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TEACHERS' PRACTICES OF QUESTIONING AND WAIT TIME IN EFL CLASSROOMS

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This study examined the teachers' perceived and actual practices of questioning and waits time in EFL classrooms. The study was helpful to teachers in giving opportunities to design a wide range of techniques while implementing questioning and wait time in EFL classrooms. The researcher used interview, observation and questionnaire as data gathering tools. To check the reliabilities of close-ended items, Cronbach alpha was calculated. The results were 0.98 and 0.95. So, the results could fit to the purpose of the study. To check the validity of instruments, the researcher discussed with English experts, other research experts and high school teachers. Forty-two teachers were participated in this study. The target participants were selected by simple random sampling technique. The results of the interview showed that the majority of teachers used questions for checking the students' comprehension, meaning or concept. The results of the study through observation also showed that the most dominant question types in EFL classrooms were knowledge and comprehension. The result from one-way ANOVA again revealed that there were significant differences among EFL teachers' actual practices of questioning. The results of paired samples t-test also revealed that there were significant differences between the teachers' perceived and actual practices of questioning and its associated wait time. The results obtained through using Pearson Product-moment Correlation on the teachers' actual practices also showed that there was weak overall significant correlation between the level of teacher questioning and the associated wait time (r =0.30). EFL teachers also gave shorter wait times in class (1.1 seconds) than they believed they actually would (3.87 seconds). Therefore, EFL teachers should pay attention to their questioning because it is a frequently used tool and the way to good teaching. Since wait time is also a key procedure to complete a teaching conversation, EFL teachers should prolong their wait times reasonably depending on the type of the question at each cognitive level. Moreover, EFL teachers should also make sure that the teaching materials provide an opportunity to ask focused questions that require learners to compare, contrast, persuade, determine cause and effect, predict, infer and establish a certain criteria, which would develop their process of thinking.

Key Words: Teacher Questioning, Wait Time, Practice, EFL

INTRODUCTION

English language serves as a medium of instruction both in secondary schools and higher institutions in Ethiopia. To improve academic performances of students and enhance their communication competence, language-teaching methods play a significant role in EFL classrooms. They also play vital roles in the first language classrooms. One of the devices that teachers employ in teaching language in both EFL and first language classrooms is questioning (Chaudron, 1988). It is a technique of teaching that should be given attention by language teachers.

Bloom (1956) initiated a cognitive taxonomy with six hierarchical levels of thinking associated with teacher questioning. Bloom's taxonomy is one way of classifying cognitive objectives into sub-divisions ranging from the simplest behavior to the most complex one. Such cognitive taxonomy comprises six processes, which require learners to demonstrate knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Therefore, language learners should learn to talk and be encouraged to make use of target language. In Ethiopia where English is taught as a foreign language, interaction seems to exist as a main feature. As Shomossi (2004) states, questions can be important tool in the language classroom especially in those contexts where the classroom provides the only opportunity to produce the target language. As a result, practicing and applying the language for communication through questioning has a considerable importance to the improvement of learning and enhancing learners' communicative competence.

EFL Teachers ask questions in class to achieve different purposes. Each has implications for the practical aspect of teaching (Cole & Chan, 1994; Gebrielatos, 1992). Concerning the different purposes of classroom questions, Borich

(1988) explains questions formed according to the specific purpose can be used as an advance organizer-providing framework for the expected response. All the questions asked for different purposes are also different in type. Anonymous (2010) and Borich (2004) also stated that questions are the tool for bridging the gap between the teachers' presentations of content and the students' understanding of it. It is also indicated that the core of language, which is conducted by language teachers, can be expressed in various ways such as questioning, explaining, discussion or any other kinds of activities that will facilitate learners' language acquisition (Capell et al, 2001;Cotton, 1998;Hussain, 2003). Typically, teachers ask many questions per period, however, the quality and value of questions vary. Some teachers ask specific questions repeatedly. Others also ask questions that are not related to the content due to lack of realization and skills for asking effective questions that are related to the intended level (Cotton, 1998). As a result, the quality and value of questions differ from one to the other.

If we look at a practice of teaching English in Ethiopian secondary schools today, we may observe multifaceted and deep-rooted problems. Studies made by Kifle (2008) on question types and Aklilu (2009) on oral questioning implementations in EFL classrooms confirm that students have difficulties in using the target language and interacting in the classroom. As their studies indicated, there are also problems on teachers' questioning skills and the wait time provided by them to students to answer questions at various levels. Supporting this view Chaudron (1986) states, teachers' questions constitute a primary means of engaging progress. Therefore, one of the measures to be taken for the improvement of teachers' questioning skills is investigating a research on the area. Although many empirical studies have explored teacher questioning behavior, very few of them have examined such quality in EFL setting (Aklilu, 2009; Chang; 1990; Kifle; 2008; Wong, 2005). In particular, little research has been conducted in the actual practice with senior high school English teachers in their use of questioning skills.

As it is stated above, exposing students to the language in the classroom is useful. It can be practiced through the art of thoughtful questioning skills. Moreover, if we believe that language acquisition will be maximally facilitated by using questioning effectively, the issue of wait time is also very important. Wait time which is the silent period that the teacher pauses after asking a question, is crucial to students' thinking and processing of the question (Lake, 1975; Nunan, 1995; Rowe, 1974). Though giving sufficient wait time has many useful effects in any classroom, teachers do not manage themselves to expand their wait time beyond one or two seconds (Borich, 1988; Capell et al, 2001; Dillon, 1988; Goodwin et al, 1992; Nunan, 1995; Perrot, 1982; Petty, 2004).

As Borich (2004) though every type question has its own importance which measure students' thinking superficially is dominant in language as well as other classrooms. Similarly, Vogler (2005) reported that in the actual classroom studies most of the questions raised by teachers were not inviting students for better language production and thinking abilities. There are local researches done on teachers 'questioning behaviors in EFL classrooms. But these researches focus on the types of questions and on how to implement questioning strategies designed for higher institutions. In line with this, local researchers such as Aklilu (2009) and Kifle (2008) have tried to assess on teachers' oral questioning implementation and question types in higher institution EFL classrooms respectively. But the criteria used by these researchers showed that how EFL teachers implement oral questioning strategies and the types of questions that are employed most in higher institution EFL classrooms. Their criteria did not help to compare the teachers' perceived and actual practices on questioning and wait time. Therefore; less focus has been given to the teachers' practices on questioning and waits time in high school EFL classrooms.

As it has been noted, the teachers' practices on questioning and wait time in EFL classrooms need further investigation. There are no studies on this area, and no local research has been conducted on teachers' practices (perceived and actual) on questioning and waits time in high school EFL classrooms. Even though very few researchers reported on the teachers' questioning behavior and wait time, the results of teachers' actual and their perceived practices on questioning and wait time in EFL contexts is still unclear. Since the occasional use of questioning at all cognitive levels is useful in EFL classes, this could lead the researchers to conduct a further research on the area. Therefore, these and other reasons initiating the present researcher to conduct a study on teachers' actual and their perceived practices on questioning and wait time in EFL classrooms at five high schools in Awi Zone, Ethiopia. To conduct this study, the researcher has formulated the following research questions:

1. What are the philosophies of EFL teachers about the importance of questioning and wait time?
2. Is there any difference between EFL teachers' perceived and actual practices on questioning and wait time?
3. Which level of questioning is employed most in EFL classrooms?
4. Is the level of teacher questioning correlated with wait time?

REVIEW LITERATURE

A number of writers such as Borich (2004); Cooper (1986); Farrant (1980); Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982), Myra and

Davis (1997), and others have followed Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) without or with some modifications. Mostly, they distinguish higher-order and lower-order questions in relation to the cognitive categories. According to Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982:9), cognitive questions are concerned with intellectual understanding. The importance of classifying questions in relation to their complexity levels helps teachers to identify the purposes of questioning in the classrooms, and this can promote language learning and teaching in general (Murname, 2008; Williams, 1991).One of the best known systems for determining the intellectual level of questions is Benjamin Bloom's Taxonomy, which proceeds from the lowest level of questions, knowledge, to the highest level, evaluation. This section provides information about the different levels of classroom questions.

1. Classroom Questions

The art of asking the right questions at the appropriate time is not innate. Bloom's taxonomy of learning categorizes cognitive levels into several domains. Questions that elicit responses in the knowledge, comprehension, and application domains are frequently considered lower-order questions, while questions in the analysis, synthesis, and evaluation domains are considered higher-order questions. Higher-order questions elicit deeper and critical thinking; therefore, teachers are encouraged to ask questions in these domains (Borich, 2004; Myra and Davis, 1997; Vogler, 2005; Zhang, 1999). This does not mean that lower-order questions should not be asked. However, when facts are linked to other forms of knowledge such as subsequent lessons and units, they become stepping-stones for gradually increasing complexity of teaching outcome (Lee, 2009). It is appropriate to ask questions to address all cognitive domains as long as the desired learning outcome is kept in mind and a good mix of questions is used during each teaching session (Cooper, 1986; Myra and Davis, 1997; Paul, 1993). Unfortunately, observations of classroom-based instructors have repeatedly shown that lower-order questions are far more frequently used in the majority of high schools. Perhaps teachers do not value higher-order questions and feel they are not effective, or perhaps a lack of formal training on how to formulate questions to stimulate learning is the root cause.

2. Wait Time

Wait time is one questioning strategy which helps learners to develop higher thought process. In real sense, wait time is the amount of time the teacher waits after asking a question, before a student responds or the teacher comments, gives the answer or presents another question (Goodwin et al, 1992; Kissock and Iyortsuun, 1982). The foregoing idea underlies that the amount of time elapses between asking a question and doing something else in one factor which can have powerful effects on student participation and communication ability in EFL classrooms (Ibid: 17).

Despite teachers' fear and failure to give sufficient wait time, Good and Brophy (1997) suggest that longer wait times are generally preferable than shorter ones because they allow more thinking by more students. Moreover, they advise that shorter wait times may still be important when the class is restive or when time is running out and it is necessary to finish the lesson quickly. In line with this, many research findings showed that most teachers practice very little "wait time"; typically less than or about one second. Information processing involves multiple cognitive tasks that take time (Borich, 2004; Dillon, 1988; Myra and Davis, 1997; Rowe, 1986). Therefore, students must have uninterrupted periods of time to process information; reflect on what has been said, observed or done; and consider what their personal responses will be.

