Often teachers are left to their own devices; Bloom's Taxonomy is after all a taxonomy principally classifying levels of cognitive processes, not a structure designed to systematically guide teachers how to inculcate thinking or communicative skills using questioning (Ivie, 1998; Morgan & Saxton, 1994). Each teacher needs to be clear about and put into practice their own pedagogy of teaching (Hannel, 2009), and this will not be realized until teacher education is proactively informed by research data on classroom practice.

Overall, information contributing towards an understanding of teachers' questioning practices in Malaysian classrooms is available, but yet sufficient for a broad-based and deeper understanding. Particularly, concerns revolving around teachers' questioning practices in Malaysian English language classrooms at the broader level require deeper conceptualization to better understand the underlying principles and processes of teaching and learning within classroom discourse. This perspective is one which the present study would like to offer. Based on the theoretical lens of dialogism/monologism, it is the objective of this study to provide an account of patterns of teachers' questioning practices, supported by explicit classroom data, through the examination of the interplay between three dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) in influencing classroom discourse.

Dimensions of Questioning

A basic understanding of questioning tells that it is characteristic of teaching, representing the fundamentals and traditions of teaching technique (Dillon, 1982). In the classroom, questioning serves as an important facet of teaching and learning (Hannel, 2009) simply because it is one of the most used instructional strategy

(Cotton, 2001; Tienken et al., 2009), a means of classroom communication (Yang, 2010), and a scaffold for understanding and learning (Engin, 2013).

Various dimensions play a role in affecting the effectiveness of teacher questioning. Consider a typical question sequence between a teacher and a student; the teacher asks a question and the student may give an answer, maybe after some wait time. The teacher accepts it and may then continue with a probe, any reaction from the teacher (even if the teacher ignores the student's answer) is considered within the dimension of reaction move. If the student cannot provide an answer, the teacher may wait a little longer (wait time) and the teacher's next action will be a reaction move. Thus, a question sequence is very unlikely to be made up of only one dimension of questioning. Presumably, effective questioning can hardly be characterized by only one or any individual dimension of questioning.

As another example, consider the interplay between the use of wait time and the use of reaction moves. Longer wait time has been recommended to enhance student thinking and student talk, which may then enhance classroom discourse (Alexander, 2005; Rowe, 1974; Tobin, 1986). However, the provision of a long wait time may not necessarily lead to dialogic classroom discourse if the student's answer is constantly being brushed off by the teacher (reaction move), especially when it diverts from the teacher's pre-thought answer. In fact, there is little point in the framing of a well-conceived question with ample wait time if the teacher fails to engage subsequently with the student's answer and the meanings behind the answer (Alexander, 2005).

Teachers should give serious consideration to questioning as a practice made up of various dimensions in order to make questioning effective. As illustrated earlier, some of the dimensions crucial to be paid attention to in developing

dialogicality in the classroom are types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves (Alexander, 2005; Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Nystrand, 1997; Rowe, 1974, 1986, 1996). Thus, teachers should contemplate how they plan and use questions, or how they purposefully provide wait time after a question for students to think before responding (even after responding wait time can be continuously given to improve the idea suggested), or how they react to and follow up on student responses for the sustenance of cognitive engagement and language use, and eventually the attainment of learning objectives. The underpinnings of their questioning practices are pivotal to how classroom discourse is facilitated. These are all inherent as successful questioning is an art involving techniques, planning, and creativity (Ramsey, Gabbard, Clawson, Lee, & Henson, 1990).

With this, the dimensions of questioning investigated in this study are types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves. Each dimension is discussed below.

Types of questions. Two common, broad categories of questions are lower cognitive and higher cognitive questions (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2004; Cotton, 2001; Gall, 1984; Good & Brophy, 2000). Lower cognitive questions generally include display, factual, closed-ended, direct, recall, convergent, and knowledge questions; they are usually asked to reinforce previously taught information, and require students to recall factual knowledge (Cotton, 2001; Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983). On the other hand, higher cognitive questions generally include referential, open-ended, authentic, divergent, evaluative, and synthesis questions; they can admit more than one possible answer, and require students' deeper thinking and manipulation of information to produce a reasoned response (Cotton, 2001; Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983).

For the purpose of this study, considering the context of English language classrooms, the categorization of three types of questions adapted and modified from various studies were employed to examine the types of questions which teachers asked in the classroom. They included display questions (Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983), referential questions (Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983), and rhetorical questions (Good & Brophy, 2000).

Specifically, rhetorical questions are strongly discouraged because they hardly facilitate student responses, although some could be appropriately used to provoke reflective thinking. On most occasions, questions should only be asked to get a response, not otherwise (Good & Brophy, 2000). Although rhetorical questions have been to some extent discussed in the literature, they were rarely addressed with specific attention when researching questioning. In this study, rhetorical questions and their functions within the context of classroom discourse were given closer attention as one of the main question type examined.

Each type of question and its description in the context of this study are presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Types of Questions

Types of questions	Description
Display	- Ask for answers which the teacher already knows - Generally asked to gauge students' understanding or check students' acquired knowledge - Answers can usually be evaluated as right or wrong
Referential	- Ask for answers which the teacher does not already know (e.g. students' experiences, opinions, reasoning) - Usually no right or wrong answer
Rhetorical	- Ask for answers cursorily/perfunctorily (student responses are often unnecessary) - Sometimes self-answered immediately by the teacher

(Good & Brophy, 2000; Ho, 2005; Long & Sato, 1983)

On the whole, teacher questions have been found to be limited to only lower cognitive questions which do not develop student thinking (Albergaria-Almeida, 2010a; Alexander, 2005; Barnes, 1969; Bellack et al., 1966; Cotton, 2001; Gall, 1970; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Hannel, 2009; Hollingsworth, 1982; Hyman, 1980; Lange, 1982; Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012; Tienken et al., 2009; Tobin, 1984; Vogler, 2005; Wragg & Brown, 2001).

Such scenarios are also common when considering the specific context of language classrooms where the use of lower cognitive (e.g. display, closed-ended, convergent) questions is prevalent (Brock, 1986; David, 2007; Ho, 2005; Jiang, 2014; Long & Sato, 1983, Meng et al., 2012; Myhill et al., 2006 as cited in Yang, 2010; Nystrand, 1997; Shomoossi, 1997; Tan, 2007; Yang, 2010; Zhang, 2011b).

Likewise in Malaysian classrooms, in both language and other content classrooms, the use of lower cognitive questions (display, closed-ended questions) which require short, straightforward answers or which function as understanding-check is dominant (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Noorizah Mohd Noor et al., 2012; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh & Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad, 2013; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh et al., 2014; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Tan & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Zamri Mahamod & Nor Razah Lim, 2011).

In her review on research on the use of questions in teaching, Gall (1970) citing Steven's (1912) study as the precursor in the research of questioning in education, alerted that "in a half-century there has been no essential change in the types of questions which teachers emphasize in the classroom" (p. 713), by this statement she referred to the predominant use of lower cognitive questions.

Generally, research on teacher questioning has advocated for more higher cognitive questions in the classroom. As reviewed, Tienken et al. (2009) stated that higher cognitive questions tend to have positive influence on student achievement as students are more likely to be driven to manipulate their knowledge to produce responses with sound reasoning; a finding backed by the meta-analysis results by Redfield and Rousseau (1981). Cotton (2001) from her review found that the use of higher cognitive questions when increased (20% or more) could produce superior learning gains especially for secondary students. When teachers ask higher cognitive questions, with sufficient time given, students are most probably made to think and reflect more, to deepen their understanding, and to try out their ideas during classroom discussion.

In language classrooms too, the use of more referential questions (higher cognitive questions) was found to elicit more, longer, and syntactically more complex student output (Al-Muaini, 2006 as cited in Yeo & Ting, 2012; Brock, 1986; Yang, 2010). For language learning especially, referential questions to which teachers do not know the answers (Long & Sato, 1983) were discovered to stimulate dialogic classroom discourse among the teacher and students through the elicitation of students' thoughts, reasons, experience, and opinions (McNeil, 2012). Referential questions are important for extending and enhancing teacher-student talk and co-construction of knowledge as they could be used to "prompt students to comprehend and produce target language that reflects their own thinking and provides opportunities for teachers to assist in those processes" (McNeil, 2012, p. 396). On the contrary, too many display questions will result in less student output and less students' opportunities for thinking (Beardsmore, 1996).

In fact, significant correspondence was discovered between the cognitive level of questions and the cognitive level of student responses (Arnold et al., 1974; Cole & Williams, 1973 as cited in Brock, 1986). But even so, that may not be the case all the time, especially when considering the interaction in its context. Lamb (1976) asserted that the asking of a higher cognitive question may not necessarily warrant a higher cognitive student response in return although it has been argued that questions of this kind usually pose higher cognitive challenge to help spur students' thinking and learning. In some instances, referential questions were found to be returned with short and simple answers by students (Behnam & Pouriran, 2009) and may not necessarily warrant longer or syntactically more complex student output (Wu, 1993). In another study, display rather than referential questions were discovered to create more classroom interaction (David, 2007). By this token, display questions should not be treated as inferior or purposeless when compared with referential questions (Ho, 2005).

Based on the context of English lessons, one argument which Boyd and Markarian (2011) raised is that how a question is being used may very well be more important than just what questions are used. This is to say the types of questions teachers ask may not be sufficiently representative of their questioning practices and the overall classroom discourse, in particular when the questions are not examined and understood in the context of interaction. According to them, it would be

> feasible for a question to appear 'dialogic' yet in the service of a teacher with a monologic stance; the responses to such questions will function monologically – in other words, such a teacher may use an open, authentic question, utilizing cues such as 'why' and 'do you believe', but only truly care about how closely the student's response aligns with some school-sanctioned or teacher-predetermined position. Conversely, it is just as feasible for a teacher to ask an outwardly 'bad', closed question that is functioning

within the context of a dialogic classroom and in the service of a dialogic teacher stance. Such a question in such a context, despite its outward appearances, may nevertheless produce extended discussion, elaborated talk, and a joint construction of knowledge among class participants. (pp. 517-518)

An example in the Malaysian context rings in resonance with Boyd and Markarian's (2011) proposition. Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh and Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad's (2013) study discovered in primary English language classrooms teachers who asked questions which seemed to be open-ended questions which welcomed a variety of answers only to expect their students to provide specific, desired answers. In secondary English language classrooms too, questioning incidents like this were common. In Habsah Hussin's (2006) study, she found that the teacher did ask higher cognitive questions in the form of 'how' question, but almost immediately told students on which page in the textbook the answer could be found. Eventually, the students searched directly for the answer from that page and told the teacher the answer. This further confirms that there is the need to examine the purpose of each question and how questions are used to build discussion within the context of classroom discourse.

All in all, referential questions alone are unlikely to account wholly for effective questioning or dialogic classroom discourse. To serve the purpose of language teaching, both display and referential questions are important (Jiang, 2014; Wu, 1993). Display questions will be as thought challenging if they are framed appropriately together with other types of questionss. In fact, teachers would need different question types to help stimulate the development of classroom discourse (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016), alongside other dimensions of questioning (discussed as follows). Looking further, this propels that the investigation on the types of questions which teachers ask though important is definitely insufficient in

better understanding teacher questioning and classroom discourse as a whole (Ho,
2005).

Wait time. One dimension of questioning which has received extensive
research devotion is wait time. Wait time refers to pauses in teacher-student
exchanges during classroom questioning, which are generally facilitative of thinking
or contemplation of a response. Past studies on wait time have generally concentrated
on the measurement (e.g. average) and effects of wait time on various variables, for
example, science achievement (Tobin, 1980) and student and teacher outcomes
(Rowe, 1974; Tobin, 1984).

Teacher wait time has been associated with pause time, lapse time, pausing
(Tobin, 1987), and thinking time (Morgan & Saxton, 1994). Rowe (1974) identified
two types of wait time: wait time I - the duration of the pause after teacher talk before
student responses or teacher talk, and wait time II - the duration of the pause after
student talk before teacher talk.

Tobin (1987) later refined Rowe's definitions of wait time. As shown below,
'T' refers to teacher and 'S' refers to student.

    (i)   wait time TS - the pause following any teacher utterance and preceding
any student utterance;

    (ii)   wait time ST - the pause following any student utterance and preceding
any teacher utterance;

    (iii)   wait time SS - the pause following a student utterance and preceding an
utterance from the same or a different student;

    (iv)   wait time TT - the pause separating consecutive teacher utterances.
(Tobin, 1987, pp. 90)

In practice, teachers were found to usually provide an average of one second
or less for students to prepare before answering a question (Rowe, 1996; Tobin,
1987). There are teachers who may rush through a question only to drill students with

more questions when students do not seem interested or are not able to provide answers (Morgan & Saxton, 1994). Especially when the questions asked are of higher cognitive levels (Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012), or when teachers did not get an immediate answer, or when they did not actually expect an answer to the question they asked (Gambrell, 1983 as cited in Tobin, 1987; Rowe, 1996; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2013), some teachers may answer their own questions without waiting for student responses (Hollingsworth, 1982; Honea, 1982; Rowe, 1974; Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012; Wragg & Brown, 2001).

In justifying the rapid pace of questioning with little or no wait time provided, teachers have often cited the gravity to either complete the syllabus (Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012) or finish the lesson (Habsah Hussin, 2006) as being above anything else, including providing time for students to think about and respond to questions. This was strongly opposed by Morgan and Saxton (1994) because teachers "should be in the business of helping our students to uncover, not to cover, the curriculum" (p. 107).

For more effective questioning, Rowe (1974) proposed the use of longer wait time where students are given several seconds to think before answering a question. Tobin (1986) affirmed that "the pause between teacher utterances provides students with an opportunity to consider what has been said and to assimilate new knowledge with previously learned information" (p. 192). This would contribute to a dialogic environment where students are given sufficient time to contemplate and contribute to classroom discussion (Alexander, 2005; Carlsen, 1991).

Rowe (1974, 1986, 1996) found out from her studies that with wait time, there was (1) increase in the length of student responses (Honea, 1982; Ingram & Elliott, 2014; Kaya et al., 2014; Tobin, 1984, 1986), (2) increase in the number of

unsolicited but appropriate student responses (Honea, 1982), (3) decrease in students' failures to respond (Tobin, 1986), (4) increase in students' confidence when responding (Honea, 1982), (5) increase of incidence of speculative thinking, (6) decrease in teacher-centred show-and-tell, and increase in student-student interaction (Honea, 1982; Ingram & Elliott, 2014), (7) increase in the provision of evidence, explanation, or reasoning (Ingram & Elliott, 2014), (8) increase in the number of student questions (Honea, 1982) and student-proposed experiments, (9) increase in contribution by weaker students, (10) increase in types of students' questioning moves, and (11) decrease in teachers' disciplinary moves (Dillon, 1984). Other than that, using wait time, student achievement could be improved (Baysen & Baysen, 2010; Cotton, 2001; Tobin, 1986) and students' higher cognitive processes could be cultivated (Jegede & Olajide, 1995).

Honea (1982) from his classroom research further pointed out that aside from student behaviours being altered, teacher behaviours also changed; teachers tended to ask fewer questions when wait time was extended. Other studies found that when teachers were trained to use wait time, the cognitive level of the questions teachers asked rose (Fagan et al., 1981; Swift & Gooding, 1983; Tobin, 1986). Generally, teachers would talk less (Jegede & Olajide, 1995; Tobin, 1980), and mimic student responses or interrupt student talk less often (Tobin, 1984, 1986). This opens up the opportunity for a more student-centred classroom discourse where student thinking and student voice are given more attention.

Considering the advantages of wait time as shown by various studies discussed above, these advantages can be especially beneficial in the context of language classrooms. In line with the goal of language learning, students will be encouraged to produce longer responses in the target language, engaged in higher

order thinking to provide evidence and justification to their responses, encouraged to participate more actively and confidently during classroom discourse, and given the opportunity to respond to as well as ask questions (Honea, 1982; Ingram & Elliott, 2014; Kaya et al., 2014; Rowe, 1974, 1986, 1996; Tobin, 1984, 1986).

In language classrooms, if teachers provide more time for students to think, it may well help encourage longer and more meaningful target language communication. Generally, the use of wait time in language classrooms was reported to produce longer student responses (Fagan et al., 1981; Tobin, 1986), more student talk and less failure to respond among students (Tobin, 1986), more complex and higher cognitive level of student responses (Fagan et al., 1981), and higher achievement (Tobin, 1986). These results demonstrate the potential of wait time in facilitating language learning which encourages students to use the language more and to produce more output in the language, while also improving students thinking, learning, and achievement in overall.

In completing reading tasks, Lundy (2008) observed the use of wait time by teachers to imply to students the responsibility to construct own meaning and to talk about their reading of the text. With the wait time given, students were put in a situation where they had to attempt a thoughtful answer, hence enhancing student thinking and student output. Gambrell (1983) accentuated that in the absence of adequate wait time, higher cognitive questions like inferential questions may not help students' reading comprehension, as students' higher cognitive processes could instead be disrupted (as cited in Tobin, 1987).

Through increased wait time provided by the teacher, it is more likely that all students get the opportunity to engage covertly during instruction although only one student may be giving an oral response at a given time (Gall, 1984; Tobin, 1986). If

the teacher handles classroom discussion with appropriate wait time throughout, instead of asking certain students a question to get an immediate answer to be able to move on with the discussion, all students will be engaged in deeper cognitive processes. Students who pay attention to the discussion, and contemplate and answer covertly each question raised in the classroom would learn as much as students who get to answer overtly (Gall, 1984). In short, "the purpose of providing additional silence in whole class settings is to enable students to think about prior discourse, to formulate an appropriate response, and if called upon to provide an oral response" (Tobin, 1984, p. 780).

In spite of Rowe's (1974, 1986, 1996) proposal of 3 to 5 seconds, and Swift and Gooding's (1983) suggestion of 2 to 3 seconds when using wait time, not every single question needs to be attended to with longer wait time. Wait time should not be blindly used during questioning in the classroom (Carlsen, 1991; Honea, 1982). As Carlsen (1991) explained, "... long pauses make sense at appropriate times, but universal application of lengthy pauses after every question is unlikely to enhance the quality of classroom conversation" (p. 173). Tobin (1984, 1987) agreed that longer wait time, for instance, 3 to 5 seconds will be more helpful in stimulating higher cognitive processes. He continued that shorter wait time are perhaps better suited for recall or rote learning. That is to say, wait time needs to be used with consideration to the questions asked.

With reference to the literature on wait time, this study gathered that most studies were done in the context of science classrooms and a large part of our understanding of wait time has been formed based on that literature base. Therefore, through this study, it is hoped that an understanding of teachers' use of wait time from the perspective of English language classrooms can be contributed to the field.

Moreover, from the point of view of this study, wait time needs to be researched by focusing on the use of wait time during questioning and not by relying on mere measurement of wait time averages. Research on teachers' use of wait time deserves a different perspective, for example, which tries to understand the purpose underlying teachers' use of wait time in the classroom. While certain ranges of wait time have been found to enhance various student outcomes (Rowe, 1974, 1986, 1996; Swift & Gooding, 1983), this study is also interested in looking at the context of wait time use particularly when considered in the interplay with other dimensions of questioning.

In Malaysia, researchers who have looked into the use of wait time have established that teachers do not usually provide wait time for students to think and respond with their own opinions (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Ong et al., 2010; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2013). Sim and Mohammad Yusof Arshad (2014) discovered in their study that secondary chemistry teachers largely did not exactly know what wait time is, more so how to use it for effective questioning. Some teachers were also described as being "impatient to get the 'right' answer" (Ong et al., 2010, p. 98). With reference to Martin's (2012) findings, Sim and Mohammad Yusof Arshad (2013) concluded that one universally shared classroom norm which is also characteristic of teachers in Malaysia is the need felt by teachers in filling the silence in the classroom with continuous talking because this silence is deemed "unusual and useless" (p. 50). Very possibly, teachers' natural reaction towards silence is to feel uncomfortable and have the fear that they might have asked a poor question, that the question asked is too difficult for students, or even worse, that the silence would invite disorder and chaos (Morgan & Saxton,

1994). Hence teachers' anxiety, their use of fast-paced recitation, and the increased occurrences of them answering their own questions (Honea, 1982).

Few studies have grazed the issue of wait time particularly in the context of Malaysian English language classrooms. The literature available revealed some concerns in terms of ineffective use and low awareness of wait time among teachers (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Ong et al., 2010; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2013; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014). Therefore, the investigation done by this study would help illuminate further this area of research in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms.

Reaction moves. Alexander (2005) posited that as important as questions are, and as crucial as they need to be conceived with care, no less attention should be paid to the answers given by students to the questions, and more importantly, to what the teacher does or fails to do with those answers. In this study, what the teacher said or did besides mere evaluation in response to students' responses or unresponsiveness to teacher questions was examined as teachers' reaction moves. This aspect of questioning was a critical factor in Nystrand's (1997) study in which he investigated teacher uptake (follow-up on student responses) in the form of an elaboration, commentary, or follow-up questions to incorporate student responses into classroom discourse. Provided that teachers do not resort to taking up just any or all students' contribution which may well render the whole discussion messy and unproductive (Groenke & Paulus, 2007), teacher uptake acknowledges student contribution and encourages student participation (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991). Appropriate use of reaction moves as feedback to student responses can help enhance student learning (Black & Wiliam, 2001).

In language classrooms, teachers' reaction moves are even more essential in encouraging students to expand their thinking by asking students to provide justification or clarification to their ideas (Yang, 2010) or by encouraging them to ask questions that deepen the dialogue. Skidmore (2000) proposed that in language classrooms, there should be genuine invitations to students to explain their views in their own words for them to collectively explore and generate knowledge. It is when these are required of students that students can attempt producing longer and more syntactically complex responses (Yang, 2010).

Questions within every sequence should be consolidated by the teacher through some forms of reaction moves towards student responses (Bellack et al., 1966; Cohen et al., 2004; Good & Brophy, 2000), without which student learning will be left hanging, and to chance whether students get it and actually get the right things. As discussed by Coulthard and Brazil (1992), in typical classroom discourse, evaluative commentary after students' responses is especially common and almost necessary to let students know if their responses are right or wrong; students would think that they are wrong if teachers' comments are absent.

Teachers' reaction moves are "the linchpins of a lesson, because they establish, in the eyes of the pupil, the tone of the lesson, by signaling the teacher's enthusiasm, excitement, interest, boredom, or indifference to what pupils have to offer" (Wragg & Brown, 2001, p. 34). Nassaji and Wells (2000) in studying teachers' use of follow-up moves and the contexts in which they occurred discovered that these moves largely determined the direction of subsequent talk. They reported that teacher moves which encouraged rather than merely evaluated student responses, promoted student participation. When teachers invite students to qualify and develop on their

initial responses, dialogic interaction is embraced, leading to deeper discussion and more opportunities for discovery and learning.

As highlighted by Yang (2010), the types of questions asked may not influence student responses as much as the follow-up moves (reaction moves) which the teacher uses to probe student responses. These moves help steer student thinking, the extent which students really need to think in the classroom, and consequently what students can actually learn from discussion (Nystrand, 1997). Just like what Reznitskaya (2012) pointed out using classroom example, teachers in her study though abandoned the traditional recitation format and asked questions which were open-ended and divergent, were not exactly sure of how they should react to student responses. In other words, teachers seemed unsure as to how to sustain and develop the thinking processes going on in the classroom. Genuine discussion and co-construction of meaning were missing as teachers resorted still to merely accepting student responses and passed the talking turn among students without meaningful understanding and discussion of those responses (Reznitskaya, 2012). In scenarios like this, students' language development will be disrupted as they fail to receive sufficient support and feedback to expand on their thinking and language use.

In classrooms, teachers' reaction moves play a significant part in their classroom discourse, they were found to account for as much as 38.9% of teachers' moves (Bellack et al., 1966). In the presence of student responses, the common teachers' reaction move when they get a student response has been to provide low-level reacting such as "very good", "yes", "no", "fine", "OK", "quite right", "good girl", "well done", "excellent", "great work", and "uh huh" (Alexander, 2005; Bellack et al., 1966; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Reznitskaya, 2012; Tobin, 1984). Reaction moves which build on student responses, similar to what Tobin (1984) labeled as

high-level reacting, come in the forms of "expanded evaluative comments, suggested alternatives, explanations, elaborations, clarifications, prompts, paraphrasing, and encouragement" (p. 782) and are generally infrequent, when compared with low-level reacting.

In reference to 'encouragement', which Morgan and Saxton (1994) recognized as verbal reinforcement, Alexander (2005) as praise, and Nystrand (1997) as teacher's certification of the response, is a sign of positive acceptance and approval of students' contribution. Not only so, acknowledging students' effort, offering qualifying evaluation, and discussing student responses instead of giving negative rating are crucially as important when student responses are not exactly to the point or in conflict with others' (Bellack et al., 1966; Morgan & Saxton, 1994).

To nurture a dialogic environment, prompting and probing (Cohen et al., 2004; Skidmore, 2000; Tobin, 1984, 1986; Wragg & Brown, 2001; Wu, 1993) should be done to elicit additional responses like reasoning and justification from students for them to expand and talk about their ideas.

By prompting, teachers usually intend to help students produce an answer to the question in discussion. For example, teachers may ask "Think back to what we learned about …" (Wragg & Brown, 2001, p. 33). Wragg and Brown (2001) suggested three forms of prompts: (1) teachers may rephrase the initial question into a simpler one, suitable for students' knowledge and experience (Wu, 1993); (2) teachers may ask a sequence of simpler questions that gradually lead back to the initial question; or (3) teachers may provide a review of learned knowledge and ask an array of questions which help students arrive at an appropriate answer to the initial question. Other than that, teachers may also attempt giving clues to students to arrive at appropriate answers (Bellack et al., 1966).

As for probing, it could be useful in helping students provide more, detailed, or extended answers. Probing is usually driven at soliciting further answers using another question after the elicitation of an initial response (Chang, 2009; Hsu, 2001) or at pushing students to refine their initial response with higher clarity and specificity. Say, teachers may ask, "Can you be more specific?", "What makes you think that?", "What about the other side?", "How might other people see this?" (Morgan & Saxton, 1994, p. 92), "Can you give me an example of that?", "Why do you think that is true?", "Is there another view?", and "Can you tell me the difference between the two?" (Wragg & Brown, 2001, p. 33). When probing questions followed a student response, the subsequent student output was found to be extended (Hsu, 2001) and probing was also discovered to be positively related to achievement, as reviewed by (Cotton, 2001). Probing is especially critical in dialogic classroom discourse to determine if a student's response is really thought through in depth or merely a restatement of what the student has heard or read about (Gall, 1970). Here, through probing, teachers' utmost goal is to strive for students' reasoning for their stated position and to not simply stop at responses which may be cursory and unreasoned (Hannel, 2009).

In light of student contribution, teachers could redirect (Cotton, 2001; Wright & Nuthall, 1970 as cited in Gall, 1984) student responses to other students, for instance, to improve answers which are unsatisfactory or incomplete (Cotton, 2001). This reaction move may be taken to help improve the plausibility of student responses and enhance the overall discussion (Gall, 1984).

Consequently from these practices, students' interest and confidence to ask questions can be induced (Cohen et al., 2004; Dillon, 1984; Morgan & Saxton, 1994), instead of keeping to a one-way, monologic questioning pattern where typically the

teacher is the asker and students the answerers (Albergaria-Almeida, 2010b; Bellack et al., 1966; Honea, 1982; Jegede & Olajide, 1995).

As similarly observed in Malaysian classrooms, teachers are usually the dominant question-askers and students, the dutiful question-answerers (Cheah, 2007; Kamal, 2001 as cited in Ong et al., 2010; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007). As a matter of fact, to develop student voices particularly in language classrooms, they should not only respond to questions, they have to ask questions to have their thoughts and ideas discussed with the teacher and their peers; this will lead to joint construction of knowledge. What could be ideal of the situation is probably a dialogic questioning atmosphere which allows for student questions to be directed at their teacher as well as at their peers, as a means of demonstration of student learning and thought processes.

To facilitate dialogicality, there are some reaction moves which should be seriously considered by teachers as detrimental to students' participation and engagement during classroom discourse. Teachers were reported to interfere with student talk when students were in the midst of producing a response to a question (Jegede & Olajide, 1995; Stahl, 1994; Tobin, 1984, 1986); often times they would "interrupt or cut students off from completing their responses" (Stahl, 1994, p. 3). At other times, without any substantive feedback or input, teachers would just mimic student responses, through repetition of the whole or part of the answers provided by students (Hollingsworth, 1982; Tobin, 1984, 1986). On other occasions, when the expected answers failed to be evoked from students, teachers may try to persist with leading questions (Cohen et al., 2004; Good & Brophy, 2000; Morgan & Saxton, 1994) to arrive at the right answer, before surrendering the answer. Another negative scenario is when teachers fail to respond appropriately to student responses, in that

no reaction is actually given whether or not the answers given are right or wrong (Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012; Tobin, 1986); teachers ignore and move on with teaching without properly probing or correcting students' answer (Wragg & Brown, 2001). In this regard, students' thinking and talk will be cut short and their learning may end up being disrupted.

In the absence of student responses, when teacher questions are greeted with silence, teachers may resort to immediately picking a student to volunteer an answer; sometimes teachers even pick a student even before posing the question (Hollingsworth, 1982). While this might reduce no-response from students, except for the selected student, it may well impede the reflective processes of the rest of the class during discussion (Hollingsworth, 1982).

In regard to understanding teachers' reaction moves during questioning in the Malaysian context, teachers' reaction moves have often been discussed as a minor part of findings in studies, but less often as the main research focus. Some research findings show teachers' elaboration of student responses (Habsah Hussin, 2006), teachers' provision of answers to own questions (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh et al., 2014), or teachers' immediate correction of students' mistakes and translation of student responses (Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011). To better understand the use of reaction moves specifically by teachers in English language classrooms in Malaysia, their reaction moves were investigated as one of the main research foci of this study.

Considering the Malaysian context, the three key dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) discussed above have been briefly explored in studies on teachers' questioning practices in English language classrooms. In comparison, some dimensions have been slightly more widely

researched (i.e. types of questions) and some less widely (i.e. wait time and reaction moves). With the research focus on all these three important dimensions within teachers' questioning practices, and their influence on classroom discourse, this study was conceptualized based on the perspective of dialogism.

Dialogism

Dialogue has its history dating back to the time of Socrates in how he provoked students to think, to reason, and to inquire, with the use of questions (Burbules, 1993; Lyle, 2008; Renshaw, 2004). The understanding of dialogue as an approach to and a theory of teaching and learning was further developed by Bakhtin's notion of dialogicality. The work of Bakhtin in the early twentieth century has shed new light in understanding how dialogue helps shape language and thought (Nystrand, 1997).

This study essentially draws on Bakhtin's conception of dialogism in understanding teachers' questioning practices in English language classrooms. Dialogism primarily deals with a speaker's utterances and how these utterances interact with utterances of another speaker (Braxley, 2005). Therefore, Bakhtin's conception of dialogism principally focuses on voice and the interaction between voices through dialogue (Wertsch & Smolka, 1993). This tenet of Bakhtin's theory foregrounds teachers' questioning practices which place importance on individual students' thinking and voice and on students' engagement with each other during discussion (voices).

Central to the notion of a dialogue are the intentions to not only speak, but also to elicit a response (Braxley, 2005). To enhance language learning, dialogue addresses the concern of increasing student output. The teacher can encourage

students to think and to articulate their thinking by engaging students in dialogue
through the use of questioning. Especially important in questioning are the concepts
of responsivity (every utterance is produced in response to another's utterance or to
be responded to by others) and addressivity (every utterance is directed to someone)
(Bakhtin, 1986; Linell, 2004 as cited in Yuksel, 2009). This tells of the value of
reciprocity (Nystrand, 2004; Voloshinov, 1973) which is important in generating
language output within a communicative classroom environment; during questioning,
meaning is acquired through reciprocal chains of utterances between the teacher and
students within classroom discourse.

        In a chain of utterances, an utterance gains its meaning only when considered
within context (Bakhtin, 1986). Any utterance is to be interpreted in context and
"against the background of other concrete utterances on the same theme, a
background made up of contradictory opinions, points of view and value judgments"
(Bakhtin, 1981, p. 281). Meaning-making will not be complete without
acknowledging and reacting to corresponding voices. Thus, to learn and to make
meaning is a process done through the communication of voices; "To be means to
communicate" (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 287).

        The present study was conceived banking on one implication of Bakhtin's
notion of dialogism on language learning, that interaction of voices which can
stimulate student thinking and promote student voice, happens within social contexts.
Learning happens "in social interaction rather than in the head of the individual
learner" (Hall et al., 2005, p. 3). As Lyle (2008) put it, "dialogism assumes
knowledge is something people do together rather than an individual possession" (p.
225). Thus, in the context of this study, within dialogic settings, meaning in language
learning is socially constructed and context based. Students will come across various

voices with distinct backgrounds and knowledge. Then as students' own voice and other competing voices are involved in the negotiation of meaning, their thinking and learning is enhanced, and this will enable them to continually develop understanding of and participate in social interaction (classroom discourse) in the classroom.

Despite the strong proposition for multi-voicedness and communicative opportunities during questioning in the classroom, dialogism should not be reduced to and assumed as mere rallies of question-answer exchanges between classroom participants. In this regard, this study concurs with Bakhtin that dialogue goes "beyond verbal interaction that has a conversational, give-and-take, turn-taking format" (Renshaw, 2004, p. 4). Rather, in questioning, classroom discourse becomes dialogic and meaningful only when an idea informs the next idea and is informed by the previous idea (Bakhtin, 1981). This is because dialogue involves the thinking processes occurring during the interaction between utterances (Renshaw, 2004). Along this line, Paulo Freire had a similar opinion. For him, dialogue is not about mere interactive exchanges between people. More importantly to him, it is about discourse being formed on the basis of equality, respect and identity, with the considerations of broader cultural and historical aspects (Renshaw, 2004). In other words, students' background and knowledge should be treated as a legitimate input to and a driving force of classroom discourse.

Paulo Freire in his dialogue with Ira Shor talked about liberatory education. For him, classroom interaction should not condone authoritative discourse, especially on the teacher's part. In his vision, teachers although usually have more intellectual experience (Shor & Freire, 1987) when going into discussion with students, are not the ultimate knower who functions merely to authoritatively teach. This study agrees

with the Freirean perspective that a teacher should hold the following position, in Freire's words:

> I am not the kind of educator who owns the objects I study with the students. I am extremely interested in the object for study. They stimulate my curiosity and I bring this enthusiasm to the students. Then, both of us can illuminate the object together. (Shor & Freire, 1987, pp. 15)

It is through this openness of the teacher that learning has an un-authoritative character and this is one essential teacher attribute which the present study will associate with dialogic teachers and dialogic classroom discourse. What this study perceives is that to invite genuine open exchanges of ideas and reasoning during questioning, the teacher's social authority and power in the classroom should be neither imposing nor dogmatic.

Views which Bakhtin (1984) called idealism, Nystrand (1997), objectivism, and Wells (1999a), empiricism, will hardly facilitate dialogic classroom discourse. These concepts are broadly about viewing knowledge as being given and independent of students (Yuksel, 2009). Classroom discourse becomes monologic when knowledge is treated as "a finished product, authoritative and indisputable" (Wells, 2006, p. 173), as something to be passed down to students.

Abandoning the traditional, monologic notion of education in which knowledge is transferred "statically, as a fixed possession of the teacher", dialogue-education seals the teacher and students "in the joint act of knowing and re-knowing the object of study" (Shor & Freire, 1987, p. 14). Dialogue is essential "where the exchange, acquisition and refinement of meaning is what education is centrally about" (Alexander, 2005, p. 23).

In line with Bakhtin's logic, knowledge evolves and is collaboratively constructed rather than being static and didactically transmitted. In language

learning, Bakhtin's theory of language opposes "an understanding of language as a set of closed, abstract systems of normative forms" (p. 4); his theory, most importantly, emphasizes function of language rather than its grammatical structures (Yuksel, 2009). The learning of language forms cannot be separated from the learning of language use because language learning is not about acquiring decontextualized forms and functions; instead language develops with thinking and this enables students to engage in dialogue with diversified voices using their own voice to enrich understanding (Hall et al., 2005).

Lotman's (1988) discussion of two important functions of a text bears similar ideology to dialogism and monologism. According to him, one function is "to convey meanings adequately" and the other is "to generate new meanings" (Lotman, 1988, p. 34). Here, the former implies monologism, in which "the text has the maximum degree of univocality" (p. 34), ensuring "that a message will be adequately received in a system of communication" and that "a common memory for the group" is provided (p. 35). In other words, the text becomes "a passive link in conveying some constant information between input (sender) and output (receiver)" (p. 36). Monologism is "authoritative, not open to questions or alternative perspectives; that is to say, it resists dialogue" (Wells, 2006, p. 169). On the other hand, the latter corresponds with Bakhtin's notion of dialogism (Wertsch & Smolka, 1993) and Freire's dialogue-education, as it treats a text as a thinking device whose function is to generate new meanings (Lotman, 1988). For Lotman (1988) information may differ at input and at output, and these occurrences are in fact a norm. To him, dialogism stimulates conflicts and thinking. Therefore in contrast to monologism, dialogism embraces discussion brewed from the meeting of varying thoughts.

Consequently, conceptualized in the context of this study, dialogic classroom discourse basically authorizes student autonomy and prizes students' own comprehension of their daily and life experiences when engaging in discussion in the classroom. The vision of instruction is one where teachers and students are actively involved in a cyclical process of negotiation and construction of knowledge (Lotman, 1988; Lyle, 2008; Shor & Freire, 1987). The teacher does not by tradition possess the authority in the classroom and appropriate power shifts in teacher-student relationship are deemed healthy to enhance thinking and learning processes (Shor & Freire, 1987). The teacher, instead of being restricted to instructing and correcting students, is supposed to facilitate students' thinking and meaning-making. Students, instead of being confined to only receiving and absorbing information from the teacher, are expected to contribute meaningfully to knowledge construction. This is largely because knowledge is treated as something to be jointly constructed among participants in the classroom, rather than as something to be passed around unchanged (Bakhtin, 1984; Nystrand, 1997; Wells, 2006).

Dialogic approaches to teaching and learning. There has been a lively interest in dialogic approaches to teaching and learning (Renshaw, 2004), mainly for "the educative potential of teacher-pupil interaction which enables students to play an active part in shaping the agenda of classroom discourse" (Skidmore & Gallagher, 2005, p. 1). Some of the many contemporary studies include dialogic instruction (Nystrand, 1997), dialogic inquiry (Wells, 1999a), dialogic pedagogy (Skidmore, 2000) and dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2005). Though adorned with different labels, they basically hold the same aspiration in education: to provide "supportive and substantive opportunities for engaged talk with content – to explore, challenge,

reconsider, and extend ideas in ways that enhance student learning" (Boyd & Markarian, 2011, p. 519).

Martin Nystrand's work was one of the first prominent attempts in exploring Bakhtin's theory of dialogism in language learning in the classroom (Skidmore & Gallagher, 2005). Nystrand (1997) demonstrated that a teacher's stance (dialogic or monologic) as projected in his/her patterns of instruction and questioning in specific, can influence student learning. He arrived at the conclusion that dialogic instruction (use of discussion, authentic questions, uptake and high-level evaluation) has a strong, positive effect on student achievement. Also, Nystrand and Gamoran (1991) presented empirical results that there was a strong and statistically significant association between student achievement and increase of incorporation of student voice into classroom discussion. In other words, students whose ideas and past knowledge were responded to by the teacher during classroom discussion did better than students who had to meekly follow what the teacher decided to be mastered during instruction (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991). Therefore using questioning, student learning can be enhanced if teachers adopt a dialogic stance in encouraging student thinking, taking students' contribution seriously, and treating students as "active epistemic agents, i.e. participants in the production of their own knowledge" (Skidmore & Gallagher, 2005).

Alexander (2005) in his book shared evidence obtained from projects which put into practice dialogic teaching in the classroom. In those projects, positive results were obtained where student talk was extended and accompanied with more confidence. Teachers and students were together building on questions and answers in the negotiation of meaning. Interestingly, even the usual quiet or less able students became more participative within the setting of a dialogic environment in the

classroom. Alexander (2005) emphasized that what students say may probably matter more than what the teacher says. This applies especially in language classrooms where student output ought to be given due attention in order to enhance their use of language.

Furthermore, Reznitskaya (2012) gathered from various studies that dialogic classroom discourse brings about "improved reasoning in new contexts, deeper contextual understanding, increased referential comprehension of text, and enhanced quality of argumentative writing" (p. 449). As studies have documented gains in student outcomes following dialogic approaches to teaching and learning, teachers' questioning practices should be geared towards the "internalization of intellectual competencies that underlie the development of disciplinary knowledge" rather than the "acquisition of established facts" (Reznitskaya, 2012, p. 448).

Nystrand et al., (2003) reviewed that "in all classes, the most common purpose of classroom discourse was to recall and display assigned information, to report on what was already known" (p. 139). This situation resonates with classroom discourse in Malaysian classrooms (MOE Malaysia, 2012). Learning has largely become premised on the elicitation of right, intact answers (Skidmore, 2000), rather than on the construction of understandings through reasoning and justification. "Even when 'discussion' does occur, it is most frequently undertaken to ensure that students have received the information correctly" (Wells, 2006, p. 173); a statement in coherence with the finding by Nystrand and colleagues in 2003 when it was found that there was "little discussion in any classes in the sense of an open and in-depth exchange of ideas" (p. 178) and what teachers called discussion was mere question-answer discussion which resembled recitation. In secondary English language classrooms, Tsui (1985) reported the dominance of teacher questions and a teacher-

centred IRF pattern governing classroom interaction where answers seemed to be predetermined by teachers, and students' opinions, feelings and personal experience when responding to teacher questions were seldom given attention. Most of the time, teachers evaluated student responses as right or wrong, and when discourse was interrupted by students' inability to provide the wanted answer, teachers re-asked the same question to another student without reacting to the unwanted answer (Tsui, 1985). Seemingly, the development of student thinking was secondary to the elicitation of the wanted answer.

Importantly, these educational scenarios illustrate the limiting effects which monologicality has on students' thinking and language use in the classroom (Ali S. Hasan, 2006; Ly Ngoc Khanh Pham & M. Obaidul Hamid, 2013), hence the importance to study the dialogicality or monologicality of classroom discourse. Such limiting interactional pattern has been argued to severely disrupt student thinking and drown out student voice by hindering students from talking through their understandings, trying out their ideas, and using intellectually and practically complex language (Hall & Walsh, 2002).

Based on the notion of dialogism, this study has come to a conceptualization of the characteristics of dialogic classroom discourse and monologic classroom discourse. They are discussed in the following sub-sections.

Dialogic classroom discourse. Within dialogic classroom discourse, the mode of teaching and learning transcends the traditional giving-and-receiving approaches to facilitating-and-meaning-making approaches. Discussion and dialogue generally form the basic interactional mode in which students learn (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 1997). This is how teaching and learning processes in dialogic classrooms are always open to new interpretations, to novel discoveries. Both the

teacher and students, "instead of taking others' utterances as untransformable packages of information to be received … encouraged to take them as thinking devices, as a kind of raw material for generating new meanings" (Wertsch & Smolka, 1993, p. 89). Here, meanings and knowledge transpire from cycles of construction and reconstruction of understandings, not only within individual students but also from the interaction between the teacher and students, and among students (Shor & Freire, 1987). Meanings and knowledge emerge from interaction of voices (Nystrand, 1997) and they are not simply born or to be found inside the head of an individual (Bakhtin, 1984).

In a dialogic setting, the authority in the classroom is shared between two forces; one the teacher, one the students. Increased student talk and consistent give-and-take relationships are characteristics of dialogic classrooms (Skidmore, 2000; Yuksel, 2009). "In an ideal dialogic learning environment … teachers treat students as potential sources of knowledge and opinion, and in doing so complicate expert-novice hierarchies" (Nystrand et al., 2003, p. 140). Therefore, teachers do not necessarily command full control over the content or the form of discourse (Reznitskaya, 2012); this responsibility should be shared among classroom participants with the teacher facilitating student learning. This is based on the premise that other than teachers, students are and can be a valid source of knowledge which drives their own learning processes (Nystrand, 2004; Reznitskaya, 2012).

Based on this premise, during questioning the teacher engages students in meaningful construction of knowledge, rather than transmits sets of intact information to students. Teachers are the one responsible for making available dialogic practices to their students in order to stimulate their thinking and engage them in the processes of knowledge building (Wells, 1993, 1999b). Teachers with a

dialogic stance listen to students' contribution in the classroom, rather than make students listen to what teachers have to teach all the time (Boyd & Markarian, 2011). In many ways, teachers are the ones who provide support to maintain students' active role in learning. They "moderate, direct discussion, probe, foresee, and analyze the implications of student response" (Yuksel, 2009, p. 13). They channel students' attention to their own and others' quality of reasoning before arriving at a consensus during discussion. In essence, they engage students in "a collaborative deliberation of complex questions" (p. 446) and support the development of students' thinking (Reznitskaya, 2012).

Within dialogic classroom discourse, student authority and student initiative are encouraged in taking on key responsibilities in question-answer sequences during discussion (Shor & Freire, 1987); for instance, students manage turns in discourse, ask questions, review each other's answers, introduce new topics and suggest procedural changes (Reznitskaya, 2012). This is because students' role is not only to answer questions but also to contribute questions and ideas to discussions (Yuksel, 2009). Students together with teachers are coinquirers (Reznitskaya, 2012). Here, students' points of view are valued and their opinions actually count; student voice becomes of immense importance. Consequently students become active contributors to elaborated talk in the classroom. Using their prior knowledge, personal experiences, and accumulated understandings, students engage in higher cognitive processes and make meaningful conceptual connections with new knowledge. Through active construction of knowledge, students think and create meanings collaboratively with one another within classroom discourse (Skidmore, 2000). Students learn when they "listen to and react to each other's positions and

justifications and 'take up' the preceding contribution to further develop the group's reasoning" (Reznitskaya, 2012, p. 448).

Monologic classroom discourse. Within monologic classroom discourse, classroom interaction is often teacher-dominated (Nystrand, 1997; Skidmore, 2000), cementing a transmission model of learning in classrooms (Lyle, 2008). The mode of teaching relies predominantly on giving-and-receiving approaches where learning in a monologic classroom is usually benchmarked on how well students unquestioningly absorb and store information, and demonstrate high information-retrieval ability whenever required. Ultimately, this deprives students of the opportunities to develop conceptual awareness and make meaningful connections between what they already know and what they are learning (Boyd & Markarian, 2011). In monologic classrooms, questioning is largely used to test students' mastery of content knowledge and learning is often detached from students' own knowledge and personal interpretations.

Mishler (1975a, 1975b, 1978) discussed the role relationships in the classroom by looking at the authority and power between the teacher and students using examples where the teacher discourages student questions or where the teacher's reaction move drowns student voice (as cited in Carlsen, 1991). This is largely because teachers are often treated as the major source of valued knowledge, seldom the student (Nystrand, 1997). Situations where the teacher or the textbook rules classroom interaction tend to lead to less proactivity and productivity on students' part as there is little opportunity or need for them to use the target language or to contribute meaningfully to discussion.

The teacher plays the important role of an expert (Hall & Walsh, 2002). Consequently, teachers decide, initiate, and lead topics of discussion; they, without

taking into consideration students' views, dictate what students need to and need not know (Nystrand, 1997). The teacher controls the goals of classroom discourse (Lyle, 2008) where questioning is generally used to relay to students content deemed important by the curriculum and the teacher himself/herself. Somehow, teachers automatically assume their authority through a stationary hierarchical system in the classroom; the teacher is always there as someone who knows it all and students are always destitute of instruction and correction (Bakhtin, 1984). Students are somehow stationed at a default status of being in need to be filled up with information – the banking method (Freire, 1970) – with the assumption that they do not know much and what they know do not have any added value for formal learning. As a result, questioning in the classroom lacks meaningful conversational turns as they are mostly dominated by teacher questions and teacher talk.

