Questioning as a Window into Teachers' Belief: Novice vs. Experienced CSL Teachers

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Abstract

This study examines Mandarin language teachers' beliefs, focusing on how these beliefs shape their use of questioning to influence instructional practices and engage students. By analyzing questioning patterns, the research explores how teachers' beliefs about language acquisition and learner autonomy are manifested in classroom dynamics, influence student-teacher interactions, and foster student engagement. Addressing a research gap in teacher-student interactions in Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) classrooms, the study specifically investigates questioning practices employed by teachers with varying levels of experience (Chen, 2011; Smart & Marshall, 2012; Al-Zahrani & Al-Bargi, 2017; Ong et al., 2016).

Six novice and expert CSL teachers from the Mandarin training center of a public university in Taiwan, teaching across beginning, intermediate, and advanced levels, were recruited for analysis. Findings reveal that both groups of teachers significantly preferred particle and *wh*-questions, with expert teachers favoring display questions over novice teachers. *Probing* emerged as the most common questioning strategy, followed by *repetition*, *decomposition*, and *redirecting*. While both groups used questions to elicit factual information, expert teachers more

frequently employed questioning to check comprehension and stimulate critical thinking. These practices reflect their beliefs in promoting student engagement and deeper learning. The study underscores how questioning strategies serve as indicators of teacher beliefs, shaping instructional choices and influencing classroom dynamics in CSL education.

Keywords: teacher beliefs, questioning, classroom interaction, Chinese as a second language

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1. INTRODUCTION

Recent advancements in language education research underscore the pivotal role of teachers' beliefs in shaping instructional practices, which directly impact student learning outcomes. These beliefs, encompassing understandings of effective language acquisition, preferred pedagogical strategies, and views on the roles of teachers and learners, inform decision-making across curriculum design, classroom management, and instructional delivery. In the context of Mandarin language instruction, such beliefs assume added significance due to the unique linguistic structures and cultural intricacies inherent to the language. Research by Borg (2006) and Pajares (1992) highlight how deeply held teacher beliefs influence daily classroom practices, shaping not only student motivation and confidence but also long-term language acquisition trajectories.

In second language (L2) teaching contexts, including TESOL, a growing body of research has documented the influence of teacher beliefs on various instructional choices, such as lesson planning, error correction, and interactional styles (Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Johnson, 1994). These beliefs are shaped by prior learning experiences, institutional environments, and professional development, and they strongly mediate how teachers interpret and apply educational theories (Borg, 2003). Understanding these belief systems within Mandarin language education offers valuable insight into how conceptual orientations toward teaching and learning manifest in concrete classroom practices.

Among these practices, classroom questioning stands out as a particularly revealing expression of teacher beliefs. More than a means of eliciting information, questioning reflects a teacher's instructional values and pedagogical intentions. For instance, a teacher who prioritizes student autonomy may favor open-ended questions such as, "How would you analyze the meaning of this character based on its radicals?" to promote critical thinking and learner agency. In contrast, a teacher focused on accuracy and mastery may rely on closed questions like, "Is this word order correct?" to reinforce grammatical rules. These questioning practices thus

reflect divergent beliefs about how language is best acquired—whether through exploration or precision (Brown, 2001).

Although questioning is widely recognized as a central pedagogical tool (Walsh, 2011), little research has examined how teachers' beliefs are reflected in their questioning practices in Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) classrooms. Most existing research in this area has emerged from TESOL, where links between teacher beliefs and interactional strategies, including questioning styles and feedback patterns, are more thoroughly documented (Borg, 2011). Incorporating insights from this broader literature into the CSL context is essential for understanding how teacher beliefs shape classroom discourse and student engagement.

This study investigates the questioning practices of Mandarin language teachers across varying levels of experience, focusing on how these practices reflect their beliefs about language acquisition and learner engagement. Previous studies suggest that teaching experience influences questioning behavior, with expert teachers more likely to emphasize comprehension and critical thinking, while novice teachers may focus on factual recall (Chin, 2006). Exploring these patterns provides valuable insights into how underlying beliefs shape observable instructional behavior.

By analyzing the types, strategies, and purposes of questions used by CSL teachers, this study aims to illuminate the ways in which questioning practices serve as windows into teachers' pedagogical beliefs. In doing so, the research contributes to a deeper understanding of the belief-practice relationship in CSL education and offers implications for teacher training programs, particularly in fostering reflective, student-centered teaching approaches.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Teacher Beliefs in Mandarin Instruction

Teacher beliefs are fundamental to instructional practices, shaping how teachers interpret educational contexts, make pedagogical decisions, and engage with students. Defined as convictions rooted in personal experiences, cultural norms, and formal training (Pajares, 1992), these beliefs significantly influence classroom dynamics and student learning outcomes. In Mandarin instruction, where unique challenges such as tonal precision and character-based literacy require specialized approaches, teacher beliefs play a particularly pivotal role. However, much of the existing literature on teacher beliefs tends to generalize across languages, often overlooking the specific linguistic and cognitive demands of Mandarin. This section reviews the literature on teacher beliefs, focusing on questioning strategies and the differences between novice and expert teachers, while underscoring the need for language-specific research in Mandarin instruction.

Teacher beliefs, shaped by personal and professional experiences, exert a strong influence on classroom practices. Fives and Buehl (2012) argue that these beliefs are integral to teaching behaviors and decision-making, often persisting even in the face of conflicting evidence. However, many studies treat language classrooms as homogenous environments, assuming that instructional practices can be uniformly applied across languages (Richardson, 1996). Such an approach fails to account for the distinct challenges associated with Mandarin, such as achieving tonal accuracy and mastering character memorization. For example, some Mandarin teachers may prioritize tonal precision to ensure accurate pronunciation, while others emphasize communicative fluency, viewing tones as a natural byproduct of meaningful interaction. Although these preferences align with broader pedagogical frameworks, the literature often lacks Mandarin-specific insights into how teacher beliefs shape these instructional priorities.

Levin et al. (2013) observed that teacher beliefs evolve over time, with novice teachers relying more heavily on structured, theoretical models acquired

during training, while expert teachers adopt more flexible and adaptive methods. However, this developmental framework often overlooks the practical demands of Mandarin instruction, where pronunciation and character recognition are critical. For instance, novice teachers might emphasize repetitive, drill-based exercises to develop tonal accuracy, whereas expert teachers may incorporate contextualized activities that allow students to practice tones more naturally within authentic communication. Despite these distinctions, existing research rarely delves into how Mandarin teachers adjust their instructional strategies to address the specific demands of the language.

In conclusion, teacher beliefs significantly shape instructional practices in Mandarin instruction, influencing how teachers address challenges like tonal precision and character literacy. As teachers gain experience, their approaches often shift from structured, drill-based methods to flexible, student-centered strategies that foster deeper engagement and critical thinking. Understanding these beliefs is essential for tailoring professional development and advancing language-specific research, ensuring that instructional practices align with the diverse needs of learners and enhance language acquisition outcomes.