Borich (2004); Dillon (1988); Goodwin et al, (1992); Kissock and Iyortsuun (1982); Nunan (1995); Rowe (1972), and others believe that when students are given three or more seconds of uninterrupted "wait time', there are certain positive outcomes: (1) The length and correctness of their responses increase; (2)The number of their "I don't know" and "no answer "responses decreases; (3) The number of volunteered, appropriate answer by large number of students greatly increases; and (4) The scores of students on academic achievement tests tend to increase.

3. Relationships between Teacher Questioning and Wait Time

Wait time was considered as important as questioning skills in empirical research. Rowe (1974) as cited in Wilen (1991:20) noted that sufficient wait time was important for students to thinking, especially higher-cognitive one, after a question raised by a teacher and before a response given by a student. It was detected that the average teacher wait time was only three seconds when the teacher participants had perceived trainings on questioning strategies and use of wait time for classroom practice, the quantity and quality of their students' responses improved dramatically. Such finding suggested the importance of sufficient wait time for students to do higher-level thinking and to respond more precisely.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study adopted a survey research design to examine the teachers' practices on questioning and wait time in EFL classrooms. The researcher chose the survey method because of its appropriateness in serving as a tool for collecting information from the sample teachers' perceived and actual practices on questioning and waits time in EFL classrooms of the study areas. What is more, the method helps the researcher to collect large amount of data in a relatively short amount of time.

Population and Sampling Technique

Awi Zone is found in the Amhara National Regional State, in Ethiopia. In the Zone there are 13 high schools. Out of these, 5 senior high schools were chosen by the researcher purposely for the study. In the selected high schools there were 42 teachers who are currently teaching English in grade ten. The target participants to the study were selected from these teachers by using simple random sampling technique. The researcher selected the target participants of the study randomly until he has got the required numbers from the population.

 The researcher selected the target participants for the study using simple random sampling technique. For this, 10 participant teachers were selected randomly for interview. The researcher also selected 30 participant teachers for observation. The observed teachers were also asked to complete the survey questionnaires. The main reason for this was that the researcher thought reliable information on the actual practices of teachers on questioning and wait time was found from the observed teachers. The researcher also believed that observing the large number of teachers helped him to see various behaviors from the observed participants. It also later enabled him to compare the actual practices of teachers found through observation with what was found from the responses of the participants in the survey questionnaires.

Instruments of Data Collection

Data were collected through a survey method on the teachers' practices on questioning and wait time in EFL classes using interview, observation and questionnaire.

Ten participant teachers for **interview** were randomly selected (two from each school). Four interview questions were developed for the selected ten participant teachers. Semi-structured interview questions were included in the adapted questions. The interview questions were adapted from the Present Situation of English Teachers' Questioning in Middle High Schools (Xu Shi-Ying, 2011). To see what actually happens in EFL classes through **observation**, observation checklist was adapted. Thirty teachers were selected in five senior high schools randomly for observation. The whole observation was supported by a co-observer. Short discussion was held with a co-observer on how to complete the question analysis sheet. List out questions on the adapted question analysis sheet generated by teachers based on the established criteria. Both the question analysis sheet and the criteria were adapted from Bloom's Taxonomy, Effective Classroom Questioning (Goodwin et al, 1992), and Xu Shi-Ying (2011).
The **questionnaire** was also designed to assess the teachers' perceived practices of questioning and the related wait time in EFL classrooms. The developed questionnaire was administered to the observed thirty teachers who are currently teaching English in the study areas. The questionnaire includes two items: items at various cognitive levels and teachers' wait time. The former was composed of 20 items and the second part consisted of six items. The questionnaire was adapted from Bloom's Taxonomy (1956), Effective Classroom Questioning (Goodwin et al, 1992), and Xu Shi-Ying (2011).

Procedures of Data Collection

Before interview, observation, and questionnaires were carried out, different procedures were conducted. First, the interview guides, observation checklists, and questionnaires were developed. The close-ended questionnaires were pilot tested 30 grade nine English teachers at three senior high schools to test the reliability and validity of the instrument and to ensure whether there were unclear, vague or unrelated question items in the questionnaire. The internal consistencies of the two parts of the questionnaire as estimated by Cronbach alpha were 0.98 and 0.95, respectively. So the evidence could be reliable for the study. After the pilot study, the two close-ended questionnaires were used throughout the study because of their high correlation with the total items.

Methods of Data Analysis

The data obtained from the interviews, observation and questionnaire was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The data gathered through interviews were analyzed qualitatively. For the numerical data gathered through observation and questionnaire the researcher used SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version. Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations were used to analyze the data from observation and questionnaires. The procedures of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and paired samples t-test were further performed to examine the teachers' perceived and actual practices on questioning and wait time. Moreover, a Pearson Correlation Analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between questioning and wait time.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This study was conducted to assess the teachers' practices on questioning and wait time in EFL classrooms. The data collected through interview, observation and questionnaire were interpreted and analyzed primarily. The information gathered through these instruments was analyzed and interpreted so as to achieve the objectives posed in chapter one by considering the responses of the target participants. This section also focused on reporting the statistical results of the current study. For this, the statistical results of the study are presented according to the sequence of the research objectives. In the beginning, the teachers' philosophies (opinions and beliefs) about the importance of questioning and wait time in EFL classes are reported. Secondly, the results of teachers' perceived and actual practices on questioning and wait time are discussed.

Next, the levels of questioning employed by teachers are described. Lastly, the relationship between questioning and wait time are reported.

Teachers' Philosophies about the Importance of Questioning and Wait Time

Investigating the participants' views about the importance of questioning and wait time in EFL classes was the first major objective of the study. For this, the researcher used interview as the major tool to achieve such objective. A total of ten teachers (two from each school) from the observed teachers were interviewed by the researcher. The main purpose of the interview was to assess the teachers' opinions and beliefs about the importance of questioning and wait time in EFL classes. For this, four leading interview questions were developed to the selected participants. Other questions were also generated from the interviewee. The researcher then used percentages and words to analyze the results of the interview qualitatively. Lastly, the results of the interviewees' responses was presented and analyzed as follow.

The participants were formerly asked to say something about the importance of questioning in their EFL classes. All of the participants (100%) stated that questions help them trigger thinking so they help them to improve the teachers' speaking skills and ability to reason and comment in English. As participants claimed, asking various questions has also lots of advantages. The main ones were: (1) to develop critical thinking abilities; (2) to develop interest and motivation; (3) to improve students' communication; (4) to assess the achievement of instructional goals; and (5) to manage the classroom. Moreover, the participants said that asking questions in EFL classes is important to evaluate the students' preparation and to review/summarize the previous lessons.

The participant teachers added that by considering questioning as one basic device through which students and teachers organize their thinking to achieve their objectives. They stated the major benefits of questioning in that it helps them to think more, to distinguish strengths and weaknesses, to see things critically and to facilitate better understanding. Moreover, as the participants replied, classroom questioning has lots of benefits for both teachers and students in arousing interest, strengthening learning, stimulating critical thinking and developing insights. All the participant teachers also agreed that wait time is a very vital thing in their EFL classes in that it provides students adequate time to think and give complete answers for various questions. They also said that a reasonable wait time is beneficial to get good responses from their students. Moreover, they also stated that wait time is considered as one key procedure in EFL classes for teachers to complete a teaching conversation.

In addition, the participant teachers also expressed their beliefs and opinions about the advantage of using varieties of levels of questions in EFL classes. As most participants stated, varieties of questions from all cognitive levels is advantageous. For example, using lower level questions (LLQ) such as knowledge and comprehension in their EFL classes help them to: (1) diagnose the students' strengths and weaknesses; (2) reviewing/summarizing content; (3) encouraging students; and (4) stimulating students to seek information their own.

As participants said asking questions from higher level questions (HLQ) such as synthesis and evaluation are usually appropriate for: (1) encouraging students think critically; (2) developing the ability for problem solving; and (3) helping

them to connect and integrate ideas together with their own. Moreover, asking questions from higher levels is also basically serving as a tool to lead students for creativity and self-evaluation based on certain established rules, criteria and using their own profiles. But, in their actual classroom situation, they witnessed that they did not ask higher level questions. The main reason for them was the shortage of time to cover the content of the course. Others also said that the background knowledge of the students and the lack of skills for using such questions as the major factors in their EFL context.

The participants were also asked to express their opinions and beliefs about how much time they leave to their students after asking a question as well as its benefits. They suggested that the time given to each level of questioning depending on the lesson and objectives of the lesson. However, when they are asked for a rough figure, they came up with different numbers. Seven participants (70%) expressed their beliefs in that leaving sufficient wait time to students after asking a question is advantageous. In their belief, LLQ such as knowledge and comprehension require 2-10 seconds. HLQ such as synthesis and evaluation also require more seconds and minutes depending on their levels. Other three participants (30%) also stated that leaving too much time to students after asking either of question(s) without considering its level has its own limitation. According to them, the main reason for their ideas was a fear of lacking attention in class after students are getting completion of the given tasks. Thus, as it was understood from the participants' opinions, all of them agreed that appropriate wait time depending on the level and type of questions is essential for both teachers and students to make the teaching learning process 'flexible'. Finally, all participants believed that even if asking both lower and higher level questions is beneficial for both teachers and students, as it was observed in the classroom, there was no suitable room for asking and responding questions requiring higher thinking abilities.

How does questioning affect students' language development? This was another question by the researcher to the participants. All the participants suggested that questioning has a tremendous effect on students' language development. One thing is that learning is enhanced by questioning since questions lead to grammar and also vocabulary formation. In addition, students can produce more languages through responding questions: thus practice speaking. The participants also agreed that questioning facilitates interaction and student involvement in the lesson. Moreover, they stated that with the right questions students can develop their critical thinking skills, helping them to increase their cognitive levels. They also added by giving students the opportunity to express themselves, appropriate questions make a classroom discourse genuine. What is more, as the participants stated, being able to express their opinions and feelings in the language they are learning through questioning helps to promote self-confidence and motivation. Believing that teachers' questioning should require a certain way of improvement, the researcher raised his final question to the participants to express their opinions how they improve their questioning skills in relation to their teaching. All the participants said that they did not have any means for improving their questioning skills rather than own efforts. They also stated that any trainings (either short, long or both) were not given to them. They also added that they did not have any habit of experience sharing on how to improve their questioning skills in their work areas.