What students basically do on a daily basis during questioning within monologic classroom discourse is to respond to the teacher's questions, listen to the teacher, and acquire transmitted information. Most of the time students are figuring out the pre-set meanings or answers in the teacher's mind (Nystrand, 1997). This is succeeded by students' comprehension, retainment, and application of the taught knowledge, just like how the teacher had explained. With the conventional IRF/IRE recitation format prevalent in classrooms, students' responsibility has been reduced to the acquiring and reproducing the acquired knowledge, with minimal cognitive challenge involved. Students are mostly expected to respond, less likely to contribute (Yuksel, 2009). Instead of being the nucleus of learning, students assume a minor and supporting role during classroom interaction (Nystrand, 1997). Accordingly, students are considered to have learned well when they could remember flawlessly taught content in recitation contexts (Nystrand, 1997).

In the context of language learning, monologic classrooms will be detrimental to student development as there will be little meaningful communicative use of the language and student talk in terms of its quality and quantity will be negatively affected. As posited by Chaudron (1993), poor, monologic questioning practices in the classroom can be harmful to language learning (as cited in in Kao et al., 2011).

All said and done, the intention is not about propelling dialogic teaching and learning approaches as domineering teaching practices but attending to the concern about the insignificant existence of dialogic approaches in classrooms (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand et al., 2003). In fact for the best results, "instruction often falls somewhere between these two extremes of recitation on the one hand and discussion on the other" (Nystrand, 1997, p. 7). And of utmost importance are the underpinnings of the instruction (Cox, 2011). Monologic approaches of teaching and learning can be useful at certain points of a lesson, in the sense that information learnt would form a ready knowledge base (Cox, 2011; Wells & Arauz, 2006). But Cox (2011) warned that "… in itself, the material will remain inert and of limited use unless [students] … engage with it dialogically to make sense of it and to develop their own perspectives on it" (p. 107). In other words, monologic approaches of teaching and learning may be necessary, but on their own, they would not be adequate (Wells & Arauz, 2006); they would only be most useful and meaningful when used with dialogic purposes and principles (Cox, 2011). These purposes and principles of teachers are highly likely to be the driver of their pedagogical decisions (Hardman & Norhaslynda A-Rahman, 2014; Mercer, 2010) in relation to the overall culture of questioning and classroom discourse (Alexander, 2000).

Conclusion

In this chapter, based on the Malaysian context, an overview of English Language Teaching (ELT) as well as research on teachers' questioning practices is provided. The three dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) examined in this study are reviewed respectively. Then, the conception of dialogism is elaborated in the context of teaching and learning, and questioning. Finally, dialogic classroom discourse and monologic classroom discourse are delineated in relation to their characteristics. In the next chapter, the methodology of this study is discussed.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

This study was driven by two research questions with the focus on, first, teachers' questioning practices by looking at three dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves), and second, the interplay between these dimensions in regard to how classroom discourse is influenced.

In the present study, a random sampling of 17 national secondary schools out of almost 2000 national secondary schools in Malaysia was done. 31 teachers teaching Form One English Language in these randomly selected schools became the main focus of this study and their lessons were recorded for analysis.

It is worth noting that the data used in this study was part of a larger research project; one which was committed to capturing a snapshot of salient educational practices in Malaysian classrooms. In the Malaysian context, data on educational practices have mostly been generated from smaller-scale or single-site studies; larger-scale studies to describe the big picture are harder to come by. As the large study was set up to provide an empirical account of what was going on in Malaysian classrooms in respect to various subjects and teaching aspects, this study is focused on contributing to the big picture of teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse in English language classrooms. A subset (31 lessons) of the complete data (91 lessons) for the English Language subject was examined in this study.

The details of the research design of this study are presented in the next section. In the subsequent sections, the sampling, data collection, data analysis, and issues of validity and reliability of this study are discussed.

Research Design

A video study design was used to guide the data collection and data analysis of this study. According to Janik et al. (2009b), video studies are "research of educational reality based on analysis of video recordings" (p. 7). Generally, video data which is context-rich and durable, and which allows for in-depth, iterative, and off-site analysis has been valuable for educational research and especially this study.

Following recent developments in video technology, one of the very first breakthroughs in video study is the TIMSS 1995 Videotape Classroom Study – a large-scale, survey-type comparative study done on teaching practices (Janik et al., 2009b; Stigler, Gonzales, Kawanaka, Knoll & Serrano, 1999). The video method has also been continuously developed and demonstrated by several large-scale studies such as the TIMSS 1999 Video Study (Hiebert et al., 2003; Roth et al., 2006), the IPN Video Study (Seidel et al., 2006 as cited in Janik et al., 2009b; Seidel & Prenzel, 2006) and the DESI Study (Klieme et al., 2006 as cited in Janik et al., 2009b; Nold, n.d.) in Germany, and the CPV Video Study in Czech Republic (Najvar, Janik, Janikova, Hubelova & Najvarova, 2009a; Najvar et al., 2009b; Janik et al., 2006 as cited in Janik et al., 2009b). In particular reference to studies on classroom discourse/interaction/communication, some earlier prominent ones which used the video method in researching classroom behaviours were Bellack et al. (1966), Cazden (1988), and Mehan (1979).

All these studies embarked on different research focus and perspective in studying teacher and classroom practices, nevertheless, they were first and foremost committed to capturing what was going on in daily lessons in classrooms, with the aim to understand and contribute to the betterment of teaching and learning.

This was the very stand upon which the research objective and questions of the present study were framed, in relation to questioning practices and classroom discourse. With the aim of investigating teacher practice in terms of questioning practices, this study focuses on question-answer exchanges in classroom discourse (Nystrand, 1997). The adoption of a video study design in the context of this study is further explained in the following sub-section.

Why a video study design for the present study? A video study design has benefited the present study in the sense that classroom interactions were captured within rich situational contexts (Janik et al., 2009b). In this regard, the researcher was afforded a window to genuine questioning behaviours in classrooms without the restrictions of time and space. This is important as the researcher was able to observe and study teachers' questioning practices the way they usually were during everyday lessons.

This study was also able to take advantage of a primary benefit of a video study, i.e. reconstruct teaching patterns as well as the variability of the patterns, as shown possible by findings from Pauli and Reusser (2003) (as cited in Seidel & Prenzel, 2006). Specifically in the context of Malaysian Form One English language classrooms where research on questioning at the broader level has been rare, this study aims to reconstruct and understand the patterns of teachers' questioning practices in the classroom, and to examine how these practices influence classroom discourse. This is important as commonalities and differences across these practices can be identified (Roth, 2009a), first to have a better conception and gauge of what is actually happening in classrooms in terms of questioning and discoursing, and then to pave way for reflection and improvement of teacher practice.

This is the focus of this study: to contribute to the understanding of teachers' questioning practices within classroom discourse to inform educational discussion and development. Importantly, this understanding is substantiated with classroom evidences from the video data obtained to show explicit examples of teachers' questioning practices in terms of types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves, and how the interplay between these dimensions influence classroom discourse. Considering the context of this study especially its objective and focus of research, the advantages of collecting and analyzing video data over other sources of data for this study are discussed as follows.

Comparing with self-report methods and interviews. Compared with self-report methods such as surveys, logs, or journals, and with interviews, what would work more appropriately to achieve the objective of this study would be the examination of raw and firsthand classroom data. And video data is a prime source of such data.

Video data is considered raw (Fischer & Neumann, 2012) in the sense that data on teacher practice is obtained in the classroom, during the lesson, where instruction is naturally taking place. In comparison, data from self-report methods and interviews is usually obtained from a designated location after the lesson had ended. The objective of this study necessitated that teachers' questioning practices be captured in the classroom setting to cater to an analysis which is grounded in contextual information abound.

In this study, video data is considered firsthand as the researcher was afforded the privilege of a direct encounter with teachers' questioning practices when examining video recordings. Again in comparison, data from self-report methods and interviews would usually induce a secondhand, processed account of teachers'

perceived reality of their questioning practices. To achieve the objective of this study which is to investigate classroom reality in terms of questioning and classroom discourse, a firsthand or an outsider view is essential because teachers themselves may have become too accustomed to their own questioning practices to be able to provide details of their questioning practices to address the research questions of this study (Merriam, 2009). Ulewicz and Beatty (2001) quoted Frederick Erickson during a workshop on "The Uses of Video in International Education Studies", that teachers "can only report very globally their recollections about the 'how' of classroom practice" (p. 8). Hence, secondhand accounts of teachers' questioning practices may be insufficient to depict classroom reality, for it may be limited to only teachers' espoused practice. In other words, teachers could be reporting what they had planned to do, what they thought they did, or what they thought they should have done, while overlooking unanticipated details outside their conscious control (Stigler et al., 1999).

As reported, James Hiebert, Catherine Lewis, and Frederick Erickson argued that compared with self-report methods and interviews, video recordings can capture more of what happens in classrooms (Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001). In the context of this study therefore, video recordings were more likely than self-report methods and interviews to yield more valid information on teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse (Givvin, Hiebert, Jacobs, Hollingsworth, & Gallimore, 2005).

Comparing with live observation. For this study, to a certain degree, the live observation method could have been used to collect data on teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse. However, there were some concerns in doing live observation in classrooms and these concerns can actually be minimized by recording

teachers' lessons, hence leading to the obtainment of video recordings for analysis in the present study.

If this study were to employ the live observation method, one major challenge which the researcher would face is to observe intently with great concentration, to remember details as much as possible, and to record observations as explicit as possible, all at the same time (Merriam, 2009). This can be seriously disadvantageous as "teaching is a complex process and humans can attend to a limited amount of information at any one time" (Roth, 2009a, p. 25). This means that it would be hardly possible for the researcher to be able to observe and code on site most of teachers' questioning behaviours and processes happening in the classroom, be them anticipated or unanticipated. The researcher may risk crucial occurrences (data) being missed out as the researcher is occupied with coding on the scene (Roth, 2009a). This is one reason "significant data reduction occurs on the spot when observers code or take notes" (Brophy, 2006, p. 755).

This concern, in the present study was greatly reduced as the data was collected and stored for subsequent analysis. With more flexibility, the researcher could access off-site video recordings which documented questioning behaviours in minute and second detail. It particularly helped that video recordings can be replayed and slowed down for numerous times (Jacobs, Kawanaka, & Stigler, 1999) so that careful observations, coding, and analysis can be done when viewing the video recordings. Hence, the video study approach enabled the present study to better capture the complexity of questioning practices in various discourse contexts (Najvar et al., 2009b).

Another concern of doing live observation in the classroom is the unavailability of verification of field notes or coded observations against the practice

itself, thus the data collected may likely be subject to further validity and reliability concerns (Jacobs et al., 1999). This concern was also voiced by Skidmore (2005) as he commented that "the original discourse which was spoken cannot be reconstructed; rather we have a global summary of the tendencies in the data" (p. 2) and there is almost no way the original discourse can be revisited and reexamined for further verification.

In this study, based on the video recordings obtained, the original discourse can be revisited and reconstructed from the video data, thus reducing validity and reliability concerns. The researcher could readily return to the video recordings for confirmation purposes or for deeper investigation after the initial coding or analysis was carried out (Janik et al., 2009b).

In general, video studies have been useful in studying teacher practice to inform educational research and spur improvement efforts (Roth, 2009a). For example, as video data is grounded in practice, it will be of immediate practical potential especially for teachers' reflection purposes and professional development (Stigler et al., 1999). With the discussion above, a video study design was opted as the most appropriate for the present study.

Sampling

In terms of sampling, this study focused on national secondary schools, where about 88 percent of the Malaysian secondary school students go to (MOE Malaysia, 2012). As this study aims to provide the big picture of teachers' questioning practices in secondary English language classrooms in Malaysia, a representative sample of national secondary schools was necessary (Hiebert, 1999 as cited in Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001).

To obtain a representative sample of Malaysian national secondary schools, random sampling was used, as done by the IPN Video Study (Bruckmann et al., 2007) and the DESI study (Leibniz Education Research Network, n.d.; Nold, n.d.) to investigate teaching patterns at the national level. Simple random sampling offers one of the best chances to obtain a representative sample (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). In this study, random sampling of schools was done based on the principle that the selection of the sample from the population was decided entirely by chance, that the researcher or any other factor had no influence on the selection of schools (Denscombe, 2010). Thus, random sampling helped reduce bias in sample selection and ensured that a representative sample of Malaysian national secondary schools was obtained with every school in the population having an equal and independent chance of being selected for this study (Denscombe, 2010; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007).

A random list of schools was generated in Excel from the comprehensive list of 1,963 national secondary schools provided by the Malaysian Ministry of Education. Following this list, schools were approached and invited to participate in this study. The target was to get a minimum of 30 teachers teaching Form One English Language from these randomly sampled schools as the participants. Eventually 17 schools formed the sample when 31 teachers consented to participate in this study. Subsequently, 31 video recordings of lessons from 31 teachers were analyzed in this study.

Ideally, random sampling would have been done from a comprehensive list of teachers teaching Form One English Language in Malaysian classrooms. Several attempts were made to request this list from the Malaysian Ministry of Education but to no avail. Another concern was that even if this list was made available by the

Malaysian Ministry of Education, the list would have comprised teachers whose major was the English language but these teachers may not be currently teaching this subject or they may be teaching multiple levels (from Form One till Form Six classes). The list of teachers teaching which subject and which level is usually maintained at the school level and it can be quite fluid over time. Keeping this in mind and considering the unavailability of this list at the time of the study, eventually, random sampling was done on schools.

Participation in this study was absolutely voluntary. At any time, when a school declined participation upon approach, the next school in the randomized list was selected and invited to participate in the study. All teachers teaching Form One English Language in the randomly selected schools were invited to participate in the study. No additional criteria were deemed necessary in the selection of participants as long as the teachers were teaching the subject English Language at the Form One level. In all participating schools, each teacher's participation was subject to individual consent.

In Malaysia, Form One marks the beginning of a significant phase of schooling as it is the transitional stage from primary to secondary school (Adams et al., 1997). Research findings based on this sample in the present study could contribute as a benchmark for future comparative and longitudinal studies (Foy & Joncas, 2000).

Number of schools and teachers sampled. There is not any definite formula or equation available for one best sample size as different video studies operate from different conceptualization and purpose. As pointed out by Jewitt (2012), there is no specific right amount of video data to be collected or analyzed. This is because "research studies with a variety of sizes, goals, and methodologies

can benefit from the application of video technology in important ways that have the potential to stimulate progress in both methodological and substantive issues" (Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001, p. 25). In this regard, the decision on the sample size of this study was thus guided by two main criteria: the research objective of this study (and the approach to analysis) and the pragmatic concerns of time and resources (Denscombe, 2010; Jewitt, 2012; Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001).

First, as this study intends to look into teachers' questioning practices in English language classrooms across Malaysian national secondary schools, one priority of sampling was to obtain a sample that was representative of the school population. Stigler et al. (1999) argued that education systems with a national curriculum tend to have lower variability between teachers' classroom practice. This argument is supported by Givvin et al. (2005) when they presented evidence for national patterns of teaching. From a small sample size of 50 lessons from 50 schools (Givvin et al., 2005; Stigler et al., 1999) out of the school population of 11,292 (Adams et al., 1997), the strongest national patterns of teaching emerged in Japan which largely adheres to a national curriculum. National-level policies and shared curricula were proposed as sources of convergence in teaching which may lead to national patterns of teaching (Givvin et al., 2005; Stigler et al., 1999). In other words, research studying patterns of teacher practice in highly centralized education systems (e.g. Malaysia) may not necessarily need very large samples (Stigler et al., 1999).

In this regard, Malaysia has a centralized education system (Sander et al., 2013). In terms of centralized curriculum and education policies, all national secondary schools adhere to a national curriculum prescribed and monitored by the Malaysian Ministry of Education (Attorney General's Chambers, 2012) where all national education policies are based on the National Education Philosophy (MOE

Malaysia, 2015a; MOE Malaysia, 2015b). Specifically in the context of the subject

English Language, all national secondary schools adhere to the syllabus prescribed in

the Curriculum Specifications document (MOE Malaysia, 2003). In terms of

centralized examination, English Language is a compulsory subject in the national

examination – Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM) – at the end of secondary

school (MOE Malaysia, 2012). Moreover, in terms of teacher education and planning

in the country, all teacher training programmes are systematically overseen by the

Teacher Education Division (TED) within the Malaysian Ministry of Education

(Hazri Jamil, Nordin Abd. Razak, Reena Raju, & Abdul Rashid Mohamed, 2011).

With the emphasis of national education aspirations at the core of teaching

and learning throughout a centralized system, teaching practices and procedures tend

to develop parallel with the "national cultural beliefs, expectations, and values"

(Givvin et al., 2005, p. 312) and this leads to lower variability between teachers'

classroom practice. As discussed, an education system which is such highly

centralized, like the one in Malaysia (Sander et al., 2013), can be examined for

patterns of teachers' questioning practices using a moderately smaller, representative

sample. Patterns of interaction and instruction in classrooms have been examined and

developed based on similar, smaller sample sizes, through detailed analysis on video

data to unfold complex teaching and learning processes to inform discussions on

improving teaching and learning (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Bruckmann et

al., 2007; Klette, 2016; Klette & Odegaard, 2016).

With the sample, the approach to analysis adopted in this study was to

examine classroom discourse on a turn-by-turn basis, focusing on teachers'

questioning practices in terms of each dimension of questioning (i.e. types of

questions, wait time, and reaction moves) and on the interplay between these

dimensions in relation to the quality of classroom discourse. As questions generally make up a large part of classroom discourse (Nystrand, 1997), this line-by-line close analysis would yield enriched findings on teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse.

Second, the researcher was aware that the research objective of this study should be achieved within the resources available (Denscombe, 2010; Jewitt, 2012). For data collection, there were practical concerns such as budget and time as video data was obtained from various national secondary schools in different states across Malaysia, including Peninsular Malaysia (i.e. Pulau Pinang, Perak, Selangor, Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Negeri Sembilan, Kelantan, and Pahang) and East Malaysia (i.e. Sabah and Sarawak). With the available budget and time, the period of data collection in each school was five school days and within these five days, three lessons (whenever possible) for each teacher who consented to participate in the study had to be recorded.

Based on the discussion above and bearing in mind that there is not any ideal sample size (Jewitt, 2012), in the present study, a sample of 31 teachers from 17 schools out of 1,963 national secondary schools was considered appropriate for the examination of teachers' questioning practices in secondary English language classrooms in Malaysia.

Number of lessons analyzed. Similar to the gauging of the number of schools and teachers to be sampled, the same applied when considering the number of lessons to be analyzed. In actuality, there is no prescription of a definite number as an answer to this question because adequacy of video data should be held accountable primarily by the research objective of a study. Some have argued for more and some for as few as one.

For researchers who recommended 'more', as many as 20-30 hours per teacher to study teacher practice was suggested (Brophy, 2006). As Praetorius, Pauli, Reusser, Rakoczy, and Klieme (2014) pointed out, researchers often asserted that this is largely due to the fact that lessons may vary from day to day, and more recorded lessons of a teacher may help reduce the risk of outlier cases which might showcase untypical teacher practice. In addition, field researchers may have the experience where their presence at the beginning of data collection generally elicits classroom behaviours which are more polite, formal, or guarded (Merriam, 2009); this may increase the possibility of outlier cases.

On the other hand, some studies investigating patterns of teaching had opted for the one-lesson-per-teacher strategy in capturing information about teacher practice, such as two large-scale video studies: the TIMMS 1995 Videotape Classroom Study (Stigler et al., 1999) and the TIMMS 1999 Video Study (Hiebert et al., 2003). In specific attention to researching teacher-student interaction, the finding by Seidel and Prenzel (2006) whereby stability was observed across lessons, lends support in strengthening the validity of this one-lesson-per-teacher strategy. Although Merriam (2009) warned of possible initial adjustments of teacher and student behaviours during recording of lessons, she and other researchers further contended that these adjustments are not likely to concern the core practice and are mostly temporary, because it is hardly likely that teachers and students would be able to behave too differently from the typical core for too long (Hiebert et al., 2003; Hoetker, 1968; Sedova et al., 2014). Crucially, as much as teacher practice may vary between lessons, "patterns of instructional behavior cannot be modified in the short-term and should be observable in every lesson", as reviewed by Praetorius et al.

(2014, p. 4). Thus, variability within practice may occur but they are somehow governed by a pattern where important similarities are being shared.

In the context of this study, just like how variability exists within a national pattern of teaching (Givvin et al., 2005), variability too exists within and forms the understanding of teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse. As discussed, patterns of teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse should be observable in each lesson; thus a one-lesson-per-teacher strategy was employed for this study.

Analyzing multiple lessons per teacher may be useful in establishing a more reliable representation of a teacher's practice across lessons, but this would only be most meaningful when the focus is on individual teachers (Hiebert et al., 2003; Praetorius et al., 2014; Seidel & Prenzel, 2006; Stigler et al., 1999). For example, this approach may better apply when the goal of study is to develop a teaching profile/description for each teacher or to make statements about the practice of an individual teacher (Praetorius et al., 2014). But this is not the intent of the present study. Rather, the focus of this study is to examine the broad patterns of questioning practices and classroom discourse of teachers in Malaysian English language classrooms (Hiebert et al., 2003; Praetorius et al., 2014; Stigler et al., 1999). Specifically, the research conclusions drawn from this study will focus on teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse in general, not about any individual teacher in particular. In the context of this study where the main attention is to provide a national-level picture of questioning and discoursing in classrooms, analyzing single lessons from teachers was deemed adequate in delivering to this goal (Hiebert et al., 2003; Praetorius et al., 2014; Stigler et al., 1999).

Consideration was also given to the time and labour intensity needed for the coding and analysis of all the video recordings obtained, and thus the complexity of the data (Jewitt, 2012) in arriving at the findings on teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse. In this regard, factors such as researcher saturation (Wray, Markovic, & Manderson, 2007) to avoid having the researcher drown in data while ensuring quality cognitive work in data analysis (Morse, 1993) was also taken into account.

Hence, in this study, one lesson per teacher was used in the examination of teachers' questioning practices. Nonetheless, with consideration to observer and equipment effects (refer to "Validity and Reliability"), whenever possible, three lessons were recorded for each teacher and only the last lesson was analyzed. Eventually, a total of 31 video recordings of lessons (about 1,514 minutes) were examined.

For this study, as it is not the intention to investigate the relation among lessons, teachers were asked to volunteer any three separate lessons to be recorded, whereby these lessons can be sequentially related or not. Each lesson is a session of teaching and learning and in this study lessons volunteered by teachers were either one-period (approximately 40 minutes) or two-period (approximately 80 minutes) lessons. The topic (content) of the lessons recorded was not specified as different teachers in different schools may teach even the same topic at slightly different times (Hiebert et al., 2003). It is worth noting that teacher-student interaction (including questioning practices) has been found to be stable across topics (Seidel & Prenzel, 2006).

Data Collection

An overview of the process of data collection of this study is as such in Figure 3.1. Approval to gain entry into research sites (schools) from gatekeepers was first sought from the Malaysian Ministry of Education and the State Education Departments. With the obtained approval, the randomly selected schools were then contacted and approached to obtain consent for data collection and to meet all teachers teaching Form One English Language. Each teacher who agreed to participate was required to sign a written consent form (Appendix A – Consent Form). For the purpose of this study, the consent form basically informed teachers of the purpose of the study, teachers' rights to participate and to withdraw at any time, teachers' confidentiality and anonymity, and the requirement of a target of three lessons to be recorded. The recording of lessons was then carried out.

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│      ┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐     │
│      │ Visiting schools and briefing teachers –          │     │
│      │ Obtaining informed consent                        │     │
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│          │     Recording lessons in classrooms     │          │
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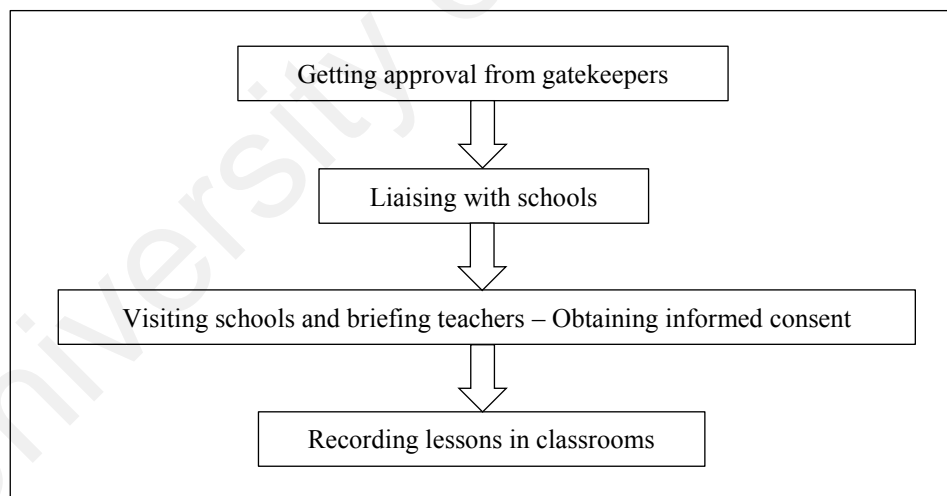
Figure 3.1. Overview of Data Collection

The period of data collection at each school was one school week (five school days). During the one week of data collection at each school, every teacher was recorded in intact classes for any three complete lessons. Eventually, one lesson per teacher was used for analysis (refer to "Number of Lessons Analyzed"). At the end of

data collection at each school, the participating school and teachers were presented with a certificate of appreciation.

Crucially, all teachers were explained to and assured that all data collected will only be used for research purposes and not as an evaluation procedure by the researcher, or any other third parties, to assess or judge any aspect of their classroom practice. It was important that teachers themselves understood well why they were involved in the study, what was expected of them (e.g. to deliver typical and not special lessons, to teach as they usually do), and what they could expect from the study (e.g. video recordings, certificate of appreciation).

Before recording began, based on teachers' timetable provided by schools, teachers were approached separately and asked to select three of their lessons which they preferred to be recorded; this was to ensure that they could undergo each recording session with minimal pressure and were at ease knowing beforehand when and where their lessons would be recorded. From time to time, good rapport and effective communication were maintained with teachers to deal with any problems faced before, during, or after each recording session.

In this study, for each to-be-recorded lesson, preparation work like setting up all video cameras was done immediately after the previous lesson had ended. This was to minimize obtrusion to the lesson to be recorded. The principle of starting and ending each recording with the bell ring was upheld. This was because each lesson needed to be recorded in its entirety, that video cameras were turned on at the beginning of the lesson and turned off only when the lesson was over, consistent with Stigler et al.'s (1999) recording procedure for the TIMSS 1995 Videotape Classroom Study.

Recording equipment. In this study, based on previous examples by the TIMSS 1999 Video Study (Hiebert et al., 2003), the IPN Video Study (Seidel, Dalehefte, & Meyer, 2005) and the CPV Video Study (Najvar et al., 2009b), the standardized two-video-camera procedure was employed: (1) teacher video camera – focused on the teacher; and (2) whole-class video camera (GoPro) – focused on classroom activities. The set-up of Video Camera 1 and Video Camera 2 is illustrated in Figure 3.2.
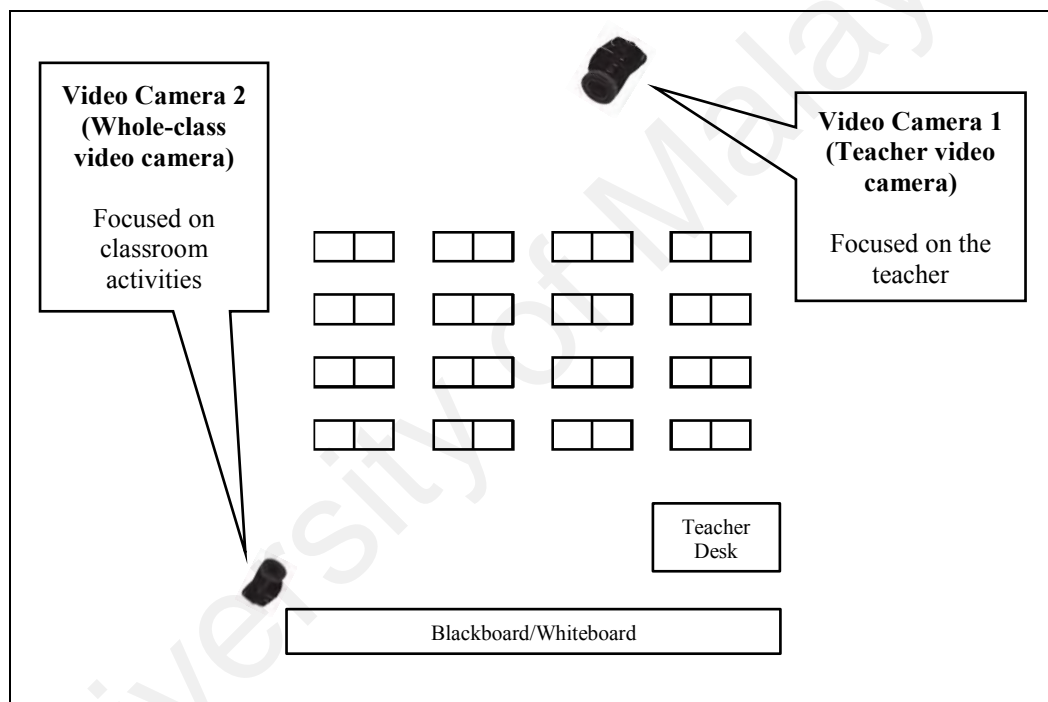
Figure 3.2. Set-up of Video Cameras

Video Camera 1 was set up at the back of the class, and focused on and followed the teacher to capture what was said and done by the teacher, as well as the teacher's interaction with students (Najvar et al., 2009b). This video camera provided the main video data and functioned on the premise that it captured from the perspective of an ideal student (Seidel et al., 2005; Stigler et al., 1999), in the sense that Video Camera 1 was always operated with the aim to "capture the experience of

a student who is paying attention to the lesson as it unfolds" (Stigler et al., 1999, p. 16). During a lesson, the focus of an ideal student is usually the teacher (Jacobs et al., 1999). In cases where students worked individually on a task, this video camera abode with the principle of focusing on and following the teacher to capture questioning behaviours in seatwork or small group settings.

Meanwhile, Video Camera 2 which captured video through a wide-angle lens to provide a frontal overview of the classroom (Seidel et al., 2005) was used to capture classroom activities to facilitate a better and more contextualized understanding of classroom questioning and discourse. In serving this purpose, this video camera was placed at the front of the class, fixed high and in the corner to capture the whole classroom scene (Derry, 2007).

In terms of audio data, both Video Camera 1 and Video Camera 2 had built-in audio recorder. Additionally, a portable audio recorder was worn by every teacher throughout each recorded lesson for better audio quality of the teacher's speech and interaction with students during questioning (Walpuski & Sumfleth, 2009). Eventually, all sources of video and audio data were combined into one video file for analysis.

Data Analysis

The video data obtained were analyzed and discussed to answer the two research questions of this study: (1) What are teachers' questioning practices in terms of three dimensions of questioning: types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves?; and (2) How does the interplay between these dimensions of questioning (identified in Research Question One) influence classroom discourse?

This study focuses on the content and context of questions (Chang, 2009; Hsu, 2001). Teacher questions were examined in the context of the lesson at the time of recording, bearing in mind Carlsen's (1991) proposition that research on questioning cannot neglect the fact that the meaning (content) of questions is dependent on their context in discourse. In other words, the focus should be on extended talk and not on individual utterances in isolation (Riggenback, 1999 as cited in Hsu, 2001). For the purpose of this study, only content-related discourses were coded for analysis.

One main challenge in analyzing video data is "how to manage the dense flow of data and information in a way that is both systematic and transparent and at the same time pay attention to the richness of the gathered data" (Klette, 2009, p. 67). To this, strategies for complexity reduction are important; basically criteria for conceptual and analytical focus (e.g. research focus, theoretical perspective, conceptual framework, coding categories) were made explicit to increase the transparency of analysis done (Klette, 2009).

Coding in particular was an important component of analysis in this study, hence the need to ensure quality coding procedures for a rigorous video analysis (Fischer & Neumann, 2005). As Klette (200) reminded, the quality of coding is largely dependent on the size of video data and the coder (i.e. the researcher). With respect to the size of data, about 1,514 minutes of video recordings of lessons were coded and analyzed. All lessons were coded on a second-per-second basis; thus each question, each wait time period, and each reaction move was accounted for. As for the coder, in the context of this study, the researcher was primarily guided by the research focus to examine questioning and classroom discourse, the theoretical perspective of dialogism, a conceptual framework (refer to "Conceptual

Framework"), the use of content unit as the unit of analysis (refer to "Unit of Analysis: Content Unit"), and the use of a coding framework (refer to Figure 3.3).

Importantly, the three coding categories (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) were developed and refined through an iterative process which took into consideration the emergent data, the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of this study, as well as past research (Alexander, 2005; Good & Brophy, 2000; Long & Sato, 1983; Nystrand, 1997; Rowe, 1974; Tobin, 1987; Wu, 1993; Yang, 2010). In the context of this study, the use of the coding categories (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) in the coding framework served at least three functions (Klette, 2009): (1) to direct research focus on the three important dimensions of questioning; (2) to serve as analytical lenses and viewpoints (i.e. dialogism/monologism) in observing and analyzing questioning practices and classroom discourse; and (3) to organize findings and contribute to the knowledge well of the field of questioning and classroom discourse.

The final version of the framework guiding the coding and analysis of the data is summarized in Figure 3.3.

CODING FRAMEWORK		
(1) Types of Questions	**(2) Wait Time**	**(3) Reaction Moves**
(i) Display Questions (ii) Referential Questions (iii) Rhetorical Questions	(i) 0.1-0.9s (ii) 1.0-1.9s (iii) 2.0-2.9s (iv) 3.0-3.9s (v) 4.0-4.9s (vi) 5.0-5.9s (vii) 6.0-6.9s (viii) 7.0-7.9s (ix) 8.0-8.9s (x) 9.0-9.9s (xi) 10.0-10.9s, etc.	(i) Probe (ii) Prompt (iii) Redirect (iv) Reinitiate (v) Nudge (vi) Nominate (vii) Wait out/Ignore (viii) Give Answer (ix) Abandon (x) Impose

Figure 3.3. Coding Framework

Further definition and examples of the items in this coding framework based on the context of this study are provided in "Definition of Terms" and Chapter 4: Findings.

Phases of data analysis.   In total, 31 video recordings of lessons were analyzed with coding being done in NVivo 10. Before coding and analysis began, the video and audio files and coding framework were checked, organized, and prepared in the software.

There were six main phases of data analysis towards obtaining the findings of this study. Generally in all phases, the researcher made notes, marked salient content units, and refined coding and the coding framework as necessary. The phases and the key analysis procedures done in each phase are presented as follows.

Phase 1: Identify and code all content units, then code each content unit in detail (repeat for every video recording). For every video recording, content units were first identified and coded; each content unit was then thoroughly coded. This process was repeated for all video recordings. Coding was done based on the coding framework developed by the researcher from past research as well as in accordance to the data. This would help account for "sophisticated analyses of both planned and unplanned observations" (Jacobs et al., 1999, p. 721).

The coding framework was especially important in this phase of analysis as it greatly helped the researcher understand and make sense of the massive volume of video data. The development of a coding system facilitated a more systematic examination of teaching patterns (Seidel et al., 2007). Therefore, the use of categories in the coding framework actually provided a systematic way (Creswell, 2009) for more detailed analysis of the complex and rich video data of this study (Kirchhoff & Klippel, 2014).

In this first phase of analysis, as salient content units were being marked for further examination in later phases, the saliency of content units depended largely on the dialogicality or monologicality of the discourse, in reference to the three key features of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Classroom Discourse") – student thinking and student voice, interactions of multi-voices, and students' influence on classroom discourse. The researcher began by paying attention to content units which contained typical and atypical teachers' questioning practices of both dialogic and monologic discourses. Generally, dialogic classroom discourse is characterized by the use of questions which stimulate more genuine, elaborated, or reasoned student responses (usually referential questions) (Brock, 1986; Yang, 2010), the use of longer and/or more frequent wait time for students to think and talk (Alexander, 2005; Rowe, 1974; Tobin, 1986), and the use of reaction moves which take into account student responses and invite further discussion (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 1997). On the contrary, monologic classroom discourse is typically characterized by the dominance of display questions (Nystrand et al., 2003; Skidmore, 2000), the use of little or no wait time for students to think and talk (Alexander, 2005; Rowe, 1974; Tobin, 1986), and the absence of reaction moves which encourage or follow up student responses (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 1997). Thus, during coding, these characteristics (practices) were the initial, broad guide for understanding typical cases of dialogic and monologic discourses. Any other deviations in terms of these characteristics (practices) were noted as atypical cases of dialogism or monologism. Other than that, content units were also marked as salient when they contained emergent questioning behaviours which developed the coding framework of this study.

Phase 2: Examine the use of each dimension of questioning (Research Question One). In Phase 2 of data analysis, the researcher investigated the three dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) in individual. The findings for teachers' use of each dimension addressed the Research Question One of this study. Some main findings included the dominance of display questions and short wait time, as well as the use of reaction moves such as probe and prompt (refer to "Teachers' Questioning Practices in terms of Types of Questions, Wait Time, and Reaction Moves").

Phase 3: Examine the interplay between the three dimensions of questioning in influencing classroom discourse (Research Question Two). The researcher in Phase 3 of data analysis examined the interplay between the three dimensions of questioning to understand how classroom discourse was influenced. Based on this examination, dialogicality was not found in any lesson. An overall monologicality across all lessons was established. Upon further examination, three variations of monologicality were discovered. They were teacher-dominated classroom discourse, IRE-structured classroom discourse, and extended classroom discourse (refer to "Influence of Teachers' Questioning Practices on Classroom Discourse").

Phase 4: Reexamine and assign each content unit to its respective monologic variation. Phase 4 of data analysis at large saw the reexamination of all content units for them to be assigned to their respective monologic variations, which were established in the preceding phase. Slightly different from the first phase of analysis, in this phase the researcher marked salient content units with a focus on only monologicality and its variations. The saliency of content units was dependent on how appropriate can the questioning practices in a content unit represent its monologic variation.

Phase 5: Examine the salient content units of each monologic variation (Research Question Two). After the assignment of all content units to the three monologic variations, in Phase 5 salient content units were examined in detail to gradually develop the groups of discourse within each variation (refer to "Influence of Teachers' Questioning Practices on Classroom Discourse").

Phase 6: Describe (1) teachers' use of each dimension of questioning (Research Question One) and (2) classroom discourse based on teachers' questioning practices – the interplay between the three dimensions (Research Question Two). Phase 6 revolved largely around the data reporting of this study. The findings established from the earlier phases were systematically organized and written up to answer the two research questions of this study. Firstly, teachers' use of each dimension of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) was described (Research Question One). Secondly, classroom discourse based on teachers' questioning practices by looking into the interplay between the three dimensions was described (Research Question Two). In particular, the analysis done in earlier phases in answering Research Question Two was largely tied to the conceptual framework of this study, specifically in relation to the opportunities provided in classrooms for the three key features of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Classroom Discourse"): student thinking and student voice, interactions of multi-voices, and students' influence on classroom discourse.

As the researcher reported the findings yielded from the analysis done, the descriptive accounts of teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse were evidenced and justified with explicit illustration (e.g. examples, excerpts) from the video data (Roth, 2009a). Examples and excerpts to be presented and discussed in the

findings of this study were identified. Particularly, turn-by-turn verbatim transcription was done for all excerpts (Appendix B – Transcription Conventions).

It is important to note that this video study employed an iterative process in coding, analyzing, and describing the data. At any phase, further confirmation was always done by reviewing the video recordings and pinpointing specific instances of video evidence to support coding/analysis decisions (Roth, 2009a). Indeed, this reexamine-review process throughout data analysis "makes it possible for researchers to maintain very high methodological standards" (Najvar et al., 2009a, p. 118). Through each phase, the researcher learned and relearned the complex data at different levels of specificity. As this was happening the researcher kept going back to the data for deeper understanding and clarification, and recoding was done as necessary until consistency in coding, analysis, and the findings were achieved. Along this cycle, the definitions of the items in the coding framework were developed based on the data; the categories in the coding framework were kept open to cater to emergent data. In other words, the coding framework continued to develop during coding and analysis, until it stabilized (refer to Figure 3.3). At the same time, the coding of the video recordings was also continuously refined according to these developments. Thus, the flexibility in analyzing video data allowed the researcher to go back and forth between the data and the development of analysis of the study at all phases.

Unit of analysis: Content unit. Content unit, developed by Hsu (2001) is "a piece of discourse that consists of a main question and all the … moves made by classroom participants that are directly related to that question in content" (p. 62). This means that a content unit is made up of sequenced utterances related to one

main question; it generally "starts with a main question and ends when another main question initiates a new content unit" (Hsu, 2001, p. 62).

A content unit as an analytic lens is useful in the context of this study because it takes into account the significance of context and content when examining teachers' questioning practices in the classroom (Hsu, 2001). Within one content unit, it can be observed how one main question is used to develop classroom talk with more questions and responses which are all related to that main question (Hsu, 2001). With 'content unit', the researcher examined how classroom discourse involving both teacher talk and student talk was extended from one main question, and eventually understood a clearer picture which showed how teachers' questioning practices influenced classroom discourse.

This would not have been possible if teacher questions were studied in isolation without considering the discourse context and content. The use of content unit for analysis can yield "insights unavailable through the analysis of a single question separate from its broader discourse context" (Hsu, 2001, p. 63). In this study for instance, if the researcher examined teacher questions in isolation from the context and content, the researcher may only find out what or how many questions were asked by teachers, but not how the questions asked led to different variations of monologic discourses within different contexts.

Validity and Reliability

Throughout the study, validity and reliability concerns were addressed especially during (1) data collection and (2) data analysis and reporting.

In relation to data collection, first and foremost the sampling strategy used in this study which was randomized selection (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007) of 17

schools across Malaysia, to a certain extent enhanced the validity of the findings yielded. Given the objective of this study, a representative sample from the larger general population (national secondary schools) was needed to contribute data in terms of teachers' questioning practices in the Malaysian context. Hence, this sampling strategy helped lower the possibilities of the researcher's bias/preferences in terms of selection and distribute evenly unknown factors within the sample (Denscombe, 2010; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007; Shenton, 2004). With this, the validity of the findings was improved. As James Hiebert argued, representative sampling in large-scale video study is important to arrive at a valid description of teacher practice at the national level (Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001).

This study relied on video data which has high fidelity to the original teacher practice in classrooms (Fischer & Neumann, 2012; Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001), especially when compared with data from self-report methods, interviews, and live observation (refer to "Why a Video Study Design for the Present Study?"). Considering validity issues in regard to secondhand account of teacher practice, i.e. data from self-report methods and interviews (Givvin et al., 2005; Merriam, 2009; Stigler et al., 1999; Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001) as well as the limitations of live observation (Brophy, 2006; Jacobs et al., 1999; Merriam, 2009; Roth, 2009a; Skidmore, 2005) in capturing classroom data, video data in many ways can overcome the aforementioned issues. Essentially, since the video method allows for the documentation of complex teaching and learning processes within context-rich classroom settings (Janik et al., 2009b), the loss of classroom data which could affect the overall validity of the findings was greatly reduced (Roth, 2009a).

It is also important to note that this study employed two-video-camera strategy (refer to "Recording Equipment") for data collection. As this study

examined classroom discourse with the focus on questioning, this strategy enabled each lesson to be observed with attention to the teacher (Video Camera 1) and whole-class activities (Video Camera 2). This strategy provided an improved perspective for a more valid transcription and description of teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse.

Next, as the purpose of the present study is to examine teacher practice in classrooms, one foremost concern was that the data was collected from naturally occurring events, from lessons in classrooms. To be able to study teacher's questioning practices within real classroom contexts, it was of utmost importance to ensure that teachers understood that this study required only typical lessons for analysis. As done by Seidel and Prenzel (2006), Seidel et al., (2007), and Stigler et al. (1999), teachers were asked to demonstrate typical lessons of their teaching, because the purpose of the study is to investigate teachers' questioning practices in everyday classrooms. In this study, this step was done right during the first meeting with teachers before they signed the consent form, and consistently being emphasized throughout data collection whenever any teacher had any inquiry or doubt. The researcher did not attempt in any way to prescribe or control the content or classroom procedure (Hoetker, 1968). Teachers were constantly assured that there was no need for them to purposely plan very different lessons or create extraordinary teaching and learning materials (Stigler et al., 1999). In this study, although teachers knew beforehand of the recording sessions, they would most probably be constrained by their students' usual expectations as well as their own repertoire of teaching (Hiebert et al., 2003); therefore they were unlikely to have delivered lessons which were substantively atypical of their usual questioning practices in the classroom.

Also taking into account observer and equipment effects, which are unavoidable in all observational studies (Daymon & Holloway, 2011), it was crucial that strategies were employed to help maintain the natural setting of classrooms as much as possible. To help reduce observer and equipment effects, both video cameras were placed at a fixed position and not moved around during the lesson (Hancock, Ockleford, & Windridge, 2009); the video camera operator stayed behind the teacher video camera throughout each lesson so as to best not distract teachers and students with unnecessary movements. This was to facilitate teachers and students' getting-used to the presence of the researcher and the recording equipment in the classroom in order to not obstruct the lesson (Hiebert et al., 2003; Jewitt, 2012; Stigler et al., 1999). The researcher was not involved in any part of classroom activities, as this study wanted to capture questioning practices and classroom discourse in their most natural surroundings in a minimally-pervasive manner (Hiebert et al., 2003; Stigler et al., 1999).

It is however important to note that in the classroom differences in behaviours by both the teacher and students might be present especially at the beginning of data collection, but any initial adjustments of behaviours will not be sustained and teacher and student behaviours will return to their normal functioning after some time (Merriam, 2009). For example, in the context of questioning, teachers might try treating students slightly differently, but they are unlikely to change the ways they ask questions and deal with student responses; students might begin behaving slightly differently, but they are unlikely to change the ways they answer or ask questions (Sedova et al., 2014). As shown by Hoetker's (1968) study where classroom practice was being observed, teachers and students actually adjusted to the presence of

observers and recorders, and functioned in their normal manner soon after data collection had begun.

In this study, to capture more valid information about questioning and classroom discourse, taking into account the observer and equipment effects explained, whenever possible, three video recordings of lessons were done for each teacher, with the last lesson being used for analysis. If the last lesson was disrupted or outright atypical, the second last lesson would be analyzed.

Next, in terms of data analysis and reporting, several strategies were also used to advance the validity and reliability of the findings of this study.

To begin with, all video recordings were coded in NVivo 10, which allowed for a context-sensitive analysis. For instance, when video recordings are transcribed textually to be coded, it is fairly likely that contextual data will be lost during the transcription process. Thus, by using a video analysis software such as the NVivo software, contextual data can be better preserved for the coding of the video recordings. This is important to obtain a more contextually appropriate representation of teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse.

One main uniqueness of video studies is the iterativeness of their analysis stage. In other words, coding, analysis, and interpretation are all a cyclical process until sound findings are obtained. This is advanced with the fact that video recordings can be repeatedly visited, with the options to slow down, stop, or replay any part of a video. With these qualities, in this study, the researcher was able to focus on very specific and short segments of a video as many times as necessary to better understand and describe teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse. This demonstrates the reversibility of data reduction in video studies (Janik et al., 2009b). They explained, "… after carrying out an analysis of data

collected from video recordings, the researcher can take one step back and return to the … video [recordings] … thus avoiding the reduction caused by coding" (p. 13); this quality actually helped enhance the validity of the findings derived from the video data of this study. Coupled with the use of the coding framework developed in this study, data reduction as it is inevitable in all educational research, was dealt with in a systematic and efficient manner to be able to cater to the coding and analysis of the massive and complex video data to produce valid findings (Creswell, 2009; Hiebert et al., 2003; Jacobs et al., 1999; Klette, 2009; Seidel et al., 2007).

