EFL Classroom Discourse Analysis

Igor Ivanović

1. Introduction

A corpus is a collection of texts, either written or spoken, which is stored in an electronically retrievable storage device—in most cases, a computer. Consequently, this means that any collection of texts cannot be viewed as a corpus. One of the main ideas behind a corpus is how representative it is. So, what would be a representative corpus in the context of English language teaching? First of all, this means that great care has to be taken in order to make a corpus representative. This can be done if one's corpus design stage is clear and ideally encompasses different variables which may impact the process of corpus building: learners' age, their gender, location, whether their teachers are native or non-native speakers, class size, etc. Many authors: Biber (1993), McCarthy and Carter (1994), McCarthy (1998), Hall and Verplaetse (2000), Meyer (2002), Kasper (2004) and McEnery, Xiao, and Tono (2006) offer somewhat similar guidelines related to the construction of a corpus. Since corpora are usually stored on a computer, huge quantities of texts can be accessed and analyzed by specialized software. These texts may be composed of "conventional" types (spoken and written texts), but may also include audio and video clips and other multimedia content. Corpora can also contain extra-linguistic information, such as: machine whirring, background noises, etc. and may be coded for truncated utterances, speaker overlaps and different speaker turns. Until recently, when it comes to the analysis of vocabulary the single word has been regarded as the main item around which vocabulary acquisition and second language learning revolve. This is completely understandable since the word is the main unit which has to be acquired if one wants to learn a language. This is due to the fact that the word denotes tense, number, etc.

No corpus is ideal for all purposes. The answer to the question *which corpus to use* will vary to a great extent. Different types of corpora will yield different results. Different kinds of data result in different distribution of tense and aspect forms. Waugh (1991), who analyzed the distribution of the French simple past form, found that it has the tendency to be restricted to certain types of written texts. She asserts that the past simple is used in order to emphasis distance or the idea of detachment, rather than the typical past tense which denotes a finished activity. On the other side and standing against the "exclusiveness" of the past simple, the written corpus indicated the more frequent use of an "inclusive" grammatical choice, such as progressive forms of verbs which are rare or non-existent in written data. The reason for this is obvious. While written texts are

usually addressed "to whom it may concern," spoken corpora usually contain semantic elements which are more direct and aimed at including the "other side." Thus, the wrong choice of a corpus will obviously skew the findings of any study.

2. Teacher Corpora

This type of corpus is created within institutionalized contexts and is mainly based on classroom interactions. A teacher corpus is, fortunately or unfortunately, not a ready-made product, but something which evolves and further develops over time. What is of vital importance is that this type of corpus can be analyzed by teachers and used to further improve their professional career. Another important feature of teacher corpora is the fact that their representativeness is of high level since they are created within a teacher-student communication area, which makes such corpora highly relevant when it comes to finding answers related to the academic environment.

> ***Example:***
> *Student: Teacher, what is the difference between disabled and handicapped?*
> *Teacher: Essentially, there is not much of a difference between those two words.*
> *Student: So, I can use them interchangeably?*
> *Teacher: Well, actually, no.*
> *Student: Why?*

In order to answer the first question, first, we can do the following: we may use a dictionary in order to establish the distinction between these two words; we can also use corpora in order to find subtle differences between these two near synonyms. The main point of the abovementioned steps is that teacher corpora can be used in order to reorganize the lesson and make the distinction between these two (or any other) synonyms clearer.

3. Theoretical Background

3.1. Classroom Language Analysis Frameworks

In the context of this paper we will talk about three approaches used for analyzing corpus data: Discourse Analysis, Conversation Analysis and Socio-cultural Theory. These models can be used as a group or individually, but in this paper we will harness the power of all of them in order to establish more powerful foundations.

3.2. Discourse Analysis and Exchange Structure

Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) provided us with a very powerful approach to discourse analysis, called exchange structure. It is based on the analysis of classroom interactions and the main aim is to deepen the understanding of classroom discourse. Interestingly, this approach can be applied to other types of interactions, e.g. doctor-patient. This model establishes that classroom interactions are typically divided into "transactions" which are marked by different discourse markers, such as: right, good, moreover, etc.