From the interview, it was found that teachers use questions for a variety of purposes: (1) to check understanding/comprehension/ meaning/concept; (2) to help students' thinking critically; (3) to facilitate participation and interaction; (4) to check prior knowledge; (5) to initiate genuine communication; (6) to elicit language; (7) to start a discussion that lead to a topic; and (8) to maintain discipline. Even though it seemed that all participants understand the benefits of classroom questioning, higher level questions were rarely found in all observed classes. The classroom observation also showed that most EFL teachers ask questions to their students for checking comprehension, meaning or concept. Therefore, lower level questions took the highest ranges in all observed classes.

In addition, though teachers believed that sufficient wait time is beneficial for both teachers and students, the classroom observation showed that no sufficient wait time was given for all types of questions asked in all levels. This implies that what teachers thought about the importance of questioning and wait time in EFL classes was not practically done in the real classroom situation. If such situation continues, there may be a negative impact on the effectiveness of language teaching through questioning in all observed classrooms.

Researchers have appreciated the function and significance of teacher questioning in classroom. According to Doff (1988), Cotton (1998), Hussain (2003) and Richard and Lockhart (2000), questions may encourage students to think. Another function of teacher's question is that questions enable teachers to check students' understanding and mastering of grammar of texts (Fu Li as cited in Xu Shi-Ying, 2011:5). In a word, to enhance students' language learning is one of the important functions of teacher questioning. Even though the participant teachers' personal opinion and beliefs go in line with these, the practical situation showed us the opposite. Most EFL teachers asked various questions in their classes, but it is impossible to say that all have the power that invites learners for more language production and for better thinking abilities. The questions which were asked by EFL teachers in all observed classes require certain improvement.

Teachers' Perceived and Actual Classroom Practices of Questioning and Wait Time

Examining the teachers' perceived and their actual practice on questioning and wait time in EFL classes was the second major objective of the study. To examine the mean score differences of the teachers' perceived practice in using the six types of questioning in EFL classes, descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation and one-way ANOVA were used. Moreover, to examine the mean score differences among EFL teachers' perceived and actual practices on wait time in EFL classes, paired samples t-test was also applied. Table 1, 2, and 3 display the results of this section respectively.

To examine the teachers' perceived practice on questioning, a questionnaire with a twenty-item at various cognitive levels was developed and administered to thirty participant teachers who were selected randomly from the study areas. As indicated in table 1, the responses of all participant teachers in their perceived practice showed that as they used all the six question types in their EFL classes. Moreover, all the participant teachers thought that as if they used all the six types of questions at various cognitive levels in their EFL classes. They also agreed with all the listed questioning items (See table 1).

As for the perceived practice of teachers towards the six levels of questioning, the English teachers (30) reported that they gave all types of questions most often in their EFL classes. As it is indicated in table 1, the average mean of the six types of questions at each cognitive level was greater than the expected mean (i.e., 3). Their report showed that all the six types of questions were used equivalently to their students.

The report of teachers' perceived practice in the questionnaire (table 1) showed that all the six types of questions at various cognitive levels were used more frequently with the average means of 3.55, 3.4, 3.49, 3.52, 3.37 and 3.45 respectively from knowledge to evaluation questions. However, higher order questions like analysis, synthesis and evaluation questions were rarely found in the teachers' actual practices with means of 0.6, 0.5 and 0.27 respectively (See table 5). Furthermore, one-way ANOVA was detected to see the results how teachers use the six types of questions in relation to their perceived practice. Look the following table.

The result of one-way ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference among the 30 teachers in their self-perceived practice on the use of the six types of questioning in their EFL classes. $F_{(5, 24)} = 2.59$, $P = .13 > .05$ indicates that all EFL teachers were used all the six types of questions equivalently in their classes. Moreover, the result of F-test in this study (2.59) at 4 and 25 degrees of freedom is less than from that of the critical value of F in the table (2.62) with the same degrees of freedom. This also suggested that all EFL teachers thought that as if they were used the six types of questions equivalently in their EFL classes. This result conflicted with what was found previously that there was a significant difference in the use of the six types of questioning in the real classroom practice, that is, $F_{(5,24)} = 4.52$, $P = .000 < .05$. EFL teachers also assumed to give longer wait time while questioning in their classes. The data was collected from the responses of 30 participant teachers through questionnaires as indicated in table 3.

As indicated in table 3, all EFL teachers (30) assumed to give longer wait times while questioning in their classes. But this was not the case as it was observed, what they actually did and what they thought were two different things. The observation showed that very little wait time is given for all levels of questioning (i.e., less than 3 seconds in average). In contrast, teachers thought as if they used longer wait times (i.e., above 3 seconds) for all levels of questioning in their EFL classes. Table 3 displays this. All teachers responded their wait times for all levels of questioning were highly appropriate (all results in table 3 indicate that appropriate wait time is given by all EFL teachers, that is, all are above the expected mean of 3 seconds).

In the questionnaire (table 3), teachers also reported that they frequently gave students at least 3 seconds to respond the question being asked (3.89 seconds in average), and that they ask students to judge and argue about issues by adjusting appropriate wait time (mean = 3.87), which was inconsistent with what was actually observed in the classroom practices (0.32 seconds in average). Generally speaking, what the teachers thought about the appropriateness of the wait time for all levels of questions was not seen in all observed classes.

Table 1: The Results of Teachers' Perceived Practice on Questioning

No.	Questions	Mean	SD
	I. Knowledge		
	I ask students to:		
1	Define a concept, term and an idea.	3.9	1.92

2	Recall/Remember previously learned facts.	3.5	1.11
3	List facts.	3.33	1.24
4	Respond questions by words yes or no.	3.47	1.22
	Average	**3.55**	**1.37**
	II. Comprehension		
	I ask students to:		
5	Make comparisons between ideas and concepts.	3.37	1.22
6	Express their ideas in their own words.	3.4	1.04
7	Retell the main idea of the given information.	3.56	1.11
8	Tell differences they find between two things, ideas, and so on.	3.27	1.1
	Average	**3.4**	**1.12**
	III. Application		
	I ask students to:		
9	Group things characteristically.	3.43	1.04
10	Develop a set of instructions about the given information.	3.76	1.82
11	Provide evidences for their responses.	3.3	1.18
	Average	**3.49**	**1.35**
	IV. Analysis		
	I ask students to:		
12	Identify the causes of something.	3.33	1.18
13	Interpret diagrams, maps, tables --- to draw conclusions.	3.37	1.22
14	Identify characteristics of things for categorization.	3.27	1.11
	Average	**3.32**	**1.17**
	V. Synthesis		
	I ask students to:		
15	Think of different endings for stories.	3.5	1.11
16	Find solutions for various problems.	3.3	1.18
17	Connect and integrate many points and make conclusions accordingly.	3.33	1.18
	Average	**3.37**	**1.16**
	VI. Evaluation		
	I ask students to:		
18	Assess procedures, steps or ways by establishing certain criteria.	3.5	1.11

19	Place sentences in order of their importance.	3.4	1.28
20	Judge and argue about issues.	3.47	1.22
	Average	**3.45**	**1.2**

Table 2: One-way ANOVA Results of Teachers' Perceived Practice on Questioning

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
Between Groups	69.4	5	13.9		
Within Groups	128.6	24	5.36	2.59	.13
Total	198	29	19.26		

Table 3: Teachers' Perceived Practice on Wait Time

No.	Items	Mean	SD
1	When I ask my students to define and describe the facts taught in class, I give them -------- seconds. (Knowledge)	4.07	0.94
2	When I ask my students to explain something and tell about similarities and/or differences between certain concepts or things, I give them -------- seconds. (Comprehension)	4.07	0.94
3	When I ask my students to apply what they have learned to solve problems, I give them -------- seconds. (Application)	3.67	0.82
4	When I ask my students to identify the characteristics or features of something and classify them, I give them -------- seconds. (Analysis)	3.6	0.81
5	When I ask my students to connect and integrate different main points and make conclusions accordingly, I give them ------- seconds. (Synthesis)	3.93	0.89
6	When I ask my students to judge and argue about something, I give them ------- seconds. (Evaluation)	3.87	0.86

Therefore, EFL teachers in the study areas should practically show what they have thought in their classes while asking questions with appropriate wait times at various cognitive levels.

Using a paired samples t-test ($p < 0.05$, df =29), the absolute observed t-value (-11.174) was noticed to be greater than the t-critical (2.045). This indicates that there was a significant difference between the teachers' actual and perceived practice while providing wait times for all types of questioning at each cognitive level. The result is summarized in table 4.

As displayed in table 4, the average mean of the actual practices of teachers on wait time is 1.09. In contrast, the average mean of the teachers' perceived practice on wait time is 3.87. When these two means are compared, the result found from the teachers' perceived practice is much greater than the expected mean (3). This figure shows that what teachers perceive on wait time was not actually done in the study areas. What is more, the mean differences between the teachers' practices in all columns are negative. This also indicates that none of the question type has given appropriate wait time in the teachers' actual practices. The paired samples t-test between the six types of teachers' questioning and their associated wait time results also indicated that there is statistically significantly difference between the level of questioning and the associated wait time at alpha .05 levels with 29 degree of freedom; no question type exhibited appropriate wait time in the teachers' actual classes.

Table 4. Paired Samples T-test Results of Teachers' Actual and Perceived Practices on Wait Time

	Expected Mean	Mean-1	Mean-2	Mean Differences	SD-1	SD-2	T-observed	Sig.
Knowledge and its wait time	3	1.41	4.07	-2.66	0.33	0.94	-14.615	.000
Comprehension and its wait time	3	1.74	4.07	-2.33	0.42	0.94	-12.394	.000
Application and its wait time	3	1.17	3.67	-2.5	0.77	0.86	-2.83	.000

Analysis and its wait time	3	1.22	3.6	-2.38	0.86	0.81	-10.82	.000
Synthesis and its wait time	3	0.67	3.93	-3.26	0.78	0.89	-6.667	.000
Evaluation and its wait time	3	0.32	0.23	-3.51	0.57	0.82	-19.72	.000
Total	18	6.53	23.21	-16.64	3.83	5.26	-67.04	
Average	3	1.09	3.87	-2.78	0.64	0.88	-11.174	

The mean difference is significant at the .05 level, df = 29, and t-critical = 2.045

Levels of Questioning Employed by English Teachers

Investigating the levels of teachers' questioning in EFL classrooms based on Bloom's taxonomy was the other major objective of the study. This study observed the questioning behaviors of thirty teachers for thirty periods of class with one observation session for one teacher. The researcher used descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean and standard deviation to analyze the results found from the whole observation. After collecting the data from classroom observation, the data related to teachers' questions were transcribed verbatim. As a result, 296 questions were collected. On the average, 10 questions were given in each period of class. The result is displayed in table 5.