2.2 Questioning and Teacher's Beliefs in Mandarin Instruction

Questioning is a fundamental instructional strategy that supports student engagement, evaluates understanding, and promotes critical thinking. Broadly categorized into closed questions, which seek specific, factual answers, and open-ended questions, which encourage exploration and discussion, questioning strategies often reflect a teacher's instructional priorities and pedagogical beliefs (Walsh, 2011). In the context of Mandarin instruction, this reflection can be particularly significant, as precision in tone and sentence structure is crucial. Consequently, teachers' beliefs about questioning tend to emphasize either syntactic accuracy or communicative fluency, depending on their instructional goals.

Teachers focused on accuracy often prioritize closed questions, such as "*Zhe*

juzi dui ma?" ("Is this sentence grammatically correct?"). This approach aligns with a structured, rule-based teaching philosophy, emphasizing mastery of linguistic fundamentals before transitioning to more complex language use (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). While such closed questions are effective for reinforcing syntactic accuracy and foundational skills, they may inadvertently limit students' opportunities to experiment with language in meaningful or creative ways. By contrast, teachers who value communicative competence frequently use open-ended questions like "*Ni zhoume hui qu nar?*" ("Where will you go this weekend?"). These questions allow students to practice language in real-world contexts, fostering their ability to think critically and express themselves.

The influence of teacher beliefs is particularly noticeable when comparing novice and expert teachers' questioning strategies. Novice teachers often favor structured, closed questioning to maintain clarity and control in the classroom. In Mandarin, this may involve repeatedly asking questions like "*Zhei ge liangci dui ma?*" ("Is this classifier correct?"). Such questions help reinforce foundational knowledge, such as the appropriate use of Mandarin classifiers, ensuring students build a solid grammatical base (Brown, 2001). However, this approach can sometimes discourage risk-taking, as it focuses heavily on correctness.

By contrast, expert teachers tend to blend closed and open-ended questions to address both accuracy and fluency. Research suggests that expert teachers adapt their questioning strategies based on student needs, incorporating both focused drills and open-ended tasks (Levin et al., 2013). For example, an expert teacher might first ask "*Zhei jiuzi you cuo ma?*" ("Is there any error in this sentence?") to verify a student's understanding of syntax, followed by "*You biede shuo fa ma?*" ("Are there other expressions for this?"). This multi-layered approach encourages students to apply their knowledge in flexible ways while still emphasizing accuracy.

In sum, questioning strategies in Mandarin instruction are shaped by teacher beliefs and their level of teaching experience. While novice teachers often rely

on closed questions to ensure syntactic accuracy and provide clear structure, expert teachers balance closed and open-ended questions to create a dynamic, communicative learning environment. By addressing both accuracy and fluency, guided by evolving pedagogical beliefs, teachers can effectively support Mandarin learners' development. Nevertheless, further research into Mandarin-specific questioning strategies could help teachers refine these approaches and better understand how they can optimize teaching and learning outcomes.

2.3 Teacher Questioning Strategies: Types, Techniques, and Purposes

Long and Sato (1983) highlighted the differences between classroom questions and conversational exchanges with native speakers, noting that classroom questions often emphasize comprehension checks over authentic interaction. Brock (1986) argued that practical questioning strategies stimulate student thinking and strengthen learning, and linguists have long maintained that effective language instruction should foster interaction. In the context of Mandarin instruction, this emphasis on questioning becomes even more critical given the language's tonal and character-based features. The following sections examine the main types of teacher questions, common questioning strategies, and the instructional purposes they serve.

2.3.1 Types of Questions

Questions play a central role in classroom discourse and have been widely examined in language education research. Classroom questions can be classified along two major dimensions: syntactic and pragmatic (Chen, 2011).

Syntactically, questions are categorized based on their grammatical structure, as follows:

A. Disjoined Questions: Questions that present two or more complete alternative statements.

B. Tag Questions: Statements followed by a short question tag for confirmation.

C. A-not-A Questions: A structure unique to Chinese, repeating a verb or adjective in its affirmative and negative form.

D. Particle Questions: Questions marked by the sentence-final particle to indicate yes/no questions.

E. *Wh*-Questions: Questions that include interrogative words like *who*, *what*, *where*, etc.

F. Double Questions: Questions that combine two question forms or seek clarification on more than one aspect, often involving nested or compound interrogatives.

G. English Questions: Questions asked in English during a Chinese class, often used by teachers to ensure comprehension or to scaffold understanding for lower-level learners.

Pragmatically, questions are classified by their communicative purpose. The two key types are:

A. Display Questions: Questions seek answers already known to the teacher and are commonly used in language instruction, though they can limit student engagement (Xu, 2012).

B. Referential Questions: Questions encourage more genuine responses. Vivekmetakorn and Thamma (2015) found that both question types are valuable for guiding students' responses and reinforcing prior knowledge.

2.3.2 Questioning Strategies

Effective questioning strategies in second language classrooms include repetition, decomposition, rephrasing, simplification, probing, and redirecting. Each strategy helps engage students and reinforces learning in different ways.

A. Repetition: It is frequently used to emphasize important points and provide students with multiple opportunities to respond. For instance, a teacher might repeat a question if the initial response is incorrect (Wu, 1993; Zhang et al., 2006).

B. Decomposition: It involves breaking down complex questions into

simpler parts, which is especially useful in Mandarin instruction (Fitriati, Isfara & Trisanti, 2017).

C. Rephrasing: It simplifies questions to make them more accessible, particularly when students seem confused (Wu, 1993).

D. Simplification: It involves using cues or examples to aid comprehension. A teacher might simplify a complex grammar question by giving a sentence with only minor adjustments needed.

E. Probing: It encourages students to elaborate on their answers with follow-up questions. Although probing is beneficial for deeper thinking, it can be limited by time constraints (Cao, 2016; Fitriati et al., 2017).

F. Redirecting: It poses the same question to different students, fostering broader participation. For instance, if one student answers incorrectly, the teacher might ask another student. This strategy helps maintain engagement and ensures multiple perspectives are heard.

When applied effectively, these techniques help teachers create an engaging and responsive classroom environment, supporting students' language development.

2.3.3 Purposes of Questioning in Mandarin Instruction

Teacher questioning serves multiple purposes: checking comprehension (Tan, 2007), eliciting authentic responses (Wu, 1993), promoting interaction (Vivekmetakorn & Thamma, 2015), guiding critical thinking (Jiang, 2014), and enhancing classroom management (Tan, 2007; Wong, 2010).

A. Checking comprehension: Many questions assess understanding, which is a primary instructional goal in language classrooms.

B. Eliciting authentic responses: Referential questions often prompt genuine communication and deeper engagement. Asking such questions encourages students to apply language in a real-life context.

C. Promoting interaction: Teacher questioning initiates dialogue and

increases student involvement. Open-ended questions invite discussion and promote collaborative learning (Dong et al., 2017).

D. Guiding critical thinking: Although less common, high-cognitive questions stimulate deeper thought and reflection.

E. Enhancing classroom management: Strategic questioning helps maintain order and reinforces a structured learning environment. Teachers might ask questions to redirect attention to keep students focused on essential tasks.

