CLASSROOM DISCOURSE ANALYSIS
"A Systemiotic Approach"

REVISED EDITION

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UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA

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We Care

CLASROOM DISCOURSE ANALYSIS
"A Systemiotic Approach"
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P REFACE
TO REVISED EDITION

When I first wrote *Classroom Discourse Analysis: A Systemiotic Approach* in 2006, I had tried my best to organize the book in a reader-friendly style. However, comments from students as well as colleagues brought me to realize that it was not yet readily accessible for most of the readers. For the very reason, some revision has been made. Apart from the organization (now segmented into parts), significant enhancement has been made to Chapter 8 in the hope that it would be more useful in helping readers to analyze learners' language. In addition, revision has also been made to the graphic presentation as well as the text layout to help readers get more comfort and enjoyment in finishing each chapter of the book.

This book, like its first edition, is specifically written to serve as the main source for *Discourse Analysis* (IG 525) in the curriculum of English Education Studies in Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. However, this book may also be used as a supplementary, even complementary source for students of discourse analysis in English Language and Literature Studies. In addition, its comprehensive discussions on the implementation of the framework offered into various aspects of classroom activities may give benefits to students of teaching and research methodologies. At last, for teachers and classroom researchers, this book offers insights on how the

complexity of classroom life may be explicated and enlightened through a systematic and accurate description.

Parts of this book has been presented in various seminars and publications under different titles, among others: Classroom Discourse Analysis in Classroom Research (Suherdi, 1995), The Negotiation of Knowledge (Love and Suherdi, 1996), Focusing on the Teaching-Learning Processes (Suherdi, 1997), and Teaching-Learning Processes in Two Different Context: A Comparative Study of ESL/EFL Context (1999), Analisis Diskursus Sebagai Alat Refleksi terhadap PBM (Suherdi, 2000), Learner Language Analysis: A Systemiotic Perspective (Suherdi, 2005), and parts of doctoral dissertation data analysis (Suherdi, 2005). The papers and articles have been enthusiastically welcomed, and for the purpose of presenting the whole ideas in a compact yet comprehensive form, this book has been written.

For this edition, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to M. Mukhlis F. A. who has made all the efforts to make this book better-looking and more 'readable', and Celtics Press for their willingness to make the publication of this edition possible. My post-graduate students also deserve my gratitude for their enthusiasm in applying some of the perspectives proposed in the first edition of this book into their research projects.

Bandung, Indonesia

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Part I

INTRODUCTION TO SYSTEMIOTIC APPROACH TO CLASSROOM DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Part I

1

INTRODUCTION

Defining Discourse & Classroom Discourse

Definition is always useful in understanding the nature of a concept or an entity. For that reason, this book will softly begin with defining and understanding the nature of discourse. Unfortunately, as stated by Fairclough (1992) and many other discourse theorists, discourse is not easy to define, largely because it has been seen from many different, even conflicting and overlapping perspectives, ranging from a very linguistic-oriented to socio-political one. Koch (1965), for example, has the following to say: "Any sequence of sentences temporally or specially arranged in a way to suggest a whole will be considered to be a text. Any text (or part of a text) having manifestations of a particular theme in common will be considered to be a discourse," Widdowson (1984: 100) defines discourse as "a communicative process by means of interaction," and Gumperz (1977: 17) as "certain communication routines

which are viewed as distinct wholes, separate from other types of discourse, characterized by special rules of speech and non-verbal behavior, and often distinguished by clearly recognized openings and closings." In the meantime, Fairclough (1992) identified that in social theory and analysis, discourse has been used to refer to different ways of structuring areas of knowledge and social practice. In this perspective, discourse has been analyzed for its role as a tool of expressing ideologies, power, dominance, inequality, and bias (Van Dijk, 1998).

In linguistics, discourse has also been viewed in different perspectives. It, among others, has been used to refer to different types of language used in different sorts of social situations, such as newspaper discourse, advertising discourse, classroom discourse, the discourse of medical consultation (Faircluogh, 1992: 3). And, in systemic linguistics, especially in the systemiotic approach, discourse has been considered to be one of the three strata on the language plane in social interaction (Ventola, 1988, cf. Martin, 1992). To conclude the discussion, the criteria put forward by Van Dijk (1997) will be presented here to help clarify what and what is not a discourse: (1) it must be "language in use"; (2) it must involve the communication of beliefs; (3) it must be coupled with interaction, and (4) it must justify itself to other discourses. In other words, discourse must be authentic language, not invented one, in an interaction and communicate what the interlocutors think, believe, feel, want, etc. Still in this relation, Schiffrin (1994) emphasized that discourse must be a collection of inherently contextualized units of language use, and not merely a collection of de-contextualized units of language structure.