Throughout the analysis process, there was one strategy regularly used to keep a check on the researcher generally in developing the coding framework, coding and analyzing the video recordings, and interpreting the findings of this study. This strategy was peer debriefing (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009), which basically provided a check on the study "in a manner paralleling an analytic session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the [study] … that might otherwise [remained] … only implicit within the [researcher's] … mind" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 308). Insights other than the researcher's would add to the validity of the account of the study (Creswell, 2009; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009). As this study involved a large amount of video data analyzed and interpreted by a single researcher, peer debriefing helped to (1) keep the researcher honest and aware of the researcher's role and biases through the task of the debriefers who played the devil's advocate, (2) provide opportunities for the researcher to test and reconsider emergent conceptual ideas, (3) provide opportunities for the researcher to develop and improve the analysis process (e.g. coding framework) of this study, and (4) provide the researcher opportunities for catharsis, where the debriefers listened to and helped relieve the researcher's emotional tension so that the quality of this study was not

affected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This check on the researcher other than ensuring that the researcher was focused on what was being studied (validity), also improved the reliability of the findings as the analysis process was tested with different perspectives (debriefers).

In this respect, this study kept to the practice of having external and internal debriefing (these terms were coined by the researcher in the context of this study). For external debriefing, the researcher regularly presented the study at its different stages (e.g. proposal, initial coding, preliminary findings, end findings) in both formal and informal settings. A number of presentations were done at the international, university, and faculty levels, as well as in discussions with some university lecturers and fellow postgraduate students. As the study progressed through each stage, these meetings provided a sounding board for the researcher to test and develop the conceptualization of the study (Shenton, 2004). From time to time, the researcher was made aware of missed details or issues due to the researcher's closeness with the data, and this helped provoke deeper contemplation based on different perspectives to refine the study.

While acknowledging the idea of external debriefing, Frels and Onwuegbuzie (2012) and Shenton (2004) reasoned for the significance of having the superior/chair/supervisor(s) as the debriefers. In this study, internal debriefing like this was done with the researcher's supervisors routinely. For this study, the researcher had two supervisors. Throughout the course, frequent debriefing sessions and mock seminars had taken place. As much as an 'outsider' opinion is essential to keep a check on the validity of the study, an 'insider' perspective other than the researcher's is equally critical. Unavoidably, supervisors are to a certain extent invested in their students' growth and development as a researcher and the progress

of the study (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2012), they however are unlikely to possess the kind of personal intimacy and attachment their students have for the study. Therefore, supervisors' familiarity with the study and the field of study puts them in a privileged position to offer professional and practical research viewpoints to their students. As Frels and Onwuegbuzie (2012) put it, provided that supervisors "have established a trusting relationship with their students … are familiar with the … research process … understand the underlying research topic … and, most importantly … do not have a stake in the direction of the findings" (p. 3-4), "they are prime candidates to serve as debriefers" (p. 3). As done for every stage of this study, internal debriefing sessions between the researcher and the researcher's supervisors were carried out consistently for idea generation and testing, and for talking out the challenges faced. Hence, with the use of external and internal debriefing in this study, the validity and reliability of the study and its findings were strengthened at different levels.

In this study, the video data obtained provided a lasting collection of classroom data which can be stored and accessed as needed. This database in a way prepared the study for referential adequacy test, where consequent testing (e.g. coding, analysis) to check the findings can be done against all the video recordings obtained (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), given that concerns regarding ethics, rights, and confidentiality were first addressed. In respect to this strategy, the complete video data could be made available should a review is required for testing the soundness of the findings or the consistency of the findings in reference to the data.

Other than this, for the same purposes, an audit trail was made available in the context of this study so as to allow for a form of audit on the findings, wherever necessary (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 2009). The audit trail in this study

showed the source of each excerpt presented and discussed in the findings, allowing excerpts to be traced back to the original video recordings (together with their coding) in the NVivo software. Therefore, every excerpt can be reviewed in the NVivo software within its own content unit context, or within the whole lesson context.

As discussed above, various strategies were undertaken throughout the data collection and the data analysis and reporting of this study. Fundamentally, they helped strengthen the validity and reliability of the findings of this video study which examined teachers' questioning practices and their influence on classroom discourse.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the design and sampling plan of this study are discussed. The Data Collection and Data Analysis sections then detail how video data was collected and analyzed to achieve the research objective of this study, which is to examine teachers' questioning practices in Form One English language classrooms in Malaysia. Last but not least, the validity and reliability concerns of this study are also elucidated.

Chapter 4: Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings for the two research questions of this study. The first research question is 'What are teachers' questioning practices in terms of three dimensions of questioning: types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves?' To answer this research question, teachers' questioning practices are described in terms of each aforementioned dimension.

The second research question is 'How does the interplay between these dimensions of questioning (identified in Research Question One) influence classroom discourse?' Three variations of monologic classroom discourse in relation to teachers' questioning practices are discussed. These variations included teacher-dominated classroom discourse, IRE-structured classroom discourse, and extended classroom discourse.

The findings of this study were obtained based on the analysis of 31 video recordings of lessons from 31 teachers teaching Form One English Language in Malaysia (Appendix C – Teachers' Demographic Information). This teacher sample comprised 21 female and 10 male teachers. The following demographic details are presented in regard to 29 out of the 31 teachers, as two teachers did not provide further information. In terms of age group, seven were below 30 years old, 12 were in the 30-39 group, five were between 40 and 49, and another five were 50-59 years old. The English language was the current main subject taught by 26 teachers. Two teachers had been teaching the subject for more than 25 years; five for 21-25 years, three for 16-20 years, four for 11-15 years, three for 6-10 years, and nine for five

years and below. Generally, the teachers examined had varying years of experience

in teaching the English Language subject.

Next, the findings in answering each research question of this study are

further deliberated in the succeeding sections.

Teachers' Questioning Practices in terms of Types of Questions, Wait Time, and Reaction Moves

To answer the first research question, three dimensions of questioning (i.e.

types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) formed the focus of analysis in

this study. In the subsequent sub-sections, teachers' use of each dimension is

elaborated.

Types of questions in teachers' questioning practices. In the context of

this study, questions may come in either direct or indirect form, where they can be

represented by interrogative, imperative, or declarative sentences (Wu, 1993), or

gestures. Questions are considered direct when what the teacher is asking about is

instructed in the question; questions are considered indirect when another

utterance/action is used instead to imply/refer to what the teacher is asking about.

Some of the examples of teacher questions in the direct form found in the

study are: "What is the name of the private investigator?", "Go to what school?"

(interrogative sentence), "Spell for me 'environment'.", "Try to think and recall what

are the places mentioned in this story." (imperative sentence), and "Okay, you want

to stay at Hong Kong." (declarative sentence).

Meanwhile, some of the examples of teacher questions in the indirect form

found in the study are: "What's the answer?", "What else?", "What about you?"

(interrogative sentence), "Answer Number Two.", "Next.", "[What is]

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'determined'?" (imperative sentence), and gesture in the form where the teacher wrote the question on the whiteboard and/or pointed at it and/or looked at/called upon student(s) as a signal to start answering.

For this study, all direct and indirect questions were coded into three main types of questions for analysis: display questions, referential questions, and rhetorical questions. From the data, exemplars for each type of question are shown below.

Display questions are basically used to ask students for information which is already known to the teacher (Long & Sato, 1983). The answer to a display question can usually be evaluated as right or wrong. Teachers in this study used display questions to gauge students' knowledge, i.e. language – "What word that starts or has the letter 'm'?", reading comprehension – "Carpool can help in saving the environment as well as your money … this practice allows you to share the cost of travelling, this practice refers to?", understanding of literary text and devices – "What is stanza one about?", "Who was arrested for the murder?", "What is personification?", general knowledge – "Can you name me other types of transportation?", "Can you tell me what you see?", and mastery of previously taught content "What do you understand about 'healthy eating'? Last time we have discussed about this."

On the contrary, referential questions are considered 'genuine' questions (Gould, 2014) usually used to ask students for information which is not already known to the teacher (Long & Sato, 1983). Generally, there is no right or wrong answers to referential questions. As found, referential questions were often used to elicit among others students' personal details, experiences, and preferences – "Where do you come from?", "Are you guys proud citizens of Malaysia?", "If you have RM

100.00, which item would you buy?", and students' reasoning and opinions – "Why Germany suddenly?", "Why do you need friends?"

In terms of the use of rhetorical questions or questions with rhetorical purposes where student responses are often not genuinely expected, teachers were found to use them for example, to consolidate answers to questions – "Yes … It's compared to a wanderer because it doesn't stay in one place, okay?", as ending to their utterances – "Fraser's Hill is in Pahang … near Raub … so when I went to Cameron Highland … from Cameron Highland I went to Lipis … so Raub is in Lipis, so Bukit Fraser is not far from Raub, so that's why on the second day I stopped at Bukit Fraser, yes or no?", to emphasize a point to students – "How many mobile phones are there- in the market? How many are there? A lot of mobile phone.", when expecting students' meek agreement – "So easy, right?", "See, does he look like Chris? Eh, no no no, more to Denzel, right? Is it Denzel?", to indirectly reveal the answer to students – "That looks like fish and chips, right?", or merely to develop teacher talk without the need for student responses to the questions asked.

Overall, 2,870 questions were asked in the 31 lessons examined. Table 4.1 shows the frequency and percentage of each question type used. The frequency and percentage of display, referential, and rhetorical questions used by teachers in the classroom, in the following order, were 1,983 (69.1%), 407 (14.2%), and 480 (16.7%).

Table 4.1

Use of Questions

Types of questions	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Display	1,983	69.1
Referential	407	14.2
Rhetorical	480	16.7
Total:	**2,870**	**100.0**

On the whole, display questions made up the majority of the questions asked with 69.1% (1,983 out of 2,870 questions). This finding is consistent with the literature where display questions which often elicit only short and straightforward answers, and lead to undeveloped classroom discourse were dominant (Albergaria-Almeida, 2010a; Alexander, 2005; Barnes, 1969; Bellack et al., 1966; Brock, 1986; Cotton, 2001; David, 2007; Gall, 1970; Habsah Hussin, 2006; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Hannel, 2009; Ho, 2005; Hollingsworth, 1982; Hyman, 1980; Jiang, 2014; Lange, 1982; Long & Sato, 1983; Meng et al., 2012; Myhill et al., 2006 as cited in Yang, 2010; Noorizah Mohd Noor et al., 2012; Nystrand, 1997; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh & Mohd Rashid Mohd Saad, 2013; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh et al., 2014; Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012; Shomoossi, 1997; Sim & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Tan, 2007; Tan & Mohammad Yusof Arshad, 2014; Tienken et al., 2009; Tobin, 1984; Vogler, 2005; Wragg & Brown, 2001; Yang, 2010; Zamri Mahamod & Nor Razah Lim, 2011; Zhang, 2011b).

As found in this study, other than the more common closed-ended display questions which would admit yes/no responses or a specific piece of information as an answer, the use of more open-ended display questions for which there is a scope for multiple appropriate answers was also exhibited. Regardless, similar to the studies cited above, the use of display questions by teachers often led towards monologic classroom discourse where students were rarely challenged to think at higher levels and their discourse often lacked depth and complexity, both language- and content-wise. Despite the potential of using display questions facilitated by appropriate follow-up in engendering more dialogic discourses (Boyd & Markarian, 2011), this potential was not realized by the 31 teachers examined in this study.

Using both closed- and open-ended display questions, teachers typically strove for students' display of previously taught content or general knowledge, and their comprehension and information-retrieval skills based on the teaching materials and aids used (e.g. textbook, worksheet, video), most of which teachers already had the answers to.

As for referential questions, compared with display questions, they were the minor group of questions and made up a mere 14.2% of teacher questions (407 out of 2,870 questions) in the classroom. Some researchers have advocated that their use could better generate higher cognitive, longer, or more complex responses from students (Al-Muaini, 2006 as cited in Yeo & Ting, 2012; Arnold et al., 1974; Brock, 1986; Lamb, 1976; McNeil, 2012; Yang, 2010), but it was not the case with the results obtained in this study. As a matter of fact, none of the discourses containing referential questions was found to be dialogic.

In this study, teacher-student discourses revolving around referential questions were also monologic as student answers were often not fully developed yet accepted by the teacher without thorough follow-up. In fact, few exchanges had led to the expression and sharing of student ideas to enhance discussions. Unlike the recommendations of past research (cited above), the referential questions examined in this study were not found to stimulate student thinking at higher cognitive levels. In fact, most of the referential questions used were closed-ended, in that they sought only yes/no responses, straightforward and/or specific information unknown to the teacher. Open-ended referential questions which provide room for genuine student ideas and perspectives, including students' experiences, opinions, reasoning were scarce in all lessons.

The third type of question focused on in this study is rhetorical questions or questions used with rhetorical purposes. Although these questions have not been foreign in classrooms, this study discovered that they were in fact more common than referential questions, with a total of 480 out of 2,870 questions (16.7%). Considering that classroom discourse was already monopolized by display questions which mostly needed only simple and straightforward student responses, this finding is rather alarming. That is to say, classroom discourse was also partly clouded by rhetorical questions where student responses were not even compulsory or necessary during classroom discourse.

Should this situation continue escalating, it may very well be unnecessary for students to think and exchange their thoughts anymore in the classroom. Classroom discourse shrouded in rhetorical questions actually works in exact opposition to the core of dialogicality, where students should be engaged in contributing actively and substantively, and be the nucleus of questioning and discoursing.

Conclusion: Types of questions in teachers' questioning practices. Three main types of questions were coded for analysis in this study: display questions, referential questions, and rhetorical questions. Basically, each type was used for different functions with display questions being the dominant type. In this study, all types of questions were found to be used in a monologic manner, leading to monologic classroom discourse at large. The examination of the use of different types of questions alongside wait time and reaction moves in influencing the overall discourse is deliberated in "Influence of Teachers' Questioning Practices on Classroom Discourse". Meanwhile, in the next section, teachers' use of the second dimension of questioning investigated in this study (i.e. wait time) is presented.

Wait time in teachers' questioning practices. In general, wait time are teacher-initiated or teacher-provided pauses which could facilitate thinking or contemplation of a response. The use of wait time by teachers in this study is recorded as follows in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Use of Wait Time

Wait Time (s)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
0.1 – 0.9	407	38.3
1.0 – 1.9	340	32.0
2.0 – 2.9	145	13.6
3.0 – 3.9	67	6.3
4.0 – 4.9	43	4.0
5.0 – 5.9	21	2.0
6.0 – 6.9	16	1.5
7.0 – 7.9	9	0.8
8.0 – 8.9	2	0.2
9.0 – 9.9	4	0.4
10.0 – 10.9	4	0.4
11.0 – 11.9	4	0.4
12.0 – 12.9	0	0
13.0 – 13.9	1	0.1
Total:	**1,063**	**100.0**

As shown in Table 4.2, wait time 0.1-0.9s (38.3%) and 1.0-1.9s (32.0%) were the two shortest but most frequently used lengths of wait time in the classroom. The rest of the wait time (almost 30.0%) was in the two-seconds-and-above range.

Based on Rowe's (1974, 1986, 1996) research on wait time, she recommended a wait time of 3 to 5 seconds for improved classroom discourse. Other than that, Swift and Gooding (1983) found that both the quantity and the quality of student talk by and large increased when a 2-to-3-second wait time was used with teacher questions. Therefore generally, a wait time range of 2-to-5-second has been suggested to enhance the quality and quantity of classroom discourse, especially student talk (Rowe, 1974, 1986, 1996; Swift & Gooding, 1983).

Based on these empirically proven recommendations, in this study, wait time less than 2 seconds was considered short, wait time of 2 seconds or more but less than 5 seconds was considered moderate, and wait time of 5 seconds or more was considered prolonged.

In this regard, the wait time used by teachers in this study was mostly shorter than the recommended minimum, where about 70% of the wait time used was short wait time as they were less than 2 seconds.

In reference to the recommendations made by past findings (i.e. wait time of 2 to 5 seconds), one interesting finding was established in this study. In particular, when moderate wait time (2.0-4.9s) was used, student talk was not enhanced. Even when prolonged wait time (5.0s or more) was used, student talk too displayed little improvement. As a matter of fact, the quality and quantity of student talk observed were actually similar to when wait time of less than 2 seconds (short wait time) was used. In other words, classroom discourse at large was uniform, irrespective of the length of wait time provided.

Some examples of the use of wait time during classroom discourse from the data are presented in Excerpts 1-2. The discourse in Excerpt 1 revolved around display questions; whereas the discourse in Excerpt 2 revolved around referential questions.

First of all, the longest wait time provided by teachers in this study was found to be in the range of 13.0-13.9s and it occurred only once throughout all the lessons examined. Specifically, in the discourse in Excerpt 1, a prolonged wait time of 13.7 seconds was used.

Excerpt 1

1	T:	How many characters that you can remember in this poem?
2	Ss:	Six. / Eight.
3	T:	"Six"?
4	Ss:	Eight. ((repeatedly))
5	T:	"Eight"?
6	Ss:	Eight. ((repeatedly))
7	T:	Okay, there are-
8		Are you sure eight?
9		Okay, they are?
10	S:	Monster.
11	T:	"Monster". ((writes on the whiteboard))
12	Ss:	Nomad. / Hoarder.
13	T:	"Nomad". ((writes on the whiteboard))
14		"Hoarder". ((writes on the whiteboard)) …
15		"Wanderer". ((writes on the whiteboard)) (13.7)
16		Is it [Is that all]? (0.5)
17	S:	Camper.
18	T:	Ah?
19	S:	Camper.
20	T:	"Camper"?
21		No.
22		There's no word "camper" in that poem.
23		Okay, all are correct. ((refers to all the answers written on the whiteboard))
24		Only nine characters in the poem. …

[Source: 16-2]

In the discourse above (Excerpt 1), the teacher was revising some information learned previously with her students in a literature lesson, using two display questions (Lines 1 and 9). During this discourse, students were actively volunteering to answer while the teacher was writing answers on the whiteboard.

As the teacher was eliciting information from the students, a wait time of 13.7 seconds was used in Line 15, followed by a 0.5-second wait time in Line 16. From the observation of this piece of discourse, after the wait time, student talk was still one-worded (Lines 17 and 19) and teacher talk did not extend beyond the evaluation

of answers and the conclusion of the discourse (Lines 20-24). Classroom discourse was generally monologic.

In other instances where several periods of wait time were provided successively, development towards dialogicality was still not observed in the discourse, as per demonstrated in the discourse in Excerpt 2.

Excerpt 2

1	T:	… Okay, among all these games, which one is the most popular?
2		Which one you like most?
3	S1:	Don't know.
4	T:	"Don't know"?
		(0.4)
5		You like all of them?
		(4.8)
6		Which activity that you like most?
		(6.0)
7	S1:	((unintelligible)) Swimming and cycling.
8	T:	"Swimming and cycling."
9		Why?
		(9.2)
10		Because it's ___?
11	S1:	Because swimming is fun.
12	T:	Okay, thank you.

[Source: 6-3]

In this discourse, the teacher was probing her students towards the end of a pair presentation (Lines 1-2, 5-6, and 9-10). As demonstrated, four periods of wait time were employed; one of them was short wait time (Line 4) while the rest all exceeded 2 seconds (Lines 5-6 and 9). In spite of the inclusion of moderate and prolonged wait time, the quantity and quality of student talk was not enhanced and the responses were forthright simplistic (Lines 7 and 11). Even the teacher's eventual response (Line 12) was plain lustreless. Without serious emphasis on developing student ideas in depth, wait time alone, even when it is longer or more frequently used, did not seem to be able to guarantee dialogicality.

Conclusion: Wait time in teachers' questioning practices. In this study, the use of wait time was not a grave deficit; instead wait time was provided quite frequently. These periods of wait time however were often given with the sole intention to elicit an acceptable student answer. In short, in this study wait time did not seem to be used to prolong and deepen the discourse in any way, both when display questions or referential questions were used.

This was evident in the two exemplars presented above where wait time had not encouraged students to produce elaborated answers. Despite the wait time given, students appeared to be more concerned in getting the right answer (Excerpt 1) or appeasing the teacher with a suitable answer (Excerpt 2). The teachers too, clearly focused on making sure that all the right answers were put forth (Excerpt 1) or that the discourse could have a closure (Excerpt 2). Situations like this are largely reflective of the other discourses examined in this study, in relation to the use of wait time.

Further findings in regard to teachers' use of wait time considered with the use of different question types and reaction moves within various discourse contexts are discussed in "Influence of Teachers' Questioning Practices on Classroom Discourse". The succeeding section talks about the third and last dimension of questioning examined in this study: reaction moves.

Reaction moves in teachers' questioning practices. In this study, teachers were found to use a variety of reaction moves, both when students responded to their questions and also when students did not. A reaction move is generally what the teacher says or does other than mere evaluation succeeding students' responses or unresponsiveness to teacher questions.

Basically when the teacher asks a question, two discourse pathways can occur; one, where there is a student response (question-evaluate-react) and one, where there is no student response (question-react). For both pathways, wait time may be inserted accordingly by the teacher.

With reference to the former, the teacher's evaluation will firstly take place. Here, the teacher will decide if a particular answer is acceptable, unacceptable, or to be put on hold because the teacher is uncertain of it. Based on this evaluation, the teacher then reacts using a reaction move. This is the question-evaluate-react pathway.

With reference to the latter, there will be no answer to be evaluated. The teacher will directly react with a reaction move. This is the question-react pathway.

The pathway of the discourse will be decided again depending on whether the reaction move used leads to any student response (illustrated as the dotted box in Figure 4.1). This process repeats until the discourse ends.

Below, Figure 4.1 illustrates the discourse pathways and the reaction moves most commonly used by teachers in this study.
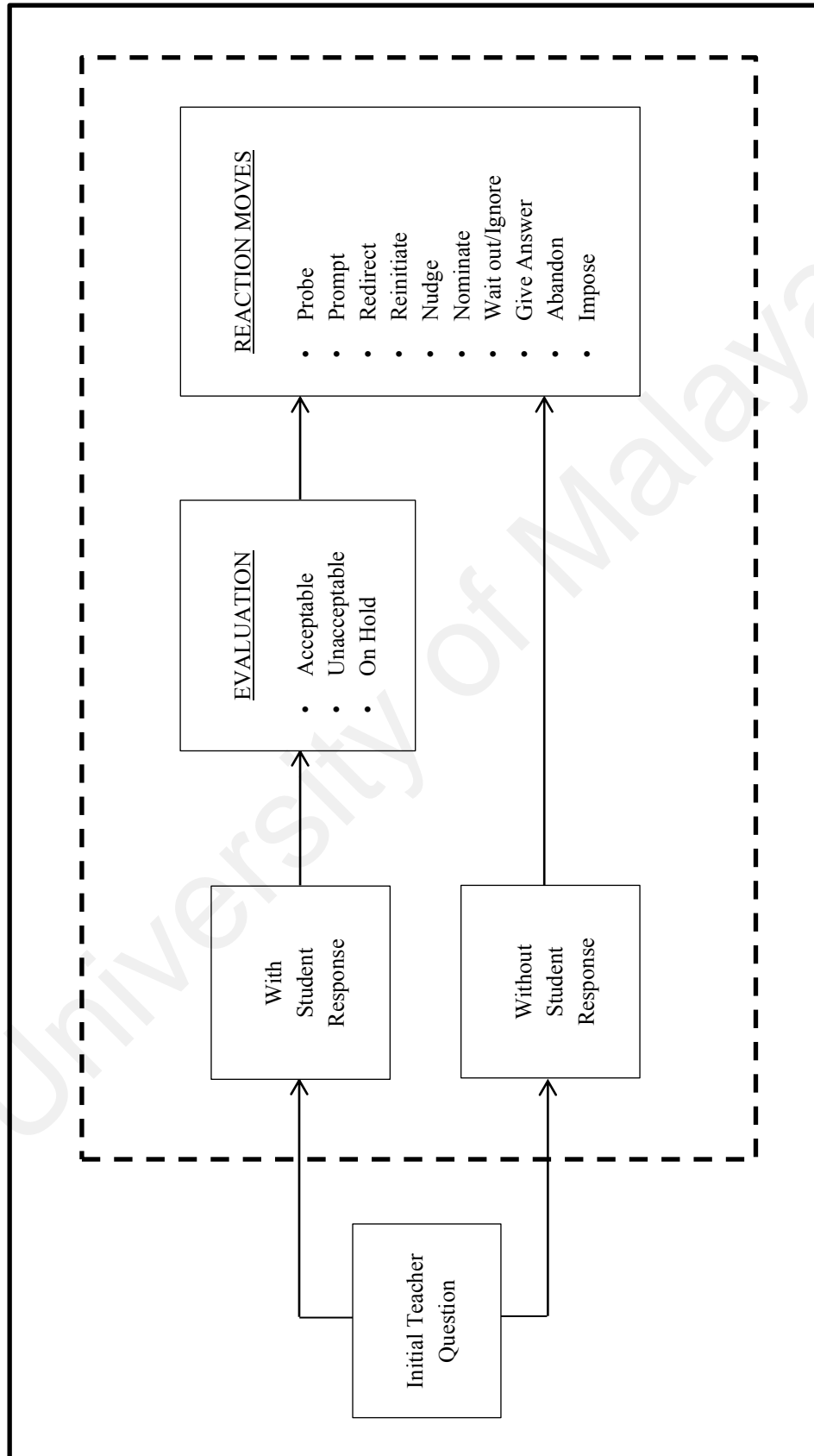
Figure 4.1. Use of Reaction Moves

Based on Figure 4.1, the reaction moves which were frequently used by teachers in this study included 'probe', 'prompt', 'redirect', 'reinitiate', 'nudge', 'nominate', 'wait out/ignore', 'give answer', 'abandon', and 'impose'. These reaction moves can either further induce or cut off student responses, depending on their use in each discourse context. Each reaction move based on its use in the context of this study is explained in the following examples.

Probe. The reaction move 'probe' was usually used when further student responses were sought using another question, after obtaining a student response for the initial question (Chang, 2009; Hsu, 2001). With probing questions, students were often asked to provide more particulars, for example specific/other details/information, opinion, or the substantiation of an answer.

Excerpt 3: Probe (for a more specific answer)

1	T:	By the way, who knows who should we call when we have problem with the birds and fish?
2	S:	Authority.
3	T:	The authority, I know, the authority.
4		You keep on telling the "authority".
5		But who is this "authority"? …

[Source: 30-30]

In the discourse in Excerpt 3, the answer (Line 2) was acceptable but it was too general. Thus, a probe for a more specific answer was done in Line 5.

Excerpt 4: Probe (for a different answer)

1	S1:	… A local hotel.
2	T:	Ah, what's the name of the place? (1.7)
3	S1:	A local hotel-- ((while pointing at some notes on the whiteboard))
4	T:	You cannot just say local hotel because the train is also there.
5		So what is the name of that town? …

[Source: 31-31]

In the discourse in Excerpt 4, the student was trying to identify the place to a description in the worksheet given by the teacher. As the student gave his answer (Line 1), which was not exactly acceptable, the teacher probed him in Lines 2 and 5 for another answer.

Excerpt 5: Probe (for student opinion)

1	T:	… Do you think the menu that Delicious Cafe offering is healthy meal?
2	S:	Not-
3	T:	Is it healthy meal?
4	Ss:	Yes. …

[Source: 4-13]

In the discourse in Excerpt 5, after a student group completed their presentation on creating a menu, the teacher was probing for students' opinion about the menu presented (Lines 1 and 3). The students however were not asked to substantiate their opinion on their own.

Excerpt 6: Probe (for justification to answer)

1	T:	… ((to S1)) Huh, Mum or James, Number Two? (0.7)
2	S1:	Number Two, James.
3	T:	Why you say James? …

[Source: 1-62]

The discourse in Excerpt 6 took place after the teacher was approached by a student to discuss the answer for question Number Two in the worksheet. The teacher then asked several other students for their answer. When one of them (S1) gave her answer in Line 2, the teacher probed her in Line 3 for her to substantiate her answer.

Prompt. The second reaction move used by teachers is 'prompt'. It was commonly used to guide students when their answer was unacceptable or when they did not respond. Teachers' regular prompt included rephrasing the question (Excerpt 7), giving clues/hints (Excerpt 8), purposely suggesting a wrong answer (Excerpt 9), and suggesting a possible answer (Excerpt 10).

Excerpt 7: Prompt (rephrase)

1	T:	"Adapted from the New Straits Times, 28th May 2000."
2		So where is this taken?
3		Where was this contest published?
4	Ss:	Wetland Wonders. / Petaling Jaya.
5	T:	Listen ah, listen to me.
6		Where was this contest published, that means from where you got this competition, from where- where you saw this advertisement? …

[Source: 7-8]

As shown in the discourse in Excerpt 7, when the students provided answers (Line 4) which appeared to be unacceptable, the teacher reacted by rephrasing the initial questions (Lines 2-3) into the question in Line 6 in order to help the students better understand what she was actually asking about.

Excerpt 8: Prompt (provide clues/hints)

1	T:	Hum?
		(4.9)
2		Hum?
3		Kalau "gurgles" baby keta___?
		"Gurgles" refers to a baby laughing.
4		Ketawa.
		Laughing.
5		Selain ketawa, baby buat apa? …
		Other than laughing, what does a baby do? …

[Source: 9-7]

In the discourse in Excerpt 8, the teacher was asking his students the meaning of "hum" (Line 1). When there was no student response after some wait time (4.9

seconds), the teacher chipped in a clue (Lines 3-5) to help the students guess the meaning of the word.

Excerpt 9: Prompt (purposely suggest a wrong answer)

1	T:	… Okay, how about Number- picture Number Three? (4.8)
2		That is a picture of- is it Zack over there, on picture Three?
3	Ss:	No. / Zack's friend.
4	T:	"Zack's friend", okay. …

[Source: 13-3]

As demonstrated in the discourse in Excerpt 9, when the students could not answer the teacher's question after a wait time of 4.8 seconds (Line 1), the teacher proceeded with a prompt by suggesting a wrong answer (Line 2). The students then negated the wrong answer and responded with the right one (Line 3).

Excerpt 10: Prompt (suggest a possible answer)

1	T:	… Drinks? (1.5)
2		What do you want to drink? (1.4)
3	S2:	Coffee or tea?
4	T:	Coffee?
5		Tea?
6		Orange juice?
7		Herbal tea?
8	S1:	Orange juice.
9	T:	"Orange juice", okay.

[Source: 5-79]

As shown in the discourse in Excerpt 10, while the teacher was role-playing as a waiter taking a student's (S1) order for drinks at a restaurant, S2 tried to help S1 by recommending two options to S1 (Line 3). Seeing this and the fact that S1 was

unresponsive earlier, the teacher proceeded to prompt S1 using S2's recommendations as well as other suggestions of possible answers (Lines 4-7).

Redirect. For the third reaction move 'redirect', it was used to forward an answer to another student or the rest of the class in order to be evaluated or improved. Specifically in the lessons examined in this study, rarely had answers been redirected to develop the discourse in a dialogic manner. Teachers' effort in practising 'redirect' focused heavily on the language aspects of student answers, rather than on the advancement and integration of ideas. The redirection of student answers was largely about deciding whether an answer was right or wrong (Excerpt 11), what was wrong with the answer (Excerpt 12), or how to correct the answer (Excerpts 13-14).

Excerpt 11: Redirect (evaluation)

1	T:	… Okay, the first one is "play football".
2		Dia suka main bola [sepak].
		He likes to play [foot]ball.
3		Betul ke tak?
		Is it correct?
4	Ss:	Betul.
		Correct.
5	T:	Ah, betul.
		Ah, correct.

[Source: 17-12]

For a literature exercise, the teacher was going through the answers which some students had written on the whiteboard. As the teacher was doing so, he redirected the answers to his students for evaluation purposes. Excerpt 11 is an example of the teacher's redirection effort (Line 3). Nevertheless, no further discussion ensued.

Excerpt 12: Redirect (error detection)

1	T:	… Okay, now pay attention to this word.
2		Something wrong with the word actually.
3	Ss:	((unintelligible))
4	T:	What's wrong?
5	Ss:	((unintelligible))
6	T:	Yes, wrong spelling …

[Source: 11-44]

A group of students were doing presentation at the front of the class. The word "pity" was spelled as "pitty" on the manila card prepared by the presenting group. Thus, as illustrated in this discourse, the teacher asked her students to detect the error (Lines 2 and 4). The students however were not asked to correct the error after detecting it. Apparently they were assumed to know the correct spelling.

Excerpt 13: Redirect (error correction)

1	T:	… Spell "sightseeing", Nina ((S1)).
		(3.6)
2	S1:	S-I-D-E-
3	T:	"S-I-D-E"?
		(1.2)
4		Wrong.
5		Please help her, ((points at S2)) Mr Hariz. …

[Source: 14-6]

Excerpt 13 shows how the teacher asked S2 to correct the error of S1 when she began spelling the word "sightseeing" wrongly. The wrong spelling in Line 2 was redirected to S2 in Line 5 to be corrected. Subsequently S2 attempted another spelling but it was also incorrect. In the end the teacher revealed the answer.

Excerpt 14: Redirect (error correction)

1	T:	"He so angry"? ((reads aloud student answer on the whiteboard))
2		"He so angry"?
3	Ss:	He was so angry.
4	T:	"He was so angry." ((adds in "was" to student answer on the whiteboard)) …

[Source: 30-17]

Excerpt 14 is another example where the teacher asked the students to correct an answer as they were discussing the answers written on the whiteboard (Lines 1-2). Here, the error was grammar-based.

Reinitiate. 'Reinitiate' is the fourth reaction move examined in this study. Normally, it was used when an acceptable answer had already been obtained but the teacher wanted to elicit another answer to the same question (Excerpt 15). In other words, the question asked earlier was not limited to only one answer.

Excerpt 15: Reinitiate

1	T:	Okay, next.
2		Scared.
		(1.1)
3		Scared, other than scared?
4	S:	Afraid.
5	T:	Afraid.
		(0.8)
6		What else?
		(1.2) …

[Source: 11-6]

In the discourse in Excerpt 15, the teacher was asking the students the synonyms of "scared" (Lines 1-3). The reinitiation of the question was demonstrated in Line 6, as the teacher wanted other synonyms (answers) of "scared".

Nudge. Reaction move number five is 'nudge'. Teachers may nudge (give a reminder to) students when they did not answer a question, when they were struggling while attempting to answer a question, or when teachers wanted students

to repeat an answer. Nudging can be done in several ways: repeating the question asked earlier either completely or partially (Excerpt 16), calling the student's name, using other utterances like "And?", "So", "Anyone?", "Yes?", "What?", "And also?", "Answer?", and so forth, or repeating student answers either completely or partially (Excerpt 17).

Excerpt 16: Nudge (repeat the question)

1	T:	Okay, now.
2		So the ending compared to what you have given is it same?
3		Is it the same?
		(0.6)
4		Same or not Jay ((S1))?
		(0.6)
5	S1:	((unintelligible))
6	T:	"Don't know"?
7		((to another student)) Just now the ending, your ending, is it the same?
8	Ss:	Same.
9	T:	Same, right?
10		Yes, so you're quite good in predicting.

[Source: 22-13]

As part of a reading comprehension task, the teacher asked the students to write down a prediction of ending for the reading text. At the end of the task, the teacher distributed a paper containing the actual ending to the reading text. In the discourse above (Excerpt 16), the teacher was asking the student if his answer was the same as the actual ending. Based on the initial question (Line 2), nudging was done using partial repetition, as shown in Line 4 when the student did not respond after a wait time of 0.6 second (Line 3). Nudging through a more complete repetition of the initial question was also done later on in Line 7.

Excerpt 17: Nudge (call student name, use another utterance, and repeat student answer)

1	T:	Now, Number Five.
2		"How can we gain extra pocket money?"
3		Volunteer.
4		Illya ((S1)).
		(2.2)
5		How to answer Number Five?
		(2.3)
6		Illya, try to answer Number Five.
		(7.4)
7	S1:	We can gain extra pocket money by..
8	T:	Okay, that part is correct already.
9		We can gain extra pocket money by ___? …
		(7.9)
10		We can gain extra pocket money by ___?
		(5.7)
11		Look at Paragraph B.
12	S1:	By sending old paper, books, aluminium can, and plastic bottle to-
13	T:	Ah, what?
14		Full stop until there ah. …

[Source: 23-15]

As read aloud in Line 2 (Excerpt 17), the question was posed to the student, whom the teacher nominated almost immediately after (Line 4). When the student did not respond after the first wait time (Line 4), the teacher nudged her by using another utterance which referred to the initial question (Line 5). After the second wait time (Line 5), the teacher nudged her again, by calling her name and also referring to the initial question (Line 6). The student then began forming her sentence of answer but trailed off halfway (Line 7). With this, the teacher continued to nudge her by repeating the student's incomplete answer to push her to continue answering (Lines 9-10). Later, with the teacher's prompt-clue (Line 11), the student managed to get to the answer (Line 12). The discourse was however hurriedly concluded by the teacher (Lines 13-14).

Nominate. The next reaction move is 'nominate'. This sixth reaction move basically means calling upon students to answer the teacher's questions. Students

were nominated normally when an incorrect answer had been elicited (Excerpt 18) or

when the teacher could not elicit any answer from students (Excerpt 19).

Excerpt 18: Nominate (having elicited an incorrect answer)

1	T:	… Haditya, ((S1)) … give me the answer. (2.2)
2	S1:	Dash.
3	T:	Huh?
4	S1:	Dash.
5	T:	Er, Faizal. ((S2)) …

[Source: 21-10]

During the lesson, the teacher was calling upon student one by one to

complete a grammar exercise on "articles". Excerpt 18 contains the discourse when

S1 was called upon to answer the question (Line 1). When S1 stated her answer in

Lines 2 and 4, the answer seemed to be unacceptable to the teacher. Here, the use of

the reaction move 'wait out/ignore' (elaborated in the next reaction move) was also

involved as the teacher did not provide any feedback for the student and moved on to

nominate another student (S2) in Line 5 to answer the same question.

Excerpt 19: Nominate (when students do not respond)

1	T:	Next one.
2		What is the name of the private investigator? (2.6)
3		Fang Yang. …

[Source: 31-5]

Excerpt 19 demonstrates that as the students were unresponsive to a teacher

question which was posed to the whole class (Line 2), the teacher nominated a

student (Line 3) after a wait time of 2.6 seconds (Line 2).

Wait out/Ignore. The seventh reaction moved examined in this study is 'wait out/ignore'. This reaction move often appeared when students were volunteering answers; their answers could be right or wrong but none was specifically addressed by the teacher (Excerpt 20). At other times, teachers were observed to be waiting out/ignoring answers which were apparently wrong (Excerpt 21). When 'waiting out' or 'ignoring' was taking place, the teacher would generally provide no feedback other than occasional rejection of wrong answers. This reaction move was often involved in teachers' pursuance of eliciting the right answer, sometimes ending with teachers' revelation of it.

Excerpt 20: Wait out/Ignore (both correct and incorrect answers)

1 2	T:	They are twins, okay? Seiras ke tak seiras? *Are they identical or non-identical twins?*
3	Ss:	Tak. *No.*
4	T:	((smiles)) (1.7) Seiras ke tak seiras? *Are they identical or non-identical twins?*
5	Ss:	Seiras. / Tak. *Identical. / No.*
6	T:	Dalam cerita ini, dia orang adalah kembar sei___? *In this story, they are identical twins.*
7	Ss:	Ras. *Identical.*
8	T:	Ras. … *Identical. …*

[Source: 18-8]

In this discourse (Excerpt 20), it is shown that there were answers which were incorrect (Lines 3 and 5) and correct (Line 5). To each individual answer the teacher did not respond in specific as they were being ignored and waited out. In fact, after listening to all answers given, the teacher merely revealed the answer at the end of the discourse (Lines 6 and 8).

Excerpt 21: Wait out/Ignore (specifically incorrect answers)

1	T:	((writes "It will not rain" on the whiteboard)) ((A student volunteers to answer but was not heard by the teacher)) Okay.
2	S1:	Not it will rain. ((repeated twice)) ((ignored by the teacher))
3	S2:	Not ((unintelligible))
4	T:	"Not it will rain"?
5		No.
6	Ss:	((unintelligible))
7	T:	Will ___? ((writes on the whiteboard))
8	Ss:	((unintelligible)) ((some say "it"))
9	T:	((writes "it" on the whiteboard))
10	Ss:	((unintelligible)) ((some say "not"))
11	T:	"Not." ((writes "not" on the whiteboard))
12	Ss:	Rain.
13	T:	"Rain." ((writes "rain" on the whiteboard)) …

[Source: 20-5]

In this lesson, the students were practising changing statements into their question form. This was a whole-class task; the teacher wrote the questions and answers on the whiteboard as they went about the task. Excerpt 21 contains the discourse revolving around the statement "It will not rain" (Line 1). Basically what happened was that the students were actively participating by saying out loud what they thought was the answer to the teacher who was standing near the whiteboard. In Line 7 the teacher prompted the students by revealing the first word as a clue for them to start answering in the correct direction. Wrong answers were ignored (Line 2) or immediately rejected without discussion (Lines 3-5). As students continued throwing answers at the teacher, she largely waited them out and picked only the right ones to be written on the whiteboard (Lines 8-13). Student contribution which was unrelated to the final correct answer were mostly ignored and waited out; they were not attended to for discussion.

Give answer. 'Give answer' is the eighth reaction move often used in this study. Answer-giving commonly happened when students could not provide the correct answer despite their attempts (Excerpt 22) or when students could not provide any answer, even after the provision of wait time (Excerpt 23).

Excerpt 22: Give Answer (having elicited incorrect answers)

1	T:	Apa maksud "pride"? … *What is the meaning of "pride"? …*
2	S1:	Kentang goreng. *Fries.*
3	T:	"Kentang goreng." *"Fries."*
4	S2:	Berdoa. *Pray.*
5 6	T:	Itu pray. *That is "pray".* "Pride." ((emphasizes the word)) … (2.7) …
7	S1:	((unintelligible)) chicken.
8 9	T:	((laughs)) Itu fried, bukan pride chicken. … ((laughs)) *That is "fried", not "pride" chicken. ...* Jawapannya adalah kebanggaan. … *The answer is "kebanggaan".* ((translation in Bahasa Melayu)) ...

[Source: 26-2]

Excerpt 22 is about the teacher asking his students the meaning of "pride" (Line 1). As the discourse progressed, the students showed interest in attempting but their answers were all incorrect (Lines 2, 4, and 7); these answers were either ignored (Lines 2-3) or directly corrected without further discussion (Lines 4-5 and 7-8). In fact, in the brief discourse after Line 8 which was excluded from the excerpt, the students were still attempting but their answers continued to be waited out/ignored. Consequently, the teacher revealed the answer as *kebanggaan* (Line 9), which is the translation in Bahasa Melayu for the word "pride".

Excerpt 23: Give Answer (when students do not respond)

1	T:	Okay, settings.
2		Okay, it got two types of settings.
3		Who know what are they?
		(5.1)
4		Okay, setting.
		(3.8)
5		Okay, setting is about the place ((writes on the whiteboard)) and the time ((writes on the whiteboard)) that mentioned in the poem. …

[Source: 16-3]

The discourse in Excerpt 23 was initiated with the teacher asking her students what the two types of setting are (Line 3) in a literature lesson. After two periods of wait time (Lines 3 and 4) without any student response, the teacher ended up revealing the answer (Line 5).

Abandon. Reaction Move Nine in this study is 'abandon', as in abandoning a particular discourse without having consolidated it with any appropriate conclusion (sometimes only with a brief teacher comment) and moving on to the next question or topic to start a new discourse. This reaction move was not used as regularly, however its use illustrates how at times teachers, when faced with situations such as not being able to elicit any answer, or eliciting answers which were unacceptable to them, or being unsure of how to proceed with the discourse, opted to abandon the discourse rather than to straighten out the confusion or conflicting ideas by dialoging with students. In these scenarios, the teacher gave up not only in soliciting student responses but also on the discourse to leave it as it was, without any further discussion.

Excerpt 24: Abandon

1	T:	… Ah, what do you want to eat Blake- fruits?
2	S1:	Eggplant.
3	T:	Huh?
4	S1:	Eggplant.
5	T:	"Eggplant"? ((smiles and walks away))

[Source: 5-59]

As demonstrated in the discourse in Excerpt 24, the teacher was asking the student to name a fruit which he would like to eat (Line 1). Subsequently, the teacher did not correct the student's error (Line 2) – eggplant is not a type of fruit. Neither did the teacher at least acknowledge in specific to the student that his answer was actually incorrect for him to improve his understanding. The teacher merely abandoned the discourse to talk to another student (Line 5).

Impose. Lastly, the tenth reaction move is 'impose'. Like 'abandon', this reaction move though not exactly used in a very frequent manner compared with other reaction moves examined in this study, when used would shut down discourses without allowing students any second thought or chance to negotiate. When teachers imposed on students, they either directly laid their thoughts amidst students' passiveness (Excerpt 25) or they did not delve into what students said even when students responded (Excerpt 26). In these situations, teachers had the tendency to conclude discourses with their own ideas or ideals. Indirectly, students had no say in challenging what the teacher had said, neither did they in defending what they had expressed.

Excerpt 25: Impose (use teacher talk and rhetorical questions)

1	T:	… Every one of us can buy car nowadays.
2		Your family, take for instant(ce), your family.
3		At least two cars?
		(0.8)
4		We can afford right?
5		At least one?
6	S:	Yes.
7	T:	Right?
8		Okay, most of the time it is Proton Saga, Malaysian made car, right? …

[Source: 27-3]

As shown in this discourse (Excerpt 25), the teacher's imposition came in the form of a string of questions asked with rhetorical purposes. Explicitly, questions in Lines 3 and 5 were in fact rhetorical in the sense that the teacher was imposing her own expectations across all student families. And her continuous rhetorical questions in Lines 4, 7, and 8 served to put forth her perception that all student families can afford at least one or two cars and they were mostly Proton Saga; all this done without genuinely letting students talk about themselves in relation to that topic.

Excerpt 26: Impose (force teacher idea on students)

1	T:	… How to make a sentence with the word "flood"? …
2		If it floods ___?
		(1.6) …
3	S1:	Flood.
4	T:	During a flood ___?
5	S1:	We can't swim in the river when the flood because-
6	T:	We can die.
7	S1:	We- because we can die.
8	T:	Okay, we cannot swim in the floods or during- floods because we can die. …

[Source: 8-2]

The discourse in Excerpt 26 revolved around the making of a sentence using the word "flood" (Line 1). The question was asked to a nominated student. As he was struggling, the teacher prompted him using clues (Lines 2 and 4) to help him start the

sentence. Importantly, the student did not just give up or merely follow his teacher's clues, instead he tried making his own sentence (Line 5). Nonetheless, rather than helping the student develop his idea and sentence structure, the teacher dictated to him the ending of his sentence before he could complete it (Line 6). As observed, the teacher imposed on the student her own idea of the sentence, despite the fact that the student was offered the opportunity to do so in the first place. The student thus ended up repeating the teacher's imposed suggestion (Line 7).

Conclusion: Reaction moves in teachers' questioning practices. Generally, teachers' use of reaction moves included both reaction moves which are commonly associated with dialogicality, e.g. probe (Chang, 2009; Cotton, 2001; Gall, 1970; Hannel, 2009; Hsu, 2001; Morgan & Saxton, 1994; Wragg & Brown, 2001), redirect (Cotton, 2001; Gall, 1984; Wright & Nuthall, 1970 as cited in Gall, 1984) and also monologicality, e. g. wait out/ignore (Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012; Tobin, 1986; Wragg & Brown, 2001), give answer (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Rosniah Mustaffa et al., 2011; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh et al., 2014).