Overall, teacher questioning plays a vital role in Mandarin instruction by checking comprehension, fostering authentic communication, encouraging interaction, promoting critical thinking, and supporting effective classroom management. When strategically balanced, these questioning strategies can significantly enhance student engagement and language proficiency.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Participants

This study examined questioning strategies and beliefs about effective questioning among novice and expert teachers in beginner, intermediate, and advanced Chinese language classes at the Mandarin Training Center of National Taiwan Normal University in Taipei. Six classes were selected, each taught by a novice teacher (with up to three years of experience) or an expert teacher (with over 15 years of experience)[1]. Two teachers were assigned to each proficiency level—one novice and one expert—resulting in a total of six teacher participants. All were female and held a master's degree in language teaching. Student participants were grouped based on results from a standardized proficiency screening test administered by the Center, which uses the *Contemporary Chinese*

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1 This study focused on novice and expert instructors to ensure clearer group distinction, as defining "intermediate" experience in a consistent and objective manner proved difficult.

textbook series, covering beginner (Books 1–2), intermediate (Books 3–4), and advanced levels (Books 5–6). Classes meet five days per week, for two hours daily, with 7–10 students per class.

3.2 Class Observations

In total, 34 sessions were video-recorded: 10 sessions each for beginner and intermediate levels, and 14 for the advanced level. Each session lasted approximately 50 minutes, capturing full lessons[2]. The recordings yielded a combined total of 28 hours and 20 minutes of classroom interaction for analysis.

Classroom observations were conducted during regular instruction times to preserve ecological validity. Research assistants carried out non-participant observation, using stationary cameras to minimize interference. Teachers were informed that the recordings were for research purposes only, not for performance evaluation. All participants signed consent and video release forms.

3.3 Data Analysis

This study investigated the differences in questioning strategies and beliefs between novice and expert teachers. Classroom observations were not intended to evaluate teacher performance, but rather to document naturally occurring instructional practices. Consent procedures were followed, with forms covering participation, video release, and details such as observation schedules, class sizes, and lesson times.

Upon completion of the classroom recordings, the video data were archived onto DVDs—one for the teacher, one for the Center, and one for research analysis. Data were then transcribed and coded for comparative analysis of questioning strategies across experience levels and student proficiency groups.

2　One lesson from the *Contemporary Chinese* series was selected for each proficiency level to ensure consistency: B1L5 (*Niurou Mian Zhen Hao Chi* ‘Beef Noodles Are Really Delicious’), B3L5 (*Xianzai Liuxing Shenme?* ‘What Are the Trends Now?’), and B5L5 (*Daili Yunmu, Dai lai Xingfu?* ‘Does Surrogate Motherhood Bring Happiness?’). These thematically appropriate topics encouraged discussion and naturally influenced teachers' questioning strategies.

After all recordings were finalized, the research assistant transcribed the instructional videos, producing verbatim transcripts. The assistants then reviewed the content of each session, created separate files for questions, and categorized them based on their forms and functions. Following Chen's (2011) original classification, we introduced a new category, A7 (double question), to better reflect the forms used in teaching practice, as shown below. In addition to presenting Type A questions, Table 1 highlights common phrases. These recurring expressions can be analyzed as part of Chinese language teacher training, providing concrete examples to guide teachers in formulating effective questions.

Table 1: Syntactic classification of question types

	Type	Example
A1	Disjoined questions	*Nǐ xiǎng kàn měiguó diànyǐng háishì táiwān diànyǐng?* 'Do you want to watch an American movie or a Taiwanese one?'
A2	Tag question	*Wǒ yào hé péngyǒu yīqǐ qù kàn diànyǐng, nǐ ne?* 'I'm going to watch a movie with friends, aren't you?'
A3	A-not-A question	*Táiwānrén guò shēngrì shìbùshì dōu chī zhèxiē dōngxī?* 'Do Taiwanese people all eat this on their birthdays?'
A4	Particle question	*Nǐ xūyào wǒ bāngmáng ma?* 'Do you need my help?'
A5	*Wh*-question	*Nǐ yào qù nǎlǐ?* 'Where are you going?'
A6	Double question	*Zěnme méi kànjiàn xīnniáng ne?* 'Why didn't I see the bride?'
A7	English question	OK?

Table 2 categorizes various types of questions, offering valuable insights into their functions. The analysis reveals that display questions are primarily used to direct learners or prompt respondents to answer information that the questioner (typically the teacher) already knows. Teachers frequently employ these questions in the classroom to emphasize key teaching points and enhance student focus. Such questions often take the form of closed-ended or low-cognitive-level questions, reinforcing specific content rather than encouraging deeper inquiry. By contrast,

referential questions are used when the speaker seeks to elicit information that is unknown to the questioner (Brock, 1986).

Table 2: Another classification of question types

	Type	Example
B1	Display question	*Zhè shì kèběn ma?* 'Is this a textbook?'
B2	Referential question	*Nǐ xǐhuān táiběi ma?* 'Do you like Taipei?'

Table 3 showcases different question types and examples based on established classifications of teacher questioning strategies:

Table 3: Classification of Teacher questioning strategies

	Type	Example
STR1	Repetition	T: *Zhèlǐ yǒu jǐ gèrén? Zhèlǐ yǒu jǐ gèrén, tóngxué?* 'How many people are here? How many people, students?
STR2	Decomposition	T: *Rúguǒ yǒurén wèn nǐ shénme shì xīguā, nǐ kěyǐ describe the color, duì bùduì? Nǐ yě kěyǐ describe the shape, duì bùduì?* 'If someone asks you what a watermelon is, you can describe the color, right? You can also describe the shape, right?'
STR3	Rephrasing	T: *Nǐ qùguò nán měizhōu ma? Nán měizhōu shuí qùguò?* 'Have you been to South America? Who here has been to South America?'
STR4	Simplification	T:*Xiànzài jǐ diǎn? Jǐ diǎn?* 'What time is it? What time?'
STR5	Probing	T: *Wèishéme xǐhuān zuò hòumiàn?* 'Why do you like to sit in the back?' S2: *Wǒ…wǒ zuò zài…qiánmiàn…* 'I… I'm sitting in the front…' T: *Ō nǐ de bózǐ…*(turning the head to the right, then to the left) *bú shūfú…ō okok!* 'Oh, your neck… It feels uncomfortable… oh, okok!'
STR6	Redirecting	T: *Hǎo, suǒyǐ nǐ not always the same ma, nǐ kěyǐ…nǐ kàn tā zhǐyǒu yīgè sentence,finish. Lái, yǒu ma?S4?* 'Okay, so you are not always the same, you can... You see she only has one sentence, finish. Come on, is there any? S4?'

| STR7 | Code-switching | T: *Nǐ zàijiā chī zǎocān. <u>Nà jīntiān zhōngwǔ lunch time, nǐ zài nǎlǐ chī wǔcān?</u>*
 'You had breakfast at home. Then lunch time today, where will you have lunch?' |

Table 4 categorizes various question types and examples based on prior research on the purposes of teacher questioning, providing a framework that enables teachers to strategically employ questions to stimulate student engagement, foster deeper learning, and enrich classroom discourse.