Taking these definitions to define classroom discourse, discourse will be defined as "certain communication routines in social interactions which manifest certain sociopolitical beliefs." It is in this sense that classroom discourse (which for the sake of simplicity will be abbreviated to CD) will be used throughout this book. To be specific, classroom discourse, in this book will be used to refer to one form of the realization of social interaction, i.e. classroom interaction. Hence, CD includes certain routines in classroom interactions based on certain sociopolitical, including pedagogical beliefs.

Discourse and Classroom Discourse Analysis

Based on the definition of discourse, discourse analysis (hence, DA) may simply be defined as the analysis of language in context. However, as Jorgensen and Phillips (2005) suggested, this simple statement begs two big questions, that is, "What is context?" and "Why do we bother?" To answer these questions, Jorgensen and Phillips give a concise explanation, part of which has been quoted and presented below.

> "Who we are and what we are doing , where we are doing it, what has already been said and done, as well as the knowledge and the assumptions that we assume we share with those with whom we are communicating, are all parts of context"

To the second question: "So, why do we bother?" Jorgensen and Phillips have the following to say:

> "Because context ultimately means the very shape, meaning, and effects of the social world—the various social roles people play, the socially and culturally situated identities they take on, the social and cultural activities they engage in, as well as the material, cognitive, social, cultural, and political effects of these."

Of course, though the definitions of context and the reason of including this concept in the analysis of language have been clearly discussed, the definition of DA is still far from being clear. In fact, it is difficult to find a single definition of DA. Some would rather see it as a way of approaching and thinking about a problem. However, it should be noted that DA does not provide absolute answers to a specific problem. What it can do is enabling us to understand the conditions behind a specific "problem" and making us realize that the essence of that problem and its resolution lies in its assumptions. By making the assumptions explicit, DA enables us to view the problem from a higher stance and gain a comprehensive view of the problem and of ourselves in relation to that problem.

To give a clear idea on how DA is conducted, Stubbs' (1983) definition will be presented here. Stubbs (1983: 1) defined DA as (1) concerned with language use beyond the boundaries of a sentence/utterance, (2) concerned with the interrelationship between language and society, and (3) concerned with the interactive or dialogic properties of everyday communication. To

be more specific, as listed by Demo (2001), DA involves looking at both language forms and language functions and includes the study of both spoken interaction and written texts. It identifies linguistic features that characterize different genres as well as social and cultural factors that aid in our interpretation and understanding of different texts and types of talk.

Many approaches that have been used to conduct DA, among others, discursive psychology, critical discourse analysis, conversation analysis, and sociolinguistics (MacMillan, at http://www.lboro.ac.uk/ research/methods /resources/links/da_primer.html), speech act theory, ethnography of communication, pragmatics, and variation analysis (Demo, 2001). In conjunction with this book's objectives, two of the approaches are of much relevance, and therefore will be elaborated further in the following section, i.e. critical discourse analysis and conversation analysis.

Critical discourse analysis takes social conditions as its main concern. It is concerned with "understanding the nature of power and dominance and how discourse contributes to their production" (Van Dijk, 2001: 301-2). In other words, it is concerned with studying and analyzing written text and spoken words to reveal discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality, and bias and how these sources are initiated, maintained, reproduced, and transformed within specific social, economic, political, and historical contexts (Van Dijk, 1998: 128). To be more elaborated, CDA is aimed at systematically exploring often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events, and texts, and wider social and cultural structures, relations, and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and exploring how the opacity of these

relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony (Fairclough, 1993: 135).

In the meantime, conversational analysis, developed from pioneering works of Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (Potter, 1996), examines the methods people use to make sense of their everyday social world through the examinations of the minutiae of naturally occurring conversations represented in verbatim transcripts (Potter and Wetherell, 1987). Work in the area has been focused on spontaneous talk which takes place in naturally occurring social situations, and also talk in various institutional settings, such as courtrooms, doctors' surgeries and news interviews, where the interaction is more agenda-driven (Wray, Trott, and Bloomer, 1998: 54).

Based on the definitions discussed above, classroom discourse analysis (hence CIDA, in stead of CDA which has already been widely used to refer to critical discourse analysis) will take CA as the root of its development. The reason for this decision is quite simple that CA is most relevant to CIDA in many ways, among others the major part of educational process is "conversation" between teachers and students. In addition, basic practical understanding of CA is useful for producing a high quality DA. Potter (1996) even put it as a prerequisite for good DA works.

Why studying CD?

Studying CD is important for language education students for many reasons. First, as has been highlighted by Stubbs (1976) that "ultimately, the classroom dialogue between teachers and pupils *is* the educational process, or, at least, the major part of it." (1976: 68). For Stubbs, other factors such as children's language, IQ,

social class and home background, however important they may be as contributing factors, are nevertheless external, background influences. Hence, understanding CD is a key to their success in understanding education in action.

Another significant reason for studying CD, as will be shown throughout this book, is the revealing power by which the intricacy of meaning that is hidden behind teaching practices is readily understandable. Through this analysis, the values of certain teacher-student patterns of interaction, teachers' choice of language varieties and learning content in a teaching endeavor will be easily identified and interpreted.