Regardless, teachers' reaction moves even when they facilitated student responses, the eventual student responses were mostly simple and straightforward. Student talk of this kind hardly played an essential role in driving classroom discourse as there was no engagement of ideas and reasoning in enriching what was being discussed during the lesson. Hence, even if teachers' reaction moves as a whole offered more opportunities for students to speak and participate during classroom discourse, the quality of their discourse was surface-level and nothing dialogic. Most of the time, students were led to stay on track using reaction moves. This is further discussed in "Influence of Teachers' Questioning Practices on

Classroom Discourse", in relation to the other two dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions and wait time).

Conclusion: Research question one. Presented above is teachers' use of the three dimensions of questioning as discovered in the context of this research; they are types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves. Each dimension was examined, yielding results for instance, display questions being the most-used type of question, teachers most frequently used short wait time in the range of 0.1-1.9s, and teachers' commonly used reaction moves included 'probe', 'prompt', 'redirect', 'reinitiate', 'nudge', 'nominate', 'wait out/ignore', 'give answer', 'abandon', and 'impose'. Having studied teachers' use of the three dimensions of questioning in individual, what is crucial to understand next will be the quality of classroom discourse by investigating teachers' questioning practices in the classroom centering on the interplay between these three dimensions.

As discussed earlier in Chapters 1-2, the quality of a discourse is not supposed to be considered purely based on the use of only one dimension of questioning, although a certain type of question (e.g. referential questions), or a particular range of wait time (e.g. 2 to 5 seconds), or some specific reaction moves (e.g. probe, redirect), have been advocated by studies to be more facilitative of enhanced student talk and classroom discourse (Alexander, 2005; Al-Muaini, 2006 as cited in Yeo & Ting, 2012; Arnold et al., 1974; Brock, 1986; Lamb, 1976; Nystrand, 1997; Rowe, 1974; Tobin, 1986; Wu, 1993; Yang, 2010). This study is premised on the conception that all the three dimensions of questioning are important and ought to be examined together in understanding classroom discourse. In the following section ("Influence of Teachers' Questioning Practices on Classroom Discourse"), the second research question of this study is discussed with the focus on how the

interplay between these three dimensions of questioning influenced classroom discourse, through the dialogism/monologism lens.

Influence of Teachers' Questioning Practices on Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse as observed in the 31 lessons examined in this study was monologic, where students essentially took a backseat within teacher-driven discourses. Despite the overarching monologicality in all lessons, there were variations in classroom discourse, particularly in relation to teachers' questioning practices.

A number of discourses contain interplay between dimensions of questioning that seemed to create opportunities for dialogicality, but these discourses never became dialogic. This gives rise to an important question: How did such discourses remain monologic, despite the emerging dialogic opportunities?

In the context of this study, the monologicality and dialogicality of classroom discourse are conceptualized not on definite and opposing extremes, but on a continuum. As all discourses (content units) analyzed were monologic, the findings of this study revolved around the monologic continuum. This continuum of monologicality emerged based on the examination of three important features derived from the conceptions of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Classroom Discourse"): student thinking and student voice, interactions of multi-voices, and students' influence on classroom discourse (the teacher's control). The opportunities provided, or not, by the teacher for these three features helped discern the quality of classroom discourse on this continuum.

As discovered in this study, there were three broad variations of monologic discourses on the monologic continuum; beginning with teacher-dominated

classroom discourse, moving on to IRE-structured classroom discourse, and ending with extended classroom discourse. Below, the examination of all three variations of monologic classroom discourse using exemplars from the data is delineated.

Teacher-dominated classroom discourse. In general, this pattern of monologicality was present in 20 out of 31 (64.5%) teachers' questioning practices, and dictated a total of 106 out of 755 (14.0%) content units analyzed.

When teachers tended to dominate classroom discourse, questions were used mainly to pave way for more elaborated teacher talk. On these occasions, teachers were typically focused on the sharing and imparting of knowledge and information. Student responses were often either not compulsory, or cursorily or perfunctorily sought. More often than not, the teacher was doing most of the talking, where students' role was reduced to mostly listening and responding only when required.

Within teacher-dominated discourses, there were prevalently four groups of discourse: (1) teachers' answering-own-questions without attempts to seek answers; (2) teachers' sub-discourse with students within teacher talk; (3) teachers' imposition on students; and (4) teachers' answering-own-questions despite attempts to seek open-ended answers. Each group is delineated as follows.

Teachers' answering-own-questions without attempts to seek answers. In this study, there were instances where teachers asked questions rhetorically, in a fast-paced manner, with them answering those questions themselves. This was often done as a means to develop teachers' own explanation or dictation of answers to students. In other words, questions were asked as cues for teacher talk, not as solicitors of student responses. Excerpt 27 depicts such a practice.

In the discourse in Excerpt 27, the teacher continuously answered his own questions, with no wait time in between his utterances. All the questions shown in

this discourse were rhetorical questions. When a student somehow broke the teacher's talk to offer an answer, the teacher directly rejected and brushed it aside without discussion. The teacher did not develop the discourse based on the student's contribution. Instead, the teacher continued dominating classroom discourse with more rhetorical questions and more of him giving the answer to the questions he asked.

This discourse was taken from part of a lesson where the teacher was going through every main character found in the short story that they were studying. In this discourse, the teacher was specifically explaining to his students a characteristic of the character "mother".

The students of this class exhibited lower language proficiency and the teacher delivered the lesson largely in Bahasa Melayu. Discourses in the background including between the teacher and students were also often carried out in Bahasa Melayu. Throughout the lesson, most explanations were done by the teacher without much constructive contribution from the students.

Excerpt 27

1	T:	… "She is very concerned about her son and does not get upset". …
2		Contoh kalau kadang-kadang anak dia ini, macam Tristan ni, kalau dia tak buat- tak boleh melakukan apa-apa dia rasa macam rendah diri. *For example, her son Tristan, when he cannot do anything, he feels inferior.*
3		Macam awaklah contohnya, awak belajar-belajar lepas tu tiba-tiba periksa, dapat apa? *For example, you suddenly have to sit for an examination, what would you get?*
4		Dapat E, contohnya. *Let's say you got an E.*
5		Lepas tu awak- rasa sedih tapi … mak awak akan cakap apa? *You would feel sad, but ... what would your mother say?*
6		Ah, tak apa. *Ah, it is okay.*
7		Ah, tak pe- kita apa? *Ah, it is okay- we what?*
8		Kita cuba lain kali, ah kan? *We try again next time, right?*
9		Maknanya, mak awak tak pernah- tak pernah apa? *It means that your mother would never- never what?*

10		Tak pernah ___? *Never ___?*
11	S:	Marah. *Get angry.*
12	T:	Bukan tak pernah marah. *It's not that she would never get angry.*
13		Maknanya walaupun … mak awak cakap sedih rasa macam dapat E tapi dia cakap apa? *It means that although … your mother may feel sad that you got an E but what would she say?*
14		Dia akan- dia bantu awaklah maknanya- ah, bagus ya, cuba lagi. *She would- it means that she would help you- ah, you did well, try again.*
15		Dia bagi apa? *She would give you what?*
16		Sokongan. *Support.*
17		Dia bagi sokong___? *She would give you support.*
18		Sokongan, okay? *Support, okay?*

[Source: 17-8]

As observed in the discourse in Excerpt 27, in all 18 lines of talk, students contributed only one line of answer, while the teacher dominated the discourse by asking questions rhetorically and answering them himself. From the total of nine questions asked (Lines 3, 5, 7-10, 13, 15, and 18), the teacher answered five in a continuous manner (Lines 3-4, 5-6, 7-8, 13-14, and 15-16). In fact the teacher also appeared to want to continue answering his two questions in Lines 9-10, before a student volunteered an answer (Line 11). Apparently the student's answer was not in line with what the teacher had in mind, thus it was directly disapproved before the teacher proceeded with his explanation based on his own desired course of talk. The teacher did not discuss the reason of rejection of the student's answer or try to assimilate the student's answer into his scheme of explanation. The teacher's sole concern appeared to be to pass on to the students his perspective on one of the characteristics of "mother" (stated in Line 1), not how student answers could help expand the discourse and ultimately the understanding of the character in discussion.

The other two rhetorical questions were only used to emphasize what the teacher was saying (Lines 8 and 18).

Basically, the teacher in this discourse used questions to develop his own course of talk. Not only did the teacher ask questions rhetorically, he went on to answer almost all the questions after asking them. Therefore, the questions asked were used to provide a flow for teacher talk regarding the statement in Line 1, rather than to invite the students to take part in classroom discourse. Seemingly, student contribution was not necessary and the teacher did most of the talking himself, dominating classroom discourse. Importantly the discourse in this excerpt shows the unrelenting domination of teacher talk, where the teacher asked and answered his own questions without providing the opportunity for student talk to surface.

Conclusion: Teachers' answering-own-questions without attempts to seek answers. Excerpt 27 is an exemplar of discourse which almost completely comprised just teacher questions, teacher answers, and teacher talk, without student talk. Within the teacher-dominated variation, this exemplar of discourse sat on the leftmost. With the teacher-dominated variation sitting on the leftmost of the monologic continuum, Excerpt 27 was an exemplar of discourse considered the most monologic in this study.

Opportunities to cultivate student thinking and for student voices to emerge during classroom discourse, as well as for interactions of multi-voices which may engender collaborative meaning-making were practically unavailable. In this group of teacher-dominated classroom discourse, the teacher was the sole speaker. Since students were not even expected to respond to what the teacher asked or said, they had no opportunity to influence classroom discourse in any way. The teacher had full control on the discourse.

Moving on to the second group of teacher-dominated classroom discourse (below), students in these discourses were invited to take part in classroom discourse. Hence, student participation was present though being limited. Excerpts 28-29 show some of the exemplars of this group of discourses.

Teachers' sub-discourse with students within teacher talk. In this study, normally it was when students were obligated to answer questions that they were given the opportunity to talk, usually involving brief and simple responses. Their answers were commonly negligible, meaning that student answers were only cursorily sought without really being taken into consideration to influence subsequent talk; they were not pursued for contribution of ideas, sharing of thoughts, or discussion of similar/different perspectives.

In teachers' attempt to give the impression of enhanced student role in learning, some teachers in the study played the part in trying to involve students in the discourse with other questions before getting to the 'real' (main) question in discussion. In these scenarios, teachers carried out sub-discourse with their students so that students could first participate by answering some simple questions. Teachers then continued the discourse by revealing to students their scheme of answers to the main question. The discourses in Excerpts 28-29 are the exemplars of such scenarios.

To begin with, Excerpt 28 depicts a teacher who basically asked for his students' preference of answer to his question and that was all in terms of involving the students in the discourse. The teacher was talking to his students about how to end a passage (story) in the worksheet that they were working on during the lesson. The teacher was asking his students if they preferred a happy or a sad ending, and student responses were a mix of both.

The teacher actually started the discourse off by asking for his students' opinion on a suitable ending for the story but gave up not long after to ask for just his students' preference of either a happy or a sad ending. In addition, the students' choices of ending were not followed up for the students to provide extended and substantiated answers. The increased student participation was mostly in raising their hand as a sign of agreement to convey their preferred option to the teacher's question. The rest of the work was done by the teacher; the teacher wrote the sample answers on the whiteboard and the students copied them down.

Throughout the lesson, Bahasa Melayu was frequently used by the teacher as students (lower language proficiency) often had trouble understanding what the teacher was saying. Due to this, the teacher regularly translated into Bahasa Melayu his questions and utterances so that the students could understand him and the lesson.

Excerpt 28

1	T:	… "Write a suitable ending …"
2		What a suitable ending?
3		So how do you end this story?
4		Macam mana mahu kasi dia end, macam mana?
		How to end it, how?
5		… ((tries to construct an answer on the whiteboard))
6		((pauses)) Now, you want a- you want a happy ending or a sad ending?
7	Ss:	Happy ending.
8	T:	Who- who want happy ending? ((raises hand))
9		Who want happy ending?
10	Ss:	((some raise hand))
11	T:	((counts the number of student)) Okay, put down- put down your hand.
12		Who- who wants a sad ending?
		(1.1)
13	S1:	((raises hand))
14	T:	Who want a sad ending?
15		Ah.. apa dia punya-
		Ah.. how to say it-
16	S2:	Cikgu, cakap dalam Bahasa Melayu.
		Teacher, speak in Bahasa Melayu.
17	T:	Penutup yang sedih.
		Sad ending.

18		Penutup yang sedih.
		Sad ending.
19		Yang menyedihkan.
		A saddening one.
20		Macam cerita Hindustan, you tengok you menangis.
		Like Hindustani movies, when you watch them you will cry.
21		Okay, where it makes you cry.
22	Ss:	((some raise hand))
23	T:	((to S1)) You mahu sad- sad ending?
		You want a sad- sad ending?
24		((to S2)) You mahu sad ending?
		You want a sad ending?
25	S3:	((waves hand when teacher points at her)) Tak mahu, tak mahu, cikgu.
		((waves hand when teacher points at her)) *Don't want, don't want, teacher.*
26	T:	"Tak mahu"?
		"Don't want"?
27		Happy ending?
28		Okay, let us- let us try to make a- a sad ending first. …
29		((writes a sad ending as the answer on the whiteboard while reading it aloud))
30		Okay?
31		Now this is a sad ending. …
32		In life, we want a- we want a happy ending okay?
33		Happy ending.
34		((erases the sad ending and writes a happy ending as the answer on the whiteboard while reading it aloud)) …
35		So that's it yeah, happy ending, okay?

[Source: 29-7]

The teacher initiated the discourse by repetitively asking a question in a rhetorical manner, about how the story should be ended (Lines 1-4). Unfortunately, with no time given to students to forward their idea, the teacher proceeded to begin constructing his own answer on the whiteboard (Line 5). The teacher did not seem to expect his students to respond. Later, when the teacher paused to re-seek the students' responses, his initial question which seemed to be opinion-based and open-ended was replaced with a two-option, closed-ended referential question which only required the students to state if they wished for a happy or a sad ending for the story (Line 6). After that, from the teacher's reaction moves in prompting his students by breaking down the question (Lines 8-9, 12, and 14), the only opportunity given to students to talk was still merely in regard to the ending being happy or sad, and not to

contributing meaningfully to how the ending could be happy or sad. The students were not asked to construct themselves the kind of ending that they desired and to talk about it in class. Rather, the teacher dominated the discourse with his ideas and had students copy down his answers which were written on the whiteboard.

In this discourse, the teacher acted as the only source of input without entrusting more opportunities and time for students to think, come out with, and explain their own ideas, hence leading the discourse to be monologic.

One practice demonstrated in this discourse was the teacher's attempts to involve students in classroom discourse. However, these attempts were done superficially where students were not engaged in any substantive dialogue with the teacher as well as other students. As observed in the discourse, students were expected to respond but their talk did not go further than 'yes' or 'no' as there was little room for expression and exchanges of opinions, while the teacher did all the work in talking through his own ideas in regard to his own question.

In some other cases, teachers' effort to improve student involvement or participation in classroom discourse necessitated students to evaluate other students' answers through teachers' use of the reaction move 'redirect', including the justification for their evaluation.

Excerpt 29 is an exemplar of such practice where the teacher appeared to be engaging her students in a discussion of the answers of an exercise which the students had completed. Prior to the discussion, the teacher had had some student volunteers write their answers on the whiteboard. The exercise was about stating the activities done by Zed when he went back to his *kampung* (hometown).

The students in this class displayed lower language proficiency and were mostly attentive. In this discourse, they could quite easily answer "yes" and "no" to

the teacher's questions but were not pushed to provide extended and substantiated

answers.

Excerpt 29

1	T:	… Never mind, we'll discuss one by one.
2		Okay, so the first one is "took photograph".
3		Is it correct?
4	Ss:	Yes.
5	T:	Yes, okay.
6		"He took photograph with his father."
7		Okay, because there are "many birds and small creatures came near our chalet".
8		Okay, Number Two, "sightseeing", is it correct?
9	Ss:	Yes.
10	T:	Yes, because his.. did mention that he see a lot of creatures, dangerous creatures.
11		For example, given is?
12	Ss:	Snakes.
13	T:	"Snakes."
14		Okay, a small python.
15		Snake, okay.
16		And then.. errr, Number Three, "holiday".
17	Ss:	No.
18	T:	Yes or no?
19	Ss:	No.
20	T:	Why say "no"?
21	S:	That's what- (1.0)
22	T:	This is about going for holiday, so it's couldn't be a "holiday". ((erases the answer on the whiteboard))
23		So, this is wrong.
24		Okay, how about "listen to the insect"?
25	S:	Right.
26	T:	Yes, correct because during ah- okay, at night they didn't have any other activities but the choice is only listen to the insects.
27		Okay, and the last one, "busy working"? ((emphasizes with a raised tone)) (0.7)
28		He's not working, he's going for a holiday. ((erases the answer on the whiteboard))
29		Okay?
30		But actually the answer is- … ((gives instruction where to look in the text))
31		He said that "there was nothing to do", but then Sam answer- errr, Sam said that "no, so my dad told me about his childhood and how he lived in a *kampung*".
32		Means that he's having a story- ___? (0.5)
33		Telling.
34		Story-telling.
35		Is it yes or no?
36	Ss:	Yes.

37	T:	Ah.
38		So I put is as Number Three, story-telling. ((writes the answer on the whiteboard))
39		Okay, so we've done. …

[Source: 13-18]

This sequence of talk was initiated with the intention to discuss the answers given by the students; there were a total of five answers written on the whiteboard. For every answer, the teacher asked (redirected to) her students for them to comment whether the answer was correct (Lines 3, 8, 16, 24, and 27).

Unfortunately, to these redirection efforts (display questions), as observed in lines 4, 9, 17, 19, and 25, the students provided only one-worded responses; their evaluation of their peers' answers consisted only whether each answer was right or wrong. For all the answers except for the third and last ones which were wrong answers, the teacher was the one who provided or initiated the evidence from the text to support each answer (Lines 6-7, 10, and 26). The teacher did not probe students to have them justify the correctness or incorrectness of the answers based on their comprehension of the text.

As for the third answer, although the teacher attempted to probe for the students' justification as to why they said the answer was wrong (Line 20), the teacher gave up on the probe immediately after a wait time of 1.0 second (Line 21). Although a student appeared to be interested to try answering (Line 21), the teacher simply confirmed that the third answer was wrong (Lines 22-23) before promptly moving on to the fourth answer (Line 24).

Then in Line 27 when the teacher asked whether the fifth answer was correct, the teacher spoke with a raised tone, almost implying to the students that something was wrong with the answer. The answer was rejected by the teacher in Line 28 after a wait time of 0.7 second (Line 27).

The teacher subsequently revealed another answer which could be found in the text (Lines 30-34, and 38). The discussion of answers ended with four finalized answers: taking photographs, sightseeing, story-telling, and listening to insects.

In this whole discussion of answers, the students were neither involved in talking about their reading of the text nor pressed for an answer when the teacher tried providing wait time. The teacher seemingly tried to incorporate student participation into the discourse (e.g. asked them whether the answers were right – Lines 3, 8, 16, 24, and 27, provided them wait time – Lines 21, 27, and 32, probed them for simple details obtainable from the text – Line 11 as well as for student justification – Line 20, let them finish her utterance – Line 32), but these did not lead to any expression of student thinking and student voice. There was very little student talk and again this teacher too did not seem to mind in proceeding with the discourse although students practically participated in only 'yay-ing' or 'nay-ing' other students' answers. Eventually, it was a superficial discussion as teacher talk dominated the discourse when it was the teacher who explained all the answers on the whiteboard based on the text.

Conclusion: Teachers' sub-discourse with students within teacher talk. Unlike discourses in the first group, the discourses in both Excerpts 28-29 show the teacher's intention to involve students in classroom discourse. With limits, students were asked to respond to teacher questions during sub-discourse. Unfortunately, these sub-discourses were neither challenging nor further engaged students with the main discourse. As observed, student responses revolved largely around yes/no or two-choose-one-answers, with the teacher doing the rest of the explaining. Student talk was encouraged but without any significant purpose to enhance classroom discourse.

This group of discourses demonstrates teacher attempts in encouraging students to respond, but there was little room for student thinking and student voice. Even when there were efforts (i.e. use of wait time and reaction moves) to induce substantiated student responses, they were often sporadic and unable to break the teacher's tendency of automatically going back to the previous pattern of doing the rest of the explaining. Expectedly, there was no interaction of multi-voices. Teachers typically went on and on till the end and students had no influence on classroom discourse. Classroom discourse was still tightly controlled; teachers were especially controlling how much students got to say and single-handedly concluded discourses with teacher talk.

Next up, the third group of teacher-dominated classroom discourse (below) shows how teachers too encouraged student responses, this time by relating to students' own personal experiences and feelings where students would probably open up more easily. Teachers however kept student responses very limited (requiring mostly yes/no) and did not pursue the responses thereafter. In fact, when teachers elicited student responses which were seemingly incoherent with what they had expected or preferred, they insisted on certain ideas by outright concluding the discourse with teacher talk. Excerpts 30-31 illustrate teachers' imposition on students when they appeared to have obtained 'out-of-scheme' responses.

Teachers' imposition on students. Excerpt 30 exhibits the teacher's reaction move in imposing his idea on his students as he concluded the discourse, after his ostensible effort in drawing students into a discussion using referential questions (Lines 1-2) which indicated interest on students' travel experiences. The discourse was eventually cut short and rendered monologic with the teacher not following up student responses.

The students were observed to be attentive and rather quiet especially when the teacher was speaking. Based on the discourses carried out in the lesson, the students showed lower language proficiency.

Excerpt 30

1	T:	Okay, how many of you have travelled by air? (2.1)
2		You have travelled by air, by aeroplane?
3	Ss:	No.
4	T:	Never?
5	Ss:	Never.
6	T:	Are you sure?
7	Ss:	Yes. (0.8)
8	T:	So you are going to travel by aeroplane, maybe at the end of this year. (0.6)
9		Hopefully, yes or no?
10	S:	Yes.
11	T:	Maybe.. to.. errr, Sabah, yes or no?
12	Ss:	Yes.
13	T:	Ah, okay.

[Source: 14-11]

When the students answered "no" in Line 3, the teacher appeared to be taken aback. The teacher's slight surprise by the students' revelation that they had never taken a flight before was shown in Lines 4 and 6 where the teacher sought double confirmation from the students. Though with the knowledge of students' inexperience in travelling by air the teacher showed no intention to make a detour to explore this direction of discourse. The teacher did not pursue the matter to allow the students to talk about their future plans for taking flights or their other travel experiences which could be related to the topic. Instead, the teacher decided to cut the discourse short with him telling the students what to do as their travel plan and when to do it (Lines 8 and 11). The teacher's use of rhetorical questions ending with "yes or no?" in Lines 9 and 11 further drove the students to accept without question

their teacher's idea and say "yes" (Lines 10 and 12) to satisfy the teacher. With the teacher's intention to keep the discourse parallel to only what the teacher expected, the discourse was rendered monologic where student voices were not followed up or allowed to influence the direction of the discourse.

At large, there was a sense that a discourse somehow ought to be concluded after students gave their answer. Subsequently, discourses were often kept at the surface level because teachers did not encourage the discourse to be extended in ways which students were allowed to discuss the topic in depth with the teacher as well as other students. From observations, some teachers operated questioning with a certain scheme and they seemed to expect their expectations be fulfilled. Thus, when unexpected answers came along, teachers would not give up trying to conclude the discourse their way; therefore teachers rarely expanded the discourse based on student responses.

The following discourse (Excerpt 31) too shows how the teacher in the face of unexpected answer simply proceeded to close the discourse with her own concluding remark after the students provided their responses.

Gauging from student discourses, the students of this class at large displayed higher language proficiency. They were chatty and active throughout the lesson.

Excerpt 31

1	T:	So today we have learned about what do you think- what do you miss about Malaysia, right?
2		Okay, do you love Malaysia?
3	Ss:	No. / Yes.
4	T:	That's so cruel.
5	S:	I love Japan.
6	T:	Okay, you love Japan. ((nods)) (2.8)
7		Eh, you should love Malaysia.
8		Very peaceful country.

[Source: 19-15]

In this discourse, the teacher was drawing up a conclusion for her lesson by asking her students whether they loved Malaysia, as shown in Line 2. To student responses of both "yes" and "no" (Line 3), the teacher responded particularly to "no" and evaluated these responses with a rather judgmental comment (Line 4), instead of probing for students' justification. Then, although in Line 6 the teacher accepted and acknowledged the student's answer in Line 5 that he loved Japan and not Malaysia, the teacher eventually ended the discourse with imposing statements (Lines 7-8). That was the consolidation session for the lesson. The lesson simply ended thereafter with the students standing up and saying their "thank you" to their teacher. Seemingly, a topic of potential in generating dialogic classroom discourse enriched with multiple student perspectives was not fully exploited.

Conclusion: Teachers' imposition on students. The discourses in Excerpts 30-31 exhibit how teachers used topics which had relation to what students had personally experienced, thus perhaps could have talked more about. Teachers nevertheless appeared to be unprepared to have dialogue based on what their students really had to say. They seemed to expect only closed-ended responses and which were parallel with their line of thought.

From these excerpts, it can be observed that teachers did provide some opening for student voice by bringing in what students experienced personally into the discourse. What teachers did not provide was appropriate follow-up to delve into student voices. Consequently, student thinking was hardly triggered as there was no need to be engaged in any deep discussion. There was no interaction of multi-voices and teachers were seen exerting control on classroom discourse by not allowing unanticipated student responses bring about change to the discourse path. Eventually,

the discourse remained unobstructed and was concluded according to teachers' desire.

In the fourth group of teacher-dominated classroom discourse (below), teachers showed effort not only in eliciting responses, but also open-ended ones. In addition, teachers allocated wait time for students to respond. Nonetheless, classroom discourse was still monologically teacher-dominated. Excerpts 32-34 are some exemplars of this final group of teacher-dominated discourses.

Teachers' answering-own-questions despite attempts to seek open-ended answers. It is worth noting that in this study, teacher-dominated discourses were not necessarily due to teachers' questioning practices which aimed for only closed-ended student responses. As will be played out in the three excerpts (Excerpts 32-34) in this last group of teacher-dominated classroom discourse, there were a number of occasions where teachers asked questions which could have triggered an array of possible answers. During these occasions, the questions posed were generally open-ended and seemed to invite potentially diverse responses from students. However, teachers tended to give out answers way too soon before students were provided sufficient time or support to think and talk about the question. Students' lack of response did not trigger further follow-up from the teacher; instead, a string of answers was unquestioningly yielded in a continuous manner. Hence, despite the opportunities for dialogicality provided by the initial open-ended questions, student ideas had little space to surface, to be shared and developed. Teacher answers, rather than student answers dominated classroom discourse.

First off, the discourse below (Excerpt 32) shows how the teacher assumed the role as the major source of input and knowledge during classroom discourse as

she was eager to share information with her students using continuous talk with minimal wait time provided, leaving students as passive listeners.

This piece of discourse came from a lesson where the teacher was talking about the hibiscus flower as the national flower and a national symbol of Malaysia. The students showed higher language proficiency during classroom discourse. They were generally attentive but had little opportunity to talk.

Excerpt 32

1	T:	… Do you have this flower [hibiscus] in your house?
2	Ss:	No. / Yes.
3	T:	Your garden?
4		I'm having one.
5		I'm having the real *bunga raya*- because of its beauty, the colour, and also because of the medicinal value.
6		Medicinal value meaning it also work as a medicine.
7		The flower we can boil and drink the water.
8		We can boil the flower and drink the water.
9		The leaves, what can you do with the leaves class? (0.3)
10		Anyone? (0.7)
11		Any traditional way of using the leaves?
12		Any idea?
13	S:	No.
14	T:	Oh- you guys are all modern kids.
15		You don't really know.
16		Those days, our grandma- okay?
17		They used these leaves to take their bath.
18		They washed their hair, okay?
19		Their hair using the shampoo they produced by squeezing the leaves.
20		Go and try, go and try, okay?
21		Take some ah.. *bunga raya* leaves and try to squeeze them in water.
22		You will get sticky- a sticky substance just like your shampoo and you can always use that to wash your hair, understand?
23		Very cooling, cooling property.
24		Do you want to try? (0.7)
25	S:	Yes.
26	T:	Go back and try.
27		No harm, very traditional, very original.
28		Understand huh?
29		Go and try.
30		Go and ask your grandma maybe she can tell you further.

31		Understand huh?
32		You guys should know all this.
33		Try. …

[Source: 27-5]

In this discourse of about one minute and 45 seconds, a total of 13 questions were asked. The initial questions (Lines 1 and 3) implied the teacher's interest in her students' experiences in regard to the hibiscus flower, but this interest was very short-lived, or as a matter of fact superficial. Student responses in Line 2 were not probed for multiple student voices to act as sources of knowledge to enrich the discourse. The teacher simply began talking about her own experience in relation to the hibiscus flower (Lines 4-8). Thus, the two questions in Lines 1 and 3 were rhetorical.

Out of the remaining 11 questions, six of them were also rhetorical, where the teacher was not expecting any answer to, habitually ending her utterances with "okay?", or merely putting emphasis on what she was saying (Lines 16, 18, 20, 22, 28, and 31).

Four other questions (Lines 9-12) were open-ended display questions and invited the students to share their ideas but were posed in rapid succession with no or minute wait time, to which a student eventually answered with a "no" in Line 13 and which the teacher responded to with her imposed perception (Lines 14-15) and explanation thereon (Lines 16-19 and 21-23).

One more question in Line 24 (referential question) though asked for the students' preference in trying the hibiscus flower shampoo, was not used to generate discussion to allow them to share their reasoning in detail. After eliciting a "yes" (Line 25), the teacher again continued speaking till the end of the discourse (Lines 26-33).

Despite eliciting only three rounds of "yes" and "no" from the students (Lines 2, 13, and 25), these short student responses and the students' overall passiveness did not seem to deter the teacher from talking on about the topic on her own. As observed, the discourse was dominated throughout by teacher talk.

The teacher seemed to lack interest in her students' points of view and in developing the discourse based on these points of view. The questions used by the teacher, although some touched on students' personal experiences and some were open-ended, were either rhetorical or breezed through without any genuine discussion building on them. The students, on the other hand, also did not seem compelled to work on an answer for their teacher; they appeared to remain indifferent toward putting in effort to answer their teacher's questions in an elaborated manner. As displayed in this discourse, even without any in-depth contribution on their part, the teacher was unhesitant in going forth with the discourse on her own. When the teacher too readily gave up on wanting an answer from their students, after few brief periods of wait time, the unnecessariness of student responses appeared to be heightened and the domination of teacher talk continued.

The next piece of discourse in Excerpt 33 took place as the teacher had assigned a writing task to his students; he was talking about how his students should write the composition. As the teacher was observed saying, this lesson was as a matter of fact the first time students were assigned with a writing task (for that academic year). Most of the students in this class displayed lower language proficiency and were not very responsive when asked questions.

Excerpt 33

1	T:	Firstly, what should you have in this composition?
2		What should you have?
		(0.8)
3		Apa yang perlu awak ada dalam composition ini?
		What should you have in this composition?
		(2.2)
4		First, the name of the park. ((first guiding question))
5		Okay, you write in pencil in your book. …
6		Next, where is it? ((second guiding question))
7		Where is the place? …
8		The third question.
9		When can you visit the place? ((third guiding question))
10		When can you visit the place? …
11		Question Number Four.
12		How can you get there? ((fourth guiding question)) …
13		Okay, there are four questions.
14		I posted that four questions already, am I right?
15	S:	Yes.
16	T:	Okay, that one is for paragraph one, for the first paragraph.
17		Meaning that one is what?
18		Introduction, okay?
19		Introduction to the place. …
20		Okay, now we proceed to the paragraph two, second paragraph. …

[Source: 2-4]

What the teacher did in this discourse was to provide the four guiding questions (Lines 4, 6, 9, and 12) in answer to his own question initiated in Lines 1-3. Not only so, observed from the discourses after each guiding question which were excluded from the excerpt above, he too went on suggesting probable answers, leaving his students to be mostly listening to and/or copying down his ideas without having to elaborate any idea to develop the discussion on how to write the composition.

What was observed in teachers' questioning practices in this regard was their disposition in providing wait time after asking questions (Lines 2-3), as well as their inclination to provide the answers immediately after, despite the questions being open-ended. There was no follow-up by the teacher on his students' inability to

respond after the wait time provided as the teacher instinctively listed the answers (the four guiding questions as well as the probable answers for each).

Excerpt 34 (below) displays similar characteristics of teachers' questioning practices. In this lesson, the teacher was talking to a group of students about the short story that they were studying. The teacher had earlier divided all the students into two small groups (it was a small class) and tasked them to prepare a brief role-play for the short story. Thus, in this discourse taken from when the students were in the midst of preparing for their role-play, the teacher was going through with them the dialogues of one of the scenes in the short story.

Generally, all the students were attentive but appeared to be rather confused during the task. Most of the time, they let the teacher drove the discussion. Some students were more vocal and able to speak quite fluently while a few were very shy and unable to speak up. In general they displayed intermediate language proficiency.

Throughout the task, the teacher was observed to have the tendency to answer her own questions. As exemplified in the discourse in Excerpt 34, the teacher began explaining and answering her own question after a wait time of 1.8 seconds succeeding the initial question (Line 1). More to this, throughout the task, the teacher was also often making her students repeat and memorize the dialogues she suggested word by word, when the students were supposed to be discussing and completing the task on their own.

Excerpt 34

1	T:	Okay, then ((unintelligible))?
		(1.8)
2		Then, then you say "Oh"-
3		Then you say "James"-
4		No, James- got a lot of new friends.
5		James is very happy because he's in the same football team as Kiara Jones.
6		Understand?
7		You put up your hand. ((hand-gestures))
8		Say "Yeah".
9	S1:	"Yeah." ((raises her hands and laughs))
10	T:	"I'm very happy."
11		Say.
12	S1:	"Yeah, I'm very happy"-
13	T:	"In the new"
14	S1:	In the new school.
15	T:	"School because"
16	S1:	Because I..
17	T:	"I'm in the"
18	S1:	I'm in the football team-
19	T:	"Together with"
20	S1:	Together with Kiara.. ((struggles with the pronunciation of the name))
21	T:	"Kiara Jones." ((pronounces it for S1))
22	S1:	"Kiara Jones."
23	T:	Okay.

[Source: 1-24]

In Line 1, the implicit question posed for the student was to construct based on the literary text, the dialogues for the character "James" that she would be playing in that particular scene. Throughout the discourse, only one period of wait time was provided (Line 1) and the rest of the discourse was dominated by the teacher's dictation of answers (dialogues) to her student. Student talk was highly limited to repeating what the teacher had dictated and the teacher was quick to finish the student's sentence when the student tried picking up after her (Lines 7-20).

With this, the teacher allowed little room for the discourse to revolve around the student's sharing of her interpretation of the literary text. The teacher for at least half of the time was actually feeding dialogues to her student, in a word-by-word

manner (Lines 2-3, 8, 10, 13, 15, 17, and 19) and even to the point of telling her student the action to do (Line 7). Despite the open-endedness in which the dialogues for each character in the role-play could be created, most of the students were not really given the autonomy to produce a role-play enriched with their own perspectives.

During the whole preparation period, the teacher seemingly was more concerned in making sure that the students knew what they were supposed to say during the role-play, than in exploring the students' understanding of the literary text, and from there, in discussing with them how they could present their own ideas and interpretation of the literary text. In fact, half of the discourses (content units) were teacher-dominated with the teacher dictating what the students should say; instead of letting them talk about and construct dialogues based on their understanding of the short story. The teacher was often eager to provide the answers (dialogues) as not to hold back the preparation and to be able to move on to the role-play soon.

Open-ended and aesthetic expression using the language, which is very well one of the objectives of doing a role-play, was not encouraged. This role-play would likely help facilitate an enhanced appreciation and comprehension of the literary text and the use of the language among all classroom participants; but the opportunities were not fully utilized.

Conclusion: Teachers' answering-own-questions despite attempts to seek open-ended answers. Excerpts 32-34 of the final group of teacher-dominated classroom discourse contain discourses which demonstrate teacher efforts in asking for open-ended student responses despite the use of display questions. But again, these discourses remained monologically teacher-dominated, simply because effort to push on for student responses was largely missing. Teachers did provide wait time

for students to respond to questions, but at the same time had no qualm in taking over the answering part on behalf of students whenever students failed to do so. In other words, there were opportunities for students to present their ideas but these opportunities were often one-chance in nature. Further wait time and support (reaction moves) by teachers were not made available to students; hence students' inability and/or unwillingness to contribute ideas, which apparently kept the discourse monologically teacher-dominated.

As open-ended responses were sought in this group of discourses, students were actually given the opportunities to offer their own ideas and experiences (student thinking and student voice). Similar to other groups of teacher-dominated classroom discourse, no interaction of multi-voices was facilitated. In these discourses, open-ended questions were posed and wait time was present (mostly short); but in the absence of student responses, rather than continuing to work on encouraging students to contribute to the discourse, teachers simply reclaimed and exerted their control on classroom discourse to keep the lesson going by giving out the answers.

Overall conclusion: Teacher-dominated classroom discourse. Discussed above are the four groups of monologic classroom discourse which were largely teacher-dominated, as discovered in this study. Teachers' questioning practices prominent across this variance of monologicality included the answering of own questions without attempts to seek answers (Excerpt 27), the use of sub-discourse with students within teacher talk (Excerpt 28-29), the imposition on students upon the elicitation of answers (Excerpts 30-31), and the answering of own questions despite attempts to seek open-ended answers (Excerpts 32-34).

For the first group (Excerpt 27), teachers had the tendency to answer their own questions immediately after asking, without offering any opportunity to students to respond. Therefore, there was practically no room for student responses.

Teachers in the second group (Excerpts 28-29) gave students the opportunities to respond, but with limits. Teachers tried to involve students in classroom discourse by using only trivial and brief talk before resuming dominance on the main question and subsequent talk. Instead of engaging students in further discussion after the sub-discourse, teachers were the one who eventually yielded the answers or the justification/evidence to answers to the main question.

Meanwhile, teachers in the third group (Excerpts 30-31) too provided responding opportunities to students, and even put in efforts to engage students by tapping into students' personal experiences and feelings. Nonetheless, teachers were more apt to impose their own ideas or ideals on students than to actually discuss student responses to facilitate in-depth and extended student talk.

For the fourth and final group (Excerpts 32-34), opportunities for students to respond were also created and teachers put forth more open-ended questions, often together with the use of wait time. However, teacher attempts were rather hasty and seemed to be done routinely without sustained facilitation (e.g. more wait time and reaction moves) to continue facilitating student output especially when there was no student response. Student responses even when they were present were not substantive and teachers typically proceeded to answer their own questions.

In this study, teacher-dominated classroom discourse was the most monologic classroom discourse, essentially due to the extremely limited role that students had in discourses. In these discourses, teacher talk was always domineering and student ideas were rarely genuinely looked for. On the occasions where students were given

the opportunities to respond and take part in classroom discourse, teacher efforts were often cursory or perfunctory. This is to say, student responses be them present or absent, were not compulsory and had little influence on subsequent classroom discourse; teacher talk would usually take care of the rest.

Looking at the three features of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Classroom Discourse"), opportunities for interactions of multi-voices and opportunities for students to influence classroom discourse were constantly absent across this part of the monologic continuum. Beginning with the first group, there was practically zero opportunity for students to even talk. Opportunities for student thinking and student voice though still limited, slightly increased from the second to the fourth group, mostly due to the question types or wait time used. For instance, in the fourth group, teachers used display questions which could take in open-ended student responses. However, as teacher efforts in teacher-dominated discourses were hardly followed-up (using more wait time or reaction moves) to nurture student talk and were instead sandwiched with teacher talk, discourses were often rendered teacher-dominated.

The next sub-section talks about the second variation of monologicality on the monologic continuum in this study, the IRE-structured classroom discourse and its distinctions.

IRE-structured classroom discourse. In this study, the monologicality of classroom discourse also manifested in IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) (Mehan, 1979) forming the backbone of teachers' questioning practices. Among 31 teachers, the IRE format of talk was a part of the questioning practices of 28 (90.3%) teachers. Looking at the prevalence of this pattern of monologicality across the data, 247 out of 755 (32.7%) content units were predominantly IRE based.

This format of talk was predominant when teachers were seeking direct and straightforward answers. With IRE, teachers would ask an initiating question (I) and students would provide the answer (R). Teachers would then evaluate the answer (E) and proceed with the next piece of discourse.

In understanding the IRE structure within the discourses in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms, it typically happened when teachers sought quick closure to their questions so that they could move on to the next discourse. Within this discourse pattern, acceptable answers were straightaway acknowledged whereas unacceptable answers were dealt with immediate rejection and correction. In either situation, student responses were never further pursued.

Unlike teacher-dominated classroom discourse where student responses were generally cursorily or perfunctorily sought, in IRE-structured classroom discourse student responses were deliberately sought. In other words, teachers desired student responses, even though these responses were also rarely followed up just like those in teacher-dominated classroom discourse. Therefore in IRE bound discourses examined in this study, no reaction move was involved and wait time was only used occasionally. Overall, in IRE-structured classroom discourse, student responses were necessary and questions were not just used to facilitate teacher talk (as done in teacher-dominated classroom discourse).

There were two groups of discourse within IRE-structured classroom discourse: (1) teachers' asking for known answers (without follow-up); and (2) teachers' asking for unknown answers (without follow-up). Both groups are further discerned below.

Teachers' asking for known answers (without follow-up). In the lesson from which the next piece of discourse (Excerpt 35) came from, the teacher was playing a video about the variety of food found in Kuala Lumpur. The video was paused occasionally for the teacher to ask his students questions about what they watched in the video. Excerpt 35 shows the discourse when the teacher asked his students to identify the item on the screen when he paused the video.

The discourses between the teacher and students demonstrate students' lower language proficiency. Throughout the video session, most of the students paid attention and tried answering when the teacher asked questions.

Excerpt 35

1	T:	((points at the screen)) This one? (2.2)
2	S:	Roti *canai*.
3	T:	"Roti *canai*"?
4		Errr, naan, naan, naan, naan, naan.
5		Roti naan.

[Source: 5-57]

In this discourse, the question asked was a simple display question which was closed-ended. It only tested whether the students knew what the item shown on the screen was (Line 1); the teacher did not prolong the discourse to improve the students' understanding of "naan" when the opportunity rose. As observed, it appeared that none of the students knew that the item was "naan" and one of them thought it was "roti canai" (Line 2). Realizing this, the teacher however did not develop the discourse to help students recognize and discuss the similarities as well as differences between those two, and in fact just ended the discourse by saying that the item was "naan" (Line 4) or "roti naan" (Line 5). The teacher appeared to be

interested in only passing to students the information that the item was "naan" rather than in facilitating students to expand their knowledge through dialogue.

Other than this, during occasions where teachers managed to elicit acceptable student answers, these answers would be directly acknowledged without being succeeded by any extension of talk, as depicted in the discourses in Excerpts 36-38.

The following discourse (Excerpt 36) is an exemplar of an IRE-structured discourse in which the answer elicited was correct. The teacher provided explicit acknowledgement of the acceptable answer within the IRE structure before moving on to the next question.

Throughout the lesson, the students (intermediate language proficiency) were quite participative especially when required to answer questions.

Excerpt 36

1	T:	Who was arrested for the murder?
2	S:	((raises hand)) James McCarthy.
3	T:	"James McCarthy."
4		Okay. …

[Source: 31-2]

At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher was asking some questions to gauge her students' understanding of the novel that they were studying. The discourse in this excerpt illustrates one of the questions asked by the teacher. As shown in Line 1, the teacher asked a display question to which a student responded with the correct answer in Line 2. Upon eliciting the correct answer, the teacher explicitly acknowledged the answer by repeating it (Line 3) and saying "Okay" (Line 4) before subsequently proceeding with the next question.

Especially during this questioning session as well as throughout this literature lesson, the teacher was focused on the students' mastery of factual information of the

novel, without involving the students' appreciation and interpretation of the literary work. As a matter of fact, the development of students' personal voice in interacting with and dialoging about literary work in other literature lessons examined in this study was gravely missing.

Next, another example of IRE-structured discourses was when teachers would just provide implicit acknowledgement for correct answers, as shown in the discourse in Excerpt 37. In this discourse, the teacher only implicitly acknowledged the correct answer with her direct posing of the next question without responding specifically to the correct answer. This discourse occurred when the teacher was asking her students to spell some words which they had learned previously while waiting for the bell to ring to end the lesson.

The students in this class exhibited intermediate language proficiency and actively responded to the teacher's questions throughout the lesson.

Excerpt 37

1	T:	Harmful. ((asks students to spell the word))
2	Ss:	H-A-R-M-F-U-L.
3		Harmful.
4	T:	Destroy. ((asks students to spell the word)) …

[Source: 30-27]

In Line 1, the teacher asked her students to spell the word "harmful"; the indirect display question here was "How to spell 'harmful'?" As the students completed the spelling of the word (Lines 2-3), the teacher directly asked for the spelling of the next word "destroy" (Line 4). The teacher's prompt initiation of the next indirect question "How to spell 'destroy'?" signaled the implicit acknowledgement that the students' spelling of the word "harmful" was correct and accepted, thus the teacher's moving on to the next word.

Sometimes in other instances, teachers would also add on answers to their own question at the end of an IRE-structured discourse after evaluating all given answers for acceptance. An example of discourse is shown in Excerpt 38.

The teacher in the lesson distributed notes to her students and then talked to them about the two main characters of the short story that they were studying. During this task, the students were in general participative in answering teacher questions; they mostly displayed intermediate language proficiency.

In Excerpt 38 (below), the discourse was about one of the characteristics of one of the main characters. This piece of discourse was focused on what one particular character was good at (Line 1).

Excerpt 38

1	T:	Good at what?
2	Ss:	Mathematics.
3	T:	"Mathematics."
4	Ss:	Acting. …
5	T:	Also good with words, right or not?
6	Ss:	Yes.

[Source: 1-34]

As the teacher and students were observed to be looking at the notes while performing the discourse above, the answers in Lines 2 and 4 were apparently produced based on the notes. Thus the students were largely eliciting information from the notes in answering the teacher's display question initiated in Line 1. Subsequently, the teacher swiftly chipped in another characteristic of the character to end the discourse (Line 5).

While the teacher appeared to have contributed information not stated in the notes, her intention was non-dialogic. Seemingly, the information was not meant to

stimulate in-depth talk on this characteristic whereby the students could bring in evidences from or their own interpretation of the text. Rather, it was more to ensuring that the students were aware of all possible answers so as to conclude the discourse to motion to the next characteristic. The development of student talk did not seem to be the priority as long as the right answers were already tabled. Subsequently, this piece of discourse was IRE bound, that the teacher initiated a question, the students provided answers, and the teacher briefly commented with an add-on answer before moving on.

Conclusion: Teachers' asking for known answers (without follow-up). Demonstrated thus far by the discourses in Excerpts 35-38 is the IRE structure at the heart of classroom discourse, where teachers' questioning was broadly retained at three-turn exchanges using display questions. In all discourses, the answers elicited were often direct and straightforward ones.

In this group of IRE-structured classroom discourse, there was little room for student thinking and student voice. Typically, student responses were limited to the display of knowledge and understanding, rather than to reason based on their own or others' ideas. As such, there was certainly no opportunity for interactions of multi-voices or opportunity for students to influence classroom discourse. Teachers held control in making sure that the discourse strictly ended with the answer either elicited from students or revealed by teachers themselves.