In this model classroom interactions are structured into a hierarchy which consists of levels. At the level of "exchange" Sinclair and Coulthard noticed the following forms of interactions:

- Question and answer sequences
- Pupils responding to teachers' instructions
- Pupils listening to teachers' information

Question and answer sequences consist of at least three elements:

- Initiation } I
- Response } R
- Follow-up } F

Initiation is typically characterized by the question posed by a teacher. Response is usually encompassing student's reaction to the question and Follow-up is reaffirming or confirming what had been previously said.

This example from Walsh (2001) shows how the teacher uses the discourse marker 'so' in order to mark a new sequence, sometimes called the IRF sequence.

Teacher: So, can you read question two, Junya?
Junya: (Reading from book) Where was Sabina when this happened?
Teacher: Right, yes, where was Sabina? In Unit 10, where was she?
Junya: Err, go out…
Teacher: She went out, yes.

In this excerpt we can clearly see that the teacher evaluates the learner's answer (right, yes), which is an exceptionally important element of any classroom discourse since such feedback is important to the learner. IRF exchanges are not exclusively related to classroom discourse only. Such exchanges can be found in casual conversation and are often embellished by tokens of relational function which show surprise, anger, irritation, etc., or agreement between friends (LCIE):

F1: … it just goes to show you can't take people at face value.
F2: No.
F1: And you don't know what's going on either.
F2: Exactly.

3.3. Conversation Analysis

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS (CA) deals with the rules governing "turn-taking." Additionally, CA focuses on how speakers show they are listening. We can also say CA is interested in adjacency pairs, such as yes/no answer, greeting/greeting, etc.

Adjacency pair from LCIE:

Teacher: Hello class!
Students: Good day teacher!

Within the adjacency pair the second response can be either preferred or dispreferred, depending on the communicational need. Therefore, we may say that second responses follow "preference organization" (Pomerantz 1984). For example:

> *Teacher: Maria, would you like to present your paper to the rest of the class?*
> *Student: Right, I'd love to. (preferred response)*
> *As opposed to*
> *Student: (hesitation) Well, to be honest, I am not quite sure. (dispreferred response)*

Apart from the abovementioned elements CA is also interested in openings and closings of conversations (i.e. how to initiate and terminate conversations), topic management (changing the subject, deciding what to talk about, etc.). CA has brought a number of key insights and these insights suggest that certain adjacency pairs are easier to be taught since they are deeply embedded into learners' mindsets (for example, greeting-greeting), while dispreferred responses need to be learnt (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1994). This is a valuable insight gained on the basis of CA which provides a way of better understanding and improving speaking in pedagogical context (Mori, 2002).

3.4. Sociocultural Theory (SCT)

SCT CANNOT be properly introduced without mentioning Vygotsky (Vygotsky 1962), a Russian psychologist who developed the sociocultural theory of mind. This theory is mainly focused on the social nature of classroom interactions. When social nature is taken into account, learners interact with their teacher and the main point of such social interactions is to "guide" learners towards better understanding and more quality second language acquisition. Of central importance to this guidance are the concepts of "scaffolding" and "zone of proximal development" (ZPD). Scaffolding, as the name suggests, provides guidance by a teacher to a learner. The main aim of "building the scaffold" is to guide learners in order for them to be able to understand and solve difficult tasks. According to Vygotsky (Vygotsky 1978), the ZPD is the distance between where the learner is developmentally and what he or she can potentially achieve in interaction with adults. The ZPD is often described as the arena for development, in which learners are presented with different tasks and challenges, which should not be too difficult (which can lead to learners' disappointment and giving up), but sufficiently challenging and guiding so as to allow learners to overcome all difficulties and find a solution in a step-by-step approach. Within the ZPD, learners can be assisted through carefully planned error correction. This is called expert-novice scaffolding, but we must not underestimate the other side of this scaffolding. Peer-to-peer scaffolding may be just as important during the process of second language acquisition.