As displayed in table 5, the frequency of the overall levels of questioning for the thirty periods was 296 with the use of six types of questions ranging from knowledge (mean = 4.67 and standard deviation = 1.01) to the minimum of evaluation (mean = 0.27 and standard deviation = 0.450). On the average, 10 questions were given in each period of class. Out of 296 questions, the top two questioning were knowledge and comprehension whose means are 4.67 and 2.87 respectively. The bottom two questioning types were synthesis and evaluation with means of 0.5 and 0.27, respectively. This indicates that lower level questions were dominantly used by EFL teachers in the observed classes. Furthermore, to examine the significance differences among EFL teachers in their questioning behavior, the researcher used one-way ANOVA. The result is summarized in table 6. Apparently, the uses of questioning behaviors varied dramatically among the six types of questions. A successful F-test with one-way ANOVA procedure on the uses of the six types of questioning was detected. The result was summarized as follow.

The one-way ANOVA result showed that there were significant differences among the teachers' questioning in their actual classroom practice. Table 6 displays this. As indicated in table 6, F (5, 24) = 4.52, p = .000 < .05 suggested that these types of questions were used in significantly differently by English teachers. In addition, the result of the F-test (F = 4.52) is also greater than the critical value of F in the table (F =2.62). This also suggested that there is a significant difference among teachers in the use of the six types of questions in their EFL classes. Though the one-way ANOVA showed that there were significant mean differences among the teachers' actual practice of questioning, it is impossible to know which mean is differed from the rest of the others. So that, to exactly know which mean used significantly than the others, post hoc analysis was applied by the Tukey (HSD) test and the result is displayed in the following table 7

As displayed in table 7, the results indicated that the differences among knowledge with application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation and the vice versa in all columns were statistically significant (P < .05). Every mean differences greater or equals to 1.96 are determined as more frequently used question types. Therefore, the result of the study indicated that almost the majority of teachers seem to use knowledge and comprehension questions in their EFL classes. In other words, the EFL teachers were rarely used higher level questions in their classes. Furthermore, paired samples t-test was applied to examine a significant difference between the teachers' actual and perceived practices on questioning (See tables 1 & 5). The means of teachers' actual and their perceived practice results shown in tables 5 and 1 were compared. The result is displayed in the following table 8

As can be observed from table 8, teachers seemed that they used knowledge questions both in their actual and perceived practices with a mean difference of 1.12. However, other question types show negative mean differences in that what the teachers perceived practices towards questioning was not actually done in their EFL classes. In addition, the data in table 8 indicated that the mean of teachers' actual practice on questioning (1.65) was much less than the expected mean (3). In contrast, the same table also displayed that the average mean of teachers' perceived practice on questioning (3.423) was much greater than the expected mean (3). This exploits that EFL teachers did not use all levels of questioning as they perceived they did. The result of paired samples t-test also showed that the T obtained between the teachers' actual and perceived practices on questioning (t = -5.652, df = 29, p < .05) was significantly higher than the t-critical (2.045). This implies that teachers did not use all types of questioning equivalently in their EFL classrooms.

Table 5: Levels of Questions Employed by Teachers

Question Type	N	Frequency	Mean	SD
Knowledge	30	140	4.67	1.01
Comprehension	30	86	2.87	0.83
Application	30	28	0.97	0.62
Analysis	30	19	0.6	0.49
Synthesis	30	15	0.5	0.51
Evaluation	30	8	0.27	0.45

Table 6: One-way ANOVA Results of Teachers' Actual Classroom Practice on Questioning

	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	190.83	5	38.17	4.52	.000
Within Groups	202.8	24	8.45		
Total	393.63	29	46.62		

Table 7: Multiple Comparisons of Teachers' Actual Practice Means on Questioning by the Tukey Test

Questioning Type (X)	Questioning Types (XX)	Mean Differences	Std. Mean Error	Sig.
Knowledge	Comprehension	1.8	0.326	.000
	Application	3.7*	0.431	.000
	Analysis	4.1*	0.480	.001
	Synthesis	4.2*	0.471	.000
	Evaluation	4.4*	0.438	.002
Comprehension	Knowledge	-1.8	0.231	.000
	Application	1.9	0.413	.000
	Analysis	2.3*	0.323	.000
	Synthesis	2.4*	0.341	.003
	Evaluation	2.6*	0.364	.000
Application	Knowledge	-3.7*	0.251	.001
	Comprehension	-1.9	0.265	.000
	Analysis	0.5	0.345	.000
	Synthesis	0.5	0.523	.002
	Evaluation	0.7	0.436	.000
Analysis	Knowledge	-4.1*	0.382	.002
	Comprehension	-2.3*	0.424	.000
	Application	-0.5	0.326	.000
	Synthesis	0.1	0.547	.000
	Evaluation	0.37	0.482	.003
Synthesis	Knowledge	-4.2*	0.226	.002
	Comprehension	-2.4*	0.426	.000
	Application	-0.5	0.543	.000
	Analysis	-0.1	0.236	.002
	Evaluation	0.23	0.424	.000
Evaluation	Knowledge	-4.4*	0.323	.000
	Comprehension	-2.6*	0.117	.001
	Application	-0.37	0.123	.000
	Analysis	-0.23	0.268	.002
	Synthesis	-0.7	0.314	.004

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

Table 8: Paired Sample T-test Results of Teachers' Actual and Perceived Practices on Questioning

	Expected Mean	Mean-1	Mean-2	Mean Differences	SD-1	SD-2	T-observed	Sig.
Knowledge	3	4.67	3.55	1.12	1	1.37	3.6	.000
Comprehension	3	2.87	3.4	-0.53	0.83	1.12	-1.7	.000
Application	3	0.97	3.49	-2.52	0.62	1.35	-1.68	.000
Analysis	3	0.6	3.32	-2.72	0.49	1.17	-8.5	.000
Synthesis	3	0.5	3.33	-2.83	0.51	1.18	-12.043	.000
Evaluation	3	0.27	3.45	-3.18	0.45	1.2	-13.589	.000
Total	18	9.88	20.58	-10.7	3.91	7.39	-33.912	
Average	3	1.65	3.423	-1.773	0.65	1.23	-5.652	

The mean difference is significant at the .05 level, df = 29, and t-critical = 2.045

Some researchers like Kifle (2008), Lee (2009), Vogler (2005) and Wong (2005) have also specifically pointed out that classroom teachers' unawareness of questioning levels or insufficient preparation for teaching materials might result in a high tendency of asking LLQ. Lack of questioning skill was also stated as another major problem (Borich, 2004; Cole and Chan, 1994; Dillon, 1998; Farrant, 1980) in that some levels of questions were emphasized by teachers in their EFL classes. In contrast, a HLQ is more divergent and effective in such a way that usually prompts students to use their own knowledge, experiences, backgrounds and beliefs to come up with a response from a broader perspective instead of rendering a single correct answer (Adler, 1982; Chuska, 1995; Kifle, 2008; Xu Shi-Ying, 2011). This type of question is thus seldom found in the regular classroom practices of the study areas due to its demanding nature on teacher questions and student responses.

In fact, higher level questions (HLQ) are more likely to elicit learning experience necessary to such skills as critical thinking, problem solving, decision making and beyond thinking abilities that invite for creativity and further investigation (Borich, 2004; Cooper, 1999; Xu Shi-Ying, 2011). Providing students with additional number of questions of this sort will not decrease their knowledge, but assist them in employing that knowledge in a divergent way. In contrast, a failure to provide sufficient higher cognitive questions as a part of an instructional process may lead to a negative effect on the development of various thinking levels (Ann, 2005; Ellis, 1993; Lee, 2009).

The Relationships between Questioning and Wait Time

Exploring the relationships between the teachers' questioning and the associated wait time was the last major objective of the study. Before showing the relationships between the two constructs, the researcher analyzed the results of the wait time given for each level of questioning using descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation. Then, the researcher applied the Pearson's Correlation Procedure to show the relationships between teachers' questioning and wait time. The results are displayed in tables 9 and 10 respectively. As it was noted, there were 296 questions by thirty EFL teachers (table 5), and the average wait time of those questions was 1.1 seconds as indicated in table.

The means of the wait time to the six questioning types varied with the highest wait time on comprehension questions (mean = 1.74 and standard deviation = 0.78), and the lowest on evaluation questions (mean =0.32 and standard deviation = 0.23). Furthermore, the Pearson
Correlation Analysis was conducted to show the relationship between the questioning levels (from 1-6) and the involved wait times. This produced weak overall correlation (r = 0.30), suggesting that wait time was not given proportionally according to the cognitive level of questioning type. Generally, the overall correlation between the cognitive level of teacher questioning and the wait time span was weak. The relationship between the teachers' questioning and their involved wait times using the Pearson Correlation Analysis is shown in the following table.10

Table 9: The Level of Teacher Questioning and Associated Wait Time

Level of Questioning	N	Associated Wait Time	
		Mean	SD
Knowledge	30	1.41	0.78
Comprehension	30	1.74	0.86
Application	30	1.17	0.57
Analysis	30	1.22	0.77
Synthesis	30	0.67	0.42
Evaluation	30	0.32	0.23

Table 10: Pearson's Correlation of Teachers' Questioning and Wait Time

Teachers' wait time (N = 30)	Teachers' Questioning						Overall Relation ship
	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation	
rxy	**0.45	**0.48	**0.36	**0.18	**0.15	**0.12	**0.30
Rxy2	0.20	0.23	0.13	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.09
Sig.	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

** Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

In table 10, rxy represents Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and rxy2 stands for the variations which the 'rxy' of participants' questioning and their associated wait times account

The results of the correlation analysis in table 10 indicate that all the teachers' questioning (six types) were less significantly correlated with the participants' wait times at $P < 0.05$. None of the questioning type showed good relationship with its associated wait time. In general, the correlation coefficient of the participants' use in the six types of questioning in knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation accounts for 20%, 23%, 13%, 3%, 2% and 1% respectively. From this, it is possible to conclude that the relationship between HLQ and their associated wait time was very limited as compared to the relationship shown among LLQ and the wait time provided to them.