Table 4: Classification of purposes of teacher questioning

	Type	Example
P1	Checking comprehension	T: *<u>Dǒng ma?</u> / <u>Yǒu méiyǒu wèntí?</u>* 'Do you understand?/ Any questions?'
P2	Eliciting factual information	T: *Jīntiān zǎoshang...S3, <u>nǐ zài nàlǐ chī zǎocān?</u>* 'This morning...S3, where did you have breakfast?'
P3	Facilitating interaction	T: *<u>Nǐmen xiǎng bùxiǎng qù fēizhōu?</u>* 'Do you want to go to Africa?' S5: *Wǒ méi qùguò, wǒ xiǎng qù kàn kàn.* 'I haven't been there. I want to go.'
P4	Engaging learners in thinking	T: *<u>Nǐ jiā lí xuéxiào hěn jìn ma?</u>* 'Is your home close to the school?' S1: *Hěn jìn.* 'Very close.'
P5	Managing the class	T: (checking whether the student has found the correct page) *Zhège dōu bùshì dì liù kè.* Um…*<u>nǐ de backpack...bèibāo yǒu ma?</u>* 'This is not Lesson 6. Um…do you have it in your backpack… backpack?'
P6	Requesting clarification	(T isn't sure what S2 is talking about) S2: *Nǎichá…·…* 'Milk tea' T: *<u>Nǎichá?</u>* 'Milk tea'
P7	Other	T: *<u>Suǒyǐ ne?</u>/ <u>Yǒu ma?</u>* 'So?/ Yes?'

The linguistic analysis in this study focuses on teacher questions transcribed and translated by research assistants. Each question was systematically classified

according to sentence types, strategies, and purposes, as outlined in Tables 1 to 4, and cataloged accordingly. To ensure the objectivity of the classification process, each teacher's questions were independently coded by two research assistants. Afterward, their classifications were cross-checked for consistency. If discrepancies arose, a third research assistant reviewed the relevant video segments to resolve any differences, ensuring inter-rater reliability in the coding process. Given that identifying question types, strategies, and purposes requires contextual interpretation of the video materials, double coding was applied when necessary.

Additionally, for the strategy classification, both single-strategy (single strategies) and combined-strategy (combined strategies) coding was conducted. The categorized data were then analyzed using RStudio to examine statistical differences in questioning patterns between novice and expert teachers. Furthermore, this study explores potential correlations between question types, strategies, and purposes across different teachers.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Question Types

The types of syntactic questions used by the teachers in the three different levels of classes are shown in Table 5. Among them, particle questions (A4: 32.42%) and *wh*-questions (A5: 35.68%) were the most frequently used syntactic question types by teachers, while double questions (A6) was the least used, accounting for only 1.85%. Overall, there was a significant difference among the various question types ($\chi^2 = 369.238$, $df = 6$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 5: Distribution of syntactic question types used by all teachers

| Type	A1 Disjoined Q	A2 Tag Q	A3 A-not-A Q	A4 Particle Q	A5 *Wh*-Q	A6 Double Q	A7 English Q	Total
f	206	994	703	3,231	3,556	184	1,093	9,967
%	2.07%	9.97%	7.05%	32.42%	35.68%	1.85%	10.97%	100.00%

Table 6 further reveals that expert teachers asked significantly more questions than novice teachers (expert: 5,990 questions vs. novice: 3,977 questions). In terms of proportion, this represents nearly 60% versus 40%, indicating that expert teachers effectively used questioning strategies to engage in interactive teaching with students.

Table 6: Distribution of syntactic question types used by expert and novice teachers

Group	Type	A1 Disjoined Q	A2 Tag Q	A3 A-not-A Q	A4 Particle Q	A5 *Wh*-Q	A6 Double Q	A7 English Q
Expert	f	115	809	518	1702	1990	119	737
	%	1.15%	8.12%	5.20%	17.08%	19.97%	1.19%	7.39%
Novice	f	91	185	185	1529	1566	65	356
	%	0.91%	1.86%	1.86%	15.34%	15.71%	0.65%	3.57%

As shown in Figure 1, both groups of teachers most frequently used particle questions (A4) and *wh*-questions (A5), while disjoined questions (A1) and double questions (A6) were the least used. This finding is consistent with Chen (2011) and aligns with the frequency of occurrence in teaching materials.

Figure 1: Syntactic question types: Expert *vs.* novice teachers (in percentages)
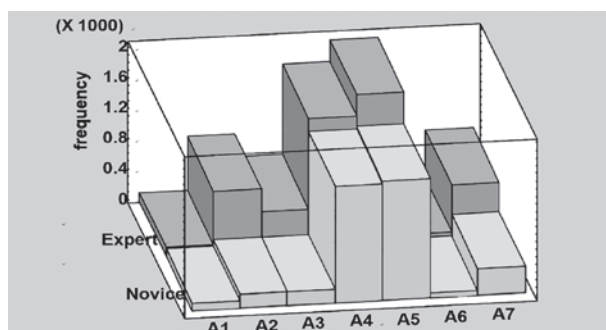
However, the key difference between the two groups is that expert teachers employed a more diverse range of question types. In addition to particle questions

and *wh*-questions, they also used tag questions (A2), A-not-A questions (A3), and English questions (A7), whereas novice teachers did not. Apparently expert teachers tend to adopt a constructivist approach, believing that learning is an active process where students construct knowledge through discussion and inquiry (Vygotsky, 1978). This belief leads them to use different types of questions, hypothetical scenarios, and exploratory discussions to encourage deeper thinking. By contrast, novice teachers are more likely to adhere to a transmissionist model of education, where the teacher is seen as the primary source of knowledge and students as passive recipients (Freire, 1970). This belief results in a reliance on certain types of questions that check for memorization rather than comprehension. Finally, expert teachers often embrace mistakes as valuable learning opportunities, using various questions to encourage risk-taking (Dweck, 2006).

This encourages students to think flexibly and critically. Novice teachers, concerned with maintaining accuracy, may avoid ambiguous or exploratory questions, focusing instead on getting the "right" answer. This belief discourages students from engaging in deep thinking or creative problem-solving. This suggests that teaching experience and years of practice enable expert teachers to intuitively apply a wider variety of syntactic question types, a skill that novice teachers should strive to develop in the future.

Table 7 further compares whether the use of different syntactic question types by the two groups of teachers shows a statistically significant difference. It can be seen that only disjoined questions did not show a statistically significant difference between the two groups of teachers, while all other question types exhibited significant differences. This further illustrates that teaching experience plays a crucial role in understanding students' proficiency levels and influences the selection of question types during classroom instruction.

Table 7: Significant group differences in syntactic question use

	Type	$X2$	df	p
A1	Disjoined questions	2.79612	1	0.0945
A2	Tag question	391.726	1	0.0000
A3	A-not-A question	157.737	1	0.0000
A4	Particle question	9.26308	1	0.0023
A5	*Wh*-question	50.5557	1	0.0000
A6	Double question	15.847	1	0.0001
A7	English question	131.66	1	0.0000

As teachers gain more experience with different student proficiency levels, they refine their questioning strategies to meet the needs of diverse learners. Novice teachers may hesitate to ask complex questions for fear that students may struggle or disengage. Their belief that knowledge should be delivered clearly and assessed simply leads them to rely on certain structured, factual questioning. Expert teachers, however, understand that learning is a dynamic, inquiry-driven process and that challenging students with diverse question types promotes deeper engagement and retention.