4. Application of the Three Frameworks to a Classroom Data Corpus

4.1. Methodology, Data Collection and Participants

NOW THAT we have introduced all three frameworks we can turn to actual corpus data. Further development of the three frameworks shall be done through an EFL class. In our case we selected the third year at the Faculty of Philology. The selection was made on the basis of two criteria. First, this classroom has dedicated vocabulary development classes where students discuss different topics, which is rather useful for our analysis since Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) developed their IRF model for analyzing spoken language and, second, this class contains only five students which made our data collection more manageable.[1] The data was recorded using a digital voice recorder and a bidirectional microphone. The bidirectional microphone was selected because of its figure-8 polar plot which is optimal for the spatial distribution of participants. In order to make our results more relevant we applied a three-level data objectification process. First, the teacher had been made aware of the presence of the voice recorder, but she only knew the general purpose of the recording. The students were completely unaware that they were being recorded. This was done in order to gather as much objective data as possible. Namely, we were concerned that if the participants (the teacher and the students) had known there had been a recording device in the room, the conversation would have become more artificial, thus making our results flawed. Second, the teacher did not know which of her classes would be recorded and third, the recording would start 20 minutes after the beginning of the class. This 20-minute waiting period was additional insurance that the teacher would "forget" about the recording, allowing us to factor out the negative impact of the device from our analysis.

4.2. Analysis of the Transcribed Data[2] for TPT Structure

AFTER THE recoding and transcribing, the transcribed data was separated into moves: opening, answering and follow-up moves as well as framing and focusing moves (Brazil 1995, 29–46). The context is the following: the teacher is trying to develop learners' vocabulary by prompting them to ask questions and actively think about the challenge posed before them. On the other side, the teacher is deliberately trying to limit herself to yes-no answers. This is in accordance to the previous paragraph where the teacher uses scaffolding in order to guide learners, but, at the same time, makes the path towards the solution more challenging.

(Written on the whiteboard)

Matthew	Honesty	Billions of US dollars

1Teacher[3]: All right, I will write three items related to a newspaper story. Your job is to guess the link between them, but I can only answer yes or no. Let's start.
1Student: Is billions related to bribe?

$_2$Teacher: No, it is not.
$_2$Student: Is Matthew a Bible reference?
$_3$Teacher: You mean Biblical. Good try, but, unfortunately, no, it isn't.
$_3$Student: Matthew is a person?
$_4$Teacher: No, Mathew is not a person, in this context, of course. Is there anything else you want to ask me?

Even though this is a short excerpt we can conclude that this sort of classroom discourse is particularly interesting to DA and CA since this is the case of "controlled" discourse taking place within a regulated or institutionalized context. As stated before, the teacher initiates communication and provides evaluative feedback, i.e. teacher has been assigned the questioning and evaluative role. Within DA, we can conclude that $_1$Teacher is an initiation, followed by $_1$Student. Even though $_1$Student is formally a question (which should intuitively be defined as an initiation), this is functionally a response to $_1$Teacher. $_3$Teacher seems to be the response to $_2$Student, but, functionally, this is the evaluative feedback made by the teacher. Even though the teacher tries to decentralize his pre-assigned role this exchange pattern still follows the conventional IRF structure. Another element worth mentioning is that students do not make evaluative feedback on the teacher's questions. Within CA we can conclude that the teacher tries to "remove" herself from the pre-allocated role of the person who asks all the questions. This is exemplified by the student's questions where they "assume" the role of questioner. Assume is between quotation marks since, in reality, the teacher is still the one who chooses the next speaker, directs the conversation is this or that direction and answers a question with another question which violates the adjacency pairings of question and answer. Another element worth mentioning is that the teacher relatively quickly diverged from the constraint related to limiting himself to yes-no questions only.