The second group of IRE-structured classroom discourse (below) was dissimilar in the sense that referential questions were the focus in the discourse, leading to more chances in engaging students in more genuine discourses. Yet, when referential questions were used in a closed-ended manner and rigidly in the IRE

format, there was not any resemblance of dialogicality in the discourse, as demonstrated in the following discourses in Excerpts 39-40.

Teachers' asking for unknown answers (without follow-up). The discourse below (Excerpt 39) revolved around "ferry". The lesson was generally about travelling and places of interest.

In general, the students were quiet but would answer when the teacher asked questions. From the overall classroom discourse, they displayed lower language proficiency.

This discourse elucidates the use of referential questions, which technically could help encourage students to share with the class unknown information which could then generate deeper discussion among the teacher and students. The resulting discourse was however monologic with the teacher limiting student responses to only yes/no and not building on student responses.

Excerpt 39

1	T:	How many of you have taken a ride on this ferry?
2	Ss:	((some raise hand))
3	T:	To Penang. ((raises hand))
4	Ss:	((some raise hand))
5	T:	Okay, it's very fun yes or not?
6		It's very ___?
7	Ss:	Fun.
8	T:	Fun and enjoyable.

[Source: 14-16]

In the discourse in Excerpt 39, the teacher exhibited interest in the students' experiences as he began the discourse with a referential question in Line 1. As some students began answering 'yes' by raising their hand (Lines 2 and 4), the teacher merely accepted these answers without further follow-up. Students were not asked to

elaborate on their own story of travelling by ferry to Penang or to other places; students who did not raise their hand too were not questioned for them to take part in classroom discourse. The discourse was eventually concluded with the teacher's comment (Lines 5 and 8).

As the teacher was simply satisfied with the students' 'yes' responses, student talk was not developed and classroom discourse was rendered monologic. This discourse demonstrates that the use of a referential question alone, especially if they only targeted a 'yes' or 'no' as the answer with no further extended talk, may not necessarily enhance the dialogicality of classroom discourse.

Another similar example is shown in the discourse below (Excerpt 40), where the teacher appeared to have heard only "yes" from her students, but not following up the "yes" and not investigating the "no". The students, who generally demonstrated higher language proficiency during classroom discourse were responsive to teacher questions, but were not substantively pushed by the teacher for advanced output, quality- and quantity-wise.

The discourse in this excerpt came from a lesson where the teacher was presenting to her students using some A4 papers, one by one what some Malaysians said they would miss most about Malaysia. This piece of discourse captured the teacher asking her students a closed-ended referential question after presenting to them the point "playing football in the rain".

Excerpt 40

1	T:	Anyone likes to play football in the rain?
2	Ss:	Yes. / No.
3	T:	... ((shows an A4 paper containing the next point))
4		Very good. …

[Source: 19-12]

In this brief discourse, the teacher very quickly asked her students the question in Line 1. However, after the students responded, the teacher only acknowledged the answers with "very good" (Line 4) without detailing what that comment was for and without pursuing any of the responses. Apparently the teacher was already eager to move on to the next point (Lines 3 and 5).

Conclusion: Teachers' asking for unknown answers (without follow-up). The discourses in Excerpts 39 and 40 demonstrate the initiation of discourse using referential questions only to stop at short and direct answers like 'yes' and 'no'. In spite of the potential of referential questions in stimulating genuine exchanges within a dialogic environment, teachers appeared to be content with yes/no responses and never did pursue the discourse deeper, probably with more open-ended referential questions. Subsequently discourses in this group were undeveloped and monologic.

This second group of IRE-structured classroom discourse is similar with the first group in terms of the lack of opportunities for student thinking and student voice, for interactions of multi-voices, as well as for students to influence classroom discourse. The only feature different from the first group of IRE-structured classroom discourse is the fact that the discourses in this group touched on student-related information using referential questions. Unfortunately, seeing that these questions were handled in a closed-ended manner, they did not engender dialogic discourses. Teachers only acknowledged whatever students said in response and moved on. Teachers' control on the discourse was evident for none actually went beyond students' short and simple responses to encourage them to share more.

Overall conclusion: IRE-structured classroom discourse. Overall in IRE-structured classroom discourse, there were two groups of discourse which were bound by the three-turn (initiation-response-evaluation) discourse setup. In the first group, teachers asked for known answers (Excerpts 35-38) whereas in the second group, teachers asked for unknown answers (Excerpts 39-40). All the discourses within this variation of monologicality were not followed up for further student responses.

Teachers in the first group (Excerpts 35-38) generally used display questions as they asked for known answers. In going after answers which were already known, this group of discourses was mostly focused on straightforward knowledge check/transfer done by teachers on students.

For the second group (Excerpts 39-40), teachers at large used referential questions which asked for answers unknown to teachers. These discourses often revolved around student-related information but generated mostly yes/no student answers.

On the monologic continuum in this study, IRE-structured classroom discourse was in general less monologic than teacher-dominated classroom discourse; the reason being students who were engaged in IRE-based discourses though were limited in terms of their output, were supposed to respond to teacher questions. Teacher solicitations of student responses were deliberately done. It was upon the elicitation of student responses that teachers moved on to the next topic. On the other hand, in teacher-dominated discourses, students were mostly listeners and their responses were not requisite in the grand scheme of things, considering teachers' domination with their own answers or explanation surrounding the main

question in discussion. In teacher-dominated discourses, teacher solicitations of student responses were mostly superficially done.

Both groups of discourse in the IRE setting were actually similar when examined based on the three main features of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Classroom Discourse"); opportunities for student thinking and student voice, for interactions of multi-voices, and for students to influence classroom discourse, were broadly unavailable in all IRE-bound discourses. The main difference was that the use of referential questions (e.g. questions on students' background or experiences) appeared to up the chances that students might get to express their thinking and voices by talking about themselves. Nevertheless, as described earlier about the second group, teachers' questioning practices only targeted closed-endedness in student responses, and not to develop classroom discourse dialogically. Subsequently, all discourses in the IRE setup encouraged student responses but they were to a large extent restricted by teachers' questioning practices.

In the next sub-section, the third and final variation of monologic classroom discourse – extended classroom discourse – is discerned based on its six groups of discourse. While teacher solicitations of student responses in IRE-structured classroom discourse were deliberate but three-turn bound, teacher solicitations of student responses in extended classroom discourse were deliberate and expanded beyond the three-turn IRE setting.

Extended classroom discourse. This study found that classroom discourse was not only monologic in it being predominantly dominated by teachers or largely governed by the IRE format of discourse, but also in it being extended through teacher efforts to further the discourse with the use of wait time and reaction moves, together with the questions they asked. Student responses were deliberately followed

up and discourses were extended. Thus, on the monologic continuum, this variation of discourse came after teacher-dominated classroom discourse (first) and IRE-structured classroom discourse (second).

As observed in the lessons, a discourse was often extended when students' unresponsiveness toward teacher questions or when their answers, be them right or wrong, did not right away signal the end of the discourse (as how IRE-structured discourses typically worked). In other words, within extended discourses, there were efforts to follow up in both the absence and presence of student answers and contribution generated by the initial question. Hence, answers were not unquestioningly given when unsuccessfully raised or merely acknowledged when successfully obtained.

This variation of classroom discourse was actually made up of discourses which contained various dialogic efforts by teachers. Yet interestingly, these dialogic efforts were never successfully translated into dialogic discourses. What was observed throughout the data was that even when classroom discourse managed to break away from teacher-dominated or IRE-structured settings, classroom discourse only extended in length but not in quality. In brief, opportunities for student talk may be increased but classroom discourse was still monologic with student role kept insignificant and student talk remaining at the surface level.

On the whole, extended discourses made up more than half or 53.2%, 402 of the total 755 content units examined in this study. Hence, the monologicality found in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms largely assumed the extended-yet-monologic form of classroom discourse. Discourses like this were present in the questioning practices of 30 out of the 31 teachers analyzed.

As observed in the data, extended classroom discourse comprised six groups of discourse, where teachers' follow-up on student responses were done for various purposes: (1) teachers' follow-up to lead students towards the desired content/answers; (2) teachers' follow-up to seek the display/disclosure of further information/details (without substantiation); (3) teachers' follow-up to seek the evaluation/improvement of answers; (4) teachers' follow-up to seek a variety of answers; (5) teachers' follow-up to seek the substantiation of answers; and (6) teachers' follow-up to student questions. Extended classroom discourse within each setting is delineated in subsequent sub-sections.

Teachers' follow-up to lead students towards the desired content/answers.
Within this setting, classroom discourse was often extended when students failed to respond or when students provided unacceptable/incomplete answers. Therefore, follow-up done by teachers in response to these scenarios was broadly to strive for the elicitation of an answer which was acceptable so that that particular piece of discourse could be concluded.

Looking at teachers' questioning practices, alongside the use of different question types and wait time, several reaction moves frequently used in this group of discourses were 'nudge', 'prompt', 'nominate', 'probe', 'wait out/ignore', and 'give answer'. Discourses in this group often displayed a continual push for students to produce the right answer, sometimes until teachers revealed it.

The first piece of discourse (Excerpt 41) in this group highlights the use of the reaction move 'wait out' amidst the more regular one like nudging, in how the teacher disregarded unacceptable answers and let students continue volunteering answers until parts of the correct answer emerged from the floor, or until the teacher surrendered the answer. Consequently, the discourse was extended while the teacher

was nudging his students to answer his question and waiting out incorrect answers, but only to get to the correct answer without having the discourse developed based on what the students contributed.

The discourse in Excerpt 41 was taken from part of a lesson where the teacher was asking his students to identify what was shown in a picture in the worksheet distributed. The worksheet contained several pictures related to Malaysia and the picture in discussion was the SMART Tunnel.

Based on the overall classroom discourse, the students in this class showed lower language proficiency but they were fairly responsive to the teacher when asked questions. Classroom discourse was largely carried out in Bahasa Melayu. The students often responded in Bahasa Melayu and used the same language when they were heard talking among themselves in the background.

Excerpt 41

1	T:	Number Six, siapa yang tahu? *Number Six, who knows?* (1.3)
2	S1:	((unintelligible)) ((not noticed by the teacher))
3	T:	Apa ini, gambar apa ini? *What is this, what picture is this?*
4	S1:	((unintelligible)) ((not noticed by the teacher))
5	T:	Who knows? ((points at the worksheet))
6	Ss:	Gua. / Tak tahu. / Terowong. *Cave. / Don't know. / Tunnel.*
7	T:	"Terowong." *"Tunnel."*
8		What is "terowong" in English?
9	Ss:	Hole. / Cave.
10	T:	Tunnel.
11	S2:	Ah, tunnel.
12	T:	Okay, ini adalah SMART Tunnel. … *Okay, this is SMART Tunnel. …*

[Source: 26-8]

The question was posed in Lines 1, 3, and 5; a student attempted to answer but his answer was not noticed by the teacher (Lines 2 and 4). When the teacher began noticing student answers, these answers were not specifically attended to. For example, the teacher practically ignored answers like "Cave" and "Don't know" (Line 6). But when the correct answer "Terowong" emerged (Line 6), the teacher immediately picked the answer up and asked for its translation in English (Lines 7-8). "Terowong" is tunnel in English and this word was actually a part of the complete answer (i.e. SMART Tunnel). With this question requesting the translation of "Terowong", students again started volunteering answers, where all were incorrect. Answers like "Hole" and "Cave" emerged (Line 9) and the teacher in a similar manner looked on and ignored these answers without any responses. The teacher eventually revealed the answer "Tunnel" to his students in Line 10 and the complete answer "SMART Tunnel" in Line 12. That was the conclusion for this extended discourse as the teacher proceeded to explain briefly what SMART Tunnel was as well as its function.

This discourse was initiated with a display question and the students were given opportunities to answer that question. Nevertheless, only the correct answer was responded to while the wrong ones were simply waited out without being talked over. The teacher did not discuss the wrong answers to reconcile the students' understanding of the answers they suggested and of the correct answer, and in overall to improve the students' use of the language. Instead, the teacher completely disregarded all wrong answers to proceed with the discourse. In concluding this extended discourse, student answers which contributed to the final answer were taken into account, while the rest was not paid attention to, until the teacher eventually provided the complete answer. Such practices often ruled out possibilities for

dialogue because any responses other than the right answer were not taken into consideration as something worth discussing or probing to help clarify misconception among the students, therefore classroom discourse was largely monologic.

The next excerpt (Excerpt 42) shows how the discourse was extended when right from the start the students already responded but their answers were not accepted by the teacher. In general, the provision of wait time, ignorance of wrong answers, repetition of the same clue, and prompting done by breaking down the initial question when students still could not produce the correct answer, were part of teachers' questioning practices in the context of this piece of discourse.

The gist of the lesson was the use of "articles". The teacher and students were doing an exercise in the textbook which required the filling out of blanks in sentences with "the", "a", or "-". Excerpt 42 shows a piece of discourse revolving around one of the questions in the exercise.

From the attempted discourses, the students in this class were of lower language proficiency and from time to time they were heard speaking Bahasa Melayu during the lesson. They were in general responsive when asked questions.

Excerpt 42

1	T:	Alright, so what about Number Four? …
2		"I'm not interested in gadget, I especially don't like ___?" (0.2)
3		The mobile phone or mobile phone?
4		We are referring something specific or general?
5	S:	The mobile phone, specific.
6	Ss:	Specific. / The.
7	T:	Have you mentioned mobile phone before? (1.4)
8		Yes or no?
9	Ss:	Yes.
10	T:	When? (3.1)
11		Yes or no? (2.2)

12		Errr, Sofia ((S1)). (1.3)
13		So, put "-" or put "the"?
14	S:	Put "the".
15	S1:	Put "the".
16	T:	Why? (1.6)
17	S1:	((unintelligible))
18	T:	"Specific." (2.4)
19		Who else?
20		Okay, how many of you said "the" before the "mobile phone"?
21		Put up your hand.
22		Put up your hand.
23	Ss:	((nobody raises hand))
24	T:	Who said "-" before the "mobile phone"?
25	Ss:	((some raise hand))
26	T:	"-"
27	Ss:	((more raise hand))
28	T:	Enn Li ((S2)), why you put "-" there?
29		Stand up, give me your answer. … (2.0)
30	S2:	((unintelligible))
31	T:	"It's not"?
32	Ss:	It's not specific.
33	T:	"It's not specific."
34		So I don't like mobile phone(s). …

[Source: 21-7]

As shown in Line 2, the display question which students needed to answer was "I'm not interested in gadget, I especially don't like ___ [mobile phones]?"; the answer was supposed to be "-".

When the students provided answers which were apparently incorrect (Lines 5-6) to the question, the teacher did not directly reject the answers but continued to probe his students, followed by a wait time of 1.4 seconds (Line 7). The probing question was repeated in Line 8 and the students said "yes" (Line 9), which was also an incorrect answer. Upon this, the teacher again refrained from direct rejection and continued to probe his students to provide the evidence to their answer (Line 10), seemingly in the hope that his students would fail to find the evidence and come to

realize that their answer was wrong. Nevertheless, after a wait time of 3.1 seconds in Line 10, the students remained silent without any answer. Seeing this, the teacher abandoned his probe for evidence and repeated his earlier probing question asked in Line 7, hence his asking of "yes or no?" again in Line 11. In this situation, the teacher did not assist his students by using different clues or examples to enhance their understanding of how they had gone wrong in answering and how the answer was actually the opposite of what they thought. The teacher merely nominated another student (S1) (Line 12) and nudged her (Line 13) after a wait time of 1.3 seconds. Crucially, all probing questions earlier were given up. The teacher then went through another round of eliciting an incorrect answer with S1 (Lines 12-18). This incorrect answer was eventually ignored without any remark from the teacher and he proceeded to ask other students to answer his question (Line 19) before he opted to break down the initial question into two more direct questions: "… how many of you said 'the'…?" (Line 20), and "Who said '-'…?" (Line 24). Not surprisingly, after several rounds of ignorance of the incorrect answer by the teacher, no student (even those who had answered overtly earlier) raised hand for "the" (the incorrect answer) (Line 23). Whereas now, there were more students who sided with the correct answer "-" (Lines 25 and 27). Without following up the incorrect answers or the students who previously sided with "the", the teacher gladly nominated a student (S2) who picked the correct answer and probed her to provide the reason for her answer (Lines 28-29). S2 and several students apparently gave an acceptable reasoning (Lines 30-32) and that led to the teacher acknowledging the answer (Lines 33-34). Thereafter the teacher continued with a brief explanation to emphasize the answer (excluded from the excerpt) and the discourse was concluded.

This discourse demonstrates how the teacher attempted to facilitate the elicitation of the correct answer when the students kept providing the incorrect one, during which the discourse became extended. Importantly, how the teacher was disregarding unacceptable answers and persistently pushing only for the correct answers amidst student confusion was observed.

The following discourse (Excerpt 43) is another demonstration of teachers' questioning practices in extending classroom discourse while guiding students in the direction of the right answer. Other than the regular use of 'nudge' and provision of wait time, as well as occasional ignorance of the wrong answer, which was similar to Excerpts 41-42, the teacher in Excerpt 43 also prompted students by rephrasing his initial question and suggesting the wrong answer when his students could not provide the answer to his question.

In this discourse, the teacher was introducing to his students the element "setting" in the poem that they were studying. After briefly establishing what setting was in general and in the context of the poem (Lines 1-5), the teacher proceeded to ask where rivers can usually be found (Line 6).

For this class, the students displayed lower language proficiency and they often spoke Bahasa Melayu in the background. The teacher too was speaking to the students mostly in Bahasa Melayu. The students were generally attentive but quite unresponsive in answering their teacher's questions.

Excerpt 43

1	T:	… What is setting?
		(5.7)
2		Setting ini keadaan atau tempat.
		Setting is about the situation or place.
3		When you read "The River", kamu boleh imagine tak sungai?
		When you read "The River", can you imagine a river?
		(0.5)
4		Boleh imagine tak sungai?
		Can you imagine a river?
5	S:	Boleh.
		Can.
6	T:	So sungai ini ada dekat mana?
		So where is this river?
		(2.6)
7		Where is the river is located?
8		Kat mana terletaknya sungai biasanya?
		Where are rivers usually located at?
		(1.4)
9		Kat mana?
		Where?
10	S1:	Forest. ((twice but not noticed by the teacher))
11	T:	Dekat bandar?
		Near the city?
		(2.6)
12	S1:	Forest. ((not noticed by the teacher))
13	T:	Cepat, kat mana?
		Faster, where?
14	S1:	Forest.
15	T:	"Forest"? ((laughs))
16	S2:	Kat bukit.
		At the hills.
17	T:	"Bukit"?
		"The hills"?
		(2.0)
18		Kat mana?
		Where?
19	S1:	Kampung. ((not noticed by the teacher))
		Village.
20	T:	Where is it?
21	S3:	Kampung.
		Village.
22	S1:	Village. ((not noticed by the teacher))
		(1.5)
23	T:	Kampung itu perkataan lain?
		What is the other word for "kampung"?
24	Ss:	Village.
25	T:	Ya lah, village.
		Yes, village.
26		Village ini kawasan apa?
		In what area are villages?
27	Ss:	Pendalaman.
		Inland.
28	T:	"Pendalaman." …
		"Inland" [countryside]. …

[Source: 9-19]

In regard to the teacher's probe (Line 6), when the students were unable to respond after a wait time of 2.6 seconds, the teacher attempted to enhance his students' understanding of the question by refining his initial question (prompt-rephrase) "*So where is this river?*" (Line 6) into "Where is the river is located?" (Line 7) and "*Where are rivers usually located at?*" (Line 8).

As the students were unresponsive, the teacher nudged his students (Line 9) after a wait time of 1.4 seconds. Then in Line 11, the teacher purposely suggested a wrong answer as a prompt for his students, after he apparently missed S1's answer (Line 10). This was followed by another wait time: 2.6 seconds. As S1's answer was again missed by the teacher, the teacher proceeded to nudge his students (Line 13) and finally when S1's answer of "forest" was noticed by the teacher, he merely laughed and ignored it, without any specific feedback (Lines 14-15). S2 then suggested "At the hills" as the answer (Line 16); this answer was also ignored (Line 17). The teacher just waited and continued to nudge his students (Lines 18 and 20). Somehow, the teacher continued to miss S1's answers (Lines 19 and 22). Nonetheless, the teacher managed to pick up the same answer from S3 (Line 21). Thereon, the teacher prompted his students by providing clues to have them think of other words close to the word *kampung* (Line 23) and "village" (Line 26). In Line 27, the students provided the answer "Pendalaman" which the teacher accepted as the same for the intended answer "countryside" (Line 28). Therefore, as an acceptable answer had been elicited, the teacher then concluded the discourse. The lesson ended soon after when the bell rang, with the teacher saying that the lesson would be continued later.

This discourse exemplifies another of the many possible variations of teachers' questioning practices in facilitating students' arrival at answers deemed

acceptable by teachers, including (aside from providing wait time, nudging, and ignoring) the use of two different prompts: (1) rephrase the initial question; and (2) purposely suggest a wrong answer.

Thus far, the discourses in Excerpts 41-43 demonstrate teachers' use of wait time and reaction moves in the context where a closed-ended display question initiated the discourses. It was observed that the tendency of teachers to lead students towards the desired content/answers was not limited to only these situations; it also applied in discourses which started off with an open-ended display question. Excerpt 44 (below) tells of this kind of discourse.

In this discourse, the teacher was going through an exercise with her students in a literature lesson. Before doing this exercise, the teacher had reviewed the poem that they were studying line by line, as a revision of what they had learned in previous lessons. The excerpt below contains the discourse where they were trying to answer Question One together.

The students in this class appeared to be quite proficient (higher language proficiency) in interacting with their teacher.

This discourse exhibits the use of multiple wait time and an array of reaction moves when the students were generally unresponsive. The students could not at once provide the answer for the display question initiated in Line 1. Although the form of the question "Why do you think the river is being compared to a wanderer?" seemed to invite open-ended student interpretations, it was observed that the teacher's reaction moves appeared to be guiding her students toward a particular answer.

Excerpt 44

1	T:	Number One, "Why do you think the river is being compared to (a) a wanderer"?
2		Who wants to answer this?
3		Why are we comparing the river to a wanderer?
		(0.8)
4		Who wants to try?
5		((points at a group of students at the front)) This group is extremely quiet.
6		Someone try.
		(0.8)
7		Why are we comparing it to a wanderer, the river?
		(2.7)
8		Adrian want to try?
9		Jae Lun?
		(0.8)
10		Roy?
		(1.3)
11		Why are we comparing the river to a wanderer?
12		Who's a wanderer?
		(1.0)
13		Who's a wanderer?
		(1.2)
14		((puts hand on a student's back)) Son, who's a wanderer?
		(1.5)
15		((looks at the same student)) Who wanders?
		(0.8)
16		((looks at another student, S1)) Who's a wanderer?
		(2.4)
17	S1:	((unintelligible))
18	T:	"Something like a ((unintelligible))"-
19		So what is a wanderer?
		(0.7)
20		((looks at another student)) What's a wanderer?
		(1.4)
21		Adrian ((S2)), what's a wanderer Adrian?
		(2.9)
22	S2:	((unintelligible))
23	T:	"A person who"?
24	S2:	((unintelligible))
25	T:	"Who's always moving."
26		So why compare the river to something that is always moving?
		(1.4)
27		((appears to reject a volunteer and still talking to S2)) Why we are comparing it to something that is always moving?
		(1.2)
28		Anyone?
		(3.7)
29		… ((to S3)) Okay.
30	S3:	Teacher, because the river doesn't choose one place, it keeps on moving.
31	T:	Because- what is moving?
32		I want to know what is moving in the river.
33	Ss:	Fish. / River water.
34	S3:	((unintelligible))
35	T:	Ah, so the river is compared to a wanderer because ___?

36	Ss:	The water.
37	T:	The water does not ___?
38	S5:	Stay.
39	T:	Stay in one ___?
40	Ss:	Place.
41	T:	"Place."
42		Okay?
43		The river is compared to a wanderer because the water- okay?
44		It flows and does not stay in one place, okay?
45		It doesn't stay put.
46		It just keeps on going.

[Source: 15-12]

Throughout this piece of discourse, the teacher frequently used wait time (Lines 3, 6-7, 9-10, 12-16, 19-21, and 26-28). Also, she nudged her students (Lines 4, 6-7, 11, 13-16, 19-21, 27-28, 35, 37, and 39), nominated a student (Lines 8-10, 21, and 29), prompted her students with a clue (Line 12), and probed her students' answers (Lines 26 and 31), all to lead them towards the desired answer.

After several periods of wait time and reaction moves used to induce student answers, in Line 17 a student (S1) responded, but this seemingly inaccurate answer was not discussed by the teacher. Then in Line 25, the teacher appeared to have eventually extracted "Who's always moving" from another student (S2). To this answer, the teacher followed up with a probe in asking the student to relate "always moving" to "river" (Lines 26-27), in her attempt to steer the student toward the answer that she was apparently trying to elicit throughout this discourse. Later (Line 30), another student (S3) answered, "Teacher, because the river doesn't choose one place, it keeps on moving". The teacher as a continuation to her initial probe, probed again, but with more specificity as to what actually always moved in the river (Lines 31-32). Here, the teacher's probe following answers which she deemed as promising was apparently aimed at driving her students nearer to the answer that she was seeking. As observed, the teacher then disregarded an unwanted answer "fish" (Line

33) and only pursued the wanted answer "river water" (Line 33) while getting to the final answer together with her students (Lines 34-41).

Shown in the discourse in Excerpt 44 is the teacher's effort in not right away revealing the answer when the students had difficulty answering her question, but to extend the discourse by unceasingly providing wait time and using reaction moves such as nudging, nominating, prompting (by providing a clue), and probing in facilitating her students in arriving at an acceptable answer for the question in discussion. This piece of extended discourse indicates how student contribution was sought to progressively piece together an answer deemed acceptable to the teacher. The students' ideas (input) were given opportunities to surface, but only to the extent that they contributed toward the final answer decided by the teacher, not for the co-construction of understanding or the discussion of both teacher and student inputs, in terms of that particular question or the poem in general.

Conclusion: Teachers' follow-up to lead students towards the desired content/answers. This group of discourses (Excerpts 41-44) was considered the most basic in extended classroom discourse on the monologic continuum. These discourses were extended primarily because there was no student response or most responses were unacceptable, and teachers put in the effort to not simply reveal the answer. In these discourses, students were often offered multiple opportunities in attempting responses, but teachers' questioning practices here were essentially driven by the intention to arrive at particular content or answers. Most of the time, unacceptable answers were just waited out or ignored without deeper follow-up. There was the tendency for teachers to quickly pick out and emphasize only key points which could help lead students towards the desired content or answers; the rest was not focused on.

Opportunities for student thinking and student voice were limited in these discourses. In some respects, teachers' persistent follow-up to a certain degree seemed to provide more space for students to continue thinking even when they continuously remained unresponsive or after teachers' ignorance or rejection of wrong answers. In spite of this, opportunities for students to construct and present their ideas were stifled, as discourses were heavily dictated by teachers' focus on only the right answer. Furthermore, teachers moved from student to student mostly because they had yet to elicit the right answer, not because they were assisting students to facilitate interactions of multi-voices to connect different ideas. As only key points and answers which were in line with the teachers' scheme were given attention during the discourse, students evidently had little influence on the discourse. With teachers' control on the final answer, other responses which teachers considered wrong or other possible answers were not discussed.

Up next is the second group of extended classroom discourse; here, teacher efforts to encourage further student responses (after initial answers) were present. This is to say, after the elicitation of initial answers, more information or details were required of students. These discourses are demonstrated in Excerpts 45-52.

Teachers' follow-up to seek the display/disclosure of further information/details (without substantiation). In requesting additional information/details after the first student answer, the reaction move 'probe' was commonly used. This happened in several settings whereby discourses may contain a single probing question (Excerpts 45-48) or linked probing questions (Excerpts 49-52).

In the lesson from which the discourse in Excerpt 45 was taken, the teacher had earlier tasked the students, by referring to two specific pages in the textbook, to

discuss what they had eaten for breakfast, lunch, and dinner. Also, the students were

supposed to talk about whether the food they had was healthy or unhealthy. This

piece of discourse was part of the teacher-student talk when the teacher was walking

around to talk to individual as well as small groups of students as they were carrying

out the task. The students at large appeared to be of lower language proficiency.

Excerpt 45

1	T:	((points in the textbook)) What is this?
		(2.2)
2		Huh?
3	S1:	Ice-cream.
4	T:	Can you eat ice-cream three times a day?
5	S1:	((shakes head)) No.
6	T:	Morning ice-cream, afternoon ice-cream at night ice-cream.
7		Is that good?
8	S1:	((shakes head))
9	T:	No.

[Source: 5-35]

The initial question is shown in Line 1 (display question). After the student

answered with "ice-cream" (Line 3), the teacher followed up that answer by probing

the student with another question (Line 4). The probing question was posed again in

a rephrased sentence in Lines 6-7. The student's answers remained unelaborated

(Lines 5 and 8) despite the teacher's effort in probing; the single probe was closed-

ended. Hence, the discourse was kept monotonous.

The next piece of discourse (Excerpt 46) demonstrates the teacher's follow-

up, also using a single probing question. With the largely lower-language-proficiency

students, the teacher was talking about the meaning of the words found in the

worksheet distributed. Excerpt 46 is about one of the words discussed.

Excerpt 46

1	T:	Okay, "carried"?
2	Ss:	Angkat. ((translation in Bahasa Melayu))
3	T:	"Angkat."
4	S:	Bawa. ((translation in Bahasa Melayu))
5	T:	Macam mana? *How?*
6	Ss:	Dalam kereta. *Into the car.*
7	T:	Ah, into the car.

[Source: 25-71]

As the teacher was checking if the students understood the meaning of "carried" in Line 1 (display question), she continued with a probing question (Line 5) to ensure that the students also understood the word within the context of the overall story as presented by the six pictures and notes given in the worksheet. This probe necessitated only a specific piece of information as answer (Line 6), without having the students elaborate it based on their own interpretation and creativity. The discourse was extended due to the follow-up but the quality of it remained monologic despite the teacher's dialogic effort in trying to probe the student's answer.

Next, Excerpt 47 illustrates the teacher's lackluster use of 'probe' even when a student indicated enthusiasm in sharing more than what the teacher seemed to have intended.

The students of this class mostly exhibited intermediate language proficiency and were participative throughout the lesson.

In this discourse, a student at the front of the class was answering the teacher's initial question which required her to talk about her summary of the short story that they were studying. As she was speaking about the year-end play for Year Six students, the teacher stopped her halfway to probe her and the whole class about their own experience when they were in Year Six (e.g. year-end school concert).

Later, another student (S1) attempted to participate in the discourse but the teacher's

encouragement for further student talk was largely missing.

Excerpt 47

1	T:	… Yeah, how about your old school last time, previously in your Year Six, do you have a concert?
2	Ss:	Yes.
3	T:	Do you have a concert?
4	Ss:	Yes.
5	T:	"Yes"?
6		Ah.
7	S1:	Graduation.
8	T:	Graduation, yeah. …

[Source: 1-2]

The discourse appeared to be rather promising for a more dialogic direction;

the probing question in Line 1 happened to tap into the students' past experience.

However, the teacher's interest became apparent when she stopped (Line 6) after

eliciting "yes" (Lines 2 and 4). In Line 7, S1 added to the discourse by mentioning

"graduation", implying that she had a graduation ceremony or concert back then,

only to be greeted by the teacher's uninspiring reception (Line 8).

As seen in Line 8, the teacher showed no intention of deepening the discourse

even though S1 willingly shared more information. The student's initiative in

opening up was not probed on. The teacher did not pick the student's contribution up

as an opportunity for extended student talk and only acknowledged the contribution

without encouraging the student to share more or inviting other students to discuss

their experience for a discourse which was enriched with a variety of student

perspectives in regard to their personal experience back in Year Six and primary

school, be it directly or indirectly related to school concerts.

In fact, the teacher merely waited for the student at the front to continue with her sharing of the summary of the short story. In all likelihood, the teacher's interception in the first place to invite student responses was superficial due to the teacher's intention in only probing for simple student-related information without developing the discourse further.

Other than this, teachers though infrequently, also probed for students' opinion. Nevertheless, as opposed to the expectation that letting students voice their opinion may encourage deeper discussion in the classroom, what teachers often did when probing for student opinions was to have students profess their stand, but minus the reasoning and exploration of perspectives, therefore leading to monologic discourses in which no 'real' discussion ever took place.

In the discourse below (Excerpt 48), the initial question underlying this group activity revolved around the ideas in starting up a cafe. When a group of students mentioned that they would prepare toys for teenagers who visited their cafe, the teacher asked for the class' opinion whether teenagers would still like and play with toys (Line 1).

The students of this class at large displayed intermediate language proficiency. The students especially those who did their presentation during the lesson were able to present and answer questions quite fluently.

Excerpt 48

1	T:	… Do you think teenagers still playing the toys?
2	Ss:	No. / Yes.
3	T:	Maybe some.
4		Some students-
5		Okay, some children they need to play toys.
6		Okay, good.

[Source: 4-27]

In this discourse, the students were asked for their opinion (referential question) but without having their opinion really picked up for discussion. The teacher sought the students' opinion but only up till whether they agreed or not with the idea of the presenters. The teacher did not go further to allow her students to substantiate their opinion by talking about the underlying reasons or talk about stories that they knew about or personal experiences that had led them to their stand. These many possibilities were not fully exploited by the teacher in engaging her students' prior understanding with the ongoing lesson; very possibly a dialogic moment was missed. The students who had different opinions were not given a dialogic platform to defend their respective stands. The teacher appeared to be contented in involving students' opinions in classroom discourse while at the same time keeping discourse at the surface level, as observed from her concluding comments in Line 3-5.

Looking deeper, there was a tendency for teachers to start probing but also ending the probe abruptly once they elicited an acceptable answer from students, and these answers were most of the time simple and straightforward. Oftentimes, discourses despite the extension due to teachers' probe, were generally short-segmented, underdeveloped, and monologic, as played out in the discourses above in Excerpts 45-48.

There was another scenario in this group of discourses, in which a series of probing questions (not just one) were used to follow up student responses. These discourses unfortunately did not turn out dialogic as well. Excerpts 49-52 captured these discourses in different settings.

The excerpt below (Excerpt 49) demonstrates how the discourse was extended with the teacher probing for the students' personal information. In fact, the

exact same probing cycle was repeated with several students. Similar with previous discourses in this group, the discourse in this excerpt was also monologic, as the teacher mainly sought student-related information which did not place higher cognitive demands on the students.

In this discourse, the teacher was talking to the students about their pet as she was starting the lesson. Several students volunteered and were nominated to share some information about their pet.

Looking at the discourses all through the lesson, the students demonstrated lower language proficiency. During the lesson, the teacher taught in both English and Bahasa Melayu. When asked questions, the students were generally participative in answering.

Excerpt 49

1	T:	... Okay, siapa lagi? ... *Okay, who else?* (0.6)
2		((S1 volunteers)) Ah, yes.
3	S1:	Dog.
4	T:	"Dog", nice.
5		Okay, what is the name?
6	S1:	Puppy.
7	T:	"Puppy." ((laughs))
8		Okay, anybody else? …
9		Aiman. ((S2)) …
10	S2:	A cat.
11	T:	"Cat."
12		What's the name?
13	S2:	Polo, Polo.
14	T:	"Polo."
15		Oh, very cute ah. …
16		((looks at S3)) You have ___? …

[Source: 28-8]

The discourse was initiated with the teacher asking earlier "How many of you have got pets at home?" (referential question). The teacher selected and probed a few students on this topic. Basically, a series of probing questions (two-probe) was used; firstly for the type of pet which the student had (Lines 1, 8, and 16) and secondly for the name of that pet (Lines 5 and 12).

As shown in this excerpt, the discourse pattern was recycled with two students – S1 (Lines 1-7) and S2 (Lines 8-15) and similarly recreated with altogether nine students during the lesson (the rest of the discourse was excluded from this excerpt). Dealing with a rather close-to-heart topic, the teacher did not try to induce her students to talk about their pet. The students were not asked to share experiences and feelings in keeping a pet at home or for not having any pet. During this talk about their pet, the students actually appeared to be in a light mood and seemed quite excited at the mention of their pet, but the teacher did not take the opportunity to encourage them to continue talking with more in-depth probing questions. Thus, the teacher may appear to be engaged with several students in separate discussions, nevertheless, those discussions were repetitive and superficial; they did not facilitate extended student talk or contribute towards making classroom discourse more dialogic.

For the next excerpt (Excerpt 50), the discourse illustrates the similar use of a series of probing questions (three-probe) in the context where the teacher and students were completing a reading comprehension exercise. The students displayed lower language proficiency; they were participative when discussing the reading comprehension text. The teacher sometimes had to repeat her explanation or instructions in Bahasa Melayu to enhance the students' understanding.

In this discourse, the teacher was going through the reading comprehension text with the students while asking them some display questions along the way, as shown in Excerpt 50.

Excerpt 50

1	T:	… Then next is Category Two, ages 16-18.
2		Do you think your father can join this category?
3	Ss:	No.
4	T:	Huh?
5	Ss:	No.
6	T:	Category Two, your father can join or not?
7	Ss:	No.
8	T:	Cannot.
9		But where can your father join?
10	Ss:	Category Three.
11	T:	"Category Three."
12		Why?
13	S:	Because--
14	T:	Ages ___?
15	Ss:	19 and above.
16	T:	"19 and above." …

[Source: 7-1]

The initial question of the discussion was about the total number of age categories mentioned in the reading comprehension. In the discourse above, the teacher was probing her students in regard to one of the categories: Category Two (Line 1). The first probing question was "Do you think your father can join this category?" in Line 2, to which the students answered "No" in Lines 3, 5, and 7. The teacher did not end the discourse but followed up with the second probing question "But where can your father join?" (Line 9). When the students answered "Category Three" (Line 10), the teacher pursued with the third probing question "Why?" in Line 12 and the students eventually provided the answer in Line 15.

As shown, a series of three linked probing questions (Lines 2, 9, and 12) were used in succession, engaging the students closer to the text while extending the discourse. While these efforts were commended particularly for dialogic discourses, in this discourse they however focused solely on information-elicitation from the text. The discourse was extended yet monologic.

Excerpt 51 (below) illustrates another example of a series of linked probe (three-probe), also using display questions, in a discourse revolving around the topic "adjective". In this lesson, the teacher was discussing a piece of homework with the students, where the students were required to underline all adjectives found in a passage. As most of the students (lower language proficiency) had not completed their homework, the teacher had the students read along the passage with the teacher, explained the passage in Bahasa Melayu line by line, and reviewed the previous lesson with the students. Excerpt 51 depicts the discourse in which the teacher was doing the brief revision of the previous lesson.

Excerpt 51

1	T:	… Okay, do you remember about what we learn(ed) yesterday? (0.5) …
2	S:	Adjektif. *Adjective.*
3	T:	"Adjektif." *"Adjective."*
4		Tajuk apa? *What is the title?*
5	Ss:	Adjektif. *Adjective.*
6	T:	"Adjektif." *"Adjective."* (0.8)
7		Okay, ingat apa itu adjektif? *Okay, do you remember what an adjective is?* (1.8)
8		Masih ingat ke tak? *Still remember?*
9		What's the meaning of the adjective? (1.5)
10		Adjective are describe a noun.

11	Dia menerangkan tentang nouns.
	It is used to describe a noun.
12	Okay, give me the example of the adjective we learn(ed) yesterday.
	(0.5)
13	Ah, bagi contoh kat teacher.
	Ah, give teacher [me] some examples.
	(0.4)
14	Apa dia kata adjektif kita belajar kelmarin?
	What were the adjectives which we learned yesterday?
	(0.9) …

[Source: 24-6]

After together reading aloud the passage, the teacher began the discourse by stating the topic of the lesson (i.e. Adjective), which the students had also learned about in yesterday's lesson. Gathering that her students were still unclear about what had been taught, the teacher decided to recap yesterday's lesson with them, by asking the question in Line 1. After some nudging and waiting for about 25 seconds (excluded from the excerpt), a student finally managed to answer the question in Line 2. This was later followed up with the first probing question in Line 7 "Okay, do you remember what an adjective is?" and the second probing question in Line 12 "Okay, give me the example of the adjective we learn(ed) yesterday". Eventually, the students were involved in contributing adjectives and some in making a sentence using the adjective they suggested – the third probing question (excluded from the excerpt).

Importantly, the series of linked probe shown in this discourse highlights the commended effort of the teacher in extending the discourse in a sequenced manner. Nevertheless, the discourse was still monologic as student talk was limited to grammar chalk-and-talk without much communicative and dialogic value. The discourse was hardly expended beyond the recall-review-testing of what had been learned by the students.

In a different case, it is shown that even when there was probing (linked) done in relation to more open-ended topic which would probably allow for students'

sharing of personal experience, the discourse was still monologic. The discourse in

Excerpt 52 was taken from a lesson where the teacher was playing a video for his

students. The teacher paused the video when the picture of a beach was shown; the

discourse below then ensued.

The students at large displayed lower language proficiency and often dutifully

tried to answer when the teacher asked questions.

Excerpt 52

1	T:	How many of you have been to the beach in Penang? …
2	Ss:	((some raise hand)) …
3 4	T:	What's the name of the beach in Penang? Ashrad. ((S1)) (1.9)
5	S1:	Batu Ferringhi.
6 7 8	T:	Batu Ferringhi, yes or no? What's the name of the beach in- Where did you go, which beach? ((points at S2))
9	S2:	Batu Ferringhi.
10	T:	"Batu Ferringhi." ((points at S3))
11	S3:	Batu Ferringhi.
12	T:	Maya? ((S4))
13	S4:	Batu Ferringhi.
14 15 16 17	T:	"Batu Ferringhi." Okay, good. Errr, what did you do at the beach? (0.9) Anis, ((S5)) what can you do at the beach?
18	S5:	Swimming.
19	T:	"Swimming." (2.7)
20	S5:	Having a picnic.
21	T:	"Having a picnic."
22	S5:	Sight-seeing.
23 24 25	T:	"Sight-seeing." Okay.. Okay, good.

[Source: 14-12]

The discourse was started with the question "How many of you have been to the beach in Penang?" in Line 1. When some students raised their hand as a 'yes' to the teacher's question, the first probe came about in Line 3: "What's the name of the beach in Penang?" After S1 answered (Line 5), this probing question was then rephrased into the question in Line 8 for S2 to answer; this question was also reinitiated two times with different students – S3 (Line 10) and S4 (Line 12). Although the teacher appeared to be engaging more than one student using basically the same probing question, student answers were all the same for this question. The reinitiation of the probing question did not add much dialogic value when used in this manner. After that, the teacher asked the second probing question in Line 16. This probing question was quickly rephrased by the teacher (Line 17) and posed to S5 after waiting for 0.9 second, apparently trying to make the question more general rather than solely dependent on S5's experiences. All answers given by S5 were short and simple (Lines 18, 20, and 22), and the teacher did not ask S5 to elaborate any of her answers.

In this piece of discourse, linked probe in a more open-ended context was done but only for the students to share more information, without explanation or justification. Other students were also not involved in the discussion to talk about any of their experience which could be memorable or special in their own ways, and not necessarily restricted to the beach or Batu Ferringhi.

Conclusion: Teachers' follow-up to seek the display/disclosure of further information/details (without substantiation). Above, illustrated by Excerpts 45-52 is chiefly teachers' follow-up in seeking the display/disclosure of further information/details from students, largely using 'probe'. As this follow-up was purely to induce additional information/details without the substantiation of them,

student responses were most of the times short and simple. In other words, with this follow-up, students had more chances to contribute but their talk revolved largely around the mere stating of direct and straightforward information/details. In fact, this type of follow-up excluded the need for students to substantiate their answer with reasoning and/or evidence.

In terms of opportunities for student thinking and student voice in these discourses, they were still limited. As students were principally necessitated to produce answers without any substantiation, students were hardly challenged to perform higher cognitive functions or articulate their thoughts supported by reasoning. Even though there were times when the discourse focused on students' personal information or experience, there was no genuine, dialogic discourse taking place. Seeing that student responses were never built on for deeper discourse, student talk remained largely at the surface level. Generally, these additional student responses were sought and mostly accepted as they were, without any opportunity for interactions of multi-voices or for students to influence classroom discourse.

In the third group of extended classroom discourse (below), a different kind of teacher follow-up was done where student responses were forwarded to be evaluated or improved. Specifically when teachers let students better other students' answers, there were apparently more openings for student-initiated ideas, though most opportunities were restricted to language-related issues in student answers. Excerpts 53-55 show some of the exemplars of this group of discourses.

Teachers' follow-up to seek the evaluation/improvement of answers. There were instances from the data which show teachers' follow-up in redirecting student answers for further action by other students. Specifically, student answers were

passed around to be evaluated or improved by students, as shown in the discourses in Excerpts 53-55.

Excerpt 53 is an exemplar of a piece of extended discourse where the teacher asked her students to do a simple peer evaluation of the answer given by one of the students.

Based on the overall classroom discourse, the students exhibited intermediate language proficiency and were able to speak rather fluently in general. Nevertheless, having observed how some of them struggled to complete the exercises assigned by the teacher throughout the literature lesson, they did not seem to be very familiar with the novel although the teacher did mention that they had been studying it for quite some time.

The teacher started the literature lesson by asking her students some questions to test their understanding of the novel. The students were asked to temporarily put away their textbook and notes. The following discourse was about one of the questions the teacher asked.

Excerpt 53

1	T:	Who was murdered?
		(0.8)
2		In this novel.
3	S1:	((unintelligible))
4	T:	((to S1)) Don't simply answer. ((then points at S2))
5	S2:	Charles McCarthy.
6	T:	Okay, who was murdered?
7		"Charles McCarthy."
8		Do you agree? ((to the whole class))
		(0.9)
9		Jye Yew ((S3)), is the answer correct?
10	S3:	((nods head))
11	T:	Who was murdered?
12		Charles McCarthy, okay.

[Source: 31-1]

In Line 1, the teacher asked her students "Who was murdered?" (display question). In Line 4, the teacher rejected S1's answer. After that, upon eliciting the answer "Charles McCarthy" from S2 in Line 5, the teacher redirected the answer to the whole class for peer evaluation (Line 8). When there was no student response after 0.9 second, the teacher redirected it to S3 (Line 9) and S3 nodded his head signaling that he agreed with the answer given by S2 (Line 10). Without asking S3 further, for instance the evidence from the text in supporting S2's answer, the teacher immediately moved on to the next question.

The findings of this study suggest that the redirection of student answers which involved the building-on of ideas or contribution by both the teacher and students was almost non-existent. In terms of redirecting student answers and thus extending the discourse, what commonly happened was the redirection of answers for peer evaluation, where students were only requested to agree or disagree with a particular answer given by their peers, without the need to justify with reasons or to suggest other ideas for the enrichment of classroom discourse. Since this type of redirection required students to merely decide if an answer was correct or incorrect, discourses in this setting were often monologic, that student ideas were not developed and only surface-level evaluation of answers took place.

Other than simple peer evaluation in determining if an answer was correct or incorrect, there were also instances where teachers redirected student answers to be improved. With this, students were given opportunities to consider and better another student's answer. These opportunities however were often limited to language-related improvements such as sentence structure, spelling, and so forth.

One exemplar is depicted in the discourse below (Excerpt 54). In this lesson, student group presentations were going on. The students in this class in overall

displayed lower language proficiency. They often had difficulties reading from the manila card during their presentation and their written work on the manila card was often ungrammatical. As one of the groups was presenting, the teacher paused them for the correction of one of the points presented, resulting in the discourse in Excerpt 54.