Table 8 presents an overview of the pragmatic classification of question types used by teachers. As indicated, display questions (B1) were used far more frequently than referential questions (B2), with a statistically significant difference ($\chi^2 = 266.560$, $df = 1$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 8: Distribution of pragmatic question types used by all teachers

Type	B1 Display question	B2 Referential question	Total
f	5,784	4,183	9,967
%	58.03%	41.97%	100.00%

While referential questions encourage students to engage in critical thinking and express their perspectives, the frequent use of display questions may reflect

teachers' underlying beliefs about knowledge transmission, student learning, and classroom efficiency. The prevalence of display questions observed in this study appears to align with a transmissionist model of education, in which knowledge is viewed as something to be delivered from teacher to student (Shulman, 1986). Within this model, teachers may rely on display questions to confirm that students have accurately received and memorized information. Such beliefs could lead to a preference for questions that require students to recall pre-determined answers, thereby ensuring factual understanding before progressing further. Another key reason teachers favor display questions is their belief that structured questioning maintains classroom order and efficiency. Many teachers, especially those who are still developing their confidence in managing student discussions, may worry that open-ended referential questions could lead to off-topic responses or classroom disruptions (Alexander, 2008). Display questions provide clear structure because they yield predictable answers, helping teachers maintain control over the lesson's progression. In addition, in language education, the preference for display questions is even more pronounced, reflecting teachers' belief that students need structured guidance before they can engage in spontaneous conversation (Novitaningrum, et al., 2020). Many language teachers believe that learners must first build a foundation of vocabulary and grammar through structured questioning before they are capable of generating original responses (Long & Sato, 1983). However, teachers should aim for a balance between display and referential questions to encourage deeper student participation (Walsh, 2011).

Table 9 shows that expert teachers used questions at a higher proportion than novice teachers, with a 60% vs. 40% difference. The difference in B2 (referential questions) was relatively small, with both groups using around 2,000+ questions (expert: 2,120 vs. novice: 2,063). However, there was a significant disparity in the use of B1 (display questions): expert teachers used nearly twice as many as novice teachers (expert: 3,870 vs. novice: 1,914).

Table 9: Distribution of pragmatic question types used by expert and novice teachers

Group	Type	B1 Display question	B2 Referential question
Expert	f	3,870	2,120
	%	38.83%	21.27%
Novice	f	1,914	2,063
	%	19.20%	20.70%

Figure 2 illustrates the proportion of question types used by the two groups of teachers. Expert teachers used display questions (B1) twice as often as novice teachers, highlighting their emphasis on text content and related concepts during the teaching process. By using display questions, expert teachers confirmed and reinforced students' understanding.

Figure 2: Pragmatic question types: Expert vs. novice teachers (in percentages)
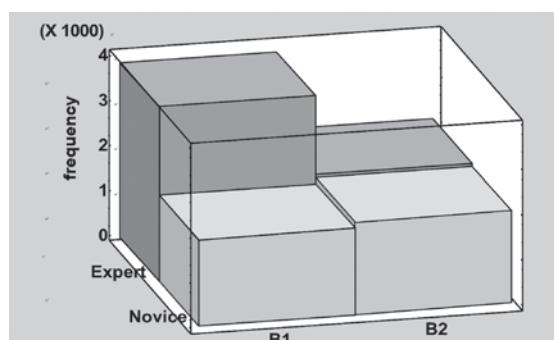
The frequent use of display questions by expert teachers also aligns with their belief that learning must be regularly assessed and reinforced through formative assessment strategies (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Expert teachers recognize that monitoring student understanding in real-time is crucial for adapting instruction accordingly. Novice teachers, who may focus more on eliciting student opinions and critical thinking, sometimes fail to check whether students have correctly understood fundamental concepts. Expert teachers, on the other

hand, use display questions to diagnose learning gaps and provide immediate corrective feedback (Walsh, 2011). Contrary to the belief that display questions limit student engagement, expert teachers often use them to maintain a structured and focused learning environment. They understand that without a balance of structured questioning and exploratory discussion, classroom discussions can become directionless. Novice teachers may assume that allowing students to generate their own responses and inquiries is inherently more engaging. Expert teachers, however, recognize that structured questioning helps scaffold student understanding and ensures that all students participate actively. Mercer and Dawes (2014) conclude that classroom talk is fundamental to student learning. Over four decades, research has demonstrated that moving from teacher-centered recitation to student-centered discussion fosters deeper understanding and engagement. The shift toward dialogic teaching, referential questioning, and scaffolding represents a major transformation in education.

Table 10 compares whether the use of different pragmatic question types by the two groups of teachers shows a statistically significant difference. As shown, there was a significant difference in the use of display questions (B1) between the two groups of teachers, whereas referential questions (B2) did not show a significant difference. This indicates that both groups valued questions that elicited student-related information.

Table 10: Significant group differences in pragmatic question use

Type		X^2	df	p
B1	Display question	661.469	1	0.0000
B2	Referential question	0.776715	1	0.3781

However, expert teachers tended to use more display questions than referential questions, as they assumed that students had already developed sufficient proficiency in Chinese before focusing on cognitive construction. For novice teachers, however, there was no significant difference between the two

types of questions, as they prioritized natural language acquisition. The findings of this study aligned with initial expectations regarding syntactic question types. Both expert and novice teachers frequently used particle questions (A4) and *wh-*questions (A5). However, in comparing the use of display questions and referential questions, the original expectation was that both groups would favor display questions over referential questions. The results, however, suggested the opposite.

These findings were consistent with Vivekmetakorn and Thamma (2015), who observed in English reading activities that expert teachers used display questions more frequently than referential questions. This also supported the contention of some scholars that display questions offered excellent participation opportunities for less proficient students (Salariyan & Moridi, 2015) and could be used to guide students in applying prior knowledge for deeper comprehension. However, novice teachers may believe that display questions lead to less classroom interaction (Shomossi, 2004; Özcan, 2010), which could explain why they did not use them as frequently. Additionally, this study initially hypothesized that low-cognitive-level questions would be used more than high-cognitive-level questions, and closed-ended questions would be more common than open-ended questions. However, further analysis was required to confirm these patterns.

4.1 Questioning Strategies

The distribution of questioning strategies employed by all teachers is presented in Table 11. Among the strategies analyzed, STR5 (Probing) emerged as the most frequently used, accounting for 7,950 instances (79.77%), a figure significantly higher than the second and third most commonly employed strategies, STR1 (Repetition) (5.41%) and STR6 (Redirecting) (5.22%). All other strategies were used in less than 5% of instances, with the differences found to be statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 175.994$, $df = 6$, $p < 0.001$). As noted by Wu (1993), probing is one of the most effective questioning strategies for eliciting student responses, which reinforces its prevalent use by teachers in this study.