From a methodological and pedagogical perspective, numerous positive elements are obvious. Teacher-student interaction or peer-to-peer interaction is an excellent way of enabling students to acquire additional information and, consequently, new knowledge. Even though from the perspective of the abovementioned excerpt the teacher-student interaction is an active one (the participants actively assume their roles) and peer-to-peer interaction is a passive one (other participants are passive among each other), listening is considered to be rather beneficial when it comes to second language acquisition. The fact that the teacher allowed the student to ask the questions is an opportunity for the teacher to evaluate the student's vocabulary and introduce new vocabulary which would enhance the existing one. The lesson is, to a smaller extent, more decentralized, since the role of questioner is assumed by the student. However, one negative pedagogical reflection is the fact that the teacher is still in complete control of the communication exchange.

From the perspective of scaffolding and the ZPD, this excerpt is an example of teacher-led peer-oriented scaffolding. The teacher assumes the role of guide and tries to make the connection between what he assumes to be known vocabulary items for the students (Matthew, honesty, billions of US dollars) and an unknown reference, i.e. a newspaper article. Peer-to-peer scaffolding is implemented through the fact that other students have to carefully listen to the active student in order to be able to become active later. Therefore,

TABLE 1. CLASSROOM INTERACTION ANALYSIS

Initiation	Response	Follow-up
Opening move (Elicit) All right, I will write three items related to a newspaper story. Your job is to guess the link between them, but I can only answer yes or no. Let's start. (s)[a]	Answering Is billions related to bribe? (rep)	No, it is not. (e)
Opening move (Elicit) (Unuttered, but implied)	Answering Is Matthew a Bible reference? (rep)	You mean Biblical. Good try, but, unfortunately, no, it isn't. (e)
Opening move (Elicit) (Unuttered, but implied)	Answering Matthew is a person? (rep)	No, Mathew is not a person, in this context, of course. (e)
Opening move (Elicit) Is there anything else you want to ask me? (e)	Huh, this is rather difficult! (i)	Good. (m)
Focusing move Let's think together. Bible, Matthew, Billions of US dollars, Something doesn't add up. (com)	Answering So, the Bible is out of question? (rep)	Yes, that's right! (ack)
Framing move Okay (m)		
Opening move (Elicit) What about honesty? (el)	Answering Aha, that one's is a little bit odd. (rep)	
Opening move (Elicit) Why? (el)	Answering I doesn't make any sense. (rep)	Good. (m)
Opening move (Clue) Don't forget this is a newspaper headline. (i)	Answering Okay (m)	
Opening move (Clue) And billions of dollars is something significant, not to be trifled with (smile). (i)	Answering So, this is a significant Matthew, with billions of dollars (smile). (com)	Yes and no (smile). (ack)
Opening move (clue) This Matthew is rather significant and natural. (i)	Answering Matthew is a hurricane? (rep)	Is Matthew a hurricane? Yes. (ack)
Opening move (Inform) Yes, Matthew is a hurricane, which in all honesty caused billions of US dollars of damage. (i)	Answering Huh, this was difficult! (i)	Yes, it was. (ack)

a. For definitions, please refer to Appendix 1.

the learning process is organized through the interaction between the teacher and students. Turn-by-turn analysis shows that the teacher provides two types of scaffolding. In $_3$Teacher we have lexical type of scaffolding and in $_4$Teacher we talk about a conceptual type of scaffolding which gives more details about the overall story.

The central role within classroom interactions is occupied by questions. This is somewhat expected since in highly institutionalized contexts questions are means of extracting information which is necessary for further conversation, which is, in this context, of vital importance, since teachers need to evaluate their learners thorough mutual interaction. Therefore, it is crucial that all teachers pay particular attention to the manner in which they ask questions (number of questions, used phrases, etc.). Institutional communication exchanges are typified by question-answer sequences (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998) since pupils, employees or interviewees are generally expected to provide answers to the questions posed by teachers, employers or interviewers. This format of communication is usually normed and must be kept within prescribed boundaries (Riggenbach 1999).