The most important reason for studying CD is its level of accuracy in describing classroom activities. In this relation, the result of Chaudron's (1988a) study gives empirical evidence. Chaudron (1988a: 13) compared a number of interaction and discourse system of analysis which attempted to describe classroom events, in this case those of Moskowitz' (1971) and Fanselow's (1977) to represent interaction systems, and Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) to represent discourse systems. He found that discourse analysis provided the most detailed description of the language functions. This advantage, according to Chaudron, arises partly because "the discourse analysis approach tends to describe each new shift in function, even within the segments of the discourse, whether utterances or turns. "Also discourse analysis hierarchically groups the lower scales into the higher ones. In contrast, the other approaches to analysis, as Chaudron identified, "cannot account for such hierarchical structure in classroom interaction." (1988a: 15).

Efforts in Analyzing Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse has been approached in many ways in recent literature. Flanders (1970), for example, used an "introspective" a priori approach (Flowerdew, 1990 as cited by Love, 1991: 31); Mehan (1979) and Erickson and associates (1981 and 1982) used an educational ethnography (Van Lier, 1988: 60), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and subsequent works based on it used an interactional, functional approach.

Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) work has been seminal and widely adopted, adapted, and further developed to accommodate various phenomena in a variety of teaching learning situations. This may be partly because of the "pioneering way in which it draws attention to systemic organizational properties of dialogue and provides ways of describing them" (Fairclough, 1992: 15) with progressively greater precision (Larsen-Freeman, 1980: 19). In addition, compared to that Flander's, it allows for more complex analysis of CD (Love, 1991: 3). These, at least in systemic tradition, put Sinclair and Coulthard's work in the center of many similar studies.

Further review of the work shows, however, that when applied to more informal classroom situations, Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system and its various adaptation such as Coulthard and Brazil's (1981) and Stubbs (1981) appear to be inappropriate. This is mainly due to their failure to distinguish what Labov (1972) called A-events, in which the first interactant is also the Primary Knower; and B-events in which the first interactant is the Secondary Knower. In more informal classroom interaction, this A/B-event distinction is essential. In such interaction, the occasions in which the students serve the function of the Primary Knower might occur

in significant number (for more the tailed explanation of A- and B-events, and the Primary and Secondary Knower, see page 19-20 of this book).

In addition, Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system and its various adaptations seem to have been developed only to account for synoptic moves. It is not equipped with any tools to deal with the dynamic moves (to be explained later). This has rendered it less than complete. In other words, some system which describes these dynamic moves is required. For example, in classroom situation where there is no response from the students or when there is a misunderstanding, many dynamic moves will be inevitable. The interaction between the teacher and the student does not always flow in a predicted, synoptic way. At times, the flow of interaction goes off the track, or otherwise is stuck at a certain stage on the track. When this happens, some unpredicted, dynamic moves are required to get the flow back to the expected track or sustain the flow of discourse. In some classroom situations, the incorporation of the dynamic moves is inevitable.

In the aforementioned classroom interactions, for example, where interaction is by no means neat and linier, handling these kinds of moves and recognizing the distinction of A- and B-events as well as the synoptic moves are essential if an appropriate analysis is being aimed at. Possible problems in analyzing those kinds of interaction have been highlighted and efforts on dealing with these dynamic moves have been initiated by some discourse analysis proponents, for examples, Coulthard and Brazil (1981), Stubbs (1981) and Ventola (1987, 1988a, b) which have been mainly based on the work of Berry (1981a, b, c) and Martin (1985).

To provide a concise introduction to the significance of dynamic moves that will be one of the main foci of this book, an explanation on some points in the development of CD, from Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) conception to the one presented in this book, will be discussed in the following section.

Sinclair and Coulthard's Framework of Analysis

The Rules

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) has provided useful basis for discourse analysis, CD in particular. They developed a comprehensive system of analysis treating CD as comprising five ranks, namely: lesson transaction, exchange, move, and act. To help clarify the hierarchy, a diagram adapted from their work is presented in Figure 1.1.
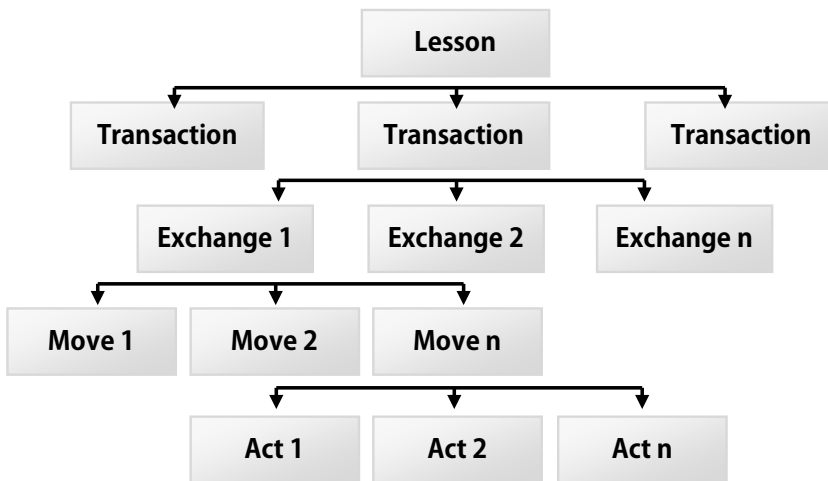
◀ **Figure 1.1** ◣ Structure of Classroom Discourse
(Adapted from Sinclair and Coulthard (1975)