As the overall relationship, the overall use of teachers' questioning and their wait times in their EFL classes was very low (r = 0.30). On the other hand, this can be explained as there was a weak relationship found between EFL teachers' questioning and their associated wait times given with r = 0.30, r^2 = 0.09 at $p < 0.05$. Thus, the overall correlation coefficient of the teachers' use in the six types of questioning and the associated wait times in their EFL classes accounts for only 9%. When the level goes up, the correlation between the two constructs slightly positively decreases. As a result, the relationships between the two variables become less and less when the level of questioning moves to HLQ. Although in many cases teachers might shorten the wait time length with certain considerations, the fact that their students need more time to develop and organize their answers cannot be neglected. Insufficient wait time may force students to choose not to think about the questions or to provide incorrect answers before thinking twice (Borich, 2004; Myra and Davis, 1997). The efficacy of questioning could thus be diminished especially for HLQ if sufficient wait time is not presented (Lake, 1975; Lee, 2009; Petty, 2004; Wilen, 1991).

CONCLUSION

The findings of the study showed that there was a significant difference between the teachers' perceived and actual practices of questioning and wait time in EFL classes. Although teachers have witnessed that as if they had good awareness about the importance of questioning and wait time, their actual practices showed the opposite. What they perceived was not practically applied in their actual EFL classes. Therefore, this implies that there is a gap between the teachers' actual and perceived practices of questioning and wait time in EFL classrooms. The finding of the study also showed that teachers' questioning is regarded as one of the most important activities in EFL classroom. Based on the theory of the cognitive domain, the most important thing is HLQ that can promote students' higher thinking and inviting

them for better language production. This is because HLQ can require students to engage in independent thinking such as problem solving, analyzing and evaluating information. In the present survey study, teachers ask various questions in their EFL classes. However, the results of the finding showed that teachers ask LLQ relating to facts or grasping main contents of materials, especially knowledge than HLQ. Therefore, recommendations are forwarded as follows.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. EFL teachers should pay more attention to HLQ after asking a series of LLQ in order to provide an environment rich in opportunities for enabling better language and communication through questioning.
2. EFL Teachers should be trained how to ask HLQ questions and provide sufficient wait times appropriately and effectively.
3. EFL Teachers should also use interviews, role-playing, games and other forms of class walk-around activities as some best remedies to create better ways of language teaching and communication through questioning in their actual classes.

Finally, for further research studies, more research studies on a large scale were required to improve generalization of the results. Moreover, it was recommended to conduct an experimental research which could demonstrate how to improve the actual practices of teachers on questioning and the associated wait times in EFL classrooms.

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Language as a Tool for Cultural Transition

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Sociolinguistics and anthropology strongly holds that the development of a second language is inseparable from its socio-cultural context "second language learning is often a second cultural learning". This study looks at the concept of culture, language as culture, the relationship between language and language as a tool for cultural transition. Second language teachers should identify them cultural items in every aspect of the language that they teach. Cultural issues should be made an inherent part of the curriculum because culture is the foundation of language development and Teachers should know the background knowledge of the culture of the language they teach.

Key words: Language, Culture and Transition.

INTRODUCTION

Language as human and social phenomenon has continued to attract the attention of scholars in and outside the field of linguistics and language studies, (Anthonia, 2007). We may define language as a system of social conventions that specify particular relationship between a set of particular set of ideas. Verbal symbols are of particular interest in studying the role of language in human behavior. The symbols are of particular interest in studying the role of language in human behaviour. The symbols include both utterance-spoken speech and graphics patterns written words. Other symbols may also serve to represent ideas artistes use as language of form, colour, and texture to represent ides abstractly, and in human behavior facial expressions, gesture and even posture may symbolize particular ideas language in a system of conventional symbols which are not instinctive and used for communication for member of a community. This definition has succeeded in saying that language is human. No other primate use language.

Language is a means by which ideas and experience may be communicated from one person to another. Through language the experience of one individual may be transmitted into the experience of another: thereby allowing the second to learn from the first without having to undergo the same experience directly with self. Since language provide symbols to represent conceptual ideas, they permit ideas to the hypostasize by the means that words can be brought out of the privacy of subjective experiences and in symbolic from where they can be placed. In common domain where they are accessible others, for instance, verbal labels allow ideas to be communicated to others who have adopted the same set of linguistic convictions as the speaker. With this, language permits the exchange of the idea between one individual and another. In this way language facilitates the transmission of cultural ideas, beliefs, and values over both time and pace, [Jonah 2008.] As a cultural product, language plays a crucial role in the perpetuation of cultural traditions over time, and in the spread of culture spatially through cultural diffusion.

Language as a Tool for Cultural Transition

Language as Culture

Language is probably the most influential factor in the dynamic interrelationship between cultures. If cultures is not only what we see, but also the way we see it and the language we express it, culture cannot whereby be regarded as a body of knowledge which can be transmitted o learners by the teachers or text books. Culture can be seen as a web of spoken and written, text a linguistic landscape consisting of an infinite number of texts, language is not only communication, but also an expression of culture. It differs from other artifacts of culture in that it can be used to express itself Zalakoro, [2016], assert what;

Indeed for any is not a means of communication and a symbol of integration in a given culture, of a conception of the world, a system values and ways of living in a society and of a series of achievement in many domains ranging from science and technology to law and different art forms.

Language makes it possible for man to transmit knowledge across space and time. It is the key to the heart of the people. Any speech community of even moderate complexity reveals several varieties of language, all of which are functionally differentiated from each other. In some cases the varieties may represent different occupation or interest specialization and, there contain vocabulary pronunciations and phraseology which are not generally used or even known throughout the broader speech community. Through teaching and through text book tasks the visibility of language and text is preserved. In other words, all aspects of written or spoken text are made visible in the classroom. The text as a whole, as an entity of form and content in the "carrier and expression of culture, these include authentic texts, where the learner encounters language as culture i.e. spoken texts, written texts of different genres, painting, (Zalakoro, 2016).

Language

Language is the method of human communication either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way, (English) (Zalakoro, 2016). Language is a system of communication by speaking or written, or even making signs in a way that can be understood. It is any of the different system of communication used in particular regions; it means words, their pronunciation, and method of combing them used and understood by a community. Language is a systematic means of communicating ideas or feeling by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings including rules for the formation and transformation of admissible expression, (Zalakoro, 2016). According to Zalakoro language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols. These symbols are in the first instance, auditory and they are produced by the so-called "organs of speech". These definitions go to show that language is essentially vocal and non-vocal and is used for communication.

It includes any and every means available to humans for communication. In this sense, language is not an end to itself but a means to an end, namely; that of fulfilling the communicative needs of man. It is for this that Anyadiegwu and Nzekwu (2105) subscribe that any means that is conventially meaning laden, available to man and used by him to convey his thoughts and notions, as well as help him understand his fellow men and his world, is language. From the above definitions, Zalakoro (2016) identified ten characteristics of language as a system; human language is learned, acquire through cultural transmission. Speakers of one language can learn another is discrete- - language consists of minimal units.

---is recombinable these minimal units can combine in infinite varieties.

- ◼   Is interchangeable_ any speaker potentially can create and utter any message?
- ◼   Is reflexive – people can talk about language; language has the ability to refer to itself.
- ◼   Is arbitrary- meaning depends on arbitrary association of meaning with sign or symbol on conventions shared by sender and receiver of message?
- ◼   --Is redundant- language contains redundant communicative elements (message may be conveyed or reinforced twice in same utterance).
- ◼   --Can displace- language can convey imagination distant, past, present, future, conjectural and or counterfactual statement (including lies).

Concept of Culture

The concept of culture seems to be nebulous, because of the variety of definitions associated with it. However, the study of human society would not be easy without understanding the concept of culture. Thus, the study of culture in unavoidable, inevitable and indispensable, the universe is an expression and diversity of humankind which do not imply uniform pattern of behaviors, (Zalakoro 2016).

According to Sibiri (2014) the scientific meaning of culture is not restrictive and narrow but general and wide in space, this wide and extended meaning of culture still leads to diverse definitions of culture by scholars depending on what each scholar wants to emphasize. Taylor (as cited in Sibiri (2014) defines culture as a complex whole which include knowledge, beliefs, arts, morals, laws, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. This definition is acceptable amongst anthropologists and sociological scholars. Anthropology as a discipline defined as the science of man has had to deal with definitional problems and conceptual issues that are vital to the comprehensive and authoritative study of its subject man. One of these concepts is 'culture' which in fact is the bedrock of anthropological studies. While some scholar have 'primitive' and 'civilized' relationship, other have simply attempted

to be use clusters of words to capture their view of the attribute of a ''culture', (Ingiabuna 2002; 3).

Etymological origin of the word 'culture' the word 'culture' has its roots in the Latin word colere which means "to cultivate", literally, therefore, the word "culture" means "the cultivation of or constant exhibition of certain traits, acts, etc. this can be likened to the "ideas of cultivating one's self in an effort to attain the wisdom which was found in Greek through the ideas that human beings can become themselves. Iniabuna (2003) defines culture as that complex whole which includes 'knowledge, belief, arts, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of a society. This definition is often quoted for its clarity and brevity. It implies that culture and civilization are the same, it could be inferred than man acquired or received the knowledge he/she utilize in daily activities; these activities cannot function well without the use of language. The belief and the interpretation Ingiabuna (2003) gave to the world around him, laws he has to obey and customs which are the rationalized behavior pattern of his social milieu and all the capabilities such as occupation and habits in a particular society which avails with the opportunity to learn and use this acts to meet the challenges of his society. Things e has to learn and use as a member of is society, constitute the culture of that society.