Discourse analysis for TPT (Teacher-Pupil-Teacher) sequences are shown in the table below:

Table 2. Discourse analysis for TPT

T-initiate	Number of exchanges	98.1%
P-initiate	Number of exchanges	1.90%
T	14	13.33%
TP	33	31.43%
TPT	40	38.10%
TPTP	12	11.43%
TPTPT	4	3.81%
PT	2	1.90%
PTP	0	0.00%
PTPT	0	0.00%
Total	105	100%

It can be clearly seen that a TPT sequence is a regular sequence in the classroom discourse. The table above shows that 38.1% of the total number of exchanges had a TPT structure. The other structures included T, TP, TPTP, TPTPT, PT, PTP, PTPT. The most striking conclusion which can be drawn from the data found in this table was that Teacher-initiated exchanges made up the overwhelming majority of the exchanges with a total number of 98.1%. The second largest proportion of the exchanges was TP, which accounted for 31.43% because the teacher needed to explain many words to the students. After the explanation, the students would read the words and the teacher would go on with the next one without giving any feedback. For example:

I-1-T: the penultimate word, abomination, means a feeling of hatred (s);
R-2-PP: a feeling of hatred (rep);
I-1-T: Next, calamity, avert a calamity (s);
R-2-PP: calamity (rep).

The pattern "PT" appeared in this class although there were only two exchanges accounting for 1.90%.

All the numbers from the table above indicate that the traditional teaching method is still prevailing.

TABLE 3. INITIATION-RESPONSE-FEEDBACK (IRF) MODEL

Discourse element	EFL class	
	N[a]	%[b]
I	14	13.33%
I R	33	31.43%
I R F	38	36.19%
I R F R	2	1.90%
I R Ib R	1	0.95%
I R Ib R F	3	2.86%
I Ib R F	2	1.90%
I Ib Ib R F	0	0.00%
I R F/I R F	8	7.62%
Other	4	3.81%
	105	100%

a. Number of exchanges.
b. Percentage of the total.

The discourse analysis by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) is applicable to classroom interactions where the teacher exerts the maximum amount of control over the structure of the discourse. This table shows the correspondence between teacher-dominated discourse structures, for example, IRF (36.19%), I (13.33%) and IR (31.43%) and the teacher-initiated exchange from the previous table (99.1%). This is mainly due to the fact that: (1) the teachers exerted the maximum amount of control over the classes and the structures of the discourse; (2) the attitude of students towards speaking English in front of other students are generally negative because they fear making mistakes.

Additional insight into our corpus data tells us that, according to the functional categorization of questions (Hall and Walsh 2002, and Carter and McCarthy 2006), which include referential questions[4] and display questions[5] (Farr 2002), the commonest type of questions is broad display questions,[6] followed by narrow display[7] and referential questions. This may be understood as the teachers' way to offer multiple choices to students thus making communication more prolific and sustainable. On the other hand, the average number of words per reply in student answers is the highest referential question type, which can be rationalized as the students' wish to provide their teachers with as much information as possible. All of the abovementioned examples show that a corpus can become an end in itself, rather than just a means to an end (McCarthy and O'Dell 2001, and Markee 2004)..

Conclusions and Considerations

The analysis of classroom-based teacher-pupil communicative events arguably leads to a deeper understanding of this type of interaction and better practice, thus making it an indispensable asset for career development. Of course, such analysis can be rather beneficial for other, non-classroom-based interactions with our colleagues, friends or acquaintances, because similar communication patterns tend to emerge during these types of communication outside the classroom. Teacher corpora can also be useful in making teachers more aware of their centric role in the classroom. Through teacher corpora analysis and data presentation, teachers can be made more aware of the fact that classroom communication dynamics should be more student-oriented and less teacher-oriented, which can be achieved through changes in the distribution of talking time among participants. Teacher corpora harbor great potential for teachers who want to learn about specific lexical elements which they may encounter in the classroom (e.g. the difference between cooperation and collaboration).