As shown by the diagram, a lesson typically consists of an unordered series of transactions, whereas a transaction normally consists of several exchanges, which manifest in three elements of structure, i.e. preliminary, medial, and terminal. Exchanges which realize preliminary and terminal elements are selected from the same move called Boundary, whereas those which realize the medial element are a class of exchange called Teaching. Hence, there are two major classes of exchanges, Boundary and Teaching. The former functions to signal the beginning or end of what the teacher considers to be a stage in the lesson: the latter comprises the individual steps by which the lesson progresses.

The Boundary exchanges consists of two moves, framing and focusing. The two moves often occur together. However, the framing move frequently occurs on its own, the focusing move does so only rarely.

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The Teaching exchange comprises eleven sub-categories, six of which are Free and five Bound. The function of bound exchanges is fixed because they either have no initiating move, or have initiating move without a head, which simply serves to reiterate the head of the preceding free initiation.

The free sub-categories include: Teacher-Inform, Teacher-Direct, Teacher-Elicit, Pupil-Elicit, Pupil-Inform, and (Teacher) Check. And the bound sub-categories comprise: Re-initiation (i), Re-initiation (ii), Listing, Reinforce, and Repeat. (For a more detailed account, see Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: p. 49-56). In the next lower ranks come moves and acts. There are five classes of moves, which realize the two major classes of exchange (Boundary and Teaching), namely: Framing and focusing which realize boundary, and Opening, Answering, and Following-up moves which realize teaching exchanges.

Acts are the lowest rank units in Sinclair and Coulthard's system of analysis. There are three major acts which probably occur in all form of spoken discourse, namely: elicitation, directive, and informative. They appear in CD as the heads of initiation moves. An elicitation is an act which functions to request a linguistics response.

A directive is an act which functions to request a non-linguistics response. And an informative is an act which function to pass on ideas, facts, opinions, information and to which the appropriate response is simply an acknowledgement that one is listening. To exemplify, some portion of analyzed texts drawn from Sinclair and Coulthard presented in Figure 1.2.

Type of exchange	Opening	Answering	Follow-up
Elicit	What about this one. (s) This I think, is a super one. (s) Isabel, can you think what in means? (el<n>)	Does it mean there's been an accident further along the road? (rep)	No. (3) (rep)
Re-Initiate		Does it mean a double bend ahead? (rep)	No. (3) (e)
Re-Initiate	Look at the car. (cl)	Er Slippery roads? (rep)	Yes. (i) (e) it means 'be careful' because the road very slippery. (com)

◂ **Figure 1.2** ▸ Example of Analyzed Text Using Sinclair and Coulthard's Framework of Analysis

Some little modification in the form of the chart has been made to suit the room available. In Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) chart, the acts labels are placed in columns next to each move column.

Before concluding, one major point needs to be emphasized, i.e. that in this Sinclair and Coulthard's version of exchange structure, each move class can only occur once (Coulthard and Brazil, 1981): however, as Coulthard and Brazil identified, it has now been claimed that two informing moves can also co-occur (p. 101). Hence, a further effort is needed to help explain this. In this relation, Coulthard and Brazil's (1981) work might be very helpful to pursue the development of exchange structuring. And for this book's convenience, the following discussions will be mainly focused on exchange structure and various approaches towards exchange structuring.

Some Problems

Exploring some different kinds of data, Coulthard and Brazil identified some problematic points in exchange structuring system proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). This has been evolving around the fact that in some cases, it is not unproblematic to distinguish in the first place between eliciting and informing, and between initiations and replies. To exemplify, they cited an example drawn from Sinclair and Coulthard (1975):

T   :   can anyone tell me what this <u>means</u>
P   :   does it mean danger men at <u>work</u>
T   :   Yes

Using two criteria of predicting/predicted nature of a contribution, they argue that the pupil's (P) contribution in the example is to be included to the fourth element of exchange structure (?) as shown in this following matrix:

		Predicting	Predicted
1.	Initiation	Yes	No
2.	Response	No	Yes
3.	Follow-up	No	No
4.	?	Yes	Yes

Such kind of contribution is not uncommon in normal discourse. In fact, in Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) texts they are significant in number (see also the portion of Sinclair and Coulthard's analyzed text cited above). As shown in the chart, Sinclair and Coulthard treated them as replies. Thus belong to answering/response moves in the matrix. To Coulthard and Brazil, contribution is predicting as well as predicted. They argued that the move is more a kind of *elicit*, than a kind of *inform*. Thus, for them it is an initiation, and definitely not a reply. In this regard, they proposed 'R/I' in stead of only 'I' to label the contribution. To support their argument they effectively drew an analogy in the grammar where phased predicators (citing Sinclair, 1972) are frequently separated by an element, of clause structure that 'faces both ways', that is, standing as object to the first predicator and a subject to the second (p. 98):

Let him go

For the same reason, that 'him' in the example is labeled O/S, object/subject, they proposed the label.

