Journal of Modern Research in English Language Studies ISSN: 2676-5357
Vol. 6, No. 1, 2019, 51-78

Appraising Discourse Content of EFL Classrooms through the Lens of Bakhtin's Dialogic Discourse Pattern

Fatemeh Niknezhad Naeijabad[1], MohammadReza Khodareza[2*], Davood Mashhadi Heidar[3]

[1,] PhD ,Department of English, Tonekabon Branch ,Islamic Azad University,Tonekabon,Iran, *niknezhadfatemeh@yahoo.com*
[2*,] Assistant Professor,Department of English, Tonekabon Branch ,Islamic Azad University,Tonekabon,Iran, *ma.weekly2012@gmail.com*
[3,] Assistant Professor,Department of English, Tonekabon Branch ,Islamic Azad University,Tonekabon,Iran, *davoodm_tarbiatmodares@yahoo.com*

Abstract

This study aims at appraising the discourse exchanges of English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and learners from a critical standpoint to explore whether the turn-taking structures are dialogical in essence. To this end, the discourse exchanges of 12 classrooms were observed and digitally audiotaped during class interactions. At the same time, notes were taken and checklists were filled out to capture contextual features. The functions of each interaction were transcribed verbatim and then coded to uncover the initiation-response-feedback (IRF) patterns. The functions were identified by counting the number of occurrence of initiation move functions, type of elicitations, and follow-up move functions. The Chi-square tests, followed by a complementary interpretive approach, were run to determine the distribution of the IRF patterns and to analyze the class interactions. The findings indicated that the least frequent initiation move function was nominating and most frequent move function was in the form of display questions by the students. Additionally, teachers exposed a tendency toward closed and managerial questions in the classrooms. The teachers employed their follow-up moves to repeat, accept, and correct among the students in classrooms. This makes no room for the students to voice their ideas, to foster critical reflection, and to encourage transformative mode in a classroom. The findings suggest that dialogic teaching can involve learners in collaborative dialogue and empower them to be reflective learners.

Keywords: Dialogic Discourse Pattern, Dialogic Teaching, Discourse Content, IRF, Monologic Discourse

Received 28 April 2019	Accepted 23 June 2019
Available online 01 August 2019	DOI: 10.30479/jmrels.2019.10554.1322

1. Introduction

The emergence of different methods in a second language (L2) acquisition aims to facilitate and promote the learning process. Traditionally, teachers are supposed to be unquestioned authorities, decision makers, and knowledgeable individuals in a class who transmit information to the students without a questioning manner, and students are assumed to be passive recipients and consumers of given information (Freire, 1970). Current trends in language teaching seem to experience a critical turn toward the role of language, learning, teachers, and learners. In Kumaravadivelu's (2006) term, this critical shift recognizes language as an ideology than a system. It realizes language teaching and learning more than learning and teaching a language. In other words, it extends an educational setting to the social, political, and cultural dynamics of learning. While the main tenets of conventional education are to bring designated information to the mind of passive learners, a number of critical approaches as the progeny of post-method in language teaching, deeply rooted in Marxist approach and Frankfurt School, considered a paradigm shift in the assumed role for teachers and students (Giroux, 1988). The critical theories in language teaching gave prominence to learners' empowerment, critical consciousness, conscientization, and dialogism (Giroux, 1988; Kincheloe, 2005; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). From a critical perspective, the term authority implies a shared power between teachers and students. Teachers are likely to be what Giroux and McLaren (1996) described as transformative intellectuals who combine "scholarly reflection and practice in the service of educating students to be thoughtful, active citizens" (Giroux, 1988, p. 122). Students are active agents whose viewpoints are underscored through dialogue and discussion (McLaren, 2003). The upholders of critical theory (Freire, 1970; Kincheloe, 2005; Morgan, 1998; Shor, 2012) encourage learners to act in a questioning manner, to construct their own understanding, to be independent, and to develop their full potentialities in classroom milieu.