Excerpt 54

1	S1:	… "Drown because they don't know how to swim can drown." ((reads from the manila card assisted by the teacher)) …
2	T:	So, how can you do it better?
3		Haikal ((S2)) help him Haikal.
4		Help him, this sentence is not correct ((points at the manila card)).
5		Help him.
6		Tolong dia. *Help him.*
7	S2:	((walks to the front)) Which one? (0.6)
8	T:	We can drown __? (10.5)
9	S2:	We can drown if we cannot- if we don't know how to swim.
10	T:	Okay, "we can drown if we do not know how to swim".
11		Okay, very good.
12		Sit down. … ((asks students to continue with their presentation))

[Source: 8-6]

In Lines 2-6, the teacher redirected S1's answer to S2, asking him to improve its sentence structure. This was followed by the teacher's prompt (clue) and wait time of 10.5 seconds in Line 8, and eventually S2's answer in Line 9.

In this example of the redirection of an answer for improvement, the discourse was far from being dialogic despite being extended. Firstly, the ungrammatical sentence in S1's answer (Line 1) was being pointed out without the participation of other students who were listening to the presentation. Then the teacher picked S2 (Line 3) whom she apparently thought could manage to improve the sentence structure, thus the opportunity to dialogue was not open to the floor.

Finally and most importantly, through this reaction move 'redirect', S2 only corrected the sentence structure, without being asked to build on the idea, or to expand the sentence with his own explanation or examples. The teacher upon eliciting S2's answer which was deemed acceptable seemed satisfied and let the group of students resume their presentation (Lines 10-12).

Although there was attention given to the students' language use, the teacher's effort was limited to only one student and to only the improvement on presenting an idea in a grammatical sentence. What the students were lacking during these presentations which were supposed to generate critical dialogues were opportunities to improve ideas with appropriate language use. The students were not facilitated with the reaction move 'redirect' to work on ideas, instead to just work toward an acceptable and grammatical answer.

Particularly in language classrooms, one cannot just focus on the language aspect in striving for dialogicality without consideration for the 'thinking' aspect; for in fundamental they develop together (Wood, 1988). Students need to develop the capacity to understand varied perspectives and to put forth and defend their perspective with substance and reasoning, within sound and working language systems to stay engaged in dialogic discourses.

In the upcoming Excerpt 55, the teacher in the discourse displayed the effort in redirecting an answer apparently to have students improve the idea expressed in that particular answer.

In this class, the students were observed to be discoursing with higher language proficiency as they were fluent when interacting with their teacher. They were also participative throughout the whole task during the lesson.

The teacher was calling out students who volunteered one by one to write their answer on the whiteboard for each question in the reading comprehension exercise which was supposed to be completed by the students as homework. At this part of the lesson where this discourse came from, the teacher was checking the answer of the third question of the reading comprehension exercise.

This discourse shows a teacher who actually redirected an answer and led to an extended discourse where there was contribution added by other students. As observed in this discourse, the teacher's effort helped stimulate the students to look into the question and answers provided by other students so that they could offer an enhanced idea.

Supposedly this form of redirection could well facilitate a dialogic discourse through the generation and discussion of ideas, but this goal was not achieved by teachers examined in this study. In reference to the discourse demonstrated in Excerpt 55, the dialogic opportunities emerging from the teacher's effort in redirecting an answer for improvement of idea fizzled out as it eventually turned out that the teacher wanted only answers which were strictly based on the textbook used during the lesson.

The discourse was initiated with the display question stated in Line 1: "Number Three, whom can we carpool with?" Eventually, S1's answer – "we can carpool with our friends and family" – was accepted (Lines 10-11). Upon S2's attempt to refine the answer by suggesting "school friends and family" (Line 13), the teacher decided to redirect S1's answer by asking "what else can you add?" (Line 14). S3 then suggested that the answer needed the addition of "who goes to the same destination" (Line 15); this was a contribution building on the previous answer. Apparently realizing that this question required further discussion, the teacher

demanded a proper, complete sentence (Line 16) and asked the students to think
about the answer as she would come back to it (Lines 18-19).

When she returned to the question about five minutes later, she asked S4 to
write the proper, complete answer on the whiteboard (Lines 22-25). Afterward as
shown in Line 30, the teacher redirected S4's answer, first for peer evaluation, then
for improvement (Line 34), but the improvements were only language-wise (Lines
35-36).

Basically, the teacher invited the betterment of a student idea, but at the same
time was essentially more committed to ensuring that the answer was within the
scheme as the teacher gave several reminders that the answer could be found in the
text in the textbook (Lines 4-6, 8, and 27-28) and rejected further student
contribution (S5) when the teacher seemingly thought that the answer was already
sufficient (Lines 38-43).

Excerpt 55

1	T:	Number Three, whom can we carpool with? ((students are volunteering to answer))
2		((points at S1)) Okay. ((waits for the student to write her answer on the whiteboard))
3		"Whom we can carpool with?" ((re-reads the question))
4		Can you get the answer from the text, for Number Three?
5		Can you get the answers from the text?
6		Yes, the answers you can get from the text itself.
7		Okay?
8		Look at the text.
9		"Whom can we carpool with?" ((re-reads the question)) …
10		((when S1 is done writing the answer)) Okay, so "we can carpool with our friends and family".
11		Alright, acceptable.
12		"We can carpool with our friends and family."
13	S2:	((raises her hand)) Teacher, not school friends and family?
14	T:	Okay, what else can you add?
15	S3:	Teacher, who goes to the same destination, teacher.
16	T:	Okay, so how are you going to write this?
17	S3:	We can carpool with people who wants to go to same destination.
18	T:	Ah, think of the answer.

19		I will come back to you. …
20		((after about five minutes)) I want full sentences.
21	S4:	((raises hand))
22	T:	Okay, Julie ((S4)) go in front.
23		Write it down.
24	S4:	Teacher, my answer is quite long.
25	T:	Make it short, make it short. …
26		((once S4 is done writing her answer on the whiteboard)) Okay, how- okay, where can we get this answer?
27		This answer you don't really have to think you know?
28		Because it's given in the text.
29		Okay, look at … ((points out the answer in the text))
30		Do you agree with Julie's answer?
31	Ss:	Yes. …
32	T:	"We can carpool with school friends, family, colleagues who goes on the same road to school, work, or other places."
33		Okay. …
34		What is wrong over there?
35	Ss:	Who. / Which.
36	T:	((walks over to the whiteboard and corrects "which" to "who" and "goes" to "go")) Okay?
37		Okay? …
38	S5:	Teacher, what about we can carpool with- school friends, family, colleagues whom.. ((unintelligible))
39	T:	((shakes head)) No.
40	S5:	((unintelligible))
41	T:	Okay, Number Three is correct already.
42		Okay?
43		Please write down the answer for Number Three. ((repeats her statement))
44		Okay, or you can answer ((writes on the whiteboard and repeats the question)) "We can carpool with friends who go to the same school".
45		Okay?
46		((walks to the back of the class)) Okay? ((students are writing down the answer))

[Source: 23-13]

In general, this discourse suggests that the teacher still held the final say in discussing student answers even though they may redirect them for improvement purposes. In spite of the use of the reaction move 'redirect' for improvement purposes (Line 14) and the fact that the final answer (Lines 32 and 36) contained S1's (Line 10), S2's (Line 13), S3's (Lines 15 and 17), and S4's (Line 32) contribution, there was practically no genuine discussion among the teacher and students. Apparently, those responses were coined together to form the final answer

without debate, because the teacher decided the answer largely based on the text in the textbook.

This discourse points out one of the rare discourse moments in the classroom where student contribution in improving an answer was sought. Nonetheless, it was done only with the condition that they fit in the scheme of the teacher and the teaching materials (e.g. textbooks). In other words, redirection to critically improve or build on answers was rare, and when it happened it was largely restricted to certain sources (e.g. teachers, textbooks) thus lacking the elements of discovery and exploration of ideas among different voices in achieving an advanced understanding through dialogue.

Conclusion: Teachers' follow-up to seek the evaluation/improvement of answers. For this group of discourses (Excerpts 53-55), students were generally asked questions about answers given by other students. With this, students were made to consider and pay attention to not only their own answers, but also answers contributed by their peers.

Student answers were often redirected for several purposes such as evaluation, sentence restructuring, and idea enhancement, all of which were unfortunately heavily textbook-based and teacher-controlled. From the little redirection done by teachers, most of them only required students to evaluate answers given by their peers as correct or wrong; student responses seldom exceeded 'yes' or 'no', with no in-depth discussion of the evaluation done.

Thus, despite the use of this reaction move (i.e. redirect) which could technically generate dialogicality in classroom discourse, it was observed that there was no genuine exchange between the teacher and students in discussing answers. Most exchanges were purely about evaluating answers or improving the sentence

structure, grammatical aspects, or spelling of answers. Rarely did teachers induce discussion among students by raising points for students to ponder upon and talk about, or invite students to offer constructive feedback and ideas to improve what had been contributed by other students.

When follow-up to let students evaluate or improve answers occurred, this actually created opportunities for student thinking and student voice. But then again, these opportunities were limiting as student responses were often simple and student ideas were never collaborated, while teachers were always the authority in deciding which final answer was sufficiently best to end the discourse. Ultimately, without opportunities for interaction of multi-voices and for students to influence classroom discourse, the dialogic potential emerging from teachers' redirection of student answers was never realized.

For the next group, teachers in these discourses attempted a whole-class-like discussion. Particularly in these discourses, teachers looked for more than one answer and this seemed to be offering students the room to share and exchange ideas. The discourses in Excerpts 56-57 are the exemplars of this group of extended classroom discourse.

Teachers' follow-up to seek a variety of answers. The ensuing excerpts (Excerpts 56-57) discern extended discourses which took place when answers from different students were sought for one question.

Excerpt 56 shows the discourse where the teacher was asking an open-ended question at the end of the lesson. The question used was not limited to only one answer and was supposed to provide more opportunities for the students to display and discuss their knowledge on environmental issues as they wrapped up the lesson.

The students exhibited higher language proficiency as they could perform rather fluent discourses with the teacher throughout the lesson. The learning environment was positive as the students were observed to be generally active and willing to volunteer in answering teacher questions.

In Line 2, the teacher posed a question which appeared to open up a discussion on the importance of rivers and what the effects would be if rivers ceased to exist. Looking at the answers gathered, be them volunteered by the students (Lines 4, 12, and 15) or prompted by the teacher (Lines 6-10), none of them was actually discussed in depth. As a matter of fact, each answer (idea) was elicited as an acceptable answer to the initial question posed in Line 2 until the exhaustion of answers. The teacher did not attempt to encourage her students to elaborate their answers despite them being fairly active and fluent speakers.

Excerpt 56

1	T:	Before we end our lesson, I want to ask you a question.
2		What happen to all the humans or animals or us if we don't have river in our world, or clean river in our world? (1.5)
3		Okay, what happen to us?
4	S1:	Extinct.
5	T:	Okay, our species or the creatures in the river species will be extinct. (1.6)
6		We don't have enough ___?
7	Ss:	Water.
8	T:	Water to ___?
9	Ss:	Drink.
10	T:	Drink and clean and wash.
11		Some more? (2.7)
12	S2:	There won't be recreation park.
13	T:	Yes, there won't be a recreation park for us.
14		Okay, we only have a park and only have a lake but no more river.
15	S3:	We don't have food.
16	T:	Okay, we cannot get more food from the river, only from the sea, and the lake. (0.8)
17		Okay. (1.4)

18	Some more you want to add?
	(0.7)
19	Okay.

<div align="right">[Source: 16-14]</div>

Throughout this piece of discourse, several periods of wait time were provided (Lines 2, 5, 11, 16-18) after the teacher's asking of the question (Line 2). The teacher also reinitiated the question (Lines 11 and 18) in order to get more answers from the students. In Lines 6 and 8, the teacher was observed to be prompting her students by providing them clues to help them arrive at another acceptable answer.

Therefore, with the wait time and reaction moves used to induce more acceptable answers, the discourse was extended. Nevertheless, it is worth noting the nil development of each idea which surfaced during the discourse. As mentioned earlier, none of them was really discussed further in relation to one another and to the overall issue at hand. All ideas raised such as "species endangerment or extinction" (Lines 4-5), "reduction in clean water supply" (Lines 6-10), "extinction of recreational parks" (Lines 12-13), and "reduction in food supply" (Lines 15-16) were treated by the teacher as individual entities which were all answers fitting the answer scheme. In the end, instead of inviting interactions of voices on different ideas, this discourse was only extended for the elicitation of several answers which largely remained undeveloped.

In a similar manner, the discourse below (Excerpt 57) demonstrates the teacher's pursuit of only acceptable answers in spite of the opportunities of dialogicality coming from student contribution. Likewise, student answers were not developed or discussed. The teacher was observed to be extracting the gist of each answer from student to student as she herself ultimately produced a consolidation

answer (Line 30). In extending the discourse to seek a variety of answers, what the teacher achieved from all the answers elicited was a final, complete answer (apparently in the teacher's sense) to complete the discourse on this particular statement "learn to write in the sand".

In this lesson, the teacher was going through the answers of all the questions in a reading comprehension exercise which the students completed in class. From teacher-student discourses observed throughout the lesson, the students were fluent and exhibited higher language proficiency. Excerpt 57 shows the piece of discourse revolving around one of the questions in the worksheet.

Excerpt 57

1	T:	… Ah, volunteers to present what you have written down, what you all have discussed.
		(1.3)
2		Come on.
		(0.5)
3		((S1 volunteers)) Okay, good.
4	S1:	"Explain the phrase 'learn to write in the sand'."
5		Learn to forgive and forget your friends ((unintelligible)) if not our friendship will become worse or we may lose a best friend.
6	T:	Can you hear or not? ((drumming sounds in the background))
7		Their- that side, can you all hear?
8		Can?
9		Learn to forgive and forget so that ___? ((signals S1 to repeat answer))
		(0.8)
10		So that our ___?
11	S1:	Friendship will be longer.
		(2.6)
12	T:	Can you just say the keywords because the drumming of the-
13	S1:	((unintelligible)) if not our friendship will become worse or we may lose a best friend.
14	T:	Oh, okay.
15		Yes, good.
16		Any other (unintelligible) views?
		(4.4)
17		Any views?
18		Any other views?
		(3.2)
19		How about Jinnie ((S2))?
20	S2:	((unintelligible))
21	T:	Same ah, exactly the same?
		(0.9)

22		Is it the- exactly the same?
23		((walks over and reads aloud the student's written answer)) Okay, "the phrase 'learn to write in the sand' shows that we must learn to forgive and forget the wrongdoings of someone that had hurt us before".
24		Who has more than this?
		(4.5)
25		Who has more- who has written more than this?
		(2.3)
26		Riyaa ((S3)), you have something to share?
		(0.5)
27		Huh?
		(7.1)
28		Come on, don't be shy.
		(1.7)
29	S3:	The phrase 'learn to write in the sand' means must learn to forget- forgive our friends that did bad things to us and we must not forget the good deeds that our friends have done to us.
30	T:	Okay, so basically that means she said to remember the good deeds and forget the bad things.
31		Okay, good.
32		I think overall you have got the message.

[Source: 22-17]

When S1 gave her answer (Line 5), due to the noise outside the teacher opted to pursue only whether S1's answer was right (Line 12). Though with a reason, the teacher's request for S1 to just provide some keywords in replacement of S1's whole answer implies that the teacher was only interested in knowing if S1 had the correct answer. S1's idea in its entirety and her use of language were not the main concern to the teacher. S1 eventually repeated most part of her initial answer to the teacher (Line 13) and her answer was accepted without any expanded comment which would help her or other students develop the discourse from there (Lines 14-15).

The teacher then continued the search for other answers from other students whereby she called upon S2 (Line 19) and S3 (Line 26) respectively to answer the question when no student volunteered after the wait time provided.

In this discourse, despite the use of wait time and the seeking of several students' ideas with an open-ended question, there was no interaction between student voices and their answers had little influence on the discourse direction. The teacher was merely trying to elicit a variety of answers to inch toward a final answer

for that particular question. This is shown in Lines 23-24 where the teacher actually ignored S2's answer without even acknowledging her answer and immediately went on asking for another answer. All the answers were not discussed to be improved to facilitate the co-construction of understanding among the students.

In this extended discourse, neither did the teacher develop the answers nor contribute any input to strengthen the discussion as she was only eliciting answers. Student answers were not reciprocated with any extended teacher feedback and not developed for succeeding discourse to build on those answers.

Notably, shown is that the repetitive reinitiating of a question to different students does not signify the invitation of multiple voices in the 'dialogism' sense. The teacher occasionally interspersed the reaction moves 'reinitiate' (Lines 16 and 24), 'nudge' (Lines 17-18, 25, 27-28), and 'nominate' (Lines 19 and 26) with wait time, but from the overall discourse these practices were only used because she was trying to obtain answers apparently based on her own answer scheme. Very likely, this helps explain why the teacher did not work on any answer. Invitations for more student perspectives were superficially done as the teacher was seeking answers to be evaluated, not to be discussed. The teacher seemed more interested in arriving at the answer to complete the reading comprehension exercise, rather than in whether the discourse during the process of seeking answers was dialogic enough in facilitating students' thinking and expression of thoughts and views.

Similar to the teacher in Excerpt 56, each student answer stood on its own. In this discourse, the teacher too did not facilitate the interaction of student ideas/perspectives for collaborative construction of a more developed interpretation of the phrase "learn to write in sand". Monologicality shone through with the discourse being extended but undeveloped.

Conclusion: Teachers' follow-up to seek a variety of answers. In the discourses in Excerpts 56-57, teachers exemplified instances where for one same question they tried scouting out different answers. Teachers moved from student to student but only to end up not building on each answer and not facilitating the integration of answers. Student answers were only sought to be evaluated based own teachers' own scheme. Subsequently, a variety of responses were indeed pooled but never consolidated through any form of discussion. This was largely because teachers were 'collecting' the right points; there was no feedback given, no substantive teacher input to enhance the ideas generated, and no build-on on student ideas.

Even though opportunities for student thinking and student voice may be created by teachers' solicitation of open-ended responses and with teachers' encouragement for students to present own ideas, as discussed above, ideas sought were not integrated and did not take the discourse anywhere. Furthermore, student ideas were broadly bound by the teaching materials. Teachers did not help enhance any student idea and only focused on getting sufficient or right answers to conclude the discourse. Thus, interactions of multi-voices did not get to happen in spite of ideas being contributed by different students. As none of the contributed ideas was paid discursive attention, student ideas generally had little influence on classroom discourse.

The next group comprises the exemplars which demonstrate an important dialogic effort by teachers which was missing from the majority of the discourses examined in this study; students were asked to substantiate their answer. In Excerpts 58-62, the different scenarios within this type of extended classroom discourse are played out.

Teachers' follow-up to seek the substantiation of answers. Discourses also became extended when teachers asked students to substantiate their answer. This was normally done using probing questions where students were supposed to explain their answer with the provision of reasoning and/or evidence. In a similar manner to the discourses elaborated in "Teachers' Follow-up to Seek the Display/Disclosure of Further Information/Details (without substantiation)", the discourses in this group too may contain a single probing question (Excerpts 58-61) or linked probing questions (Excerpt 62). Excerpts 58-59 revolved around the use of display questions in probing while Excerpts 60-62 revolved around the use of referential questions in probing.

With reference to the discourse in Excerpt 58 (below), the student was probed to provide the justification for his answer. Apparently, the teacher did this in order to gauge if the student understood and could complete the learning task based on what he had learned thus far.

In this lesson, the topic of the lesson was "sound systems" and the focus was on the "m" and "n" sounds. After a whole-class exercise in identifying and grouping words in sentences written on the whiteboard into the "m" and/or "n" sounds, the teacher followed up with an individual task which necessitated the students to sort words, also given on the whiteboard, into correct groups based on what they had learned earlier. The discourse in Excerpt 58 transpired as the teacher was discussing an example with her students before they began completing the individual task.

The teacher was very encouraging in facilitating her students to complete the task. The learning environment was positive and the students were quite active in trying out when volunteering or being nominated by the teacher in task-related questions. Overall, they demonstrated lower language proficiency.

Excerpt 58

1	T:	… ((points at the words written on the whiteboard)) For example, sebagai contoh, perkataan mana yang kamu boleh letak dalam satu kumpulan? *For example, what are the words that you can put into one group?*
2	S1:	Name.
3	T:	"Name" and ___?
4	S1:	Bin.
5 6	T:	Why? Kenapa? *Why?*
7	S1:	Ada "n". *There is an "n".*
8	T:	Alright.

[Source: 10-12]

When the student suggested an answer (Lines 2 and 4), the teacher promptly probed for his justification (Line 5-6), because the student's ability to defend his answer would be his display of the knowledge he had learned and applied to come up with the answer "Name" and "Bin". Ultimately, the student's justification was accepted as it was in line with the requirement of the task (Lines 7-8).

Thus, in this discourse, the teacher demonstrates the practice of probing student answers so that the students could reason their answers based on what they had attained during the lesson, as a way for the teacher to gauge students' understanding and application of what they had learned to accomplish subsequent tasks. Classroom discourse throughout the lesson were however not dialogic; they were limited to only the completion of the tasks which were largely language-based drill exercises. There was little discussion which expanded the perimeters of classroom discourse.

The following discourse (Excerpt 59) was taken from a class of intermediate students. In this discourse too, extension of discourse happened when the teacher put in the effort to probe the student and tried waiting for an answer.

The student was asked to briefly retell a part of a short story in her own words. As she was speaking (Lines 1-2), she was interrupted by the teacher (Line 3). The teacher who seemingly thought that what the student had just said was not coherent with the text, embarked on a series of wait time and reaction moves (e.g. probe) to have the student clarify and justify her iteration. Apparently with the intention to correct the student, the teacher was trying to gauge the student's understanding of the text.

Excerpt 59

1	S1:	… Tristan said he want to go to the school because he- if he go to the new school he able to walk.
2		So after go there--
3	T:	If he goes to a new school he's able to walk?
4	S1:	Ah, yeah teacher. ((holds up the literature textbook))
5	T:	He's able to walk?
6	S1:	Hmm. ((nods head))
7	T:	Hmm..
8		He's already disabled, what do you ((unintelligible)) he's able to walk? (2.8)
9	S1:	Teacher- yeah teacher ((giggles)) the story have lah teacher. ((giggles))
10	T:	He's already disabled what do you mean that he going to a new school he's going to walk? (0.9)
11	S1:	They say they--
12	T:	With the new facilities- with the facilities ((the student nods)) he's able to move around ((the student shakes her head)). (4.2) …
13		((to S1)) Show me which page, show me which page. …

[Source: 1-1]

Despite being probed repetitively by the teacher (Lines 3, 5, 8, and 10) and given wait time to respond (Lines 8 and 10), the student appeared to be insistent about her statement in Line 1, as seen from her gesturing to the teacher with the literature textbook in her hand (Line 4), nodding her head confidently (Line 6), and affirming that what she said was based on the text read (Line 9).

In this extended discourse, the teacher and the student were in a disagreement over their reading of a literature text. In this situation, the teacher did not immediately hand over a correction to her student and allowed the student to defend her statement with the use of the reaction move 'probe' and wait time (as mentioned above).

The discourse nonetheless ended up without any meaningful discussion between the teacher and the student, or involving other students. After the wait time of 2.8 seconds (Line 8), the student appeared to be struggling and was unable to defend her statement convincingly. As she was giggling but also seemed nervous at the same time, she could not say much except for stressing that what she had said was read from the text (Line 9). To this, the teacher again repeated her probing question (Line 10) which she already did in Lines 5 and 8 when the student failed to provide any convincing clarification and justification. Seeing the student's struggle, the probing question was repeated without the provision of other support or inclusion of other students' contribution, to help the student express the justification of her earlier statement. Then, when the student was observed to be trying to say something (Line 11), the teacher appearing slightly impatient, interrupted the student and proceeded to provide the correction (Line 12); her imposition of the answer on the student ended the discourse. The student remained rather puzzled (e.g. nodded and also shook her head when the teacher was providing the correction) but the teacher already decided to move on with the lesson. After a while, the teacher simply nominated another student to continue with the task (excluded from the excerpt).

As observed in the lesson, the teacher did not seem to be expecting further responses or discussion in spite of the student's confusion, and was just waiting for the student to continue with her iteration of the short story; hence the 4.2 seconds of

wait time (Line 12). After that, the teacher did briefly remark to the student to show the evidence to be discussed later (Line 13); nevertheless, the teacher did not revisit this discussion during this lesson.

Thus, with insufficient follow-up and only mere repetition of the probing question in pushing for an answer, the extended discourse was not developed in a way that the student was successfully facilitated to stake out her point, well knowing her answer may be incorrect because going through possibilities is one fundamental of an enriching discussion. Unfortunately in this discourse, the teacher indicated that in the end, what she wanted from the student when she persisted with her probe was a correct answer, and there was no place for exploration of ideas, especially when they were not the right ones.

Discussed above, Excerpts 58-59 illustrate teachers' follow-up effort through the use of the reaction move 'probe'. In these two excerpts, the probing questions used were display questions. In the next two exemplars of classroom discourse (Excerpts 60-61), referential questions formed the teachers' probe.

In classrooms examined in this study, other than probing (follow-up) to let students display learned knowledge during the lesson, teachers also probed student answers when apparently new information was contributed by students.

The teacher in Excerpt 60 (below) probed her students for the evidence to the information that they had just shared with their class. The discourse in this excerpt is an extracted segment of a student group presentation.

The students mostly demonstrated lower language proficiency and only responded very briefly when answering questions.

During one of the presentations, the teacher's attention was specifically attracted to one of the points raised by the presenting group. In fact, she seemed

skeptical when the students implied that there were crocodiles in the rivers in Malaysia. She thus initiated the discourse below in her attempt to probe her students for the evidence to this point.

Excerpt 60

1	T:	… Sungai mana ada- which- which river has a crocodile?
		Which river has crocodiles?
2		Can I know which river?
		(1.5) …
3		River mana ada crocodile?
		Which river has crocodiles?
4		Which- name me one river in Malaysia got crocodile, Hazran. ((S1))
5	S2:	Sungai Bernam.
6	T:	Awak ingat Amazon ke ini?
		Do you think this is the Amazon River?
7		Ah?
8		Sungai apa?
		Which river?
9		"Bernam"? ((some students laugh))
10		Ah, okay, okay.

[Source: 8-5]

The teacher appeared to not agree with the students and challenged them with a repeated probe, to give any one example of river in Malaysia which had crocodiles in it (Lines 1-4). When a student volunteered "Sungai Bernam" (Line 5), the teacher appeared to hesitate briefly (Lines 8-9) before hastily accepting it (Line 10) and moving on with the lesson.

As shown, the students' contribution of information (i.e. Sungai Bernam in Malaysia had crocodiles) was not incorporated to develop the discourse. As the teacher did not seem interested to probe further, she did not encourage her students to elaborate their knowledge about crocodiles in Sungai Bernam or other rivers in Malaysia or elsewhere. The talk on "crocodiles" was closed down so that the presentation could go on as the teacher showed that she had no intention to deviate

from the intended course of talk, which was to have students complete their presentation.

Though the teacher extended the discourse with her initial effort to probe for evidence, her effort was not insisted till the end. From the teacher's utterances in the beginning (Lines 1-4 and 6-7), she seemed assertive that there was no crocodiles in the rivers in Malaysia. Then, when a student suggested otherwise, the teacher instead of opening up about her uncertainty on the topic as well as giving opportunities to other students to have a say in this discourse so that co-construction and sharing of knowledge could take place, appeared to start losing her assertiveness (Lines 8-9) before suddenly accepting the student's answer without challenge. In the end, the opportunity for dialogue was not fully utilized and the presentation went on in a monologic manner.

Another teachers' probe in following up student answers is illustrated in the next piece of discourse (Excerpt 61), where the teacher probed for the students' justification within a more open-ended setting as the probing question sought students' personal opinion to substantiate their answer.

In general, the students in this class displayed lower language proficiency and they were often passive during classroom discourse.

Prior to the discourse in this excerpt, two students were doing their presentation regarding the topic "Activities for the Week". When they were done with their presentation, the teacher began the discourse with a rhetorical question which expected the students to agree with her (Lines 1-2). She then attempted to explore the students' interest in outdoor activities (sports) by asking a probing question (Lines 4 and 6). When S1 responded with "Because it is so fun" (Line 7), the teacher acknowledged the answer (Line 8) without probing further for more

detailed responses. The teacher then reinitiated the probing question and provided

wait time so that the students could think about and provide other reasons (Line 9).

The teacher nudged the students in Line 10 when they did not respond; another wait

time of 0.9 second was provided. After S1 and S2 responded with the idea of keeping

fit as one of their reasons (Lines 11-12), the teacher just accepted the answer and

moved on with the lesson to the next presentation (Lines 13-14).

Excerpt 61

1	T:	… You have four types of activities per day.
2		It seems like you are very active in all those activities, are you?
3	S1:	((nods))
4	T:	Why do you keep on why do you stress on activities- outdoor activities?
5	S1:	Huh?
6	T:	Why do you stress on outdoor activities?
7	S1:	Because it is so fun.
8	T:	"It is so fun." ((nods))
9		Other than that?
		(5.4)
10		Other than having fun?
		(0.9)
11	S1:	We can be keep fit.
12	S2:	We can be keep fit.
13	T:	You can keep fit, not you can be keep fit.
14		Okay, thank you.

[Source: 6-5]

Displayed in the discourse in Excerpt 61 is: to the teacher's request for

justification, the students provided only short and simple answers; to these student

responses which were unelaborated, the teacher did not pursue them or recruit more

student ideas and reasoning, and appeared to be satisfied enough to end the discourse.

Even with the use of probing questions to elicit students' justification, together with

wait time, the discourse did not develop in a dialogic manner.

Notably, this discourse exemplifies that in probing for justification, the

discourse will not simply take a dialogic turn just because the effort is executed. As

shown, the use of wait time would not facilitate student talk of more quality and quantity if the teacher did not develop discourse based on student responses. The teacher herself did not contribute to the discourse, did not continue probing student responses for extended explanation, and did not encourage other students to contribute ideas so that the discourse was enhanced with multiple perspectives. The discourse was somehow sustained at the surface level, with the students appearing relieved that the teacher did not probe further, and with the teacher looking unperturbed with the students' simple answers, as long as her questions were answered and the lesson could go on.

Below, the last piece of discourse (Excerpt 62) in this group of extended classroom discourse shows similar characteristics of teachers' hastiness in concluding the discourse without further discussion, just like the rest in this group. While the discourses in Excerpts 60-61 contained the use of single probing question, the discourse in Excerpt 62 contained the use of linked probing questions in facilitating student responses.

Prior to this discourse, a group of students presented about "leptospira bacteria". Based on the point "Get disease because the water contain leptospira bacteria" put forth by the students, the discourse in Excerpt 62 transpired.

In this lower-language-proficiency class, the students who were probed did not manage to provide any strong reasoning, while the rest of the class were not participative and remained silent.

Excerpt 62

1	T:	… What is lep- apa- leptospira bacteria? …
		... What is leptospira bacteria? ...
2	S1:	Kencing tikus.
		Leptospirosis.
3	T:	"Kencing tikus."
		"Leptospirosis."
4		Rat, mice diseases.
5		How would that be in the water?
		(1.1)
6		As far as I know rats don't live in water.
		(2.2)
7		((as one of the student presenters was beginning to speak))
		Memang you baca lah?
		So you read about it?
8		Mana you dapat- where did you get this information?
		Where did you get this information?
		(0.6)
9		Internet?
		(0.8)
10		((unintelligible)) ((a student nods))
		(1.3)
11		Senyum aje.
		You are just smiling.
12		Smiling ((unintelligible)).
13		Okay, okay. …

[Source: 8-3]

As the students presented the particular point regarding "leptospira bacteria", the teacher probed to ask what these bacteria were (Line 1) as she apparently had not heard of it before. When one of the students in the presenting group (S1) produced the answer in Bahasa Melayu in Line 2, the teacher followed up with the second probing question to ask "How would that be in the water?" (Line 5). As observed, the students were unable to answer in spite of the teacher's effort in encouraging them to talk about the information which they had just introduced to the class. After two periods of wait time (Lines 5-6), the teacher asked rhetorically if the students had read the information somewhere (Line 7); this indirectly imposed the teacher's own assumption on the students. Apparently feeling that her students were not going to be able to provide any answer, the teacher tried to assist her students by prompting the students "Where did you get this information?" (Line 8). With only a wait time of 0.6

second, the teacher suggested the answer "internet" in Line 9. Not long after that, the discourse was simply ended by the teacher without a consolidation because the students were not speaking and apparently the discourse was not going anywhere (Lines 10-13).

In this discourse, the teacher was observed to provide several opportunities in letting students substantiate the new information which they contributed during their presentation. The series of two linked probing questions (Lines 1 and 5) shows the teacher's efforts in facilitating student talk. However, the students were not exactly responsive to those efforts and the teacher too towards the end began giving up, thus hastily concluded the discourse.

As illustrated in this discourse, the suggestion of an answer (Line 9) when the students were unable to respond can actually work negatively on the facilitation of student responses. As observed, seeing the opportunity to 'escape' from the teacher's questions, the students were meekly receptive of what the teacher suggested and lacked the effort to actually speak for themselves although it was them who first contributed the idea to the discourse.

Conclusion: Teachers' follow-up to seek the substantiation of answers. As demonstrated by Excerpt 58-62, there were teacher efforts in pursuing the reasoning and/or evidence for the answers given by students. Howbeit, teachers lacked the persistence and did not provide sufficient support in letting students articulate their responses. Most of the time, before anything else, teachers were already impatient to get to a conclusion for the discourse.

Compared with the other discourses examined in this study, to a large extent the opportunities for student thinking and student voice in these excerpts were one of the most explicit ones and which were set up deliberately by the teacher. Students

were actually encouraged to bring into discussion how they arrived at their answers or come up with their ideas. Nevertheless, these answers and ideas were never put up for discussion to allow for interactions of multi-voices. Especially when students were unable to immediately respond or produced answers which teachers were uncertain of, those opportunities provided earlier started to evaporate and the discourse began to deteriorate back to monologicality. When this happened, teachers seemed to be at a loss on where the discourse was heading and this was when they wrested control on classroom discourse. The teacher would either stepped in with a final answer or simply accept what students said without further contest. In all likelihood, teachers wanted to avoid controversy which could further prolong the discourse without any concrete conclusion. Eventually, teachers' control on classroom discourse was still intact.

Finally, the last group (below) is another interesting group of discourses. Captured were the rare happenings of students asking questions during classroom discourse; they are represented in the discourses in Excerpts 63-64.

Teachers' follow-up to student questions. Students in most of the lessons examined did not usually ask questions. Other than procedural questions, content-specific questions were especially infrequent. When they did ask these questions, it was often when they could not fully understand what was being discussed and they displayed interest in knowing better the content. Therefore, these questions were a form of student initiative for dialogue as they participated in classroom discourse.

The first piece of discourse (Excerpt 63) in this group showcases a student question which was asked as the student got a bit confused during the lesson. Prior to having the students complete a writing task, the teacher went through all six pictures and notes given in a worksheet with the students. This was done most probably to

enhance the students' understanding of the overall story for them to be able to write on their own later on. The discourse below came about after the teacher was almost done going through the pictures and notes. The students were supposed to begin the writing task after this activity.

The students displayed lower language proficiency; most of them were actively listening and involved during the lesson. The learning environment was positive though the students were mostly limited to simple and straightforward discourses throughout the lesson.

Excerpt 63

1	S1:	… Tapi siapa ((unintelligible)) sakit?
		… But who ((unintelligible)) was sick?
2	T:	"Siapa"?
		"Who"?
3		Oh, her father sakit.
		Oh, her father was sick.
4	S2:	Oh, ini faham dah.
		Oh, now I understand.
5	T:	((to S2)) Faham tak?
		((to S2)) Understand?
6	S2:	Dia anak sulung-
		She was the eldest-
7	T:	"Dia anak sulung."
		"She was the eldest."
8	S2:	Dia anak sulung yang kerja untuk ayah dia yang sakit ni.
		She was the eldest who had to work because her father was sick.
9	T:	((while S2 is still talking)) Ah, dia anak sulung.
		((while S2 is still talking)) Ah, she was the eldest.
10		Kerja.
		She had to work.
11		Kenapa?
		Why?
12		Sebab ayah ___?
		Because her father ___?
13	S1:	Sakit.
		Was sick.
14	T:	Ayah sakit.
		Her father was sick.
15		Dia kerja sebagai apa?
		What did she work as?
16	S1:	Housekeeper.
17	T:	As a housekeeper.
18		Where she work?
19	Ss:	At hotel.

20	T:	"Hotel", okay.
21		She is helpful and ___?
22	Ss:	Friendly.
23	T:	"Friendly", right?
24	S1:	Yeah.
25	T:	Dia seorang yang- sebab tu ((S1 is trying to talk at the same time)) that's why ramai orang suka dia, tak? *She was a- that was why* ((S1 is trying to talk at the same time)) *many people liked her, right?*
26	S1:	Kita ingat ((unintelligible)) sakit tu ((unintelligible)). *I thought* ((unintelligible)) *the sick* ((unintelligible)).
27	T:	((laughs off S1's comment)) One day, satu hari … semasa cuci-cuci bilik tu dia jumpa apa? ((laughs off S1's comment)) *One day, ... as she was cleaning the room, what did she find?*
28	S:	Duit. *Money.*
29	T:	"Duit." *"Money."*
30		Berapa? *How much?*
31	S:	Dua ribu. *Two thousand.*
32	T:	"Dua ribu." *"Two thousand."*
33		Pastu rasa? *How did she feel?*
34	S:	Panik. *Panicked.*
35	T:	Terkejutlah, dok panik. *She was shocked and panicked.*
36		And then?
37		Lepas tu dia buat apa? *After that what did she do?* (0.8)
38	Ss:	Cuba.. / She tries to look for- *Tried..* / She tries to look for-
39	T:	Dia cuba- okay, tries to look for ___? *She tried*- okay, tries to look for ___?
40	S:	The guest.
41	T:	"The guest."
42		But the guest ___? …

[Source: 25-54]

When S1 asked the question "But who ((unintelligible)) was sick?" in Line 1, the teacher almost immediately answered him "Oh, her father was sick" (Line 3). This went on to trigger the teacher to go through the whole storyline (as shown in the remaining discourse in the excerpt), likely with the intention to help all students revise so that they could complete the writing task more easily. In general, the

teacher continuously probed her students using display questions which only asked for information provided in the pictures and notes given in the worksheet (Lines 15, 18, 21, 27, 30, 33, 36-37, 39, and 42).

One intriguing characteristic demonstrated in this discourse in particular is at the beginning of the discourse. When S2 attempted to talk about what he understood about the story (Lines 4, 6, and 8), the teacher cut him off while he was still talking (Line 9). In apparently an attempt to regain control and the speaking autonomy, the teacher began asking an array of questions to guide the discourse, initiated at Line 11. Notably, S2's realization and initiative in wanting to express his understanding and meaning-making during the discourse went unappreciated, and he eventually stopped speaking up altogether for the rest of this discourse. The teacher was observed to be more comfortable with her asking and probing students with questions while her students answered them, as seen in the succeeding talk.

Throughout this extended discourse which was stimulated by a student question, although the students were given opportunities to answer, they often act as answer-providers to teacher questions during teacher talk.

From the dialogism standpoint, though students appeared to be actively involved in the talk with the teacher's use of a series of linked probing questions, their responses did not go beyond the recall and review of information. The students were neither required to participate with their own novel interpretation of the pictures and notes in the worksheet nor encouraged to discuss the different lenses from which the story could be written. Therefore, in this discourse, while sustaining student engagement using simplistic teacher questions and teacher talk, there was little facilitation of further student questions and student talk.

Next up, Excerpt 64 also demonstrates the use of linked probing questions which were all related to one another as the teacher attempted to extend the discourse. Here, the teacher and her students were in a discourse in relation to the war happening in Gaza. This discourse took place as the teacher was beginning the lesson. Prior to this discourse, the teacher briefly introduced the idea of "war" by playing an audio containing screaming and gun-shooting sounds, and the idea that these situations did not exist in Malaysia.

The students generally had a rather good command of the language (higher language proficiency) and could speak fluently during the lesson. Most of them were active and eager to participate in classroom discourse.

As shown in this discourse, the probe was basically linked in this manner beginning from the initial question in Lines 1-2 (Where does the war take place?) and then followed by the probing questions "What happened actually?" (Line 5), "Between ___?" (Line 14), and "Do we have all that in Malaysia?" (Line 24). These probing questions generally required the students' display of knowledge on the current affairs regarding the war in Gaza and helped them relate this understanding of war to their appreciation of Malaysia which was war-free and peaceful.

During the discourse, there were students who seemed to be aware of the war (i.e. the students who volunteered answers – Lines 1, 3, 6, 8, 12, 18, and 20, including S2 – Lines 1 and 28) and also students who made explicit comments that they did not know much about what actually was happening between the two warring nations (S1 and S3). In the midst of probing for more information on the war, the teacher did not respond to S1's questions (Lines 11 and 22) and S2's request for 'help' on behalf of S1 (Line 15). On top of that, the teacher towards the end of the discourse apparently answered S3 and other students with rather simplistic

explanation all the way (Lines 26-39) as she pressed on for the point that she was
trying to make since she initiated the discourse – Line 40.

This discourse is another example showing how teachers insisted on their
own course of talk even when students explicitly raised that they needed further
discussion because they lacked certain knowledge on the topic of discussion.

Excerpt 64

1	T:	… Okay, the recent war that is happening. ((a few students are saying "Gaza"))
2		So it is in ___?
3	S:	Gaza.
4	T:	"Gaza."
5		What happened actually?
6	S:	Nuclear bomb.
7	S1:	I don't know.
8	S:	Nuclear.
9	T:	((to S1)) You do not know?
10		Nuclear.
11	S1:	Where's Gaza? ((not noticed by the teacher))
12	T:	((other students are volunteering answer)) Okay, bombing.
13	S:	What happened- ((not noticed by the teacher))
14	T:	Between ___?
15	S2:	Teacher, Amelia ((S1)) doesn't know where is Gaza is.
16	S1:	((unintelligible))
17	T:	((smiles at S1))
18	S:	((unintelligible)) Israel.
19	T:	Okay, between Israel and ___?
20	Ss:	Gaza. / Palestine.
21	T:	And Palestine yeah. ((nods))
22	S1:	Where's Palestine? ((S2 then explains something to S1))
23	T:	Okay, they were fighting people killing people, bombing and so on.
24		Do we have all that in Malaysia?
25	Ss:	No.
26	S3:	((raises hand)) ((unintelligible))
27	T:	That country, now they are in war.
28	S2:	((to S3)) People die.
29	S3:	Why?
30	T:	Yeah, people dying.
31	S3:	Why--
32	T:	They fighting.
33	S3:	Why they have to ((unintelligible))?
34	T:	They're fighting for their country.

35	S3:	Huh?
36	T:	Fighting each other.
37	S:	What?
38	T:	Killing people.
39		They do not like this people they kill that people, they do not like this people they kill this people.
		(0.6)
40		But we do not have that in Malaysia, right? …

<div align="right">[Source: 19-2]</div>

Throughout this discourse, a few students were observed to be expressing through their questions that they had little knowledge of but were interested in the topic of discussion introduced by the teacher (Lines 7, 11, 13, 22, 29, 31, 33, 35, and 37). Specifically in reference to these student questions, the teacher did not use them as opportunities to engage students in a dialogue. Instead, the teacher was focused on staying on track to elicit fact-based answers from the students about the war in Gaza.

Apparently, the students' need for extra explanation and discussion on the topic did not have much effect on the teacher's course of actions as she was determined in making sure that she got to ask the questions she wanted to. Eventually when the teacher managed to make her point that there was no war in Malaysia (Line 24), the teacher began responding to S3 who happened to raise her hand to speak to the teacher. From the subsequent talk, it was observed that S3 too knew little about the war in Gaza.

The teacher started explaining in very general terms what was happening in the war. The responses given by S3 (Lines 29, 31, 33, and 35) implied that she was still confused with the teacher's explanation. The teacher did not proceed to further discuss the war by bringing in other students to together contribute knowledge to the discussion. For students who actually knew more about the war, the teacher did not probe for their opinion or view about that war or war in general. Instead, the teacher

ended the discourse by again making her point that there was no war in Malaysia with a rhetorical question (Line 40).

It appeared that the teacher wanted to use the war in Gaza to point out to the students the peace and harmony that they had in Malaysia which was free from war. Thus, from the beginning till end, the teacher was pursuing student responses and the topic with probing questions, but only in a certain direction to steer towards the conclusion desired by the teacher. The teacher did not use student questions as discussion points and did not follow up on student responses with in-depth questions and sufficient input to be able to engage students in a more dialogic classroom discourse in regard to that particular topic.

Conclusion: Teachers' follow-up to student questions. Students as shown in Excerpts 63-64 began inquiring when they were trying to comprehend the topic in discussion. While the questions asked by students in both exemplars were rather simple questions, these were the few student initiatives in asking content-specific questions in classrooms examined in this study. That is, students in all lessons seldom inquired about what was being talked about during the lesson.

Surprisingly these student initiatives which were potential stepping stones in generating more student questions and critical exchanges among classroom participants in a dialogic setting were often suppressed by teachers. Somehow, these initiatives were not taken to be opportunities to engage students but more like fires to be put out. Not only did teachers attempt to pacify students who asked questions, but they also avoided addressing in specific students who volunteered to respond to those questions.

Teachers tended to take charge of the 'explaining' role all by themselves. The little teachers' follow-up to student questions observed in this study suggests that

these questions seem to be a siren for teachers to fill students in, rather than a chance for negotiation and reciprocity among the teacher and students (Nystrand, 2004).

Generally when student questions arise during classroom discourse, opportunities for student thinking and student voice too rise, provided that teachers appropriately build on these questions to engage more students to collaboratively discuss and make meaning. In all the lessons examined, this did not happen; there was no opportunity given for the interactions of multi-voices as teachers apparently tried to tone down students' further inquiry. This was exerted in the form of responding with simplistic questions and explanations, all by teachers themselves without the involvement of other students in the discourse. Student questions did not manage to influence the discourse toward a different direction which paid more attention to what students were inquiring about and which could perhaps enhance their co-constructed understandings. Looking at the discourses in this group, there was a predominant teacher control in keeping the discourse in line with teachers' comfort zone and away from unanticipated exploration of the topic in discussion.

Overall conclusion: Extended classroom discourse. As delineated above, there were six main groups of discourse within the extended classroom discourse variation which sat on the rightest side of the monologic continuum found in this study. The six groups of discourse spreading across this part of the continuum included teachers' follow-up to lead students towards the desired content/answers (Excerpts 41-44), teachers' follow-up to seek the display/disclosure of further information/details (without substantiation) (Excerpts 45-52), teachers' follow-up to seek the evaluation/improvement of answers (Excerpts 53-55), teachers' follow-up to seek a variety of answers (Excerpts 56-57), teachers' follow-up to seek the

substantiation of answers (Excerpts 58-62), and teachers' follow-up to student questions (Excerpts 63-64).

In the first group (Excerpts 41-44), teachers were observed to be using a range of wait time and reaction moves such as nudge, nominate, prompt, wait out/ignore, and give answer during classroom discourse. As classroom discourse was extended, students actually had the privilege of having more than one opportunity to keep trying to answer teacher questions. This kind of follow-up however was entirely based on a final answer determined by teachers (even when open-ended student responses were invited), thus students were in fact driven towards certain content or answers as led by teachers' questioning practices.

The second group (Excerpts 45-52) showcases teachers' follow-up efforts in asking for further information or details after students had given their answer. In a way, students were encouraged to go beyond their first response to continue their participation in classroom discourse. Yet, at the same time students were constrained as teachers only needed students to display or disclose information without elaboration or reasoning.

In the third group (Excerpts 53-55), teachers redirected student responses to be evaluated or improved by other students. Students thus were made to consider their peers' responses. Nevertheless, these efforts were largely confined to language-correction without any constructive discussion on teacher or student ideas to enhance the quality of classroom discourse, in relation to improving students' thinking skills and language use.