To sum up, one of the examples presented by Coulthard in Brazil, together with the feature coding is cited here:

I	:e1	: where's the typewriter
R/I	:e2	: it in the cupboard
R	:i2	: no
F	:ack	: oh dear
F	:ack	: yeah

From the discussion above, some important points are worth noting as far as this book is concerned. First, Coulthard and Brazil argued that exchange is the unit concerned with negotiating the transmission of information and that will contain an informing move at I or R, and that the exchange only carries on (potentially complex) piece of information and its polarity, and that the information and the polarity can only be asserted once.

Second, with regard to the possibility of exchange 'structure extension, they proposed I (R/I) R (F) (F) (as exemplified by the example above) as the largest exchange, though as they admitted, instances of such exchange are very rare. And the third, they used intonation features as a means of identifying the category of each contribution. They mentioned the following tone units, each of which attaches additional meaning to the matter of the tone unit that can be glossed at the most general level as high key (contrastive), mid key (additive), and low key (equative). Further development was proposed by Stubbs (1981). He identified some possible problems in Coulthard and Brazil's formulation due to the lack of identification of the nature of 'I' in 'R/I' (as opposed to 'I'). In this regard, he proposed an alternative to specify initial/non-initial (± initial), in addition to predicting/non-predicting (± predicting) and predicted/non-predicted (± predicted) (p. 113). Hence, the matrix can be represented as:

		Predicting	Terminal	Predicted	Initial
1	I	+	(-)	-	+
2	R	-		+	(-)
3	F	-		-	-
4	R/I	+	(-)	+	(-)

Besides, he also adds two possible elements to the matrix (7, 8) as shown in the matrix below.

Possibilities 5 and 6, he clarified, are logically contradictory: as utterance be both initial and predicted. Possibilities 7 could define as an *inform*, as in lecturing, where no R is expected: this would allow one-part, non-interactive exchanges. Possibility 8 could be defined as a non-initial initiation: 'Ir' or re-initiation.

		Predicting	Terminal	Predicted	Initial
5	*	+	(-)	+	+
6	*	-		+	+
7	inf	-		-	+
8	Ir	+	(-)	-	-

Based on this matrix, he managed to generate other exchange structures and came to three basic structures: [Inf], [I R], and [I R/I R], out of which some extended structures can be developed by imparting any number of Ir R pairs and any number of Fs into the basic structures. To exemplify, some of the extended structures are presented here:

[inf (F^n)]

[I R (F^n)]

[I R/I R (F^n)]

[I R/I^n R (F^n)]

[Inf Ir R]

[I R Ir R]

[I R/I R Ir R]

A caution, as given in Stubbs's concluding comments, needs to be presented here: the applicability of the kinds of exchange structure models proposed above needs to be explored. For example, its applicability in relation to different social situations in which some instances of discourse is developed.

Berry's Framework of Analysis

Like Coulthard and Brazil's, and Stubbs', Berry's (1981) contribution to the development of analysis system of discourse and classroom discourse based on the Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) is also very significant. For that reason, a glance of introduction to her model will be presented here, and a comprehensive discussion will be presented later in Chapter 2.

Berry has seen the systems proposed by Coulthard and Brazil and by Stubbs (she refers to Coulthard and Brazil, 1979 and Stubbs, 1979 concerning the same topics), as well as that of Burton (1978), as greatly different from one another, in spite of the fact that they have been developed out of the same root,

i.e. that of Sinclair and Coulthard. Instead of choosing one of the available systems, following Halliday, she proposed a multilayered approach.

She argued that the aims of the discourse studies are twofold: to describe texts in such a way as to be able to say something worthwhile about the individual texts; and to work towards a theory of discourse.

With regard to the first aim, she argued that when one is describing texts one whishes to be able to compare the texts or bits of texts in such a way as to be able to show similarities and differences. And an account of discourse structure based on a single linear structure for each unit, she argued, doesn't allow one to take account of enough similarities and differences. When coding, she maintained, one finds oneself forced to code in the same way things which one intuitively feels to be different and to code as different things which one intuitively feels to be the same (p. 121).