Informed by the tenets of critical theorists, knowledge is no more realized as passive information. In fact, it is gradually constructed in interaction through a dynamic nature (Mortimer & Scott, 2003). Cazden and Beck (2003) posit that dynamic nature helps students collaboratively construct meaning in critical discourses and dialogical interactions. The dialogic teaching approach rooted in Bahktin's (1981) concept of dialogism is based on such teacher-student communication, in which higher forms of cognitive processes are dominant on the students' part. Students in this kind of teaching are actively engaged, endowed with high levels of autonomy and empowered to influence the development of the classroom discussion to a certain degree. Discourse is a matter of the oral use of language in an instructional setting which can encourage interaction or what Bakhtin (1981)

called a "responsive understanding" (p. 279). Bakhtin described instructional discourse patterns in two terms of *dialogic* and *monologic* discourse. From this perspective, a classroom discourse is monologic when the main speaker, typically the teacher, perform a prior script. It is often controlled by one individual, albeit two or more persons participate. By contrast, a dialogic discourse encourages the participants to develop or change the contributions of the peers as one voice "refracts" another.

For Bakhtin (1981), dialogic teaching encourages learners' voices, values, and perspectives. Bakhtin postulates that knowledge is not in an individual mind, but it is built by engaging participants in a critical interaction. From a Bakhtinian perspective, an interaction is dialogic when both teachers and students have the authority and the autonomy to voice their ideas. This perspective was supported by Freire (1970) who addressed that the dialogic discourse can be created by discussing learners' real-life concern to raise their critical awareness. Woods (2014) outlined L2 learners' role in a dialogic classroom. Woods maintained that learners initiate a conversation and engage in a discussion to pose reflective questions. Accordingly, within the framework of dialogic teaching, a teacher expects to work as a director, to control learners' discussion, and to authorize students for sharing their knowledge through interaction. Likewise, Shor (2012) believed that a teacher in a dialogic classroom makes use of learners' knowledge to commence the discussion and introduce deeper levels of knowledge.

Drawing on Bakhtin's (1984) conceptualization of classroom discourse, monologic and dialogic patterns are considered the opposing poles of teachers' discourse continuum. Analyzing discourse content in language classrooms and examining the nature of teacher and student interactions can be promising on how language is used, and what kind of input and interaction affect language learning process (Chappell, 2014; Cullen, 2002, Nystrand, et al., 2010). Recently, numerous studies have been conducted into the quality of classroom interactions which delve into a number of issues comprising teacher talk (Thornbury, 1996), conversation analysis (Seedhouse, 2005), turn allocation patterns (Xie, 2010), reflective discourse analysis (Anderson, 2017), L2 interactional competence (Hall, 2018) to name but a few. A sizable body of researches (Alexander, 2008; Nystrand, 1997; Scott, Mortimer & Aguiar, 2006) suggests that the acquisition of useful knowledge is linked to the quality of classroom interaction because students are provided with various inputs, discourses, and interactions in the classrooms (Maftoon & Rezai, 2013). Investigating the nature of discourse content from a critical perspective can yield promising results; particularly the application of Bakhtin's dialogic discourse pattern (DDP) in EFL classrooms can uncover how EFL students actively construct new knowledge. To date, only a few studies (Ahmadi, 2017; Cazden, 2001, Hemati & Valadi, 2017; Sedova,

2017) have been carried out to appraise the discourse contents of EFL classrooms. What is particularly novel in this study is appraising 12 classroom interactions adopting Bakhtin's instructional discourse pattern. To address this gap in research, both teachers' and students' naturally occurring interactions in EFL classrooms were observed and audiotaped with a hope to explore if the interactions follow or violate the principles of DDP. To undertake the study, a qualitative research method was adopted. More specifically, a Non-experimental observational approach was employed to probe the classroom interactions. In the educational research, one of the most common uses of direct observation is the study of classroom observation to determine the extent to which a particular behavior(s) is present (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen & Walker, 2013).