Such corpora can be built over time and amass a huge quantity of texts which are relevant for the pedagogical context since they originate from genuine teacher-pupil interactions. Quantity is not a requirement since short conversations can yield profound results, but as teacher corpora grow, much can be gained both qualitatively and quantitatively which can help us to perform more tasks, such as language patterns of what we teach. Another powerful tool offered by corpora of teacher interactions is that they can inform us about how we teach; how we ask questions, do we offer multiple choices, are answers implied in our questions or not, do we make pauses between turns, do we prefer or encourage centralized or decentralized communication, it there question-related "breathing space" for students?

But, we have to be fully aware of the limitations imposed on any corpus. Classroom interactions are multi-modal in their nature since they include both verbal and non-verbal communication units. The majority of corpora do not contain extra-linguistic elements, such as: hesitation, gaze, staring, sighs, etc. which means they are losing part of the message which an original speaker wants to convey. That is why an audio-visual corpus is a strong contender for future corpus-based researches. Once aligned, such corpora can be a powerful methodological tool, which will enable us to question existing applied linguistic frameworks and generate new ones. Furthermore, we must not forget that numerous textbooks contain invented or artificial examples based on intuition. Teacher corpora may be the answer to this problem and help us in changing the typology of school textbooks. This means corpora can be used to look critically at existing language teaching materials with the main aim of improving them.

❑

Appendix
Appendix 1

No.	Label	Sym.	Formal features and functional definition
1	accept	acc	Realized by a closed class of items: 'yes', 'no', 'good,' 'fine,' and repetition of pupil's reply, all with neutral low fall intonation. Its function is to indicate that the teacher has heard or seen and that the informative, reply or react was appropriate.
2	acknowledge	ack	Realized by 'yes,' 'OK,' 'mm,' 'wow,' and certain non-verbal gestures and expressions. Its function is to show that the initiation has been understood, and, if the head was a directive, that the pupil intends to react.
3	aside	z	Realized by statement, question, command, moodless, usually marked by lowering the tone of voice, and not really addressed to the class. As we noted above, this category covers items that we have difficulty dealing with. It is really instances of the teacher talking to himself: 'It's freezing in here,' 'Where did I put my chalk?'
4	bid	b	Realized by a closed class of verbal and non-verbal items: 'Sir,' 'Miss,' teacher's name, raised hand, heavy breathing, finger clicking. Its function is to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse.
5	check	ch	Realized by a closed class of polar questions concerned with being 'finished' or 'ready,' having 'problems' or 'difficulties,' being able to 'see' or 'hear'. They are 'real' questions, in that for once the teacher doesn't know the answer. If he does know the answer to, for example, 'have you finished', it is a directive, not a check. The function of checks is to enable the teacher to ascertain whether there are any problems preventing the successful progress of the lesson.
6	clue	cl	Realized by a statement, question, command or moodless item. It is subordinate to the head of the initiation and functions by providing additional information, which helps the pupil to answer the elicitation or comply with the directive.
7	comment	com	Realized by a statement or tag question. It is subordinate to the head of the move and its function is to exemplify, expand, justify and provide additional information. On the written page, it is difficult to distinguish from an informative because the outsider's ideas of relevance are not always the same. However teachers signal paralinguistically, by a pause, when they are beginning a new initiation with an informative as a head; otherwise they see themselves as commenting.
8	conclusion	con	Realized by an anaphoric statement, sometimes marked by slowing of speech rate and usually the lexical items 'so' or 'then.' In a way it is the converse of a metastatement. Its function is again to help pupils understand the structure of the lesson but this time by summarizing what the preceding chunk of discourse was about.