In connection with the second aim, she tried to develop a system that could predict the distribution of surface forms, to generate 'grammatical' forms of discourse and to block 'ungrammatical' forms (p. 122). Again, to her, an approach based on a single linear structure seems to be too limited and limiting to enable one to carry out this aim successfully. She identified that a major defect lies on the inappropriate way of showing that an element is obligatory under certain circumstances, optional under others, and of specifying under relevant circumstances.

In this regard, she proposed an approach that takes into account three layers: interpersonal, textual, and ideational (this

has been based on Halliday's three functions of the structure of information (p. 126). She identified two major parties which are always present in that activity, i.e. the primary knower (someone who already knows the information and secondary knower someone to whom the information is imparted).

Based on the two terms, she came to proposing four functions:

K1   for the admission of knowledge of the information by the primary knower and the consequent stamping of the information with primary knower's authority.

K2   for the secondary knower's indication of the state of his own knowledge in relation to the information.

DK1 for delaying K1

K2f   for following up K2

To exemplify, one of the examples given by Berry is presented here:

Quizmaster   : In England, which cathedral has the tallest spire
Contestant   : Is it Salisbury
Quizmaster   : Yes
Contestant   : oh

In the example, quizmaster is the primary knower, and the contestant, of course, the secondary. The primary knower in this example did not do K1 in the first slot; rather he/she did DK1 to allow the secondary knower to do K2. Only after the secondary

knower did K2; did the primary knower do K1 which was then followed by the secondary knower did the K2f.

If in developing the interpersonal layer, she managed to reflect the view of discourse as knowers' transmitting and receiving information, in developing the textual layer, she tried to reflect the view of discourse as speakers' taking turns (p. 131). Based on such view, she maintained that there must be at least one speaker and this speaker must make at least one contribution to the exchange. She labeled the first contribution of the first speaker <u>ai</u>, and underlined it to show that it is obligatory. In addition, she labeled the first contribution of the second speaker bi; and as it is not obligatory, she did not underline it. To exemplify, using the same example above we can have:

DK1	K2	K1	kf
ai	bi	aii	bii

In the example, we can see that the first speaker was the primary knower, and the second speaker was the secondary knower. The first slot shows ai, the second slot shows bi, the third shows aii, and the fourth shows bii.

In the two layers above, the knowers of the information and the speakers of the information have been discussed. The last layer of Berry's approach to exchange structure is the ideational, which is concerned with the information itself.

In this respect, she suggested that the minimum amount of information for an exchange is a completed proposition. This

completed proposition might be presented straight away by the first speaker, or be left to the second speaker to complete the proposition (p. 139-40). Exploring various possible functions at this layer, she came to the following:

pb   for propositional base, i.e. providing a basis for completed proposition by predicting the form of the completed proposition.

pc   for propositional completion, i.e. completing the proposition.

ps   for propositional support, i.e. supporting the proposition completed.

Again, to exemplify, the example cited above will be used. Using this layer to complete the representation of the exchange structure of the example, we can have:

DK1	K2	K1	K2f
pb	pc	ps	
ai	bi	aii	bii

In the example, the first speaker provided a pb for the second speaker to complete the proposition, pc. As pc is predicted, when it is successfully completed, the first speaker provide a ps to support the proposition.

To sum up, suffice it to say that the two aims mentioned earlier have successfully been achieved. From the point of view of coding

texts, she claimed to have been able to show more similarities and more differences between the exchanges of the texts than that would have been possible with an approach based on a single linear structure (p. 144). Moreover, she has been able to show the similarities and the differences at the same time. The following examples given by Berry might help clarify the statement:

Quizmaster : in England, which cathedral has the tallest Spire	DK1	pb	ai
Contestant : is it Salisbury	K2	pc	bi
Quiszmaster : yes	K1	ps	aii

And

Son : which English cathedral has the tallest	K2	pb	ai
spire			
Father : salisbury	K1	pc	bi
Son : oh	K2f		aii

From the point of view of constructing a theory of discourse, she claimed to have been able to predict the obligatoriness of all elements which must occur if an exchange is to be well-formed (p. 145). The last example presented above might also help exemplify the claim.

Other Framework of Analysis

To provide a balanced information on the framework of analysis available in the market, a discussion and relevant illustration of Fanselow's (1977) FOCUS and Allen, Frohlich and Spada's (1983) COLT will be outlined here.

Fanselow (1977 as cited by Larsen-Freeman, 1980) developed a descriptive, non-judgemental framework in his study. His system, called FOCUS (Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings) distinguishes five characteristics of classroom communication: the source, the medium, the use, the content, and the pedagogical purpose. The source is concerned with who communicates---the teacher, the students. The medium is the means of conveying the messages. It can be linguistic, paralinguistic, or nonlinguistic. Use may be to present, to relate, to represent, to characterize content, or to attend to content. The content may be about language, life, classroom procedure, or subject matter. The pedagogical purpose of the communication may be to structure, to solicit, to respond or to react (p. 24).