Table 11: Distribution of questioning strategies used by all teachers

Type	STR1 Repetition	STR2 Decomposition	STR3 Rephrasing	STR4 Simplification	STR5 Probing	STR6 Redirecting	STR7 Code-switching	Total
f	539	355	226	123	7,950	520	253	9,967
%	5.41%	3.56%	2.27%	1.23%	79.77%	5.22%	2.53%	100.00%

However, these findings diverge from previous research, which rarely identified probing as a dominant strategy (Cao, 2016; Fitriati et al., 2017). Notably, in contrast to Fitriati et al. (2017), where teachers reduced their use of probing in response to their students' limited oral proficiency, the teachers in this study maintained frequent use of probling. This consistency across experience levels may be attributed to teacher training programs in Taiwan, which emphasize effective questioning strategies as a core component of instructional practice. As one of the first strategies introduced in teacher education (Mehan, 1979), probing provides novice teachers with a structured approach to engaging students while simultaneously supporting classroom management.

As shown in Table 12, both groups of teachers exhibited a similar trend in their use of questioning strategies, with STR5 (Probing) ranking first. However, expert teachers used this strategy significantly more frequently, with 4,904 instances (49.20%), compared to novice teachers, who used it 3,047 times (30.57%).

Table 12: Distribution of questioning strategies used by expert and novice teachers

Group	Type	STR1 Repetition	STR2 Decomposition	STR3 Rephrasing	STR4 Simplification	STR5 Probing	STR6 Redirecting	STR7 Code-switching
Expert	f	222	236	127	74	4,904	233	194
	%	2.23%	2.37%	1.27%	0.74%	49.20%	2.34%	1.94%
Novice	f	317	119	99	49	3,047	287	59
	%	3.18%	1.19%	0.99%	0.49%	30.57%	2.88%	0.59%

For expert teachers, probing is refined into a more strategic tool for

fostering deeper understanding through dialogue (Mercer & Littleton, 2007). These teachers are more adept at employing scaffolding and guided participation, facilitating richer classroom interactions (Mercer, 2010). Additionally, from a classroom management perspective, probing helps maintain student focus and ensures that discussions remain purposeful. Research further suggests that highly effective teachers employ open-ended and probing questions to build upon student responses, leading to greater engagement and cognitive development (Hardman et al., 2003).

Beyond engagement, probing also plays a crucial role in ensuring inclusive participation. By guiding discussions and incorporating a variety of student voices, teachers prevent classroom talk from being dominated by only a few vocal students. This is especially beneficial for novice teachers, who often face challenges in managing discourse. Structured questioning strategies like probing provide a clear framework for facilitating discussions, making classroom interactions more equitable and interactive (Edwards & Westgate, 1994).

The distribution of other strategy types was relatively similar between the two groups. For expert teachers, aside from STR5 (Probing), the most frequently used questioning strategies, in order, were: STR2 (Decomposition) (2.37%) > STR6 (Redirecting) (2.34%) > STR1 (Repetition) (2.23%) > STR7 (Code-switching) (1.94%) > STR3 (Rephrasing) (1.27%) > STR4 (Simplification) (0.74%). For novice teachers, the order was slightly different: STR1 (Repetition) (3.18%) > STR6 (Redirecting) (2.88%) > STR2 (Decomposition) (1.99%) > STR3 (Rephrasing) (0.99%) > STR7 (Code-switching) (0.59%) > STR4 (Simplification) (0.47%). Both groups most frequently used the top three questioning strategies: STR1 (Repetition), STR2 (Decomposition), and STR6 (Redirecting), with STR6 (Redirecting) maintaining the same ranking for both groups. This suggests that both expert and novice teachers frequently used redirecting as an interactive questioning strategy. However, expert teachers preferred decomposition over repetition, demonstrating their focus on enhancing students' Chinese language proficiency

by breaking down complex questions into smaller, more manageable parts. By contrast, novice teachers, in line with Cao (2016), tended to favor repetition, a widely used strategy that encourages students to recite learned material rather than engage in deeper processing. Expert teachers believe that learning occurs through guided support, where students gradually develop their ability to solve problems independently. According to Vygotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), students learn most effectively when teachers provide scaffolding, breaking down complex ideas into smaller, interconnected parts, so that learners can grasp each component before integrating them into a holistic understanding. By using decomposition, expert teachers scaffold instruction more effectively, ensuring that students build on prior knowledge rather than passively absorbing information through repetition. By contrast, novice teachers may default to repetition as a reinforcement technique, assuming that repeated exposure to the same question or concept will enhance retention.

From the ranking of STR7 (Code-switching) and STR3 (Rephrasing), it can be inferred that expert teachers preferred code-switching over rephrasing, whereas novice teachers showed the opposite preference. This trend is further illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Questioning strategies: Expert vs. novice teachers (in percentages)
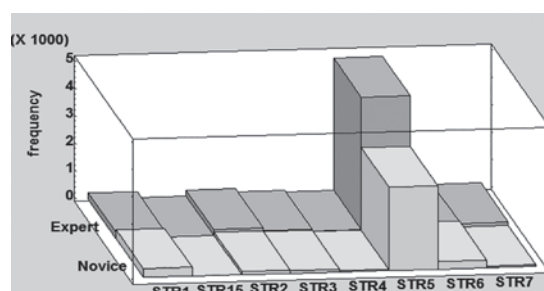
Expert teachers integrate code-switching as a cultural and contextual tool, recognizing that language carries deeper meaning beyond grammar and vocabulary. By incorporating students' native language, they create a more relatable and

engaging learning environment, fostering motivation and participation. Novice teachers, lacking this experience, tend to rely on structured lesson plans, keeping their teaching more formulaic. Many novice teachers also view code-switching as a weakness, believing that using the native language hinders language development. This belief, influenced by traditional second-language acquisition theories (Krashen, 1985), often prevents them from leveraging code-switching as a teaching aid.

Whether the two groups of teachers exhibited a statistically significant difference in their use of various questioning strategies is shown in Table 13. As shown, Rephrasing was the only questioning strategy that did not exhibit a significant difference between expert and novice teachers in this study. By contrast, all other questioning strategies showed statistically significant differences between the two groups.

Table 13: Significant group differences in questioning strategy use

Type		$X2$	df	p
STR1	Repetition	16.744	1	0.0000
STR2	Decomposition	38.5606	1	0.0000
STR3	Rephrasing	3.46903	1	0.0625
STR4	Simplification	5.0813	1	0.0242
STR5	Probing	433.3	1	0.0000
STR6	Redirecting	5.60769	1	0.0179
STR7	Code-switching	71.254	1	0.0000

Rephrasing, whether defined as re-expressing an idea (Zhang et al., 2006) or paraphrasing a statement (Cao, 2016), has been widely recognized as an effective technique for aiding students in understanding complex sentence structures and discourse frameworks. By simplifying or restructuring the original wording, rephrasing enhances students' ability to process and respond to questions more effectively.