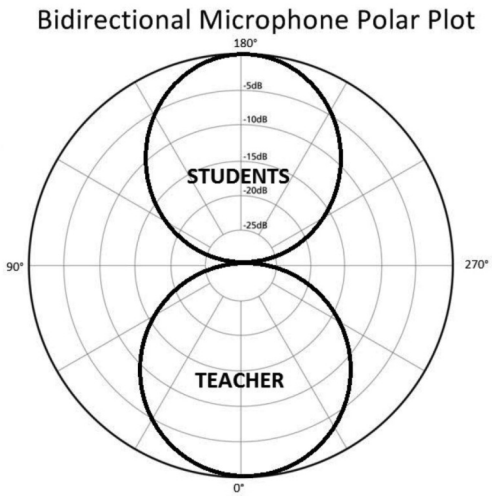
Continued on next page

Table–Continued

No.	Label	Sym.	Formal features and functional definition
9	cue	cu	Realized by a closed class of which we so far have only three exponents, 'hands up,' 'don't call out,' 'is John the only one.' Its sole function is to evoke an (appropriate) bid.
10	directive	d	Realized by a command. Its function is to request a non-linguistic response.
11	elicitation	el	Realized by a question. Its function is to request a linguistic response.
12	evaluate	e	Realized by statements and tag questions, including words and phrases such as 'good,' 'interesting,' 'team point,' commenting on the quality of the reply, react or initiation, also by 'yes,' 'no,' 'good,' 'fine,' with a high-fall intonation, and repetition of the pupil's reply with either high-fall (positive), or a rise of any kind (negative evaluation).
13	informative	i	Realized by a statement. It differs from other uses of statement in that its sole function is to provide information. The only response is an acknowledgement of attention or understanding.
14	loop	l	Realized by a closed class of items: 'pardon,' 'you what,' 'eh,' 'again,' with rising intonation and a few questions like 'did you say,' 'do you mean.' Its function is to return the discourse to the stage it was at before the pupil spoke, from where it can proceed normally.
15	marker	m	Realized by a closed class of items: 'well,' 'OK,' 'now,' 'good,' 'right,' 'alright.' When a marker is acting as the head of a framing move, it has a falling intonation, [1] or [1+], as well as a silent stress. Its function is to mark boundaries in the discourse.
16	metastatement	ms	Realized by a statement which refers to some future time when what is described will occur. Its function is to help pupils to see the structure of the lesson, to help them understand the purpose of the subsequent exchange, and see where they are going.
17	nomination	n	Realized by a closed class consisting of the names of all the pupils, 'you' with contrastive stress, 'anybody,' 'yes' and one or two idiosyncratic items such as 'who hasn't said anything yet.' The function of nomination is to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse.
18	prompt	p	Realized by a closed class of items: 'go on,' 'come on,' 'hurry up,' 'quickly,' 'have a guess.' Its function therefore is to reinforce a directive or elicitation by suggesting that the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting or even demanding one.
19	react	rea	Realized by a non-linguistic action. Its function is to provide the appropriate non-linguistic response defined by the preceding directive.
20	reply	rep	Realized by a statement, question or moodless item and non-verbal surrogates such as nods. Its function is to provide a linguistic response, which is appropriate to the elicitation.

No.	Label	Sym.	Formal features and functional definition
21	silent stress	^	Realized by a pause of one or more beats, following a marker. It functions to highlight the marker when it is serving as the head of a boundary exchange indicating a transaction boundary.
22	starter	s	Realized by a statement, question or command. Its function is to provide information about or direct attention to or thought towards an area in order to make a correct response to the initiation more likely.

SOURCE: Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).



Appendix 2

Notes

1. Please refer to the microphone's figure-8 polar plot in Appendix 2.
2. For the purpose of this paper, we have selected only the most representative excerpts.
3. Subscripts refer to turn numbers.
4. Referential questions are those which the teacher does not already know the answer to.
5. Display questions are those which the teacher already knows the answer to. Display questions can be further divided into narrow display questions and broad display questions.
6. Broad display questions refer to those questions where there are numerous possible answers.
7. Narrow display questions refer to those questions where there is only one anticipated answer. (Due to the fact that only one answer is expected, "unexpected" responses to this sort of questions are a rich source of humorous situations and we must not forget that humour is crucial for the establishment of a shared communicative space which is a beneficial outcome in the context of classroom interactions.)