FOCUS's emphasis on the pedagogic structure of classroom discourse and specifically being developed for describing language-learning classroom are noteworthy, as far as this book is concerned. To provide a comprehensive idea of how the framework is put into practice of coding a classroom communication, some portion of analyzed text, taken from Fanselow's, as cited by Larsen-Freeman (p. 26-7) is presented below.

COMMUNICATION CODED WITH FOCUS

Setting: An Intermediate Language Classroom: Student are seated in row: Here are some excerpts from lessons	Five characteristics of Comm.				
	Sc	Ped. Purp.	Med.	Use	Cont.
1. Read this passage silently	t	sol	lat	pres: Language state + life	
Was Truman from Texas?					
No, Missouri	s	res	lv	attend lan + life	
What about Eisenhower?	t	sol	lv		
He was from Texas	s	res	la	pres: Lan: gr ques	
(Student read passage silently)					
2. What part of speech is from?	t	sol	la	char: Lan: gr label	
A preposition	s	rea	po	char: Lan: gr label	
(teacher shakes student's hand)	t	sol	la	char: Lan: gr ques	
3. Is about a preposition too?	t	res	la	char: Lan: gr label	
Yes					
Good question---glad you ask Question	t	rea	la	char: Proc evaluate	
	s	sol	la	pres: life ques	
4. Where was Jhonson from?					

For the sake of conciseness, this discussion will be concluded by presenting Larsen-Freeman's comment on the overall features of the framework is worth noting. The system of analysis, she noted, allows us to see "what teachers and students actually do, compare lessons, methods or different schools of language teaching or see the relationship between what was done and the teacher's intentions". (Larsen-Freeman, 1980: 25).

The second work of discourse analysis in ESL classroom worth reviewing is that of Allwright (1980). He developed a system of analysis which involved three types of analysis, i.e. turn-taking, topic and task. In addition, at a macro level of analysis, he described what happens in language classrooms in terms of three basic elements: samples, i.e. instances of communication concerning the nature of target language, in isolation or in use: guidance, i.e. instances of communication concerning the nature of the target language; and management activities, aimed at ensuring the profitable occurrence of the two elements mentioned earlier.

With regard to turn-taking analysis, Allwright proposed twelve analytical categories, eight for turn-getting, and four for turn-giving. The former, i.e. turn-getting includes (p. 168-9):

1.	Accept	Respond to a personal solicit
2.	Steal	Respond to a personal solicit made to another
3.	Take	Respond to a general solicit
4.	Take	Take an unsolicited turn, when a turn is a available--- "discourse maintenance"
5.	Make	Make an unsolicited turn, during the current speaker's turn, without intent to gain the floor (e.g. comment's that indicate one is paying attention).
6.	Make	Start a turn, during that of the current speaker, with intent to gain the floor (e.g. interrupt, make takeover bid).

7.	Make	Take a wholly private turn at any point in the discourse (e.g. a private rehearsal, for pronunciation practice, of word spoken by teacher)
8.	Miss	Fail to respond to a personal solicit, within whatever time is allowed by the interlocutors

And the letter, i.e. turn-giving, comprises:

--   Fade out and/or give way to an interruption.

D   Make a turn available without making either a personal or general solicit (e.g. by simply concluding one's utterance with the appropriate terminal intonation markers).

P   Make a personal solicit (i.e. nominate the text speaker).

G   Make a general solicit.

In connection with topic analysis, he proposed the following categories (p.174):

M   Instances of the target language intended primarily (if not exclusively) as "models" (hence the M). The most obvious example would be something said by the teacher, to be in imitated by a learner. The learner's reply, if an imitation, would also be coded M.

I   Instances of communication concerned primarily (if not exclusively) with information (hence the I) about the target language and/or about instances of it (i.e., M's).

P   Instances of communication concerned primarily (if not exclusively) with pedagogical/procedural matters.

O   Any other (O) use language or nonverbal communication e.g. to discuss traffic problems in the target language for conversation practice.

In the mean time, the topic analysis was aimed to identify the interactive aspect of tasks. It may include the following: how what people do in discourse sets a task for other participants; how simply stopping sets a task, implicitly, for someone to do some 'discourse maintenance' for example: how setting a task often involves making a personal solicit but how the receiver of such a solicit can choose either to accept or to reject the turn itself, and in this case of "accept", to choose separately to accept or reject the task involved (p. 178).

In practice, instances of each category was identified and then counted and presented in numerical form in terms of the number of occurance and its percentage. Tables were used to present the scores.

Applying this framework to two parallel UCLA low-level ESL classes, in commenting on the data of an individual learner, he claimed to be able to obtain a different sort of picture of the individual's behavior. He identified that the individual's success

in getting turn one after the other seemed to depend more on an inability to make himself understood than on any ability to develop a topic. And this was considered to be more productive or the 'audience' than for the sake of the individual. This clearly is interesting, as far as ESL classroom discourse analysis is concerned. It might be even more interesting, considering that another student, a girl from Iran, who had only four turns during the class hour discussed, was ranked eight (out of ten) for verbal fluency at entry, eight for frequency of contributions throughout the course, and ninth for willingness to volunteer contributions, but was ranked first for progress.