Although both expert and novice teachers exhibited a similar ranking in their preference for different questioning strategies, the differences in their actual

usage remained statistically significant. Expert teachers, having accumulated years of classroom experience, may have developed a more refined and adaptive approach to questioning, guided by a deeper understanding of student cognition and learning processes. By contrast, novice teachers, while aware of effective questioning strategies, may still be in the process of aligning their instructional beliefs with practical application. These differences highlight the role of experience in shaping teachers' questioning strategies, ultimately reinforcing their instructional philosophies and approaches to student engagement.

4.2 Questioning Purposes

The purposes of the questioning by the two groups of teachers across the three proficiency levels were analyzed statistically. Results are shown in Table 14. As can be seen, P2 (Eliciting factual information) accounted for the largest proportion of overall questioning purposes, with a total of 5,310 instances (53.27%) used by both groups of teachers. This was significantly higher than the second most common purpose, P1 (Checking comprehension) (15.31%), while the least frequent was P7 (Others) (1.96%). The remaining questioning purposes fell within the 5%–10% range. P4 (Engaging learners in thinking) (9.70%) was the third most common, followed by P3 (Facilitating interaction) (7.03%), P5 (Managing the class) (6.88%), and P6 (Requesting clarification) (5.83%). The differences among these questioning purposes were statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 318.956$, $df = 6$, $p < 0.001$), indicating clear distinctions in the ways teachers employed questions for different instructional objectives.

Table 14: Distribution of questioning purposes used by all teachers

Type	P1 Checking comprehension	P2 Eliciting factual information	P3 Facilitating interaction	P4 Engaging learners in thinking	P5 Managing the class	P6 Requesting clarification	P7 Others	Total
f	1526	5,310	701	968	686	581	195	9,967
%	15.31%	53.27%	7.03%	9.70%	6.88%	5.83%	1.96%	100.00%

The predominance of eliciting factual information as the most common questioning purpose is rooted in its foundational role in learning. Without this foundation, students may struggle to process complex ideas or engage in meaningful discussions (Gagné, 1985).

Another key reason is its alignment with curriculum and assessment standards. Many education systems prioritize factual knowledge in standardized tests, requiring teachers to emphasize recall-based questioning to ensure students are well-prepared (Black & Wiliam, 1998). This approach also enhances classroom efficiency, as factual recall questions are quick to ask and assess, allowing teachers to cover more content within limited instructional time. Additionally, factual recall questions promote accessibility and participation. They require lower cognitive effort compared to analytical or open-ended questions, making it easier for students, especially those less confident in discussions, to engage (Chin, 2007). Moreover, such questions help diagnose student learning gaps. If students struggle with recalling key facts, teachers can identify misunderstandings early and adjust instruction accordingly.

Table 15 reveals that both groups of teachers primarily employed P2 (Eliciting factual information), with expert teachers employing it 3,218 times (32.28%), compared to novice teachers, who used it 2,092 times (20.99%). Conversely, P7 (Others) was the least used, with expert teachers using it 133 times (1.33%) and novice teachers 62 times (0.62%). These results suggest that both groups prioritized eliciting factual information as their main questioning strategy, while other questioning purposes varied in frequency depending on their instructional approaches and experience levels.

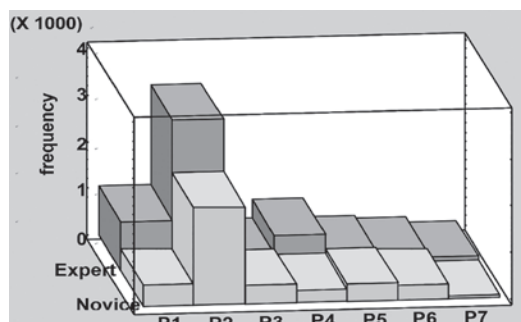**Table 15: Distribution of questioning purposes used by expert and novice teachers**

Group	Type	P1 Checking comprehension	P2 Eliciting factual information	P3 Facilitating interaction	P4 Engaging learners in thinking	P5 Managing the class	P6 Requesting clarification	P7 Other
Expert	f	1,066	3,218	310	695	313	255	133
	%	10.70%	32.28%	3.11%	6.96%	3.14%	2.56%	1.33%
Novice	f	460	2,092	391	273	373	326	62
	%	4.62%	20.99%	3.92%	2.74%	3.74%	3.27%	0.62%

Hence, for both expert and novice teachers, the primary purpose of their questioning was to elicit factual information or responses from students, forming a process of authentic communication. They rarely used question types outside the six main purposes. For expert teachers, aside from P2 (Eliciting factual information) and P7 (Others), the ranking of questioning purposes was as follows: P1 > P4 > P5 > P3 > P6. By contrast, for novice teachers, the order was P1 > P3 > P5 > P6 > P4. The only questioning purpose that ranked the same for both groups was P1 (Checking comprehension), while the rest differed. A key reason why "checking comprehension" is the second most common purpose of questioning for both expert and novice teachers is its role in bridging knowledge recall and application. Students who memorize information without comprehension may struggle to use that knowledge effectively in real-world situations or higher-order thinking tasks (Bloom, 1956). By prompting students to explain concepts in their own words or make connections between ideas, teachers ensure that learning is not merely superficial but meaningful (Bransford et al., 2000).

Checking comprehension also plays a crucial role in student engagement and active learning. Unlike factual recall, which often leads to one-word answers, comprehension-based questioning encourages discussion, reflection, and deeper cognitive processing (Chin, 2007). By asking students to explain reasoning, describe processes, or predict outcomes, teachers create a more interactive learning environment where students are actively involved in constructing their own understanding (Vygotsky, 1978). Variations in questioning purposes are further

illustrated in Figure 4:

Figure 4: Questioning purposes: Expert *vs.* novice teachers (in percentages)

The differences in questioning purposes between the two groups of teachers, as shown in Table 16, were all statistically significant. Although expert and novice teachers demonstrated similarities in their use of questioning purposes, the differences remained significant, aligning with our initial expectations.

Table 16: Significant group differences in questioning purposes

Type		$X2$	df	p
P1	Checking comprehension	240.653	1	0.0000
P2	Eliciting factual information	238.392	1	0.0000
P3	Facilitating interaction	9.35949	1	0.0022
P4	Engaging learners in thinking	183.29	1	0.0000
P5	Managing the class	5.24781	1	0.0220
P6	Requesting clarification	8.67642	1	0.0032
P7	Others	25.8513	1	0.0000

P2 (Eliciting factual information) ranked as the most frequently used questioning purpose, aligning with the findings of Zhang et al. (2006). Their study also found that most teachers use questions to prompt students to choose an answer or provide factual information, rather than to explain or infer responses. P1 (Checking comprehension) was the second most common questioning purpose. According to Tan (2007), 91% of teachers' questions aimed to assess students'

comprehension, though in the present study, it was not the dominant purpose.