Culture is everything passed down in human society, except its biology, language, technology, law, belief, customs and moral standard, Sibiri (2014). Sibiri clearly explains that culture is concomitant with the ideas and knowledge learnt from the society around but, excluding ideas or knowledge that are generally acquired. Similarly, Ingiabuna (2014) saw culture as the total ways of life characteristics of members of a society including tools, knowledge and patterned way of thinking are learned and shared among the people and not the direct biological inheritance. And he further defined culture as the sum total of the material and intellectual equipment, whereby they are satisfied with their biological and social needs and adapt to using them in their environment. This means that culture is all that is in society, which is socially rather than biologically transmitted from one generation to another, finally Ingiabuna saw culture as;

A concept that makes language the tool, by which man can make a living, the creative arts by which they attempt to make life agreeable, and the symbols of ideas by which they seek to give conduct and give meaning to life.

From the various definition discussed above; it could be seen that culture cannot be meaningful outside a group.

The relationship between language and culture

The acquisition of another language, offers an individual the opportunity not only to become part of another group but also to identify with a culture different from his own. Zalakoro, (2016) supports this view of point stating that; culture is a deeply ingrained part of the fiber of our being and, language being means of communication among members of a culture is the most viable and available expression of that culture.

Second language learning in some respect involves acquisition of a second identity. The successful language learner is able to take on the 'mindset' of the speakers of the target language though not, of course without reservations that is consistent with their own mindsets. They should relate language to culture if a coordinate system is to result from the learners efforts, (Richard and Lawrence 2013; 12).

Nonetheless, the profound relationship between language and the culture is neither simplistic nor automatic, nor does it lend itself to straight forwards point by point analysis. The complexity is such that people with similar culture can use language which is very different while on the other hand one language may serve as a mean of expression for a great variety of learning and cultural learning, one need to understand the nature of acculturation, culture shock, culture stereotype, attitudes and social distance; (Adebayo, 2014)

Language as a Tool for Cultural Transmission

Emphasis on the teaching and learning of o the language, English language has shifted over time from grammatical competence to communicative competence, which of late has come to include cultural competence to its scope, (Zalakoro, 2016). Language is fundamental to man's existence, it is employed for communication. The context of communication varies and as such, the language for this different context of communication varies because every language is part of a culture, therefore it serves and reflects the cultural needs.

Teaching culture is considered important by most teachers but it has remained sporadic and substantial in most teachers', language classroom, (Maduewesi and Amaka 2016). It is clear that cultural background knowledge is necessary in language teaching as the research between language and culture deepens, people have realized the necessity of teaching language into language learning; the cultural factors becomes more and more important in English teaching.

Language is a thing to be studied but a way of seeing, understanding and communicating about the things of the world and each language user uses his/her language differently to do this. Traditionally, language is viewed as a code, and in

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this view language is made of words and a series of rules that connect words together. Learning language as a complex, personal communication system involves ongoing investigation of language as a dynamic system of the way it works to create and covey meaning. This involves learners' analysis and talking analytically and language. This learners are involved in learning which prompt exploration and discovery rather than only being recipients of knowledge as it is transmitted to them by others. The learners require learning skills which will give them independence as users and analyzers of language. Therefore, culture should be considered as an integral part of the study on language, Ajogbor, 2014.

Culture is the sum of material and spiritual civilization created throughout the human history, its creation is inseparable from language, which the language development can be altered as its culture develops. The two, however, they complement each other in perfect harmony, evidently, it is what people believe, how they act and interact and the way they live, with specific traits, behavior, attitude, and tradition passed down from generation to generation of families. Understanding the nature of the relationship between language and culture is central to the process of learning another language. In actual language use, it is language in it cultural context that create meaning; creating and interpreting meaning id done within a cultural framework. In language learning classroom, learners need to engage with the ways in which context affects how and what is communicated. Both the learner's culture and the culture which meaning is created or communicated have an influence on the ways in which possible meaning are understood. The context is not a single culture as both the target language and culture and the learner's own language and culture are simultaneously present and can simultaneously engaged. Learning to communicate in an additional language involves developing an awareness of the ways in which culture interrelate with language whenever it is used.

The reality, language is a sort of cultural heritage. This is culture plays an important role in language. As a close relationship exists between language, culture and foreign language teaching, they are inseparable during language learning and teaching. As so, foreign language is a cultural heritage hat we should protect and a practice actively of culture on which we read focus, which contains a rich cultural connotation and values of academic research, (Maduewesi and Amaka 2016). The influence of language to culture transmission can be seen in the following ways;

(i). Cultural context underlies the varieties of languages. The vocabularies of a language highlight this aspect of culture is important to the social members, such as 'snow' to Eskimos and 'blood relations' to Chinese. There are many specific words for the word Eskimos to describe heavy snow or light snow. Also the Eskimos have words to describe the snow in different shape just as Chinese 'blood relations' cannot be explained clearly through addressing aunt or uncle.

(ii). Different approach to life of people of different cultures brings about different denotative meaning of words such as peasant, intellectual, human right comrade, etc. as well as different connotative meaning of words, such as colours, trees and flowers in different languages.

(iii). The culture of philosophy and religion can deeply affect the language of the native for example, in African/ Nigerian philosophy "heaven" is above everything and its dominating power, so there are a lot of expectations when it comes to "heaven" in African/Nigerian sayings. While the counterpart of "heaven" in the West is either 'God' or 'Jesus'. Different culture posses' different taboos which give rise to different euphemism in African/Nigerian and English there are many words to replace "to die", yet each demonstrating different beliefs or conception.

In fact, it is different for culture to be transmitted from place to place and from generation to generation if there were no language. Moreover, language will be difficult to be understood without constant reference to the cultural context which has produced it, because it is the product of the culture and it embodies the products, practice perspectives, communities and persons of a culture, (Maduewesi and Amaka 2016). Member of the culture have created the language to carry out all their cultural practices, to identify and organize their entire product and the name the underlying cultural perspectives in all the various communities that comprise their culture. The words of the language, its expressions, structures, sounds and scripts reflect the culture, just as the cultural products and practices reflect the language.

CONCLUSIONS

Understanding the cultural context of day-to-day conversational conventions such as greetings farewells, forms of address, thanking, making requests, and giving or receiving compliments means more than just being able to produce grammatical sentences; it means knowing what is appropriate to say to whom, and in what situations, and it means understanding the beliefs and values represented between the various forms and usage of the language. Culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language learning.

RECOMMENDATIONS

From the discussion above, some recommendation are made, they are:

(i). Second language teachers should identify them cultural items in every aspect of the language that they teach.
(ii). Cultural issues should be made an inherent part of the curriculum because culture is the foundation of language development.
(iii). Teachers should know the background knowledge of the culture of the language they teach.

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The Form and Structure of Gurage Riddles: A Case of ChehaGurage Riddles

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This study aimed to investigate the form and structure of Gurage Riddles. In line with this, the poetic form and the syntactic structures of riddles were assessed. Interview and documents were employed to collect the data from the selected areas. Purposive sampling technique was applied to choose the informants. Since the collected data were Ethiopic in script, they were transcribed and translated in to English language using literal approach to keep the original meaning as careful as possible. The collected data were analyzed using qualitative method using structural approach and finally conclusion was given. Based on the finding, ChehaGurage riddles have poetic forms; they have end rhyme, middle rhyme, alliteration and assonance. In addition to this, ChehaGurage riddles have only three types of sentences such as simple sentence, compound sentence and complex sentence structures. In some complex and compound sentence riddles, the subject I/he/she is not clearly stated however by using some clues such as the employment of the masculine and feminine words which comes with the simple predicate they can be known.

Key Words: Riddle, Structural approach, Form, ChehaGurage

INTRODUCTION

Most of the time the definitions of riddles in oral tradition have been based on either the structure of the riddles such as their grammar or thematic units, or based on the cognitive aspect of the riddle such as psychological, sociological, and intellectual functions as performed in context (Green and Pepicello 1979). This shows that scholars are giving definition to riddles based on the structure or use of riddles to the community. For example, ZerihunAssefaw (2005:38) define riddle as it is a kind of competition held between the answerer and the questioner by asking and answering riddles; this competition helps to improve children's cognitions, to let them know their surroundings, to enlarge their thinking ability and to understand the behavior and structure of human beings, animals and nature. This definition clearly puts how riddle is played and its role to the players besides entertaining the children.

Riddle is one of the distinctive types of oral literature which is mostly considered as a children word puzzling game. It has its own rules and structure. According to Annikki (2018) riddling is an exchange of words in which people are deliberately misled because the "right" answer is sometimes completely unexpected. Similarly, (Finnegan 1970) riddles are puzzled descriptive statements or direct questions demanding the answerer to provide the association or connotation. The answerers are not directly asked to guess but are faced an allusive sentence referring analogously to something else, which they must then try to identify. From the above scholars' explanation, one can easily understand that riddles are statements, questions or phrases in which the words are arranged to confuse the participants or the answerer, and they consist two parts, one functioning as a question, the other as an answer. In addition, the structure of riddle is quite different from other types of oral literature hence it is a word puzzling game.

Riddles vary in style and syntax based on the environment in which they exist; they deal with topics that reflect the thinking in the area in which they originated. (www.folkculturebh.org/en/index.php?issues). Similarly, Finnegan, (1970) states that riddles have different forms. Very often the riddles are in the simple form of a phrases or statements referring to some well-known object in more or less veiled language. As Annikki (2018) points out riddle is a traditional, fix-phrased verbal expression consisting of two parts, an image and an answer, and a seeming contradiction. These shows as riddles have different syntactical structures rich in using metaphorical or/and paradoxical expressions which are

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arranged either in sentence or phrase to challenge the respondents. The respondent should have to see the riddles analogically with the natural world and the surrounding.

In terms of the poetic form of riddle Finnegan (1970) describes by comparing riddle with proverbs. She states that like proverbs riddles are expressed briefly and concisely, and they often involve the poetic comments such as rhythm, sound, tone and etc. These poetic elements help the respondent or answerer to make analogy to give the correct answer in addition to make analogy with the meaning of the riddle.