Allen, Frohlich and Spada's (1983) work is also worth reviewing for its specific focus on second language classroom discourse. Within the context of a five-year project, they developed a scheme called COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching). This had been aimed to look at a number of questions related to the nature of language proficiency, and its development in educational context for children learning a second language (p. 4).

The COLT observation scheme was divided into two parts. Part A describes classroom events at the level of activity, and part B analyzes the communicative features of verbal exchanges between teachers and students as they occur within each activity (p. 5). Each activity was described with reference to five distinct parameters (5-11):

I.	Activity type	This parameter was open-ended, that is, no pre-determined descriptors have to be checked off by the observer (e.g. the teacher reads the words of a song aloud).
II.	Participant organization	This parameter describes three basic patterns of organization for classroom interactions: whole class, group work, and group and individual work.
III.	Content	This describes the subject matter of activities, that is, what the teacher and student talking, reading, or writing about or what they are listening to. Three major content areas have been differentiated: Management, Language, and Other Topics.
IV.	Student Modality	This section identifies the various skill which may be involved in a classroom activity, i.e. (for students) listening, speaking, reading or writing or in combination.
V.	Materials	This introduces categories to describe the materials used in connection with classroom activities (e.g. written, audio, visual).

The second part of the COLT observation scheme consisted of an analysis of the communicative features occurring within each activity. Seven communicative features had been isolated (p. 11-14).

I. *Use the target language* This feature is designed to measure the extent to which the target language is used in the classroom.

II.   *Information gap*   This feature refers to the extent to which the information requested and/or exchanged is unpredictable, that is not known in advance.

III.   *Sustained speech*   This feature is intended to measure the extent to which speakers engage in extended discourse, or restrict their utterance to a minimal length of one sentence, clause or word (Ultra-minimal, minimal, or sustained)

IV.   *Reaction to code or message*   This feature is intended to identify whether the purpose of an exchange is to focus on this language code (that is, grammatical correctness) or on the message, or meaning, being conveyed.

V.   *Incorporation of preceeding utterances* This is intended to identify participant's reactions to preceeding utterances. Six categories have been established: no incorporation, repetition, paraphrase, comment, expansion, and elaboration.

VI.   *Discourse initiation* This is developed to identify students self initiated turns.

VII.   *Relative restriction of linguistic form*   This is intended to identify the effect of different degrees of restriction on the development of L2 proficiency. Three subcategories have been posed: restricted use, limited restriction, and unrestricted use.

Using the scheme to analyze the data from an investigation of characteristics of two different second language classrooms, i. e.

ESL and FSL (French as a second language), Allwright was able to present a detailed description of the similarities and differences in terms of the seven communicative features found in the two types of classrooms.

The whole finding was summarized as follows:

"It would appear that even with the data that represent only one and a half hours of coding, differences are beginning to emerge between these two classes at the exchange level of analysis. The teacher's input in the ESL class appears to be more varied, containing a higher level of information gap, more instances of sustained speech, and a greater number of expansions and elaborations than the ESL teacher's speech. Similarly the student's output in the ESL class appears to be more varied, containing fewer restrictions in term of form, a higher level of information gap, and more instances of sustained speech that the FSL data". (p.17)

While the investigation was still in the pre-pilot phase, and mainly aimed to test the scheme to differentiate between various methodological approaches, it is clear that significant features of the classroom in terms of the characteristics of discourse have been effectively revealed. Hence, discussion on relevant framework of analysis and its applicability in revealing types of interaction is not only valuable, but also exciting.

The Organization of this Book

The main objective of the writing of this book is presenting some introductory discussions of classroom discourse analysis and its role in understanding classroom and its settings and events. This kind of knowledge has been made compulsory to be presented to stratum 1 (undergraduate) students in Indonesian English Education Studies. This book begins with the presentation of some definition of discourse, discourse analysis, and classroom discourse analysis. Then a discussion of significance of and approaches to classroom discourse analysis follow. In Chapter 2, some alternative systems of classroom discourse analysis are explored, and an argument for the need of more flexible system is justified.

Chapter 3 and 4 present the alternative framework of analysis that I have developed in an attempt at providing a tool that can cope with more dynamic interaction patterns. Chapter 5-10 is deal with actual examples of the use of the framework in analyzing the characteristics of a language classroom discourse, in this case an adult migrant low-level ESL class learning writing through a genre-based approach in an Australian context; the application of the result of the analysis in understanding power shift between teachers and students, in identifying the interaction patterns in different structures of teaching-learning process, different use of language by the teacher, and students' language characteristics; and mapping different interaction patterns in ESL and EFL contexts. Chapter 11 concludes this book with some conclusions and possible use of classroom discourse analysis in reflective teaching.

Clasroom
Discourse Analysis