The differences in the use of P3 (Facilitating interaction) and P5 (Managing the class) were minimal, aligning with previous studies (Vivekmetakorn & Thamma, 2015; Wong, 2010). However, for P4 (Engaging learners in thinking), expert teachers used this purpose more frequently than novice teachers. The difference in how expert and novice teachers use questioning to engage students in thinking is deeply rooted in their instructional beliefs about learning, teaching, and the role of students in the learning process. Expert teachers believe that students are capable of deep thinking and critical engagement, even at early stages of learning. Through experience, they recognize that scaffolding challenging questions helps students develop reasoning skills over time. This belief drives them to incorporate open-ended, reflective, and Socratic questioning strategies to encourage student-led exploration and problem-solving (Walsh & Sattes, 2015). This finding also supports Jiang (2014), who suggested that teachers use closed-ended questions to assess whether students have mastered required content and open-ended questions to encourage higher-order thinking and increase classroom participation. Novice teachers, however, may underestimate students' ability to engage in higher-order thinking, leading them to avoid or minimize the use of thought-provoking questions. They might believe that students must first master facts and procedural knowledge before they can handle analytical or evaluative tasks. As a result, their questioning strategies tend to focus more on structured, guided recall and comprehension checks, rather than open-ended exploration.

Additionally, this study introduced two new categories of questioning purposes: P6 (Requesting clarification) and P7 (Others), which help distinguish additional questioning behaviors that were not previously classified. The results indicate that novice teachers placed greater emphasis on requesting clarification than expert teachers, accounting for 3.27% of their total questioning compared to 2.56% for experts. This suggests that novice teachers are more likely to seek further explanation from students, possibly due to their greater need for confirmation that students understand the material. They may lack confidence in assessing

student responses immediately, leading them to ask more clarification questions to ensure they correctly interpret students' thinking. This aligns with previous research suggesting that less experienced teachers rely on questioning as a tool for navigating uncertainties in classroom interactions (Chin, 2007). Conversely, expert teachers placed a significantly higher priority on P1 (Checking comprehension), with 10.70% of their questions falling into this category compared to just 4.62% for novice teachers. This finding highlights the expert teachers' belief in regularly verifying students' understanding before moving forward in the lesson. Unlike novice teachers, they may feel more confident in interpreting student responses without requiring additional clarification.

These differences underscore the broader contrast in questioning purposes and instructional approaches between novice and expert teachers. These findings support the notion that teachers refine their questioning strategies over time, shifting from a reliance on clarification to a more structured and purposeful approach to assessing comprehension and guiding student learning (Rosenshine, 2012).

5. CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study offer valuable insights into effective questioning strategies that can enhance classroom interactions and student learning. The preference for simpler syntactic question types (A4 and A5) suggests that teachers prioritize clarity and accessibility in their questioning, which is crucial for language learning and comprehension. From a pragmatic perspective, the higher frequency of display questions (B1) among expert teachers suggests a focus on content reinforcement and comprehension checks, whereas novice teachers relied less on these question types. This highlights the need for professional development programs that help novice teachers integrate more structured questioning strategies to ensure better student understanding and engagement. Furthermore, the clear differences observed between novice and expert teachers in their questioning strategies have important implications for teaching practices. Expert

teachers demonstrated greater variety and flexibility, including more cognitively demanding and pedagogically strategic questions. These patterns reflect not only accumulated experience but also more refined instructional beliefs and goals. Such findings suggest that questioning is a skill that evolves through experience and reflective practice. As such, teacher education programs should include training that emphasizes not only the types of questions used but also their sequencing, responsiveness, and cognitive demands. Mentoring or coaching approaches that help novice teachers reflect on their questioning practices—potentially through discourse analysis—may support the development of more intentional and effective strategies.

In questioning strategies, the dominant use of probing (STR5) indicates that both groups of teachers value eliciting deeper responses from students. The frequent use of repetition (STR1) and decomposition (STR2) suggests that breaking down concepts and reinforcing key ideas are effective strategies, particularly for language instruction. Teacher training should emphasize the balance between probing and other strategies, ensuring that students are not only encouraged to respond but also challenged to think critically and independently. Finally, questioning purposes reveal that expert teachers place greater emphasis on checking comprehension (P1) and engaging students in higher-order thinking (P4). This suggests that teaching experience plays a crucial role in refining questioning strategies. Teachers should be encouraged to develop a strategic approach to questioning, using a mix of factual, comprehension, and critical-thinking questions to support student learning at different cognitive levels.

Despite its contributions, this study has several limitations that should be considered. First, the sample size and scope may limit the generalizability of the findings. The study focused on a specific group of teachers, and results may vary across different educational settings, cultural contexts, or subjects. Future research could expand the sample to include a more diverse group of teachers across various teaching contexts. Second, the study primarily relied on quantitative analysis, which, while effective in identifying patterns, does not capture the qualitative aspects of teacher-student interactions. Although classroom discourse was analyzed, the absence

of follow-up interviews or stimulated recall limits the depth of insight into teachers' underlying beliefs and intentions. As a result, interpretations of teacher beliefs are based on inferences from observed behavior rather than the teachers' own articulated perspectives. Future studies could combine discourse analysis with qualitative methods to more comprehensively explore the relationship between questioning strategies and teacher beliefs. Another possible direction is to investigate the impact of different questioning strategies on student learning outcomes, particularly in critical thinking development, problem-solving skills, and language acquisition. Examining whether certain questioning strategies lead to improved student engagement and comprehension could offer more practical recommendations for educators. Comparative studies across different educational levels (e.g., elementary, secondary, and higher education) or various subject areas could also provide insights into how questioning practices vary across disciplines. Additionally, cross-cultural studies could examine whether teachers in different countries employ different questioning strategies based on cultural and linguistic factors.

Overall, this study highlights the importance of effective questioning strategies in enhancing student engagement and comprehension. While expert teachers demonstrate a more structured and diverse approach to questioning, novice teachers can benefit from targeted professional development to refine their techniques. Addressing the limitations of the study through further research will provide deeper insights into how questioning strategies can be optimized to support student learning more effectively.

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提問作為洞察教師信念之窗：
新手與資深對外華語教師之比較

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摘要

本研究探討華語教師的教師信念，着重這些信念形塑他們提問的使用，以促進教學實踐與學生參與。透過提問模式的分析，了解對語言習得和學習者自主的教師信念如何體現在課堂互動中，進而影響師生互動並激發學生參與度。為填補對外華語課堂中師生互動先前研究的不足，本研究聚焦於不同教學經驗年資的華語教師的提問實踐（Chen, 2011; Smart & Marshall, 2012; Al-Zahrani & Al-Bargi, 2017; Ong et al., 2016）。研究對象為來自台灣某大學華語中心的六位教授初級、中級與高級課程的新手與資深對外華語教師。研究發現，兩組教師均顯著地偏好使用語氣助詞問題和疑問詞問句，其中資深教師比新手教師更傾向使用展示型問題。在提問策略方面，「探究」最常見，其次為「重複」、「分解」和「引導」。此外，兩組教師皆藉由提問「獲取事實性資訊」，但資深教師更常使用提問來「確認理解」及「激發批判性思考」。這些實踐體現教師透過提問促進學生參與和深度學習的教學信念。研究強調，提問策略是教師信念的反映，影響教學決策並重塑對外華語課堂的互動動態。

關鍵詞：教師信念、提問、課堂互動、對外華語

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