Given the pivotal role of teachers and students in classrooms and the importance of classroom spoken discourse features in the learning process, analyzing teachers' and students' interactions can provide insightful information on what type of interaction promotes learning outcome and how learners construct new knowledge (Seedhouse, 2005; Walsh, 2011). One pedagogical advantage of investigating classroom spoken discourse features would be determining whether or not the current classroom discourse provides students with critical awareness to transform knowledge and to engage students in a cooperative dialogue. Notably, changing a classroom discourse into a dialogic one may make room for teachers and learners' response, pave the ground for different voices, and authorize students with critical standpoint to make a marked change from passive learners into reflective practitioners and co-participants. This study intended to investigate the discourse content of EFL classrooms to see whether the turn-taking structures are dialogical in essence. To this aim, the following research questions were formulated:

1. Are the EFL students' discourse content in the classroom dialogic discourse?

2. Do the discourse contents of the EFL teachers follow/violate dialogic discourse pattern?

3. To what extent are EFL teachers' discourses supportive to the principles of dialogic teaching in the classrooms?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Bakhtinian Dialogical Concept in Learning: Theoretical Framework

The theoretical underpinning of dialogic teaching is rooted in Vygotsky's (1978) *sociocultural theory* and Bakhtin's concept of *dialogism.* Bakhtin (1981) as a philosopher and literary critic utilized the work of

celebrated novelists such as Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky, and Francois Rabelais to provide a link between language and culture. He postulated a theory of language focusing on the social nature of language. In his theory, the context of utterance shapes its meaning and meaning only occurs inside a dialogue. To him, language is bound to an ideology which is more than the arrangement of grammatical structures. Bakhtin distinguished two types of discourses, namely *authoritative* and *internally persuasive*. Authoritative discourse is a monologic discourse which is the feature of traditional writing and thought. In monologism, one transcendental perspective or consciousness merge all the fields, consequently combines all the signifying practices, ideologies, values and desires that are deemed significant. Holquist cited in Bakhtin (1981) asserts that "undialogized language is authoritative or absolute" (p. 426-7). In contrast to authoritative discourse, Persuasive discourse is a dialogic discourse aims to acknowledge the views of different perspectives. It is also referred to as *double-voiced* or *multi-voiced* (Scott, et al., 2006). To borrow from Bakhtin, dialogic discourse is like a carnival. It lets learners go beyond authoritative dogma. However, persuasive speech "is half-ours and half-someone else's.... It is not finite; it is open ... and able to reveal ever new ways to mean" (Bakhtin, 1981, pp. 345-346).

Bakhtin (1986) argued that the use of language paves the ground for a dialogue accompanied by a speech plan calling forth an anticipated response from the addressee. A number of constructs such as language, culture, context, and experience are the pivotal themes in Bakhtin's theory of language. The corresponding themes draw up people understanding of the words utilized in a dialogue. Dialogue has long been favored as an efficient mode in classroom discourse to promote interaction. Dialogic teaching is defined by numerous proponents (Alexander, 2008; Mortimer & Scott, 2003; Nystrand, et al., 2010) to show learning processes in which teachers and learners investigate a topic of study critically, listen to several voices and ideas, and build respectful relationships. To them, the learning process is *cumulative*, *reciprocal, and supportive* in which knowledge is constructed in a step-wise process through communication (Alexander, 2008). To McLaren (2003) dialogic teaching is "a way of thinking about, negotiating, and transforming the relationship among classroom teaching" (p. 35). According to Sedova (2017), dialogic teaching occurs in a classroom when "different speakers respond to each other, they support other's ideas, criticize, or even get into conflict them" (p. 279). Degener (2001) asserts that in a dialogic context, teachers should listen to the students to find out their problems which are significant to the society. He adds that teachers should raise students' understanding of the problems from a social viewpoint by asking questions and finding the techniques to take political actions in order to solve them. An authentic dialogue needs an association between a teacher and a

student where one "knowing subject [is] face to face with other knowing subjects" (Roberts, 1998, p. 49).