Therefore, this study is mainly conducted to analyze and explain the form and structure of ChehaGurage riddles. ChehaGurage people are the sub group of Sebat Bite Gurage. They are part of Gurage which is one of the Ethnic group of the Southern Nations, Nationalities, and People of Ethiopia. In this paper the word form used as the components in which ChehaGurage riddles consists whereas structure used as the syntax or sentence structure of Cheha riddles. "Riddle has a number of expressive models, clichés, patterns, and linguistic design" (Annikki, 8:2018).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

➢   To identify and explain the poetic forms of ChehaGurage riddles
➢   To find out the syntactic structure of ChehaGurage riddles.
➢   To explain the intended message of the Cheha riddles.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Since every society has its own folklore in general and verbal arts in particular, ChehaGurage societies are rich in oral literature and folklore. These people transfer their oral arts, wisdoms, traditions and socio cultural practices from generation to generation through oral form. However, most Ethiopian oral literatures in general and Gurage oral literatures in particular have not been studied well. There are no enough studies especially on Gurage oral literatures. In fact there are some researchers who have been trying to document and transfer Gurage oral traditions to the next generation; these are Fekade who studied the role Gurage proverbs, Tigelu and Shashetu who conducted on the Gurage women representations on the proverbs, and Shashetu who showed on the cultural role of riddles. However, the study at hand mainly focuses on the structure of Gurage riddles. It explicitly deals about the syntax and poetic structure of Gurage riddles. Hence, this area has not been studied by other researchers yet.

METHODOLOGY

This study is a kind of descriptive type of study. It aimed to investigate and describe the form and structure of Gurage riddles. The data were collected from Chehaworeda which is found in Gurage Zone. The informants to this study were selected using purposive sampling technique. Interview and document were used as a main data gathering instrument. Documents which deal about riddles were collected from the Gurage Cultural and Tourism Office. In this study, the collected riddles were coded according to their syntactic structure and form. Since riddles were composed in Ethiopic script or Guragegna language, the selected riddles to this study were translated in to English using literal or direct translation approach to keep the original meaning of the riddles. Finally, poetic and syntactic structural analysis was given to the selected riddles.

Theoretical frame work

This study used structural approach as theoretical frame work; hence, the study mainly focuses on the structure and form of riddles.Structural theoretical is used in folkloric studies. As MelaknehMengistu (2005) stated, structural approach deals on the analysis of oral literature through classifying them by their forms rather than their contents. Similarly, Tyson (2006), structuralism looks for the rules that underline and govern how the structure of a text functions and stresses the idea of the inseparable feature of form and meaning.

In analyzing the formal and stylistic features of ChehaGurage riddles, viewpoints taken from structuralism such as poetic form and sentence structures were assessed in this study. According to Bascom (1965a) the linguistic constructs of a proverb or the style of verbal expression of a proverb is influenced by its syntax, vocabulary and grammatical structure.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The Formal and Syntactic Structure ofChehaGurage Riddles

Structurally, Cheha riddles are binary constructed. Binary construction means a division of riddles into two parts to balance and make them witty and artful (Abrahams, 1972). Thus, in their balancing relationships, the Cheha riddles have various formal and structural features. In this paper, these features are seen from the perspectives of poetic and sentence structures.

The Poetic Features of ChehaGurage Riddles

The binary or bipartite structure of most Cheha Riddles gives the poetic style and quality. Bipartite structure is a bisectional division of riddles based on their equal or nearly equal number of syllables and corresponding grammatical relationships (Tae-Sang, 1999). Here, the riddles of Cheha have rhyme and alliteration.

'Rhyme' as a poetic feature of Cheha Riddles

Rhyme refers to the existence of similar consonant and vowel sounds in the riddles. Cheha riddles have rhymes. There are two types of rhymes: middle and end rhymes. In addition to their bipartite structure, Cheha riddles exhibit both end rhyme- sameness of sounds at the end part of the two riddles and middle rhyme- the sameness of sounds at the middle part of the riddles.

Riddles Rhymed at the end of the two parts of the riddle

The following riddles are rhymed at the end position of the two parts of the riddles.

1.እሸቃርታሸቃርተሐተረማ/ ሰብያረ ብሬተፈጠረ ም [[Aʃeke:] [taʃeka:] [tehete:m] [seb] [ja:berem] [tefete:m]
2.ትታበረ ያዶትሐማ/ ትትቁረ ጥስ ያዶትናነ ብስሐማ- [tetabera] [jadot] [hema] [tetecurates] [jadot] [gobesa] [hema]
3.ወሸረ ተሰበረ ም/ ገ ረታበ ኩረ ም [weʃe:] [tesepe:m] [ge:ta]
[bekuwerim]
4. ምር የ ምያ ሀ ርብነ ሙድን /ተገገ ና እ ን ገ ድን - [me:jem] [jaye:]
[benemuden] [tegegena] [aneguweden]

From the above riddles we can understand that one of the characteristics of Cheha riddle is having end rhyme. For instance, riddle (1) the word *ተሐተረ ማ* [tehete:m] and *ተፈ ጠረ ም* [tefete:m] are rhymed at the end of the riddles. They have the same sound which is 'm'. In addition to the first riddle, in riddle (2), there is an end rhyme. The words *ያ ዶ ት ሐ ማ* *[/yadotehema]* and *ገ ብሰሐ ማ [gobsehema]* have the same sound "*ma*" at the end of the two parts of the riddle. In the riddle (3), the words *ተሰበ ረ ም [tesepe:em]* and *በ ኩረ ም [bekuwerim]* are rhymed which are found at the end of the two parts of the riddle. The sound 'me' is repeated at the end of each parts of the riddle. In addition to these riddles, riddle (4) also has rhyme. The words *ብነ ሙድ ን [benmudene]* and *እ ን ገ ድ [anegoweden]* have the same 'ne' sound and appeared at the end of bipartite riddle. Generally, the numbers of syllables in some sections of the riddles (2 and 4) are not identical, but nearly equal but, riddle 1, and 3 have equal syllables in the two parts of the riddle.

The following riddles are an example of riddles which have ***middle rhyme:***

1.   በ ዴፋ ዴፋ ኮ ሬ ታ ይ ደ ፋ - [bedeafa] [deafa] [coreata]
        [jedefa]
2.   *የ ረ መ ዥ በ ረ መ ዥ በ እ ጀ ኤ ጠ ቡ ቺ* [jeremudʒi] [biremudʒi] [bedʒi] [eitebuchi]
3.   *ጀረ ምስ በ ግሬ እ ሪ ይ ወር -* [dʒe:] mese] begerie] [arie]
        [jeweri]
4.   *ሶ ስ ት እ ተ ማ ቾ ነ ምቤ ሙ* [soset] [atema] [tʃenemam]
        [beama]

The above riddles are samples that show middle rhyme as one of the characteristics of Cheha riddles. For example, in the first riddle, the sound 'fa' is repeated from the rhymed words ዴፋ /deafa/ and ይደፋ [jedefa] which are found in a line of a riddle. Whereas, in the riddle (2) the two succeeding words such as የረ መዥ [jeremwedʒi] and በረ መዥ/be:mewdʒi] the sound 'ʒi' which is placed at the end of the words repeated. These two words have different meaning. Besides, in the fourth riddle (3) in the words በገሬ [begerie/ and አሬ [arie] the sound 'rie" is found similar. The last riddle (4), the sound 'ma' is rhymed in the three words in the line of the riddle, the words are *atema [አ ተ ማ]*, tʃenemam [ች ነ ማ] and *beama [ቤ ማ]*. These examples show that middle rhyme is one of the unique characteristics of the Cheha riddles and it helps to bring music while they told.

'Alliteration' as a Poetic Feature of Cheha Riddle

Alliteration is the occurrence of similar consonant sounds at initial positions in consecutive words in a line of verse (Berhanu, 2009). Though most of the Cheha riddles are in the form of sentences, in some of the riddles the initial sounds of the two consecutive words become similar. From this one can understand that Cheha riddles have poetic senses. The following are some of the examples of riddles which have alliteration.

1.   በረ መዥበረ መዥበዛ ፓኤሰርጩ- [beremudʒi]
     [beremudʒi] [bezapa] [eiserechi]
2.   ኤስያ ምኤስያ ምግብያ ገፐም- *[elsejam] [elsejam]*
     [gebeja] [gepam]
3.   ቲዌእ ማተታቲወጠስ በተታ - [tiwie] [jemateta] [tiweta] [sebeteta]

In the above riddles some consonant sounds are alliterated. For example, in the riddle (1) the consonant sound '*be'* is alliterated three times. In addition, in riddle (2) the sound '*ge'* is repeated two times in the line of the riddle. In riddle (3), the consonant sound '*ti'* is existed at the beginning of the two words such as '*tiwie'* and '*tiwta'*. To sum up this part, from the above examples, it is possible to say that alliteration is one of the features of Gurage riddles.

'Assonance' as a poetic feature of Cheha riddles

Assonance refers the prominence of vowel sounds occurring at initial, internal or final position in words in the line of the verse (Berhanu, 2009). Cheha riddles are fully decorated by the use of assonance. The following are some of the examples.

4.   በስቀርኤናዳፐረበኤፈርምኤናዳፐረሽ ማታወረ በርደፈረ - [beseke:] [anedape:] [beafe:m]
     [anedape:m] [tʃemeta] [we:] [be:defe:]
5.   ኤስያ ምኤያስያ ምገ ብያ ገ ፐም- [eisejam] [eisejam]
     [gebeja] [gepam]

In the above riddle (1) the vowel sound "*a'* is repeated three times in the first part of the riddle. The riddle is binary. It has two parts. In the riddle (2), the vowel sound '*ei'* is repeated in the two consecutive words.

To sum up, Cheha riddles share the basic elements of poetry these are alliteration, assonance, end rhyme and middle rhyme. These elements are quite used to analyze and write poems; however Cheha riddles employ these elements which make them unique and similar with poetry. Standing from this, one can easily conclude that Cheha riddles are performed through poetic form, and this makes Cheha riddles have similar structure with poetry.

The Syntactic Structure of ChehaGurage Riddles

Syntax as a branch of linguistics focuses on the analysis of the structures of a sentence (Emmanuel and Maryam, 2014). In other words, it refers the grammatical structure of sentences. In English grammar, there are four types of sentences based on their structure. From the point of view of sentence structure, Cheha riddles have three forms of sentences. These are simple, compound and complex sentences.

Cheha riddles as a simple sentence

Sentences which are marked as simple sentence have a composition of only one main clause. In other words, they have one subject and predicate; the subject and the predicate either be simple, compound or complex. Most of the Cheha riddles are simple sentences, and the following are examples.