For the fourth group (Excerpt 56-57), discourses revolved around students being asked to provide a variety of answers to one teacher question. Apparently students were encouraged to contribute ideas as the question could admit more than

one answer. Unfortunately, the discourse did not take a dialogic turn with each answer simply acknowledged or overlooked. Every idea was not discussed in any way and was seemingly disconnected from one another. Expansion on the elicited ideas towards collaborative knowledge construction was on the whole missing in these discourses.

The fifth group (Excerpts 58-62) consisted of some interesting discourses whereby student responses were followed up by teachers' probe for reasoning and/or evidence. That is to say students had to substantiate and elaborate on answers they provided, thus these were opportunities toward a more dialogic classroom discourse. Despite this, no discourse in this group was found to be dialogic. Broadly observed in this group of discourses was teachers' control especially amidst uncertainties resulting from students' attempts in substantiating their answers during classroom discourse.

Another group of interesting discourses (Excerpts 63-64) involved teachers' follow-up to student questions. Although students rarely asked questions especially those which were content-specific and non-procedural, when it happened, the ways teachers responded to these student questions were rather thought-provoking. This sixth and final group of extended classroom discourse further illuminates teachers' control particularly when students expanded their role as listener or responder to ask questions during classroom discourse.

In the context of this study, compared with the other two variations of monologic classroom discourse, extended classroom discourse was the variation of monologicality where discourses were monologic but comprised a variety of dialogic efforts, as exhibited in teachers' questioning practices (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves). Therefore, on the monologic continuum, extended

classroom discourse was positioned after teacher-dominated and IRE-structured discourses.

In regard to the three features of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Classroom Discourse"), the principal characteristic broadly possessed by extended discourses, and not by the discourses in the other two variations of monologic classroom discourse was the expansion of discourse beyond the first student response, be it deemed acceptable or unacceptable. When teachers did follow-up to student responses, recurring opportunities for students to continue thinking and communicating their ideas were likely to be created, either explicitly or implicitly. On these occasions, opportunities for student thinking and student voice were generally present or increased. These opportunities however varied depending on the open-endedness/closed-endedness of student responses which were expected by teachers and on the extent to which teachers were open to and receptive of student responses during classroom questioning. In many ways, regardless of the opportunities presented in terms of encouraging student thinking and student voice, teachers still held control on student talk and the overall classroom discourse. In terms of opportunities for interactions of multi-voices and for students to influence classroom discourse, as discussed earlier teachers' questioning practices in the other two variations of monologic classroom discourse provided no opportunity; teachers' questioning practices in extended classroom discourse were no exception.

In conclusion, teachers' questioning practices which extended discourses were often done for the elicitation of acceptable answers and the pursuance of student answers which were usually surface-leveled. Subsequently, what was observed in most of the extended discourses in this study was the lack of appreciation of and

expansion from student thinking and student voices in collaboratively developing the direction and content of classroom discourse.

Conclusion: Research question two. In this study, every content unit examined through the dialogism/monologism lens was predominantly governed by one of the three broad variations of monologicality. Based on the examination on teachers' questioning practices in relation to the interplay between types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves, the findings on all lessons observed essentially concluded on zero dialogic classroom discourse.

It is important however to note that across the continuum of monologicality, though certain monologic qualities largely remained or were even at times strengthened (e.g. teachers' control on classroom discourse), some dialogic qualities too became more apparent (e.g. allowing open-ended student responses). In terms of the three features of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Classroom Discourse"), opportunities for interactions of multi-voices and for students to influence classroom discourse were broadly constant, whereas opportunities student thinking and student voice were varied; in all discourses examined in this study, there was no opportunity provided for interactions of multi-voices and for students to influence classroom discourse. The only variable was the opportunities for student thinking and student voice, as created by teachers' questioning practices.

Across the continuum (teacher-dominated classroom discourse → IRE-structured classroom discourse → extended classroom discourse), opportunities for students to participate in and contribute to discourses, to a certain extent slowly became more considerable. Patterns like this led to discourses of the 'extended' type being considered less monologic than discourses of the 'IRE-structured' type, and

discourses of the 'IRE-structured' type being considered less monologic than discourses of the 'teacher-dominated' type.

Each variation of monologicality was based on different premise: (1) within teacher-dominated discourses, teacher solicitations of student responses were often made cursorily and perfunctorily, in that teacher questions and student responses largely functioned to develop teacher talk; (2) within IRE-structured discourses, teacher solicitations of student responses were deliberate, in that teacher questions attempted to seek compulsory student responses, but discourses were never extended beyond the acceptance of a right answer or the correction of a wrong answer; and (3) within extended discourses, teacher solicitations of student responses were deliberate and extended, in that both right and wrong answers were followed up in their own ways.

In particular, the third variation of monologicality (i.e. extended classroom discourse) was the most interesting among the three, as it had more characteristics of dialogic efforts, compared with the first and second variations, but its discourses remained essentially monologic. In these discourses, opportunities for more dialogicality were not absolutely absent. In fact, there were such opportunities created by either teachers or students, but often missed or unfortunately wasted. These scenarios were investigated in understanding how they occurred and resulted eventually in monologicality.

Fundamentally, entrenched deep within this monologic continuum was the lack of evidence of substantive student thinking and student voices in maneuvering classroom discourse. Specifically, attempts were made to enhance student involvement in lessons, but they were mostly superficial. Interactions of voices were virtually non-existent when discourses were taking place. Teachers were nowhere

near being exertive in attempting well-developed or reasoned discourses with students, as teachers' questioning practices hardly ever profoundly challenged students to think or purposefully necessitated students to produce longer and more complex output (language- and content-wise). Students seldom got to play any central role in shaping classroom discourse as they generally had little influence on the initiation or direction of discourse progression, on how/when discourses should arrive at a consolidation, or on attaining plausible answers through dialoging. All these aforesaid characteristics which were largely missing in all the lessons observed in this study are in effect the very essentials of dialogicality.

Conclusion

Detailed in this chapter are the findings for both Research Question One and Research Question Two of this study. Particularly, the findings for Research Question One addressed teachers' use of three dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves). As for Research Question Two, the findings revolved around how classroom discourse was largely monologic based on the examination of the interplay between the three dimensions of questioning in each discourse context. Primarily, a monologic continuum comprising three variations of monologicality (i.e. teacher-dominated classroom discourse, IRE-structured classroom discourse, and extended classroom discourse) emerged based on the findings obtained.

As mentioned earlier, the lessons examined in this study comprised both one-period and two-period whole lessons in secondary English language classrooms. All these lessons irrespective of their topics (Seidel & Prenzel, 2006) and activity types/focus were found to be monologic. All teachers teaching these lessons in

different schools across Malaysia came from varied background (e.g. age, years of teaching experience) but their questioning practices converged on an all-encompassing monologicality in the classroom, as found in this study.

This deep-seated issue of monologicality in the Malaysian context is further discussed in the next chapter – "Summary, Discussion, and Implications".

Chapter 5: Summary, Discussion, and Implications

Introduction

In this chapter, the overview of this study which included the objective, research questions, theoretical underpinning, and methodology, is presented. The summary of the findings for each research question is then provided before being discussed together. Finally, the implications of the findings and the limitations of this study are also discussed.

Overview of the Study

This study provides a window into teachers' questioning practices in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms. The objective of this study is to examine teachers' questioning practices and how their questioning practices influence classroom discourse. With this objective, this study was guided by two research questions. The first research question is 'What are teachers' questioning practices in terms of three dimensions of questioning: types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves?' The second research question is 'How does the interplay between these dimensions of questioning (identified in Research Question One) influence classroom discourse?'

In addressing the two research questions of this study, Bakhtin's notion of dialogism was used as the theoretical lens. The influence of teachers' questioning practices on classroom discourse was examined from the perspectives of dialogism and monologism.

This study adopted a video study design where video recordings of lessons were collected for analysis. In general, video studies are studies which analyze video

recordings in researching educational reality (Janik et al., 2009b). In this study, 31
video recordings of lessons in Form One English language classrooms were coded
using NVivo 10 and analyzed to examine teachers' questioning practices as well as
how their practices influenced classroom discourse.

Summary of the Findings

The findings of this study were organized according to each research
question. For Research Question One and Research Question Two, the main findings
are summarized below.

**Research Question One – What are teachers' questioning practices in
terms of three dimensions of questioning: types of questions, wait time, and
reaction moves?** With this research question, three dimensions of questioning in
teachers' questioning practices were examined.

In terms of types of questions, there were three main ones used by teachers,
namely display questions, referential questions, and rhetorical questions. Consistent
with previous findings on question types, display questions were dominant in the
classroom (refer to p. 114) – out of a total of 2,870 questions, display questions took
up 69.1% (1,983 questions). Meanwhile, rhetorical questions came in second at
16.7% (480 questions) and referential questions were in third with 14.2% (407
questions). Irrespective of the question type, most questions required only direct
answers which teachers rarely pursued for elaboration.

The second dimension of questioning under study – wait time – was used
1,063 times across all 31 lessons observed. Generally, the majority of the wait time
periods (about 70.0%) provided by teachers were short, falling in the range of 0.1-
1.9s. The recommended range by several researchers of wait time was 2 to 5 seconds

(Rowe, 1974, 1986, 1996; Swift & Gooding, 1983), in order to facilitate higher-level and increased student talk. Remarkably as discovered in this study, although there were almost 24.0% of wait time periods in the range of 2.0-4.9s, as well as almost 6.0% of wait time periods which were 5.0s or above, the quality and quantity of student talk were not much different throughout.

In reference to reaction moves, the third and last dimension of questioning investigated in this study, some of the main reaction moves commonly used by teachers were 'probe', 'prompt', 'redirect', 'reinitiate', 'nudge', 'nominate', 'wait out/ignore', 'give answer', 'abandon', and 'impose'. Some of these reaction moves served to facilitate student responses; some otherwise, in that students were discouraged from responding further. Regardless, the general finding concerning the use of reaction moves in the classroom converged on the observation of simple and non-extended student responses.

In a significant manner, some major findings of this study were in contrast with past studies. In terms of the types of questions used by teachers, unlike previous research recommendations (Al-Muaini, 2006 as cited in Yeo & Ting, 2012; Arnold et al., 1974; Brock, 1986; Lamb, 1976; McNeil, 2012; Yang, 2010), referential questions used in the lessons examined did not necessarily generate longer and more explorative student talk. In terms of teachers' use of wait time, taking into account the empirical evidences established in wait time studies on the advantages of increasing wait time (Rowe, 1974, 1986, 1996; Swift & Gooding, 1983), as found in this study, the length of the wait time provided did not seem to have much influence on student talk. In regard to teachers' use of reaction moves, especially with consideration to reaction moves which should enhance student talk (e.g. probe,

redirect) (Cotton, 2001; Gall, 1970, 1984; Hannel, 2009), this study too found little extension or elevation of quality in student talk and the overall classroom discourse.

Essentially, these findings indeed further established and underscored the significance of Research Question Two of this study, that the investigation of just any one dimension of questioning will not be sufficient in researching teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse. In this case, the sole use of referential questions, or mere increment of wait time, or lacklustre follow-up of student responses using certain reaction moves, did no improvement to either the quality or the quantity of student talk and the overall classroom discourse. Indeed, the different and major dimensions of questioning (e.g. types of questions, wait time, reaction moves) need to be studied together in order to understand how the interplay between them influences classroom discourse.

Research Question Two – How does the interplay between these dimensions of questioning (identified in Research Question One) influence classroom discourse? Teachers' questioning practices, taking into consideration the interplay between the three dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves), were found to always lead to monologic classroom discourse. That is to say, in all situations involving teachers' questioning practices, there was an overarching monologicality across all discourses (content units). However, they were monologic in different ways. Conceptualizing along this line, a monologic continuum emerged based on the analysis of the content units examined in this study. On this continuum there were three central variations of monologic classroom discourse (refer to "The Monologic Continuum – Variations of Monologic Classroom Discourse") and across this continuum there were different discourse

patterns in terms of the three main features of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Patterns of Classroom Discourse across the Monologic Continuum").

The monologic continuum – Variations of monologic classroom discourse.
As broadly mapped on this monologic continuum, every content unit examined in this study was categorizable into one of these three discourse variations: teacher-dominated classroom discourse, IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation)-structured classroom discourse, and extended classroom discourse.

1. Teacher-dominated classroom discourse – Teachers were the dominant speaker and contributor, while students were mostly listeners and responders. Although students were from time to time invited to participate in the discourse, teacher solicitations of student responses were often cursory or perfunctory. Questions were sometimes asked only to facilitate the development of teacher talk, either in explaining content or in revealing answers. Hence, student responses were not always compulsory and had very little influence on teachers' course of action.

2. IRE-structured classroom discourse – Student responses were deliberately sought but in a tight, three-turn exchange; student responses were never followed up although wait time was used intermittently. When answers given by students were acceptable, teachers would accept them and move on to the next question or student. When answers given by students were unacceptable, teachers would just reject and provide the correction. Therefore, student responses be them right or wrong, were not furthered for discussion.

3. Extended classroom discourse – Answers were not merely accepted, rejected, or corrected. Instead, there was follow-up done to student responses through the use of various reaction moves. Therefore, teacher solicitations of student responses were often deliberate as well as extended, in the sense that students were

given the opportunity to respond beyond their initial attempt or unresponsiveness. Nevertheless, both teacher talk and student talk were observed to remain at the surface level as all discourses contained largely simple and straightforward exchanges, with very little higher-level and substantial engagement between teacher-student or student-student.

Patterns of classroom discourse across the monologic continuum. Looking across the monologic continuum which comprised the teacher-dominated discourses, the IRE-structured discourses, and finally the extended discourses, several discourse patterns became recognizable. These discourse patterns were discerned in relation to the three key features of dialogism/monologism (refer to "Classroom Discourse"): student thinking and student voice, interactions of multi-voices, and students' influence on classroom discourse. Teachers' questioning practices, the extent they provided opportunities for these three features to emerge, crucially influenced classroom discourse towards either dialogicality or monologicality.

As all discourses examined were monologic but in different ways, the discourse patterns in terms of these features of dialogism/monologism across the monologic continuum can help explain the various variations of monologic classroom discourse registered in this study.

First and foremost, one crucial observation to illuminate the all-encompassing monologicality in all lessons was the lack of two out of the three important features of dialogism/monologism. In all discourses, there was practically zero opportunity for interactions of multi-voices and for students to influence classroom discourse. In terms of interactions of multi-voices, other than teachers being the dominant speakers, different students did get to respond regularly, unfortunately student responses were mostly straightforward answers to teacher questions. There was

rarely solicitation of a variety of authentic student ideas and reasoning, more so integration of similar/different perspectives or negotiation of understandings or collaborative meaning-making. In short, student responses would be deemed sufficient as soon as they were acceptable as answers to teacher questions; no further input specifically by other students was necessary to initiate or enrich a discussion. As for students' influence on classroom discourse, they scarcely got to affect how discourses would progress or end. Sometimes, their responses were even taken lightly and received imposition from teachers (refer to "Teachers' Imposition on Students"). Thus, in many ways, regardless of the student participation allowed by teachers, students were seldom regarded as a valid autonomy in the classroom, from the manner in which teachers held control on classroom discourse. Time and again, only responses in step with teachers' preparedness and expectations were acknowledged (but also never discussed), and those which were not, instead of being valued and utilized as points of discussion and discovery in a dialogic environment, were often brushed aside or placated with simplistic teacher explanation/conclusion. Seeing students' little influence on classroom discourse, teachers' control was indeed intact all through.

This left the feature 'student thinking and student voice' as the main variable in discerning the three discourse variations across the monologic continuum. Beginning from teacher-dominated classroom discourse to IRE-structured classroom discourse and subsequently to extended classroom discourse, what in general was different was the opportunities provided for student thinking and student voice. In this study, all discourses participated by students were monologic at large. Even so, there were teacher efforts which in fact allowed for some openings towards a more dialogic direction, though they never did bring about dialogicality. For instance, such

efforts came in the form of deliberate (non-cursory, non-perfunctory) solicitations of student responses, the incorporation of students' personal background and experiences into discourses, extended follow-up on student responses, and more open-ended teacher questions. Thus, on the monologic continuum, discourses became less monologic when the aforesaid efforts were present.

Given that questions were generally asked cursorily and perfunctorily and often in a closed-ended manner in teacher-dominated discourses, this variation of monologicality was the most monologic on the continuum of monologicality in this study. Hence, this variation sat on the far left of the continuum. Whereas in IRE-structured discourses, despite possessing the similar closed-endedness found in teacher-dominated discourses, teacher solicitations of student responses were deliberate. Therefore, these discourses were deemed less monologic than teacher-dominated discourses. Finally, in extended discourses, other than having teachers deliberately soliciting student responses, there were follow-up to student responses and more open-ended questions were utilized though not consistently. Similar closed-endedness in asking questions related to the background and experiences of students was still observed occasionally. With these characteristics, extended discourses were considered the least monologic variation of monologicality when compared with the other two variations, placing it at the far right of the monologic continuum in this study.

It is important to note that while the aforesaid efforts in many ways increased student participation and contribution in classroom discourse, absent was substantive student talk which was significantly derived from higher cognitive thinking, and which was profoundly representative of their own original and unique voice. The closed-endedness wrapping most of the student-related questions (e.g. background,

experiences, prior knowledge, opinions) asked was a testimony of an extremely rigid facilitation of student thinking and student voice. This, together with the absence of interactions of multi-voices and students' influence on classroom discourse, may well explicate the monologicality experienced in classrooms in spite of teachers' dialogic efforts.

When students primarily do not get to speak more than mere responders in the classroom, most probably their understanding of the content they are dealing with will not get to be unpacked. As they are rarely required to talk about what/how they understand or do not understand, regarding their ideas or others', their perspective will likely stay stagnant. Then, when thoughts are kept intact and sustained unchallenged, there will be little room for student development, in terms of both language and thinking. This is because meaning and knowledge are constructed within social interactions (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986; Hall et al., 2005; Lyle, 2008; Yuksel, 2009). Thus, to encourage students to talk is one of the crucial steps in having them regulate their thought processes and represent their thinking in logical connections, all while trying to use sound language systems (Wood, 1988).

At the basic, dialogic classroom discourse should be empowered by the expression of individual voices and enriched with the interactions of these voices. When these opportunities are low, dialogic discourses where students fundamentally reason out ideas (not only their own, but others' as well) and collaboratively deconstruct and construct understandings, will simply not take place in the classroom. Reciprocity based on substantive content and language input and output is fundamental for learning (Alexander, 2005; Nystrand, 2004; Voloshinov, 1973; Wertsch & Smolka, 1993). Considering this, a shift of focus from sheer question-answer exchanges between the teacher and students to deep dialogic engagement of

voices in together negotiating and making meanings (Renshaw, 2004; Shor & Freire, 1987) should be the way forward.

Discussion of the Findings

Based on the understanding of the discourse variations and patterns which made up the monologic continuum in this study, the overall culture of questioning and discourse as well as the grounds for such practices in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms can be more clearly drawn. These are discussed in the following sub-sections.

Overall questioning and discourse culture in the classroom. Gathered from the findings of this study, teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse can be largely characterized by a culture, where certain attitudes and behaviours (Oxford Dictionaries, 2016) of questioning and discoursing were observable. In this regard, the classroom culture reflected was one with a strong commitment to answers, low expectations of discourses, and a constant control on discourses.

Commitment to the/an answer. In all discourses examined, there was always this strive for concrete closings, either explicitly or implicitly. In other words, discourses revolved mostly around obtaining the specific right answer or an acceptable answer for the question in discussion. Discourses were largely initiated, steered, and ended with the goal of getting an answer to a question.

It was not common for teachers to actually initiate questions to be pondered over and to let discourses run with ideas, or with even more questions. It was even more uncommon to find teachers allowing uncertainties or indefiniteness widen the horizons of discourses.

In teacher-dominated discourses, there were instances where students were rarely required to answer questions, as teachers would answer questions themselves (Excerpt 27). When students were given opportunities to do so, their responses were short and simple; eventual answers were often given by teachers (Excerpts 28-29). At times, teachers would just conclude discourses with their preferred answers or ideas (Excerpts 30-31). When students remained silent for a bit after a question, teachers would hurriedly proceed to provide answers (Excerpts 32-34). These scenarios within teacher-dominated discourses demonstrate that there will always be an answer for each question and teachers were the ones holding or deciding the final answers. In fact, student talk was kept minimal and insignificant, and functioned purely to facilitate teacher talk (i.e. answer-giving and answer-explaining).

IRE-structured discourses were the most direct exemplars of teachers' strong commitment to the/an answer. The fact that slightly more than one third of all the discourses analyzed in this study were carried out in the IRE pattern shows how limited these discourses were in terms of dialoging opportunities. IRE-based discourses were discourses which ended with successful elicitation of the right or an acceptable answer from students, or with teachers' immediate revelation of the answer when students did not respond or responded with a wrong answer. Seeing that there was no intention for any discussion in these discourses, clearly teachers were only interested in the/an answer so that they could move on with the lesson.

Extended discourses made up about 53% of discourses examined in this study. Interestingly, none of these discourses became dialogic. In these discourses, opportunities were present to steer discourses in a more dialogic direction, but how were they never fully utilized? One explanation lies with the very reason these discourses were extended in the first place. As found, most of the time discourses

were extended because teachers could not elicit the/an answer from students at first try (Excerpts 41-44). Thus, teachers put in effort to facilitate discourses towards the right or any acceptable answer, rarely to discuss the answers elicited. Other than that, teachers also extended discourses to encourage students to talk and participate more in classroom discourse or to gather more student ideas but these discourses never outdid the simple-and-straightforward type of discourse in the end (Excerpts 45-57). Sometimes, discourses were extended when teachers attempted to seek students' substantiation of answers (Excerpts 58-62) and indeed these attempts were some of the most noteworthy dialogic efforts displayed by teachers examined in this study. Unfortunately, teachers lacked the interest and competency to expand the inquiry beyond simple and direct student answers to move toward dialogicality. Simplistic questions and explanation (Excerpts 63-64) ruled most discourses and any confusion or conflicting ideas were either brushed aside or breezed through. All this converged on the conclusion that teachers intensely desired the/an answer for every question raised. The impatience and insecurity exhibited in the ways teachers dealt with the indefiniteness in letting students take charge and construct an elaborated answer further highlight teachers' need for and thus the commitment to the/an answer in practically every discourse.

Having said the above, being committed to arriving at the/an answer is not necessarily a problem on its own, rather it is when the manner to get to those answers focuses on direct elicitation or revelation of answers so much so that there is no room at all for discussion of possible answers that such a commitment is deemed lethal to the quality of classroom discourse. Visibly, the exploration of possibilities through dialogue to facilitate students' meaning-making was hardly a priority in the lessons observed in this study.

Expectations of discourses. Looking into all the discourses examined, one obvious observation was that they contained mostly simple and straightforward exchanges between the teacher and students. Teacher questions and explanations were simple and straightforward; student responses and questions were simple and straightforward. All discourses were in general not complex and uncomplicated.

Given the simple teacher questions and explanations observed throughout this study, substantial teacher input was largely missing. In terms of language learning, especially considering the classroom context, appropriate level of input from the teacher, language- and content-wise is fundamental (Ellis, 1994). Students not only need to practise the language, they need adequate exposure to the language and its use (Nunan, 2003). Therefore, sufficient teacher input and teacher facilitation is important to provide substance in challenging students to think and develop their course of talk during classroom discourse.

Student input too cannot be missing when considering their thinking and learning development. Student contribution such as their prior knowledge, experiences, understanding, ideas, assumptions, reasoning, and expectations should be a major input during classroom discourse other than the teacher's (Bakhtin, 1984; Nystrand, 1997, 2004; Reznitskaya, 2012). When students can participate in depth with their voice during classroom discourse, their meaning-making would be enhanced and become more meaningful; at the same time when they get engaged in dialogues, their higher cognitive functions and language learning would stimulate each other's advancement (Hsu, 2001; Iakovos, 2011; Swain, 1985; Wood, 1988).

As observed in the classroom, with both teacher input and student input kept at the surface level, what was happening seems to demonstrate the low expectations of classroom discourse as it was taking place. Very likely, the commitment to the/an

answer is one driving factor. Teachers used questioning as a mere routine for obtaining answers rather than as a way to dialoging and learning. Generally, negotiation and construction of knowledge did not play an important part in questioning and classroom discourse.

Meanwhile, students participated in questioning in a way to just fulfill teachers' stated requirements. This in fact points out that having low expectations of discourses was not just teachers' affair; students too seemed to have no intention of using questions as opportunities for discussion. Students themselves appeared to be aware of their teachers' expectations, as seen from the ways they performed according to such expectations during classroom discourse (e.g. Excerpt 32). Students answered briefly and only necessarily, bound by the immediate requirements of the questions asked. They rarely contributed more or asked higher cognitive questions to advance the discussion.

Understandably, with teachers' low expectations of discourses throughout the lessons examined it is very unlikely for students to participate in discourses with high expectations. There seemed to be an implicit conditioning in the classroom for students to not expect critical and dialogical discourses. This conditioning was embedded in teachers' own simplistic talk and solicitation of simplistic student responses. The traces of consequences of this conditioning can be observed in student responses particularly when there was teachers' follow-up which required students to substantiate their answers – Excerpts 2, 59, and 64 – discussed below.

One way to look at this is by examining the seemingly futile use of even longer wait time in the classroom. There were instances in this study; one shown in the discourse in Excerpt 2. In this discourse, a student was unable to respond when the teacher asked a simple 'why' question which was followed by a wait time of 9.2

seconds. Earlier, the teacher had already probed the student and his partner when they completed their presentation; the 'why' question was the second probing question. What happened was that the student was muted for that long before he managed to offer a brief answer "Because swimming is fun", while exhibiting no intention to go on. Not surprisingly, the teacher accepted this unelaborated answer and concluded the discourse right away. It is important to notice in this scenario how the student was being disinterested with the teacher's act to continually probe and that a prolonged wait time did not seem to be helpful to the student in constructing his answer. The student was sort of trying to produce an answer to satisfy the teacher, in a way to actually stop further teacher questions because there was no display of student motivation and excitement in responding to the teacher's probe with genuine ideas or thoughts. Probably, the student was not used to expecting that he will be questioned further after his first answer which he thought would have sufficed. The same thing goes with the other discourses which sought extended student responses. Students often could not respond with a fully developed answer, like the student in Excerpt 59. She was asked by the teacher to explain how she arrived at a statement she made based on her reading of a short story. During that discourse, the student appeared to be really convinced that what she said was right, but she could not construct any sentence to justify her statement. She only told the teacher that her statement was based on the literature textbook, and hoped that that would satisfy the teacher. The teacher ended up dismissing the student's statement with the teacher's own conclusion. Utilizing opportunities like this to straighten out confusion and strengthen existing understandings did not appear to be the norm of learning. Such expectations of discourses were not exhibited as part of the classroom culture. Similarly in situations where a few students attempted to ask questions to better

understand the topic in discussion (Excerpt 64), the teacher's repetitive short responses to student questions somehow eventually drown their questions. Here, an implicit conditioning of not to ask too many questions during classroom discourse was evident. And as if submitting to this 'message', the students stopped asking after a while. This discourse shows the teacher's expectations of students as responders, listeners but less likely as inquirers; a condition gradually accepted by the students who asked questions. Despite the students sounding still puzzled, they stopped pursuing the teacher's explanations and gave up expecting that the discourse would expand in the direction of their questions.

Overall, this observed mutuality in low expectations of discourses among teachers and students alike seemed to continue maintain the status quo of discourse in the classroom. It then makes one wonder that without any complexity and complicatedness in teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse, what about challenging students' language use and thinking? What happens to students' active meaning-making and the communication of it while learning?

Control on discourses. The discourses examined in this study were not only geared towards the/an answer and filled with simple and straightforward exchanges, but also very limited by teachers' control (Emanuelsson & Sahlstrom, 2008). Teachers' control was present in all discourses from the manner teachers governed the content to discuss, the direction of discourse, and the conclusion of each discussion. Hence, it is hardly surprising to see the lack of opportunities for interactions of multi-voices and for students to influence classroom discourse. Truly there was none across all 31 lessons investigated. For most of the time, teachers were the domineering voice and power-holder.

Teachers' control on discourses was more clearly projected especially when discourses did not develop or conclude in accordance with teachers' intention or within their comfort zone. This can be shown obviously from the way teachers slid in concluding remarks at the end of a discourse when they appeared to prefer a different idea/ideal. For instance, in reference to the discourses in Excerpts 30-31, teachers did not upfront reject student answers; instead they imposed their perception using seemingly subtle concluding remarks. With teachers taking no action in expanding discourses in the direction of what students said, this implies that classroom discourse was supposed to go only according to teachers' preference and liking. And teachers sustained this kind of course of talk by wielding control on discourses whenever necessary to keep students within teachers' own scope of interest.

Interestingly discovered in this study were the various teacher efforts (e.g. asking open-ended questions, providing wait time, following-up student responses using 'probe' or other reaction moves) which never led to any dialogicality. In understanding these situations, it was discovered that whenever the opportunities for dialogicality transpired (as given rise to by teacher efforts or student initiatives), teachers' control was always there. As a matter of fact, the more students and classroom discourse deviated from this control, the more teachers tried to regain control.

A critical demonstration of teachers' control on classroom discourse in this study happened during the few times when students asked content-specific questions. The literature has pointed out the low frequency of student questions at large and in particular higher cognitive ones in classrooms (Dillon, 1982; Dillon, 1988 as cited in Whittaker, 2012; Gall, 1970; Good, Slavings, Harel, & Emerson, 1987; Graesser & Person, 1994; Zamri Mahamod & Nor Razah Lim, 2011); the situation was similar

here, in secondary English language classrooms. When student questioning did occur, there was so little support and building-on on those questions from teachers. Teachers were observed to be trying to 'take over' when student questions came up. This was evident in the discourses depicted in Excerpts 63-64. In both contexts, student questions did not seem to excite teachers in the sense that those questions signaled that students were actually paying attention to and were interested in the discourse progression, hence the higher likeliness for dialogic engagement. Eventually these signals were not picked up for any dialogic purposes. The teacher in Excerpt 63 indeed appeared to be rather excited by her student's question, but only to the extent that it triggered her 'teacher-ness' to explain the content of discussion to her students. Whereas the teacher in Excerpt 64 was in slight distress because student questions kept coming at her; her responses were brief and unelaborated explanations. While the teacher in Excerpt 63 kept control by taking over the speaking rights, the teacher in Excerpt 64 did so by diluting students' interest and motivation so that the discourse would not go deeper. There was an entrenched issue of control where teacher-student discourses were regularly reinstated to a monologic standard.

Even when multiple student perspectives were sought (Excerpts 56-57) teachers' omnipresent control on discourses kept students from providing answers beyond the direction desired by teachers. This happened in spite of the use of open-ended questions and with various students being invited or allowed to volunteer to contribute to the discussion. While seeking a variety of student answers, teachers displayed high conformity to only elicit answers and not discuss them. As such, student answers were treated as disconnected units filling out an answer scheme. This mechanism was consistently enforced in the classroom, time and again with teachers

controlling the discourse by opting not to ask questions more than necessary (e.g. acceptable answers were acknowledged and unacceptable/incomplete answers were pushed aside).

Considering the presence of teacher efforts in extending discourses where at the same time no deviation was encouraged, this suggests that the control was there to make sure that discourses did not go out of range, in the sense that unspecified or unanticipated content was to be avoided. This highlights teachers' role as the all-knowing figure (Bakhtin, 1984) and the only authority (Shor & Freire, 1987) in the classroom, whereby to sustain these roles, teachers attempted to keep control of what was to be talked about and in which manner.

Conclusion: Overall questioning and discourse culture in the classroom. The discourses examined in this study were universally underdeveloped. The content of teacher-student talk was consistently centralized on 'the answers' rather than 'possible answers'. This was evident from the short and simple exchanges taking place in most discourses (Emanuelsson & Sahlstrom, 2008). Indirectly, the extent of each discourse was for most of the time limited to the surface level, with the language used remaining largely unsophisticated. Considering this from the viewpoint of dialogism, students' role was often rendered trivial in their own learning process. When students are invited to talk, supposedly teachers are looking into students' perspectives, meaning-making progressions, and ongoing interpretations of what is being discussed (Wood, 1988). Students are by no means to be assumed as dull responders to teacher questions or mere receivers of knowledge. This portrays the transmission model of learning which is common in monologic classrooms (Lyle, 2008). Teachers in this mode rarely exhibit concern for students' development in staking out their stand in response to teacher questions because the priority is always

to get students say and get the appropriate answers. Teachers would dutifully carry out their 'job' to fill their students in. When teachers' central goal in asking questions is to expose rather than to explore (Boyd & Markarian, 2011), students' chief role is likely reduced to wait and absorb, rather than to reason and dialogue. Therefore, classroom discourse hardly can be dialogic without having students play a more active and self-regulated role in their own knowledge construction (Lotman, 1988; Lyle, 2008; Shor & Freire, 1987; Skidmore & Gallagher, 2005).

Both parties, teachers and students, went along discourses in which their low expectations were displayed. The majority of students lacked the motivation to question or to pursue a discussion. They seemed to prefer staying 'safe', under the radar, other than responding to straightforward teacher questions. Alexander (2005) believes that to learn, students need to talk. If students are continuously programmed to learn by only listening to their teachers, students will almost never realize the importance of what they could offer during classroom discourse and be engaged in constructive exchanges with others. And when the need to talk in a dialogic environment rarely arises, students would remain on the passive-receiving side with teachers as the dominant-all-knowing role within monologic settings. Eventually, there will be no expression of student voices, even more so any interaction of teacher-student/student-student voices for classroom discourse to take on a more dialogic route. Meanwhile, teachers only talked about what they knew and kept discourses short when they were out of their realm of comfort. With this, the impression is that teachers' expectations of students and discourses were only for students to answer questions within teachers' scope of knowledge. In many ways, teachers liked to create this sense of participation in the classroom; students did take part in classroom discourse, but the quality of their contribution was highly

debatable. Mikhail Bakhtin and Paulo Freire have argued that dialogic discourses do not equal superficial interactive exchanges among classroom participants (Renshaw, 2004; Shor & Freire, 1987). Thus, students if required to talk just for the sake of participation within the boundaries of the low expectations of both the teacher and students, especially in situations which do not tap into students' perspective, knowledge, and experiences, will not be engaged dialogically.

These low levels of expectation would be hard to maintain, if without teachers' control on classroom discourse. Hence teachers' constant control – in what and how students learn – overriding the opportunities necessary for students to learn through the negotiation and construction of meaning. Teachers instead of treating students as the other half of classroom autonomy (Shor & Freire, 1987), try to impose their own assumptions on students. Therefore, rather than exploring students' points of view, teachers' tendency to simply brush away these views while valuing only their point of view will keep classroom discourse monologically dominated. Teachers would remain as the sole authority of the classroom and this would be detrimental to the struggle for dialogicality in classroom discourse. It is pivotal that the different perspectives of both the teacher and students be treated as important sources in developing a discussion (Nystrand et al., 2003; Reznitskaya, 2012; Skidmore, 2000; Yuksel, 2009).

The strict commitment to the/an answer, the low expectations of discourses, and the intolerant control on discourses within teachers' questioning practices help shed light on understanding the never achieved dialogicality especially when there were teacher efforts providing opportunities for that direction of discourse. It has become clear that a discourse when carried out with the aforementioned characteristics, will not take a dialogic turn. As much as teachers could employ more

referential or open-ended questions, wait time, or reaction moves like probing and reinitiating, these efforts may eventually extend the discourse, but only in length, not in quality dialogic-wise.

There has to be more than the surface features in affecting change in teacher practice (Galton, 2007; Galton, Simon, & Croll, 1980). As questioning and classroom discourse are largely governed by a culture (Alexander, 2000; Gallimore & Tharp, 1990 as cited in Cox, 2011), a change in practice will require foremost a change in principles which govern the practice. The practice has to be principled; in other words, a paradigm shift supported with clearly articulated and understood principles is needed (Cox, 2011; Galton, 2007; Galton et al., 1980).

In the next section, further discussed is the explanation possible for such a culture of questioning and discourse as found in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms.

Understanding teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse. An overarching monologicality was found in all the lessons examined in this study. To begin understanding teacher practice and the omnipresent monologicality, the underlying principles of teaching and learning as observed in all lessons ought to be discerned. That is to say teachers' epistemological inclinations need to be recognized and understood, crucially because teachers' pedagogical decisions are closely linked to them (Hardman & Norhaslynda A-Rahman, 2014; Mercer, 2010).

The findings of this study indicated that teachers' epistemological inclinations were largely monologic-sided. First of all, teachers displayed a firm tendency in teaching through the transmission model of learning; teachers were often instructors who knew the answers while students were often regarded as being in need to be taught and corrected (Bakhtin, 1984; Freire, 1970; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Nystrand,

1997; Wells, 2006; Yuksel, 2009). Generally, students dutifully participated in classroom discourse without meaningful or substantial contribution. With this method being domineering in the classroom, this helps explain the lack of development of student thinking and student voice.

Second, teachers seemed to treat learning as an individual process, happening only in the head of the student (Bakhtin, 1984; Hall et al., 2005; Lyle, 2008). Most of the time, through the use of questioning, students were asked to talk to display what they knew or learned; they were hardly required to consider in-depth or discuss any content to create shared understandings in the classroom (Reznitskaya, 2012; Skidmore, 2000). Thus, interactions of multi-voices practically never happened in the lessons examined; it was observed throughout the study that collaboration in building and creating knowledge was not a priority in teaching and learning.

Lastly, the power relationship in the classroom was always fixed with teachers as the authority that had the final say (Reznitskaya, 2012; Shor & Freire, 1987). To a great extent, student talk functioned purely as direct response to teacher questions and teacher talk. Students did not get to experience being the one who initiated a topic of interest to kick-start a discussion; their responses seldom got to change the direction of talk; they were not sought to contribute to when or how a discussion should be concluded. Apparently, the expert-novice hierarchy (Nystrand et al., 2003) stayed the same in all discourses. This elucidates how discourses in this study were always kept under teachers' control where students had little influence on the progression of classroom discourse.

Recognizing these monologic epistemological inclinations of teachers from their classroom questioning and discourse, what is even more important next is to

look into the broader grounds of such conceptions of teaching and learning, particularly in the context of Malaysian education.

Historical foundations of English Language Teaching (ELT). To put the current happenings in English language classrooms in Malaysia into perspective, it will most likely be helpful to understand deeper the historical foundations of ELT in Malaysia, to tread the history lane, at least beginning from the period when ELT roughly came about.

In Malaysia, English was initially a language of the British colony. The first English education in the early 19th century in the country was exclusive to European and government officials' children (Lopez, 2014). The learning of English gradually became a privilege to those in the urban areas specifically the rich and elites (Azirah Hashim, 2014; M. Bakri Musa, 2003). At that time, the English education was symbolic of higher social standing and also served to train a local workforce to assume support-administrative posts with the British (Azirah Hashim, 2014; Malakolunthu & Rengasamy, 2012). English was largely used for communication, socialization, and administration purposes.

One huge impact of the British colonization on the development of education in Malaysia was the segregation of the system based on economic and social considerations in the interest of the colony during that time. Schooling became more accessible but divided: Malay schools (established with the help of the British) and Chinese and Tamil schools (self-established and used curriculum from their origin country) (Phan Le Ha, Kho, & Chng, 2013).

As the country was on its way towards independence from the British in the 1950s, efforts were rounded up to produce functional educational and language policies through several major reports. These reports, together with their main

takeaway were: Barnes Report (1951) – the proposal of a national education system and a uniform curriculum, with English and Bahasa Melayu as the medium of instruction (MOI) at the primary level and English as the MOI at the secondary level; Fenn-Wu Report (1951) – the defense of vernacular schools; Razak Report (1956) – the proposal of national (Bahasa Melayu as the MOI) and national-type (English, Chinese, and Tamil vernaculars as the MOI) schools; Education Ordinance (1957) – A common curriculum and examination system, and only national (Malay) and English secondary schools to remain (Ales Puteh, 2010; Azirah Hashim, 2009; Lopez, 2014; MOE Malaysia, 2012).

Thus with the Education Ordinance (1957), it formed the base of the education system of Malaysia when independence was achieved the same year. Bahasa Melayu played an important role as the MOI, rationalized by the need for nation-building and a national identity especially for the then newly independent Malaysia, which is ethnically, culturally, and religiously diversified. However, pressed on by continuous pressure from Malay nationalists over concerns that English schools were thriving after independence and hence the serious threats that the English language could pose against the position of Bahasa Melayu as the national language, the National Language Act was introduced in 1967 to further strengthen Bahasa Melayu and reduce the role of the English language. Thus, Bahasa Melayu was officially enshrined as the national language to foster national unity and all English schools were eventually phased out (Azirah Hashim, 2014, MOE Malaysia, 2012).

From a primary language during the British colonial era in the country, English began to assume its role as the second most important language (Powell, 2002). Nevertheless, with English as a significant part of the nation's inherited

legacy and a global language, its importance was affirmed by being made a compulsory subject in the national education system in both primary and secondary education. It is important to note that at that time despite this status, English was on the way to be replaced by Bahasa Melayu in several significant areas such as communication, education, and administration. As a result, English was retained as the second most important language aside other ethnical vernaculars, but the function of it specifically in the local context was already quite different. Without its former roles, English was later introduced in the Malaysian national education more as a language to be acquired in its complete forms and structures.

In Malaysia, English is being taught at the earliest entry point of the primary level (Year 1), though many pre-school programmes may already include English and/or use English as their MOI. Such early official introduction to the language hints at the ELT target of nearing native-like English acquisition (Jenkins, 2006; Wang & Hill, 2011). This helps explain how the development of the ELT curriculum in Malaysia began with a tremendous focus on grammatical pieces crucially to achieve 'accuracy' of the language. The ELT in Malaysia was largely grounded in grammar-based approaches and the first official ELT curriculum was the Structural Syllabus; the priority of this syllabus was to have students learn grammatical rules and practise the production of the language (Hjh Noor Rezan Bapoo, 2007). Considerably, this curriculum facilitated the entrenchment of the monologic state in today's English language classrooms, in the sense that the practice of 'instructing', 'disseminating', 'drilling', 'rote-learning', and 'memorizing', and the perception of how important it was to be 'correct' and 'accurate' were formally advocated and legitimized since the beginning of ELT in the national system. Since then, coupled with other major factors like systemic structuring and sociocultural expectations,

these monologic practices evolved into and seemed to have persisted as the core of ELT in Malaysia in spite of the various curricular, pedagogical, and assessment innovations throughout the years.

   Systemic structuring of teaching and learning.   Upon independence, the national education system in Malaysia began operating as a highly structured one, based on a centralized curriculum and a common examination system. This system in general is being overseen by several levels beginning with the Ministry of Education, the State Education Office, the District Education Office, and subsequently the school administration. Thus, a top-down approach has been regulating this system with teachers usually at the bottom end (Sander et al., 2013).

   Indeed, this top-down system has been said to be working in opposition with the fundamentals of certain approaches which were advocated in ELT innovations (Wang & Hill, 2011). For instance, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which has been one of the essentials in Malaysian ELT syllabi especially since the 1970s, was adopted from the Western education system which is more bottom-up inclined. Just as how CLT and dialogic teaching are often grounded, for instance, in a higher degree of openness to various perspectives in the classroom, the top-down, bureaucratic approach of the Malaysian education system has been practising otherwise. In particular, autonomy and ownership of performance at school-level and teacher-level have been found to be much lacking (Sander et al., 2013). Indirectly, educational reform if done without careful and multi-level consideration within a system as such, challenges towards improvement and change will most likely increase.

   When bound to systemic pressure, teachers' pedagogical decisions could very well become solely dependent on and dictated by curricular prescriptions, whether or

not they fully understand or agree with the curriculum. Looking back at Excerpt 55, the teacher kept telling students statements like "Yes, the answers you can get from the text itself", "Look at the text", and "This answer you don't really have to think you know? Because it's given in the text". All this connotes that if the syllabus is too strictly adhered to without room for discussion for both the teacher and students, instead of being a material to facilitate classroom discourse it is very likely to turn into a limiting factor.

Other than the overarching top-down approach grappling the system (Sander et al., 2013), there has also been inconsistency within the system itself. Since the 1970s, the ELT curriculum has begun putting emphasis on thinking skills (Pandian, 2002; Ratnawati Mohd Asraf, 1996) and the recent Education Blueprint document (MOE Malaysia, 2012) has been gearing up on higher-order thinking skills for more holistic education for students. A more dialogic setting will be essential to cater to this goal. In particular reference to the quality of questioning and classroom discourse, an examination of the Curriculum Specifications for English Language for Form One (MOE Malaysia, 2003) offers an interesting perspective to ponder on. On page 30 of the said document, there are specifications for "Suggested Sentence Patterns" for English Language lessons. By no means are the examples provided should be treated as the sole or exhaustive guidelines for teachers in asking questions or regulating discourses, but the selected examples provided in this section revealed reasonably how monologicality has been an implicit, major part in the syllabus, despite all the rave about communicativeness and student thinking. All the examples involving question-answer exchanges are cited as follows (MOE Malaysia, 2003, p. 30):

1. ii.   A: What is your name, please?

         B: My name is Nurul Ashikin. / Nurul Ashikin.

2. i.   A: Would you like to join us for lunch?

         B: Yes, thank you. / Yes, I'd love to.

         B: I'm sorry, I can't. I have to get home early today.

6. i.   A: I beg your pardon. Could you repeat that, please?

         B: Sure. / Yes, of course.

    ii.   A: I'm sorry. I did not understand that. Can you repeat that please?

         B: Certainly.

    iii.   A: Was that on the 25th or the 26th?

         B: The 26th!

7. i.   A: How much does this magazine cost?

         B: It's five ringgit. / Five ringgit.

    ii.   A: What time does the library open, please?

         B: At 10.00am

9.   A: Hello! Could I speak to …, please?

         B: Who's calling, please?

As argued before that the type of a question does not necessarily decide the monologicality or dialogicality of a piece of discourse especially when examined out of context, the reason for apprehension seeing all the examples above is the fact that not even one of them is open-ended. Not even one of the examples involves a 'why' question and not even one of the examples requires detailed or elaborated student answers. The message conveyed by such examples can be dangerous, that these are the kinds of question and discourse expected in English language classrooms, that all this will probably suffice for the learning and language use of 13-year-olds. But crucially it is unlikely so, if the goal to engender dialogicality for the development of students' thinking and communicative skills is to be achieved.

The assessment story of the national education system is in a similar vein. Apparently, good grades have almost always been regarded as the ultimate target of education, or at least that has been the belief pandemic in the system, specifically with the emphasis on tests and examinations. Teachers in the Malaysian setting have long expressed the influence of formal assessment on their classroom practice (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Ruzlan Md. Ali, 2007). In the 11 years (average) of public schooling, there is a major national examination at three different levels: Standard Six (UPSR – Primary School Achievement Test), Form Three (formerly PMR – Lower Secondary Assessment, now PT3 – Form Three Assessment), and Form Five (SPM – Malaysian Certificate of Education). While PMR was just recently converted into school-based assessment (i.e. PT3) (Kang, 2014, March 23), the overall emphasis on catering teaching and learning to these major examinations still looms large. The approach may now be slowly and gradually reformed to be more school-based, but the end target has not significantly changed. The education and

examination systems are still excessively driven by outcomes defined by the formal grading of students.

This system has not affected only students of today; in fact the majority of teachers in the national system are a product of this monologic-striven ecology. This replication-reproduction of monologic practices tends to be a vicious cycle within this system. Lortie (1975) talked about 'apprenticeship of observation' whereby a teacher experiences teaching and learning as a student, and then teaches based on those experiences.