References

Biber, D. 1993. Representativeness in Corpus Design. *Literary and Linguistic Computing* 8, 4: 243–257.

Brazil, D. 1995. *Classroom and spoken discourse*. Birmingham: The Centre for English Language Studies.

Carter, R. and M. McCarthy. 2006. *Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide to Spoken and Written English Grammar and Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. and S. Thurrell. 1994. Teaching conversational skills intensively: course content and rationale. *ELT Journal* 48, 1: 40–49.

Farr, F. 2002. Classroom Interrogations—How productive? *The Teacher Trainer* 16, 1: 19–23.

Hall, J. K. and L. Stoops Verplaetse. Eds. 2000. *Second and Foreign Language Learning Through Classroom Interaction*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Hall, J. K. and M. Walsh. 2002. Teacher-Student Interaction and Language Learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 22: 186–203.

Hutchby, I. and R. Wooffitt. 1998. *Conversation Analysis: Principles, Practices, and Applications*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Kasper, G. 2004. Participant Orientations in German Conversation-for-Learning. *Modern Language Journal* 88, 4: 551–567.

Markee, N. 2004. *Conversation Analysis*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

McCarthy, M. 1998. *Spoken Language and Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McCarthy, M. and R. Carter. 1994. *Language as Discourse: Perspectives for Language Teaching*. London: Longman.

McCarthy, M. and F. O'Dell. 2001. *Basic Vocabulary in Use: Uper-intermediate*. 2nd edition. Cambridge–New York: Cambridge University Press.

McEnery, T., R. Xiao, and Y. Tono. 2006. *Corpus-Based Language Studies: An Advance Resource Book*. London: Routledge.

Meyer, C. F. 2002. *English Corpus Linguistics: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mori, J. 2002. Task Design, Plan, and Development of Talk-in-Interaction: An Analysis of Small Group Activity in a Japanese Language Classroom. *Applied Linguistics* 23, 2: 323–347.

Pomerantz, A. 1984. Agreeing and Disagreeing with Assessments: Some Features of Preferred/Dispreferred Turn Shapes. In *Structures of Social Action: Studies in Conversation Analysis,* eds. M. Atkinson and J. Heritage, 57–101. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Riggenbach, H. 1999. *Discourse Analysis in the Language Classroom*. Vol. 1, *The Spoken Language*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Sinclair, J. McHardy and R. M. Coulthard. 1975. *Towards an Analysis of Discourse*: *The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. 1962. *Thought and Language*. Transl. E. Hanfmann and G. Vakar. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

—. 1978. *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Eds. M. Cole et al. Cambridge, MA–London: Harvard University Press.

Walsh, S. 2001. Characterising teacher talk in the second language classroom: a process model of reflective practice. Ph.D. thesis, Queen's University: Belfast.

Waugh, L. R. 1991. Tense-Aspects and Hierarchy of Meanings: Pragmatic, Textual, Modal, Discourse, Expressive, Referential. In *New Vistas in Grammar: Invariance and Variation*, ed. L. R. Waugh and S. Rudy, 241–260. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Abstract

EFL Classroom Discourse Analysis

The main aim of this paper is to show how corpora of classroom interactions can yield useful information which can be used for teacher development and how such corpora can be used for different aspects. Being a teacher myself, I have come to appreciate how teacher corpora can improve teacher education and their careers. Our paper will revolve around Sinclair and Coulthard's IRF model, which will be used in order to analyses teacher-student interactions in the context of a Montenegrin EFL classroom. Furthermore, we will try to develop the idea that teacher corpora provide invaluable resources in the acquisition of methodological skills.

Keywords

classroom discourse, teacher corpora, methodology, learners