6.   ንቁገ ምበ ና አራ ሞና ጋ ድር ጋ ድር - [nekuwe] [gemebena]
        [eramena] [gade:] [gade:]
7.   ጆወኤ ነ ንፈረ ስ ጀ ድር ይክ ራ - [dʒew] [eanen] [fe:se] [dʒefewer] [jecera]
8.   ቲ ያ ር ቲ ያ ር ኤ ቆ ጥ - [tija:] [tija:] [eikijet]
9.   አ ዶ ት ተ ት ክ ቲ ት ራ ክ በ ይረ ቆ - [adot] [tetec] [titeracebo]
        [jereco]

All the above riddles are simple sentences, but they have different compositions. For example, the first riddle (6) is composed from complete subject and complete predicate.   The words 'nekuwe' (tall) and 'gemebena' (black)areadjectives which modify the simple subject of the riddle 'eramena' (cow). The complete predicate of the riddle is 'gade: gader:'. Though it is a combination of similar words, together they give the meaning 'looking to the cattle pen'. The literal meaning of the word 'gade:' is cattle pen; however correspondingly it contains the simple predicate which is 'look'. Such kind of situations makes Gurage language as well as riddles unique. Riddle 7 also composed of both complete subject and predicate. The words 'dʒew' (fly whisk) and 'eanen' (have not) art the modifiers of the simple subject 'fe:se' (hoarse) of the riddle. Collectively, they give the meaning a hoarse which do not have fly whisk'; it is the complete subject of the riddle. The complete predicate of this riddle is 'dʒefewer' (street) 'jecera' (goes)'. The word 'dʒefewer' is the modifier of the simple predicate 'jecera'. In short the above riddles have the structure of the complete subject + complete predicate.

Riddles 6 and 7 have different structure from riddle 8 and 9. For example, riddle 8 is a composition of complete subject and simple predicate. The complete subject is 'tija: tija:' (though he goes for a long time). Here, even though the word 'tija:'means 'go', it comprises the noun 'he' circuitously because this word is used only for males. 'eikijet' (do not tired) is the simple predicate of the riddle. The prefix 'ei' is the same as 'not'; it makes the statement negative. The last riddle (9) has the structure of the compound subject and complete predicate. The compound subject of the riddle is 'adottetec' which means 'the mother and the child' the prefix 't' from the word 'tetec' is the same as 'and'; it joins the two nouns 'adot' and 'tic'. The rest is the complete predicate of the riddle. 'titeracebo' (meet each other) is the modifier of the simple predicate 'jereco' (they shout). In short, the above riddles have the structure of complete subject + simple predicate and compound subject + complete predicate accordingly.

All in all, ChehaGurage simple sentence structure riddles are composed of simple subject, complete subject, compound subject followed by simple predicate and complete predicate. In some cases the subject of the riddle may be hidden, but it can be reviled by the use of feminine and masculine verbs and adjectives like in the case of riddle 7. In addition, in some cases the predicate of the might not be clearly stated, however it might be rivaled in adverbs or complements in the form of repetitions like in the case of riddle 6. In short, to know the correct answers of the riddles, the respondent should have to look the structures of the riddles in a creative angle.

Cheha riddles as a compound sentence

Compound sentence is a sentence which has two or more independent clauses. As stated in the above, Cheha riddles have a binary structure. This binary composition makes the riddle independent and dependent. However, in the Cheha riddles most of the riddles which have a binary structure have a composition of independent clauses. The following are some of the examples of riddles which have a compound sentence structure.

10.   አ ግ ር ኤ ነ ን ኮ ተ ይ ክ ራ - [age:] [einen] [kot] [jekera]
11.   ት ታ በ ራ ያ ዶ ት ሐ ማ ት ት ቁ ረ ጥ ስ ያ ዶ ተ ና ን ብ ሳ ሐ ማ -
        [tetabera] [jadot] [hema]
[teterakos] [jadotena] [gobesa] [hema]
12.   ቲ ዋ እ ማ ተ ታ ቲ ወ ጠ ተ ዴ ን ጃ ታ - [tiwie] [jemateta]
        [tiweta] [tedenegijata]

The above riddles are arranged in compound sentence form. In riddle 10, 'age: einen' is the first main clause. The word 'age:' (leg) is the object of the clause, and 'einen' (do not have) is the verb, but indirectly it includes the subject 'he' because this word is only used for males. Collectively they give complete meaning. The prefix 'ei' in the word 'einen' makes the statement negative. The second main clause is 'kotjekera'. 'kot' is the object of the riddle and 'jekera' is the simple predicate with the subject 'he' which is not clearly stated. Together, they give 'he climbed the loft' meaning. Similarly, riddle 11 has two main clauses with hidden subject but reveled by using feminine words. The first main clause is 'tetabera jadothema' (she feeds like mother). 'tetabera' (when she feeds) is the main verb of the clause with the hidden subject 'she' because it is a feminine word. The prefix 'teta' is the same as 'when' which is used to show the time

when she looks a mother. *'jadothema'* (like a mother) is the complement. The suffix *'hema'* is the same as 'like'. The clause compares the way of her feeding with the mother feeding. The second main clause is *'teterakosjadotenagobesahema'* (when she pinches, she looks like stepmother). The first word *'teterakos'* is the simple predicate of the clause with the hidden subject 'she'. The words *'jadotenagobesahema'* together are the object of the clause. The suffix *'hema'* from the last word used to compare her action with step mother. In short, the two clauses have the same structure which is verb + object; the verbs show the subject of the riddle because of the use of feminine word.

The last riddle (12) is composed from two main clauses in which each of them has the structure of verb + object with the indirectly stated subject. *'tiwiejemateta'* is the first main clause; *'tiwie'* (when it grows up) is the simple predicate of the clause with the masculine subject. The answerer is going to identify the specific subject of the riddle which is named by the indefinite pronoun (he) through relating his feature with the world. *'jemateta'* (alone) is the complement of the clause. The second main clause is *'tiwetatedenegijata'* (he grew with his children). Presiding is the simple predicate of the verb with the indefinite pronoun 'he' which is known by the suffix *'ti'* the last word *'tedenegijata* is the object of the clause.

To recall, ChehaGurage riddles have compound sentence structure. However, the subjects of each clause are not clearly stated, but the verb of each clauses serve as a clue to know the subject. So, the structure of each clause is 'subject followed by complement'. From this we can conclude that by using masculine and feminine words ChehaGurage riddles transfer complete meaning without having a directly stated subject.

Cheha riddles as a complex sentence

Complex sentence refers the composition of a sentence from one or more dependent clause and only one main clause. Though most of Cheha riddles have simple and compound sentence structures, some of the riddles have complex sentence structure. Below are some of the examples.

13.   ወሽረተሰተረምገረታስኮረም - *[weʃe:] [tesepe:m]*
       [gereta:] [bekuwerim]
14.   ዘምቲያዚዝዘምይፈከ - *[zem] [tiyazi] [zem] [jefeka]*
15.   በሰቻየመጥስቀረይጭን - *[besetʃa] [jamet] [becura]*
       [jetʃen]

All the above riddles are examples of complex sentence structure of ChehaGurage riddles. The first riddle (13) has single subordinate clause *'weʃe: tesepe:m'* and single main clause *'gereta: bekuwerim'*. *'weʃe:'* (pot) is the subject of the subordinate clause and *'tesepe:m'* is the predicate of the predicate; however the predicate has suffix *'m'* sound which makes the statement dependent. The suffix *'m'* is the same as 'after'. The main clause parts such as *'gereta:'* (splinter) - the subject of the main clause and *'bekuwerim'* (disappeared) - the predicate part. So, the subordinate clause of the riddle needs the main clause part to give meaningful thought. Similarly, riddle 14 contains one subordinate clause and on main clause. *'zemtiyazi'* is the subordinate clause; *'zem'* (now) is a complement (time adverb) and *'tiyazi'* (when it is seen) is the masculine predicate. The prefix *'ti'* sound from the predicate *'tiyazi'* makes the statement dependent; it is the same as 'when'. Jointly, they means 'when it is seen now'. It is the dependent clause part which depends on the main clause of the riddle. The main clause part is *'zemjefeka'*. *'zem'* (now) is the time adverb, *'jifeka'* (he disappeared) is the masculine predicate. Jointly, they give the meaning 'it disappeared now'.

The last riddle (15), the subordinate clause *'besetʃajamet'* has an arrangement of masculinecomplement followed by the predicate. *'besetʃa'* (open area) serves as an adverb of the predicate 'jamet'. The suffix *'ja'* of the predicate makes the statement dependent because it is the same as 'after'. The rest, *'becurajetʃen'* is the main clause of the riddle. *'becura'* (hidden) is the complement of the riddle, and *'jetʃen''* is a masculine predicate. Jointly, they give 'it gives birth in hidden'. In short this riddle has the structure of subordinate clause followed by main clause. Both of them have the same arrangements of the words such as complement followed by masculine verb. This can be one of the characteristics of ChehaGurage riddles.

Generally, ChehaGurage riddles have complex sentence structure. Based on the above discussion, most of the time the subordinate clause comes first and followed by the main clause. Suffixes and/or prefixes which come with the verbs make the riddles subordinate. This makes ChehaGurage riddle unique and different. In addition to this, the subject of the clauses is found by the existence of masculine and feminine words in the riddle.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to collect and analyze the form and structure of ChehaGurage riddles. Accordingly, in this

research attempts have been made to made structural-based analysis of oral traditions with special reference to riddles. To collect the riddles, appropriate data gathering tools were used: interview and document.

The data collected for this study showed that ChehaGurage riddles have different features. Based on the finding of the study the following conclusion is made:

➢ The study showed that ChehaGurage riddles share some of the elements of poetry such as rhyme, alliteration and assonance. They have an end and middle rhyme poetic features. As a result having poetic feature is one of ChehaGurage riddles.

➢ The other feature of ChehaGurage riddle is the existence of only three types of sentence structure such as simple sentence, compound sentence and complex sentence. The simple sentences structure riddles are composed from simple subject, compound subject and complete subject followed by complete predicate or/and simple predicate. The subject of the complex and compound riddles is not directly stated; however it is reviled by the existence of masculine and feminine words in the riddles. Moreover, the dependent clauses are formed by suffixes and prefixes which come with the verb in the riddles.

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