Putting Lortie's theory into the Malaysian context, to a great extent, teachers who had also gone through the Malaysian formal schooling were very likely to have been taught the monologic way when they were students. What they had experienced would be mostly monologic classroom discourse where questioning only continuously sustained the monologic state. That is to say, from young teachers had been instilled with values and concepts of learning which basically emphasized students' absorption of knowledge and submission to teachers. Therefore, it is highly explicable that teachers had not been exposed to and may not be aware other ways of learning, particularly the dialogic way, other than teaching practices which are embedded with the values and concepts of learning that they grew up with as students (Gallimore & Tharp, 1990 as cited in Cox, 2011; Lortie, 1975).

In line with this view, some studies have provided support from their observation that teachers indeed lacked the competency to facilitate more dialogic discourses. For instance, teachers did not know how to follow up student answers and proceed with classroom discourse even when they attempted to seek more open-ended answers beyond direct recall or memorization of factual information (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Reznitskaya, 2012; Sedigheh Abbasnasab Sardareh & Mohd Rashid

Mohd Saad, 2013). As found in these studies, most of the time teachers had to return to their monologic ways to be able to continue with their lessons.

Similarly in this study, it was found that teachers were unable to make full use of the dialogic opportunities created by their questioning practices. Even in extended discourses, teachers hardly engaged students dialogically for them to really talk to learn and learn to talk (Alexander, 2005). There were teacher efforts in using reaction moves such as probing (Excerpts 45-52, 58, and 63), redirecting (Excerpts 53-55), and reinitiating (Excerpts 56-57), but teachers always kept discourses simple. While some teachers may not know exactly how to carry out dialogic discourses with students, some teachers exhibited intentional avoidance in pursuing the dialogic direction. This was especially observable in extended discourses where dialogic opportunities which arose during classroom questioning were often passed and not pursued in depth. With the already limited occurrences where students attempted to put forth their thinking or interest to know more, there was no clear intention on teachers' part in actually nurturing student thinking and student voice. Instead, it appeared that teachers tried to avoid engaging further with students, as partly explained by teachers' ending most discourses prematurely when the direction of discourse was seemingly diverging from teachers' intention (Excerpt 64) or going nowhere (Excerpts 59-62).

As dialogic opportunities were being provided, teachers almost always still stuck to the attainment of the/an answer rather than the exploration of possible answers; both the teacher and students operated with low expectations of discourses, in that none used questioning and discoursing as a way to enhance thinking, learning, and understanding but a means for obtaining definite answers; teachers stayed as the ultimate and only power holder during most discourses.

To continue with the discussion on understanding how teachers got to the state that they are in today, other than being conditioned monologically since young, this monologic establishment has in fact been regularly congealed as teachers continue experiencing teaching and learning in the profession (Cox, 2011). As a teacher, teachers do not stop forming understanding about teaching and learning just because they had officially graduated from teacher education and entered the field. Teacher improvement especially for those in the national education system is an ongoing process; for instance they have to fulfill a minimum of seven days of development programmes each year (MOE Malaysia, 2012). Thus, teachers' formal learning continues through various training courses. During these courses, teachers would often be handed with well packaged and well intentioned initiatives to help improve their classroom practice. For most of the time, teachers would be briefed on what they are supposed to do with the ready-made materials or on how to put into practice what they could 'absorb' from the courses (Cox, 2011). Hence teachers' own learning seems to continue assuming a more monologic manner. In this regard, it will definitely be more effective if there could be more facilitation of teachers' comprehensive analyzing and critiquing of what is learned and going to be executed in classrooms. Teacher reflection and dialogues ought to focus on critically understanding how strategies came to be, improving strategies per se, or co-developing useful strategies based on different teaching contexts, rather than on only how to teach using advocated strategies. Therefore, in terms of teacher development programmes, the top-down functionality is still very much dominant.

As teachers function within the system, everyday practical challenges are also abound and if taken into account, can help better understand teacher practice in classrooms. In a typical classroom in the Malaysian setting, a teacher has to deal with

an average of 30 or more students. Considering this challenge, it may simply be very difficult for a teacher to act consistently in engaging each student especially at the individual level in every class of this size (Cox, 2011). Adding on another practical challenge regularly voiced by teachers – the pressure to carry out the planned lesson and cover the syllabus on time (Habsah Hussin, 2006; Shams-un-Nisa & Ali Ahmad Khan, 2012) – the fact that teachers are bound to systemic pressures cannot and should not be ignored when looking at the overall picture.

The orchestration of dialogic discourses in itself can be very demanding especially on teachers' role as the main facilitator; it can be both time-consuming and intense for teachers to be able to stimulate students' thinking and sustain the development of ideas during discussions. At the same time, teachers' attention is needed for not one but the whole class of students to avoid only the regular few dominating classroom discourse. Then, put together these difficulties in engaging students dialogically with the challenges of having to tend to a large class and to complete the syllabus within a specific time frame; these could help enlighten, at least in part, how these practical conditions may have heightened teachers' struggle with the notion of dialogism in their daily classroom practice.

Sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning. In considering sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning, basically two key questions were addressed; 'How do teaching and learning happen?' and 'What constitutes effective teaching and learning?'

Malaysia is a country made up of three main ethnic groups (i.e. Malay, Chinese, and Indians) which were initially brought together by a unified education system. Prior to this national system, each ethnic already had some kind of formal and/or informal practice of education. Therefore, it may be helpful to trace

expectations of teaching and learning to the initial years of the various streams of education in Malaysia, considering specifically how they were founded during the British occupation.

During this early period, Malay education began mostly with the 'pondok' education. Mainly in this setting, students were taught Islamic principles and practical skills. At each 'pondok', there was usually a respected teacher who functioned to be the value instiller and knowledge transmitter. When Malay primary schools were later set up by the British, the classes continued to focus on vocational skills and the basic 3Rs skills (i.e. reading, writing, and arithmetic). Education for the Chinese and Indians generally started with them setting up their own schools for their people during the British colonialism. All teachers and textbooks were imported from their respective home country to preserve their roots and identity. Thus, Chinese and Indians began their education largely based on the traditions of their origin country. In this regard, Chinese educational traditions of at least 5,000 years principally imposed on the importance of the teacher in a classroom (Wang & Hill, 2011). With traditional sayings like "respect teachers and value education", "value one's 'face' above everything", and "fluent reading of the 300 Tang poems makes you half a poet" (Wang & Hill, 2011, p. 214), the values of being obedient and not asking anything more than necessary, as well as being studious and able to absorb and memorize content were extremely desirable in a student. Similarly in the Indian educational traditions, being able to memorize and repeat content was the core of education which can be traced to the learning of ancient Vedic texts (Wang & Hill, 2011).

With this background, the early Malay, Chinese, and Indian education bearing the influence of each historical tradition thus contributed to the basis of the

sociocultural conventions in today's Malaysia. One universal characteristic of all traditions was teacher-centredness. In reference to the first question forwarded earlier (i.e. 'How do teaching and learning happen?') the inherited educational traditions point toward the monumental role of teachers in making teaching and learning happen. This has led to the perception that teachers teach by instructing and passing down knowledge, while students learn by paying attention and acquiring as much as possible the transmitted knowledge. Thus, in principle, dialogic classroom discourse does not fit into this picture of how teachers are supposed to teach and how students are supposed to learn. This is to say, there is no need for students to talk more than necessary because knowledge is assumed to be with teachers and materials, therefore it is deemed inappropriate for students to disrupt teachers and teaching by taking over the central role in the classroom. This perception may be regarded as a traditional, monologic view of teaching and learning when compared with more dialogic approaches, but it is far from being gone, as observed in all the lessons examined in this study.

This brings into discussion the second question posed in the first paragraph of this section. Assuming that no teacher or at least very few of them would intentionally strive to do a bad job at teaching and assuming again that this is a rather fair statement, what then constitutes effective teaching and learning?

When a common examination system was being introduced through the Education Ordinance (1957) (Ales Puteh, 2010; MOE Malaysia, 2012), examinations had had a long history, most importantly with the chief purpose of screening individuals. Applied in education, examinations too have been a tool to standardly categorize students according to their academic/intellectual/skill abilities. This has contributed as one of the fundamental reasons that teaching and learning are reduced

to a vehicle to excelling in examinations. This is why effective teaching and learning has been consistently inseparable from academic achievements.

The current assessment reforms taking place in the country (e.g. school-based assessment) and which have stirred so much unrest and confusion among teachers, students, and parents, implied the long-standing and deeply entrenched attachment of our system to structured tests and examinations. Because without them, how is learning supposed to be displayed for evaluation, streaming, and selection processes? Teacher accountability has become so much entwined with driving their teaching and learning based on and towards the requirements of tests and examinations, even more so for high-stakes ones like SPM – the school-leaving certificate which will likely determine a student's future educational and employment prospects. Definitely, with English being viewed as the global language important for economic and social mobility, the achievement for the English Language subject has been extremely important.

The obsession with examinations has not been unheard of in Malaysia. As a matter of fact, it has always garnered attention across the country, not merely in schools. The society and parents alike are often heading the same direction. According to the HSBC Holdings' Global Report "Springboard of Success", more than half of the parents surveyed thought that their children's education is the best investment that they can make and parents in general would allocate the most of their savings, up to 42%, for their children's education (*The value of education: Learning for life*, 2015). Malaysian parents at large will not hesitate sending their children to private tutorial/tuition/extra classes to ensure the best preparation possible for school and high-stakes examinations, labeled as 'shadow education' (Bray, 2007; Husaina Banu Kenayathulla, 2016; Loi, 2015, September 30). Year in and year out, most of

the stakeholders will be waiting for the announcement of the number of students

scoring straight A's in examinations like UPSR, PT3, and SPM. Most governmental

and non-governmental agencies will then gladly offer scholarships to study abroad or

locally to high-achievers, leaving those who cannot make the cut totally out of the

picture without any rehabilitative or facilitative provisions. With the media and

society glorifying those who did well, this has only been reinforcing the expectations

of teaching and learning in mere examination sense, on an annual basis and

nationwide. Thus, every year, the psychological warfare would be on, to boost

students' grades, leaving much to be desired for the improvement of teacher practice

to better facilitate deep and meaningful student learning in a dialogic manner. And

this warfare will usually be accompanied by the regular leaks in examination papers,

often linked to the pressure to obtain good results (Idris Jusoh, 2014, October 12;

Kanyakumari, 2014, September 22). Speaking of pressure, students are sometimes

pushed to the extent that they cannot accept anything less than expected, hence

leading to suicide cases over the years (Ong, 2015, November 27); this has happened

even to students as young as primary children (*Year Six pupil found hanged*, 2007,

November 19).

Hence, with the multi-level emphasis given to the outcome of tests and

examinations as the most important end of schooling, it is not surprising that the

perception of effective teaching and learning in this country are heavily laden with

assessment-based values. By all means, assessment when used appropriately can be

extremely useful and important in gauging students' learning in order to consistently

help them develop and improve (Black & Wiliam, 2001). However, its use needs

serious reconsideration when assessment is prioritized to the extent that 'teach to

test' and 'assess to grade', rather than 'teach to develop' and 'assess to improve', are
the overpowering mainstream.

Considering the two core questions in understanding the sociocultural
expectations of teaching and learning in the Malaysian context, what may be
concluded at this point is basically the traditional, monologic view of how teaching
and learning happen, and the narrow examination-oriented perspective in defining
effective teaching and learning.

Unfortunately, teachers tend to, sometimes they just have to, conform to these
sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning. These expectations have
indirectly sustained the monologicality in English language classrooms, in that
teachers have to instruct and evaluate students according to the systemic and
sociocultural standards set. Although students' holistic development especially in
terms of thinking and communicative skills have been clearly stated in the
curriculum (MOE Malaysia, 2012), these are most of the time evaluated not based on
students' ongoing development in these skills, but on their eventual academic
grading. As the societal and cultural perception continues to value student
achievement based on academic grading, it is not unforeseen that this perception may
well imply that effective teachers are teachers who can actually produce students
with good grades. Very likely, the means through which teachers use to get to this
outcome are of little concern to those outside the classroom. Indirectly, be it the
dialogic way or the monologic way, it is of less importance if compared with the
outcome. Particularly in the Malaysian setting, given the entrenchment of
monologicality and the little exposure to the methods and effectiveness of
dialogicality in enhancing students' thinking and communicative skills, monologic
methods have remained the favoured mainstream. In many ways, teacher

accountability has become more significant due to the wider expectations of excellence in tests and examinations; the 'culture of performativity' (Cox, 2011) is not peculiar to the Malaysian educational scene. As discussed earlier, since teachers themselves had most probably been nurtured within the monologic system and are now the end executors in this system, the sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning could have favourably helped maintain the monologic culture throughout.

Conclusion: Understanding teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse. In examining classroom discourse where teachers were typically the dominant figure, Cox (2011) talked about teachers' conceptions of teaching and learning in influencing the way questioning and classroom discourse are regulated. Seeing that teachers are usually the major decision-maker specifically at the classroom level and that their day-to-day teaching actions in the classroom are critical to classroom practice and thus student learning (Cox, 2011), it is crucial to look at how teachers' understanding of teaching and learning could have been shaped and which may well help show how it influences their teaching. Essentially, teachers teach in the manner which they think students learn. And the very process of conceiving principles of teaching and learning is hardly possible in a vacuum; it is situated within the spheres of wider contexts which have likely helped preserve monologicality in classrooms (Cox, 2011).

Some of these broader considerations which were deemed significant in relation to the Malaysian context were discussed: the historical foundations of ELT, the systemic structuring of teaching and learning, and the sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning.

The beginning of the national education in general laid the foundation for the much needed uniformity and structure for the then newly independent Malaysia.

Against this background and with the importance of English as the second most important language (Powell, 2002), the introduced ELT syllabus was heavily grammar-based which strove for accuracy and mastery of forms and structures. The approaches used to carry out this syllabus were mostly drill and practice, often cut-and-dry. From here, a monologic start to ELT throughout the country was observed. Despite being aware that the syllabus and approaches framed for ELT in Malaysia were more likely adopted from the British influence as well as the grammar-dominant trend at that time rather than created purposefully by and for Malaysia itself, the significance of this phase should not go unnoticed. After independence, English learning, instead of being an exclusivity became available and compulsory for every school-going child in the national system. Indirectly, when ELT became part of the formal education, English was to be taught and learned the monologic way; this marked the sanctioning of the seeds of monologic principles in ELT for mass consumption. And to a large extent these principles have blended well with the local cultures, specifically the Malay, Chinese, and Indian traditions of teaching and learning, so much so that such monologicality has formed the core of not just ELT but the whole modus operandi.

In Malaysia, the systemic functionality is typically top-down. As the goals of teaching and learning are being planned within the system based on national considerations and aspirations, naturally systemic measures have to be enforced to facilitate the attainment of those goals. They included the set-up of a national curriculum, the installation of a standardized examination system, and the central-regulation of teacher professional development. It has to be considered that teachers had learned as a student (Lortie, 1975) – they completed their formal education which was most likely monologically tuned, and that they are continuously learning

about teaching and learning (Cox, 2011) within the same system. With this systemic structuring, practices of dialogic teaching despite having garnered more positive results in other regions (Alexander, 2005), have been finding little success in Malaysia, most likely due to contradictions in the fundamentals of principle. Basic principles like open-endedness, multi-voicedness, and explorative initiatives essential in dialogic teaching are yet to be the norm of the current system. In fact, these values are not consistent with the Malaysian sociocultural expectations. The perception of how teaching and learning should happen, and what constitutes effective teaching and learning seem to have little to do with the values advocated by dialogic teaching and the rest of the ELT innovations. This could at least help understand partly, how despite the reform efforts in ELT all these years monologicality is still reigning in English language classrooms – there seems to be a clash of principles, between the advocated principles and the current underlying principles governing practice.

Generally in a system, one side would be about evaluation and planning, the other one side would be about implementation and execution. The situation faced if put in a simple fashion; the evaluators and planners based on effective models of dialogicality elsewhere adopt and advocate these models, whereas the implementers and executors receive instructions and training to put dialogicality into practice. However, from the evaluating-planning side to the implementing-executing side, communication from top to bottom levels is commonly on 'what-to-do'; largely missing are the 'why-do-it' and 'how-to-do-it' components. In terms of 'why-do-it', being aware that students need to develop thinking skills or communicative skills in the global community of today is no doubt a crucial starting point. However, much more profound contemplation is needed, for instance to understand that thinking and dialoging are in fact the processes of learning, they are not mere end products of

learning. In terms of 'how-to-do-it', realizing the need to ask more open-ended or higher levels questions may well be a positive step forward, yet much more effort will be needed. Further in-depth understanding of how through dialogic settings that learning can be facilitated where significant and substantial meaning-making processes occur among the teacher and students alike will definitely be useful for enhancing teaching and learning as a whole.

When teacher practice is largely informed by 'what-to-do', in all likelihood even when there is change in practice, it will be superficial and temporary (Galton, 2007; Galton et al., 1980). It is by giving serious attention to develop and build from a solid foundation of understanding why dialogicality is crucial and how it can advance teaching and learning that principled change may be possible.

The same applies to assessment or the examination system. As mentioned earlier, to a certain extent, there have been reforms in this area for example through the promotion of school-based assessments. Looking further, the methods of assessment might be undergoing reforms gradually, but through the years, the system has continued to award scholarships and offer placements in public institutions with a priority on mostly the end results (i.e. students' grades). More importantly, the system has yet to fully tend to the needs of slower or lower-performing students, who actually are the majority in the system. Therefore, competition is fierce for the fear of being left behind. Moreover, the perception on the use of assessment outcomes among several major stakeholders especially parents, educational institutions, and employers, is barely different. The emphasis given to examination results for the desire for elitism has been dominating sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning not just in Malaysia, but in Asia especially. Indirectly, teacher practice has become bound by expectations for good results. Academic grading is necessary for

future opportunities in both studies and work, thus in a way this need has been affirming the way the system has been working in maintaining monologicality in teaching and learning. With both systemic structuring and sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning wired on the same wavelength, they provide the reasons for each other to function the way they do.

Against these broader contexts, teachers develop understanding about teaching and learning, and teach based on this understanding; as found in this study, in the monologic manner. Again, in dealing with this status quo and in moving towards sustainable reform, beginning with a change in fundamental principles and values by exemplifying through systemic actions and practices will be essential.

Implications

Based on the findings of this study, their implications are discussed in relation to theory, practice, methodology, and future research.

Theory. First of all, the findings of this study suggest another perspective in conceptualizing dialogic and monologic discourses. Based on the examination of teachers' questioning practices, instead of regarding classroom discourse as absolute and universal cases of dialogicality or monologicality, discourses were situated on a continuum. More specifically, as all discourses analyzed in this study were predominantly monologic, a continuum of monologicality emerged based on their analysis. Importantly, this monologic continuum has added depth to the conception of dialogicality and monologicality. In specific reference to the monologic paradigm, it was demonstrated that there were variations within this paradigm and the distinctions of each variation were evidenced with excerpts from the data.

This more nuanced conception of monologicality is significant because to theorize at different parts on the monologic continuum can be rather different. Particularly, extended discourses which were broadly located at the righter part of the monologic continuum reveal the other layers of monologicality (e.g. where the presence of dialogic efforts did not lead towards dialogicality). This finding exposes the need to formulate and answer more complex questions and to redirect the focus in researching questioning and classroom discourse through the lens of dialogism/monologism. Despite sharing similar fundamentals of monologicality, the variations of monologic discourses need deeper theorizing so as to better understand and unpack the entrenchment of monologicality in most classrooms. Rough standardization of all monologic discourses will likely maintain research and development efforts on only the tip of the iceberg.

Crucially, this continuum is not meant to be final or exhaustive; in fact there could be more variations of monologicality to be discovered. This continuum essentially serves to highlight that monologic discourses are not axiomatically the same and it can be a useful blueprint to advance the conceptualization of dialogicality and monologicality in this direction.

In this study, there are several findings which are inconsistent with those obtained in past studies and this highlights the complexities involved in researching teacher practice. Some major recommendations of strategies established from previous research did not work out in the lessons observed in this study (Al-Muaini, 2006 as cited in Yeo & Ting, 2012; Arnold et al., 1974; Brock, 1986; Cotton, 2001; Gall, 1970, 1984; Hannel, 2009; Lamb, 1976; McNeil, 2012; Rowe, 1974, 1986, 1996; Swift & Gooding, 1983; Yang, 2010); the referential questions used did not trigger more or higher cognitive student responses, prolonged wait time provided did

not facilitate longer or more complicated student responses, and the use of reaction moves like 'probe' and 'redirect' did not enhance student responses.

These findings established that none of the three dimensions of questioning (i.e. types of questions, wait time, and reaction moves) studied was sufficient in engendering dialogic discourses on their own. This confirms the gap in theorizing questioning practices and classroom discourse (refer to "Statement of the Problem") where most studies have not paid enough attention to the multi-dimensionality of questioning and focused on only one dimension of questioning when studying teachers' questioning practices.

Looking into the findings on referential questions, it was gathered that when teachers employed referential questions, these questions were often closed-ended, that they mostly sought yes/no or straightforward/specific student answers. In this study, open-ended referential questions which asked for students' opinion and reasoning in an elaborated manner to engender genuine discussion were extremely infrequent. Upon examination on the use of wait time, it was observed that often when wait time was provided (included longer wait time), teachers were simply waiting for an acceptable answer. Even when students seemed to be struggling to produce an answer, some teachers would continue to just wait, without more constructive input and stimulation from them to assist students to think and articulate their thoughts. In regard to teachers' use of reaction moves, for example when teachers probed or redirected student answers, often times they did it with questions which necessitated short and simple responses. And very rarely had a reaction move been followed up with another reaction move for the purpose of a more dialogic discourse. Most of the time, discourses were kept simplistic. Only in situations where

teachers could not elicit acceptable answers that more reaction moves would be employed, still with the sole purpose of eliciting acceptable answers.

When the interplay between the three dimensions was examined in each piece of discourse (content unit) within their respective context, none of the discourse managed to break away from monologicality, even when dialogic efforts were present. For instance, in discourses where referential questions, longer wait time, and reaction moves (e.g. probe, redirect, prompt) were used together, there was still no evidence of dialogicality.

Therefore, the findings of this study imply that developing dialogicality is not simply a matter of strategy use. Neither will one strategy work out nor will an orchestra of strategies, if the implicit intent has little to do with dialogic values. Seeing that the recommended strategies had worked out in other research/educational contexts but not in the context of the lessons examined in this study, this has opened up a different perspective in understanding dialogicality and monologicality in classroom practice. As discussed earlier, the pathway towards dialogicality is one intertwined with the underlying principles of teaching and learning from which the strategies are operated. It is highly likely that any dialogic effort would go to waste or at best only secure temporary and superficial shift away from monologicality, if the guiding principles are monologic-driven (Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Galton, 2007; Galton et al., 1980). Hence, the findings of this study strongly point to the need to theorize questioning and classroom discourse at the fundamental core/principles and not basing it on sheer identification and prescription of corrective measures and strategies.

Practice. One central goal of this study is to contribute towards discussions about improving teacher practice in the classroom. In all likelihood, for these discussions to be better informed, first and foremost the present state of classrooms has to be made known, before talks on what needs to or can be improved can ensue.

Monologicality is not foreign in Malaysian classrooms and most importantly, it is something that most people can acknowledge of or relate to, most likely due to their past experiences in schooling as well as current dealings with the system as a part of the stakeholders (e.g. educationists, parents). Based on the review of literature done in this study, research in the Malaysian context has pointed to similar shared sentiments of monologicality in terms of questioning and discourse practices. It has appeared to be yet another common classroom phenomenon. But how common is it exactly in the country context? When it was said that what is going on in classrooms is necessary to be made known, it was meant to be done with detailed analysis and conclusions supported with classroom data, as done by this study. The findings reported offers a view at the range of questioning practices which made up the variety of monologic discourses across the lessons analyzed. It is worth noting that the analysis was done on English Language lessons obtained from randomly selected schools, a sample representative of Malaysian national secondary schools.

Indeed, the findings established in this study suggest that monologicality is a deeply entrenched issue across Malaysian secondary English language classrooms. From all the lessons examined, teaching and learning was largely teacher-centred and students rarely got engaged in substantial classroom discourse, specifically in relation to their thinking, meaning-making, and learning (Alexander, 2005; Wood, 1988). Teachers' questioning practices in all lessons often propelled classroom discourse towards monologicality. Such a convergent finding is important as a wake-up call

because zero dialogicality in the classroom should not be taken lightly; researchers have found monologicality to inhibit student thinking and negatively affect student learning (Chaudron, 1993 as cited in in Kao et al., 2011; Nystrand, 1997).

Based on the excerpts described in Chapter 4 for "Influence of Teachers' Questioning Practices on Classroom Discourse" especially, it was described how discourses were always monologically driven, that dialogicality had no chance despite the presence of dialogic efforts by teachers. These details will allow multiple perspectives on monologic classroom discourse to investigate just how monologicality was being retained over and over again in the classroom, using line-by-line close analysis, with considerations to teachers' questioning practices. It is important to understand that the acknowledgment of classroom discourse being generally monologic alone is hardly sufficient in contributing to change in practice; it has to be investigated how monologic discourses happen and keep happening to be able to provide a stronger basis for more comprehensive improvement and reform planning.

This is where the findings of this study which were supported by classroom data can be of practical use to teachers, in helping them be aware and reflect on their own principles and practice in the classroom more effectively (Stigler et al., 1999). As much as learning from best practices is important, learning from own mistakes and building on own strengths is not any less valuable. Instead of just dictating to teachers the problem (e.g. questioning practices that only led towards monologic discourses) and what to do about it (e.g. ask more referential questions, use longer wait time, probe student responses), it will probably be more helpful to point out to them using video evidences practices which monologicality generally feeds on, as well as the opportunities for dialogicality within their range of practice (Janik et al.,

2009b). All this can provide a foundation for change in practice, as teachers should not be expected to simply unlearn or learn teaching practices without clear directions and consistent developments (Gall, 1970).

Essentially, a change in practice needs to be grounded in a change in principles. As raised earlier in this chapter, change in principles or a shift in paradigm is inevitably a precursor for any effective and sustainable change, and this principled change is essential at both the teacher-practice level and the policy-making level (Cox, 2011; Galton, 2007; Galton et al., 1980). There has to be in-depth articulation and understanding of principles (Galton, 2007) in relation to what and how students learn, and to what and how students can actually contribute to their own and others' thinking and learning within the dialogic sphere, for there to be the realization of the limitations of monologicality on student learning and student agency (Cox, 2011).

To a large extent, policy-making in terms of teacher education, either pre-service or in-service, can help inculcate principles and develop practices grounded in dialogicality. Referring to the variations of monologicality displayed in classroom discourse, they suggest the different facilitation needed by different teachers when teacher practice is to be improved. Here is where 'one size does not fit all' may help clarify the explanation. Teachers studied in this study may be monologically wired throughout, but the distinctions of monologicality in teacher practice beg attention that they are not exactly the same in terms of the predominant practice (i.e. teacher-dominated, IRE-structured, or extended monologic discourses). Hence the need for slightly different training and development courses for different teachers although they would primarily revolve around the change in principles. For example, a teacher who never once ask a 'why' question ought to be given different emphasis in training

and development courses compared with a teacher who often ask 'why' questions but are never able to breed any dialogic discourses with students. Similarly, a teacher who conducts a whole lesson without using any question thus leading to almost non-existent teacher-student content-specific discourse, as captured in one of the lessons examined in this study, will probably require additional, specific emphasis in training and development courses. In improving teacher practice through policy-making and educational reforms, emphasis at the macro level (the broad need for the change of principles) as well as the micro level (teachers' specific needs based on their predominant practice) is imperative.

The conceptualization about dialogic and monologic discourses according to the findings of this study has given rise to constant contemplation of what could have been done to actually pave way for dialogicality. Observing such a large number of monologic discourses, perhaps just what it is that could have been attempted or pursued in those situations to break the persistent monologic cycle in the classroom?

One feasible approach may be basing this discussion on the need for the three fundamentals of dialogism/monologism, which are student thinking and student voice, interactions of multi-voices, and students' influence on classroom discourse (refer to "Classroom Discourse" and "Understanding Teachers' Questioning Practices and Classroom Discourse") as a guide during questioning and classroom discourse. As discussed earlier that developing dialogicality is not simply a matter of strategy use, therefore when employing any strategy, at the basic the three fundamentals should be the central consideration of questioning and discoursing.

For instance, when students are responsive and answering straightforward questions well, teachers could step up the game to break away from students' comfort zone by challenging students' thinking and encouraging students to express

their voices. For this purpose, teachers could stimulate students with referential questions which necessitate them to provide in-depth elaboration of their opinion, instead of just stating it. More voices could be brought together by redirecting student opinions to different students for richer exchange of perspectives. Wait time could be used as necessary to facilitate student thinking and student talk.

Or, when students share new input or differing views (although they may be inaccurate), teachers could utilize these occasions as opportunities for explorative talk and learning (Alexander, 2005; Barnes, 1969). At times like this, teachers could try to relax control and navigate the discourse outside their comfort zone. Teachers ought to be open and ready to accept students as the main contributor, and build on their contribution to enhance teaching and learning. For this purpose, teachers could probe for more information or evidence using referential questions, and open up the exploration to other students by nominating them or redirecting to them student ideas so that collaborative knowledge construction can be facilitated. As for occasions where student answers are inaccurate, teachers instead of merely correcting them or continuing the search for answers could slowly develop the discourse with both display and referential questions to help students realize and understand how they could have arrived at better conceptions and understandings.

Other than that, when students ask questions, teachers could use those questions to initiate whole-class discussion, rather than immediately telling the answer or giving an explanation. For this purpose, teachers could nominate some students for sharing and negotiation of ideas, further probing students with referential questions for them to substantiate their ideas, while providing appropriate wait time along the way.

Generally, in regard of teachers' dialogic efforts like the use of referential questions, longer and/or more frequent wait time, and reaction moves (e.g. probe, redirect, reinitiate, prompt) which never did lead to dialogic classroom discourse, it may be helpful to point out to teachers that the sheer use of these strategies, either on their own or together in a discourse will not be facilitative of dialogicality, if all they strive for is in fact monologicality (e.g. the mere elicitation of an acceptable answer, the suppression of student questions). It may also be helpful to draw teachers' attention to the importance of making clear to students the expectations of a discourse within a dialogic setting. Most likely, one probable explanation for teachers' dialogic efforts to go unfruitful (other than teacher factors) is students being unfamiliar with dialogic discourses. Thus, when using open-ended referential questions, longer and/or more frequent wait time, and a variety of reaction moves for example, it would likely be helpful to students if teachers would articulate clearly the kind of discourse expected in the classroom, for example, the sharing of ideas (even of differing ones) is a way of learning, students are encouraged to take time to think and talk based on their own meaning-making and reasoning, and it is alright to explore ideas together surrounded by an atmosphere of uncertainty. In short, the boundaries built around monologicality first have to be removed.

The point to be made from the example scenarios and suggestions above is mainly how teachers' questioning practices are supposedly guided by an underlying purpose, the core principles, specifically the fundamentals of dialogism/monologism. To a great extent, for this kind of change to take place, the need for a paradigm shift (from monologicality to dialogicality) is indispensable. For this, the three fundamentals dialogism/monologism discussed can well be a guide to embark on the journey towards dialogicality. To begin considering how dialogicality can be

nurtured in the classroom is to begin understanding the use of questioning with principled purposes, in the dialogic sense. Any questioning strategy can work within the frame of dialogicality provided the principles guiding its use are dialogic-centred. In the same manner, any questioning strategy advocated for effective dialogicality, such as increased use of referential questions, provision of extended wait time, or more probing of student responses, will hardly make a difference to classroom discourse if the operational principles and purposes are stagnantly monologic.

Moving on, how can change in practice be better effected? Considering various ineffective innovations in teaching and learning which have relied on the top-down systemic setting, researchers have proposed the teacher-driven approach (Cox, 2011; M. Bakri Musa, 2003). This study advocates for reforms grounded in practice, to understand practice to inform policy decisions. And integral in practice is none other than teachers and students. As teachers are usually the main facilitators and decision-makers at the classroom level, they are the ones at the centre stage of real teaching and learning processes, day in day out with students in the classroom. All the more, teacher professionalization and teacher agency should be given due emphasis. Teachers ought to be actively involved in their own teaching communities and not be ignorantly oblivious to the 'outside' world (M. Bakri Musa, 2003). Teachers should be trained and allowed more autonomy to be able to make informed decisions befitting the context of their classrooms. To some extent, teaching and learning can be very personalized with varied and specific needs with consideration to different students and contexts. This is one very reason that continuous reflective and constructive dialogues and debates to facilitate improvement in practice are critical. Vitally, teachers' own learning processes ought to be dialogic and their diverse perspectives and experiences brought into educational and policy discussions

should be valued as adding grounds to honest efforts in driving at change in principles and practice. As teachers' own sense of professionalization and agency is being strengthened, systemic support will be indispensable in enabling teacher-driven reforms at various levels. It is only when both parties are aligned with the same core (dialogic) principles and profoundly involved in the processes of planning and implementation that principled change would be made possible. A young initiative called "Project Gusto" (Project Ground Up School Transformation) by Teach for Malaysia is an exemplar of this proposal, whereby transformation of teaching and learning is a process that is "done by teachers, led by teachers" (Tan, 2016, July 13).

Methodology. In terms of methodology, this study demonstrates a large-scale video study being done in the context of secondary English language classrooms in Malaysia. In general, video studies are evolving into a powerful tool for research in education (Najvar et al., 2009b). However, a widespread use of this methodology in educational research has only begun to gain recognition in recent years (Klette, 2009). Thus, this study would like to contribute to the literature on video studies in respect to how within the very context of this study, a video study can be constructed and conducted – particularly how data collection can be carried out, how video analysis can be done, and how findings can be generated and interpreted – from the perspective of researching teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse through the lens of dialogism/monologism.

Moreover, video studies have been less frequent outside mathematics and science classrooms (Najvar et al., 2009b), within Asian cultures, and most importantly in the Malaysian setting. As literature on large-scale video studies specifically in these contexts is scarce, the video study carried out in this study can

be a point of reference for further improvements tailoring to similar teaching and learning contexts.

In particular reference to data analysis, the coding framework developed in this study could be adapted for use in other similar research settings or serve as a guide for the development of coding frameworks for the context of English language classrooms based on the notion of dialogism/monologism.

Future research. As the main findings of this study revealed the deeper layers to monologicality and were converged to understand the patterns and culture of questioning and discoursing found, at the same time a number of interesting questions emerged. For a start, below are some suggestions of inquiry which the researcher finds worthy of further contemplation and exploration.

While it has been discussed how teachers are often at the receiving end of the largely top-down education system in Malaysia, teachers' role as the major decision-maker for teaching and learning at the classroom level has also been highlighted. However, how cognizant actually are teachers of their daily decisions and of the consequences of them to student thinking and student learning? Based on the findings of this study, considering that most of the decisions were made along the monologic line, what would teachers' responses be to this monologic phenomenon? How do they view monologicality and dialogicality, and the change from monologicality to dialogicality? What are the major driving forces and challenges affecting their pedagogical decisions? And given these major driving forces and challenges, to what extent do teacher professionalization and teacher agency play a role in making those decisions? These could be some of the research foci especially using in-depth interviews on teachers to try to understand their practice and principles of teaching and learning. On a different note, researchers could identify

within the same or different education systems, teachers' questioning practices which in fact facilitate more dialogic discourses. A case study into these teachers could provide a basis for comparative studies against the established monologicality documented in this study. Studies like this would most likely help illuminate on how actually dialogic discourses could be engendered using various questioning practices. More importantly, teachers' underlying principles of teaching and learning in relation to their classroom practice can be examined.

Another viewpoint revealed by the findings of this study is students' overall passive (Chang, 2011; Emanuelsson & Sahlstrom, 2008) and submissive roles in relation to questioning and discoursing. Why had students remained so in all lessons? How about student agency? What could have contributed to the cultivation of these passive and submissive roles? What are students' thoughts regarding a change in their roles to be more active, initiative, explorative, and dialogic? Studies on students would definitely be necessary in order to better understand the dynamics of classroom questioning and discourse because students are the other important half aside from teachers. Thus, observing and interviewing students may likely be one of the methods feasible for further studies.

Other than the basic classroom level, there are various out-of-classroom factors, for instance as discussed earlier; the historical foundations of ELT, the systemic structuring of teaching and learning, and the sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning. Therefore, it will be more revealing to extend research foci to the other stakeholders involved, for instance, curriculum planners, educational advocators, school authority, parents, and so forth. Most likely with this data, the bigger picture concerning the entrenchment of monologicality and the struggle with

dialogicality can be more inclusive and thoroughly scrutinized to advance substantive improvements in teaching and learning.

Limitations

Some of the limitations of this study have been partly infused in the discussion above as some of the recommendations for further research. In this study, the limitations discussed are generally methodological and in respect to the results obtained.

First of all, lessons were recorded in classrooms and these video recordings were used for the analysis done in this study. The video study design afforded this study a firsthand view of what is happening in Malaysian English language classrooms in relation to teachers' questioning practices and how these practices influence classroom discourse. Considering the restrictions of time and resources for data collection involving multiple teachers at multiple sites (schools) spread across different states in Malaysia (Peninsular and East), the researcher did not follow up each teacher after arriving at the results. Other than that, due to the intense five-day period of data collection at each school, no analysis was done on site or during the collection of data, thus video-stimulated recall interviews after every lesson for teachers was also not a feasible option at that time. Despite being aware of a different set of limitations of self-report methods and interviews (refer to "Why a Video Study for the Present Study?"), perspectives offered by teachers, for example through in-depth interviews, would likely help enrich the understanding and interpretations of the data. Therefore, adding depth to the findings by exploring teacher perspective would be recommended. A number of plausible guiding questions are listed above (refer to "Future Research").

Second, due to similar constraints of time and resources discussed above, another limitation of this study is the exclusion of independent student representation. As the study focused mainly on teacher practice, students were often involved as part of those practices and in relation to teacher practice, rather than on their own playing their student role. As students are the other significant half in a classroom, it will be important to incorporate their perspectives in better understanding classroom questioning and classroom discourse. For instance, student perspectives, if sought using interviews will help expand the interpretations and discussion of the findings. With this research focus, more video or audio recorders focusing on students may also be placed around the classroom to capture seat work or small group discussions; nevertheless this has to be done strategically as more recording equipment may create more disruption in the classroom (Ulewicz & Beatty, 2001).

Another methodological limitation in regard to time and resources concerns is the size of sampling. In the context of this study, as discussed in "Sampling", various considerations had been given to arrive at the number of schools, teachers, and lessons sampled for analysis. As the findings obtained show overall consistent monologicality across lessons, a larger sample yielding similar results will further strengthen this finding, and perhaps reveal a bigger range of monologic variations. If significant dissimilar results were acquired, it will be as interesting because further exploration can be initiated to understand how within the same system differences in teacher practice happen. Thus, with more flexibility in terms of time and resources, a larger sample of schools, teachers, and lessons might enrich the findings of this study.

The final limitation to be discussed is the results of this study and related to the preceding limitation. As found, all the discourses examined were one way or another monologic. The researcher would not exclude the possibility that dialogic discourses might be discovered with a larger sample size. Nevertheless, the findings which were established with the analysis of 31 different lessons from 31 different teachers from 17 different randomly-selected schools throughout the nation, have managed to achieve the objective of this study which is mainly to understand teachers' questioning practices and the influence of these practices on classroom discourse in Malaysian secondary English language classrooms. As suggested earlier for future research, it will be fascinating if a detailed comparison of teachers' questioning practices between monologic and dialogic classroom discourse can be done especially in the Malaysian context, which this study and previous studies have found to be highly monologically driven; to be able to understand the 'What's', 'How's', and 'Why's will be telling for implications especially in theory and practice.

Conclusion

This study examined teachers' questioning practices and how these practices influenced classroom discourse based on the notion of dialogism/monologism. From the review of literature done in this study, there has been an age-old tradition of monologic ways in classrooms, for the last forty years or so. The Malaysian classrooms have not been spared from this deep-rooted issue of monologicality. Overall, consistent with past findings, classroom discourse was found to be largely monologic. In this regard, documented from Malaysian secondary English language

classrooms were variations of monologicality on a continuum, where there were teacher-dominated discourses, IRE-structured discourses, and extended discourses.

In regard to each dimension of questioning investigated in this study, some findings were coherent with while some findings were distinct from the findings of other studies. For the first dimension of questioning (i.e. types of questions), indeed as reported in previous studies the dominance of display questions when compared with referential questions, similar finding was obtained. It is important to note that in addition to these two types of questions, this study also showed the use of another type of question which has been rarely paid specific research attention to – rhetorical questions. Their use when considered in various discourse contexts often led to teacher-dominated monologic discourses where student responses were either cursorily/perfunctorily sought or forthright unnecessary. In view of the second dimension of questioning (i.e. wait time), it was found that teachers' use of wait time hardly facilitated extended student talk or improved the quality of student talk. In fact, this finding was in contrast to past research evidences where longer and/or more frequent wait time (as appropriate) were recommended for enhanced student talk in terms of quality and quantity. Inconsistencies of results were similarly found in teachers' use of the third dimension of questioning (i.e. reaction moves). The reaction moves recommended for improved student talk (e.g. probe, redirect, reinitiate) used by teachers in the lessons observed in this study were not facilitative of any dialogic discourse.

Based on the findings of this study, an overall culture of questioning and discourse was discovered across all the lessons examined; a classroom culture characterized by a strong commitment to answers, low expectations of discourses, and a constant control on discourses. At large, teachers displayed epistemological

inclinations which were monologically motivated. With the focus on the Malaysian context, teachers' underlying principles of teaching and learning were discussed in consideration of the historical foundations of English Language Teaching (ELT), the systemic structuring of teaching and learning, and the sociocultural expectations of teaching and learning to have a clearer view at the all-encompassing monologicality in classrooms.

Essentially, the continuum of monologicality which emerged in this study is aimed to contribute to theory and practice. With this continuum, it was discovered that monologic classroom discourse did not happen in just one uniform way. In fact, variations of monologicality were found and this has helped develop a more detailed understanding of monologic discourses. With these variations, a different perspective in conceptualizing monologicality is offered by this study. This is to say, dialogicality and monologicality are not viewed as two extreme dichotomies. As found in this study, on the monologic continuum, three variations (i.e. teacher-dominated classroom discourse, IRE-structured classroom discourse, and extended classroom discourse) emerged; more could be discovered by future research. Fundamentally, each variation had its own characterization. What is significant about this continuum-view is the redirection of theorizing and research focus in examining teachers' questioning practices and classroom discourse; discourse variations on different points of the continuum may be open to different conceptualization. This is important because the mere grouping of discourses as dialogic or monologic will hardly be sufficient to deepen understanding of dialogicality and monologicality and to engender change in principles and practice.

The continuum of monologicality is also significant in discerning and understanding the different levels of monologicality based on detailed, turn-by-turn analysis. Such close examination would help illuminate how teachers' questioning practices often led to monologic classroom discourse and equally important if not more, this close examination too would help draw attention to what probably the missed opportunities for dialogic classroom discourse were. Recognizing and building on existing dialogic efforts as well as understanding the practices to be avoided would better increase the likelihood of advancing teacher practice from monologicality towards dialogicality.

Change in practice, to be effective and enduring, ought to be derived from the needs of all levels. Throughout the years in Malaysia, reforms and innovations to move away from monologicality have not been absolutely absent. In effect, they are slowly mushrooming, but there is extremely limited trace of evidence of dialogicality, as shown by the findings of past studies as well as this study. To this, researchers have talked about the futility of mere changes in organizational and policy matters (Galton, 2007; Galton et al., 1980) and stressed on stance (Boyd & Markarian, 2011), epistemological inclinations (Hardman & Norhaslynda A-Rahman, 2014; Mercer, 2010), as well as principles (Cox, 2011; Galton, 2007; Galton et al., 1980) of teaching and learning.

This may well shed light on understanding the entrenchment of monologicality at least, at the core of English language classrooms in Malaysia (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2014; Tee et al., 2016). Eventually, the understanding of the value of principled change will help explain that to achieve dialogic classroom discourse, the use of just any one dimension of questioning can hardly work or the use of many dimensions together, too may not necessarily be

adequate. From the discussion of the findings, alongside constructive systemic support to enhance performance and reduce resistance, and teacher-driven change processes, very likely the underlying stance/epistemology/principles which govern teacher practice may be a decisive piece in this maze of monologicality.

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APPENDIX A – CONSENT FORM

Thank you for your time in reading this document which is intended to support the practice of protecting the participants of this study. The following information is provided to help you decide whether you agree to participate in this study.

Information about the CMEP Project (Capturing Malaysian Educational Practice)
The purpose of this study is to better understand how teachers think and teach. The data collection of this study involves the administration of a questionnaire and the recording of lessons. This study also provides teachers an opportunity to contribute to educational policy discussion.

This project is conducted by researchers from the University of Malaya, Universiti Malaysia Sabah, and Universiti Malaysia Sarawak. It will be carried out in 80 randomly selected schools from 17 March 2014 until 31 October 2014.

The purpose of the questionnaire is to collect information on you as a teacher, including your thinking and practice; how you view and use the curriculum and assessment; the feedback you receive on your teaching; and your professional development.

You will be video- and audio-recorded while teaching for a minimum of 3 lessons.

Confidentiality of Information
All information collected will be kept confidential. Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary and you can withdraw from this study at any time.

If you have any inquiry regarding this study, please contact any of the researchers below.
Your participation is sincerely appreciated.

Sincerely,
Professor Dr Moses Samuel (012-612 8534; mosess@um.edu.my),
Professor Dr Esther Daniel (012-268 1245; esther@um.edu.my),
Dr Renuka Sathasivam, Dr Tee Meng Yew, Encik Norjoharuddeen Bin Mohd Nor

Principal Researchers, Project CMEP (Capturing Malaysian Educational Practice)
Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur
_____

Agreement

I, _____ (Identity Card No.:_____),
hereby voluntarily ***agree** / **do not agree** to participate in the study stated above, which will involve the administration of a questionnaire and the recording of lessons. (*cross out whichever is not applicable)

I have been explained about this study in terms of the methodology, risks, and complexity. I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time without having to provide any reason. I also understand that my identity will be kept confidential and anonymous.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX B – TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

Adapted from Chang (2009), Hsu (2001), Jefferson (2004), and Markee (2015)

1.	…	Omitted discourse
2.	(( ))	The researcher's description
3.	((unintelligible))	Discourse that is unintelligible to the researcher
4.	[ ]	Implied utterance/word(s)
5.	-	Utterance cut off by the same speaker
6.	--	Utterance cut off by another speaker
7.	___	Request to complete the utterance/word
8.	" "	Utterance that is dictated (to be copied down), read aloud (from a teaching material or a student's work), or repeated (from another speaker)
9.	/	Separation of different student answers given at about the same time
10.	..	Trailing off
11.	C-A-P-I-T-A-L-S	Word that is spelled out letter by letter
12.	( )	Unclear pronunciation at the end of a word

APPENDIX C – TEACHERS' DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Gender	
(1) Female	21
(2) Male	10
Total:	31

Age	
(1) Under 25	0
(2) 25-29	7
(3) 30-39	12
(4) 40-49	5
(5) 50-59	5
(6) 60 & above	0
Total:	29

Current Main Subject Taught	
(1) Bahasa Melayu	0
(2) Bahasa Inggeris	26
(3) Mathematics	1
(4) Science	2
Total:	29

Number of Years Teaching This Subject	
(1) 1-2	1
(2) 3-5	8
(3) 6-10	3
(4) 11-15	4
(5) 16-20	3
(6) 21-25	5
(7) 26 & above	2
Total:	26