2.2. Classroom Discourse and IRF Patterns

Nunan and Carter (2001) simply define classroom discourse as a special type of discourse that happens in classrooms. To them, classroom discourse is often different in form and function from the language used in other situations due to particular social roles which learners and teachers have in classrooms and the type of activities they employ there. Likewise, Markee and Kasper as cited in Kharaghani (2013, p. 859) characterized classroom interaction as institutional talks that is locally classified into conversational exchange system collectively. A number of authors proposed different approaches to classroom interactions. The framework for the classroom interaction includes Jarvis and Robinson's (1997) verbal interaction, Ellis (1994) EFL classroom discourse, Van Lier's (1998) L2 classroom interaction, Kumaravadivelu (2006) framework of Critical Classroom Discourse Analysis (CCDA), and Walsh (2011) L2 classroom context using conversation analysis, to name but a few. The approaches proposed by the authors included patterns of interaction, elicitation techniques, feedback strategies which indicate how classroom discourse might facilitate learning and communicative interaction. The classroom interaction patterns have empirically theorized three-part exchange structure, namely Teacher's Initiation, Student's Response, and Teacher's Feedback/ Evaluation as a conventional pattern of all classroom interactions and educational levels.

Reviewing L2 professional literature (Alexander, 2008; Cullen, 2002; Nystrand, 1997; Scott et al., 2006) on classroom discourse illustrates triadic dialogue sequence as initiation-response-evaluation (IRE). Others (Sinclair, 1975; Waring, 2009) refer to it as initiation-response-feedback (IRF). Cazden (2001) illuminates IRF as 'I' stands for an initiating move, usually a question puts forward by a teacher; 'R' represents the response, usually, a short response from a student(s) and 'F' stands for feedback, follow up, on the teacher's side. Cullen (2002) and Nassaji and Wells (2000) identified the difference between IRE and IRF as two common classroom interactions. They are similar in that the teacher initiates the exchange usually by raising a question in the first turn, and then the student responds to the question in the second turn. The main difference between the patterns lies in the last turn. In IRE pattern, the teacher evaluates students' responses in the third turn. However, in IRF, the teacher provides feedback in a non-evaluative form by asking students to justify or illuminate their responses (Thoms, 2012). Nassaji and Wells (2000) conclude that evaluation in the traditional IRE sequence bounds students' ability to respond to their teacher in a meaningful

way during the discussion. According to Thoms (2012), both IRF and IRE were acknowledged for the classroom interactions since they depend on a number of factors in the classroom such as the nature of the activity, the participants involved in the discussion, and the purpose of the lesson.

2.3. Teachers' Turn-taking Management in a Dialogic Classroom

Among various characteristics of good teaching, teacher's turn-taking management and classroom interaction seemed to be the cornerstone of teaching and learning (Cazden, 2001; Kiramba, 2018; Walsh, 2011). Classroom interaction is the exchange of turns, roles and talks between the teacher and learners and among learners themselves which comprised instructional and regulative elements. It deals with what kind of knowledge is to be exchanged, how it should be transmitted, and how to provide opportunities for participants to talk or *take the floor* (Singh, Nicolson & Exley, 2001). Baker and Ellece (2011) postulated that the rules govern turn-taking account for a *local management system* in which speakers compete over a scarce resource, namely, the control of the *floor*. The floor here refers to the right to speak and be listened to. The speakers share the floor by taking turns to utilize it. They maintained that an analysis of turn allocation in conversation can indicate the relative power of speakers and can thus be employed in critical discourse analysis. When teachers are consciously aware of classroom talk, students accordingly can take advantage of learning opportunities in a teacher's online decision-making process (Nystrand, 1997; Walsh, 2011). Foster and Ohta (2005) believed that a teacher can foster co-construction of knowledge, interaction and dialogic discourse via turn-taking management by allowing students to participate in forming utterances that they cannot be complete individually in a dialogic classroom. Hall (1997) indicated that different turn-taking management of F-move can pave the ground for a better learning context and foster dialogic discourse in the classroom. The quality interaction which is *acquisition rich* (Ellis, 1992) and *acquisition meditative* (Walsh, 2011) demand language teachers to consciously manage turn-taking sequences.

Many studies have been conducted on teacher's turn-taking management and L2 classroom discourse content from a critical standpoint. To name a few, Shin and Crookes (2005) suggested that there is enough room for critical dialogue in Korean EFL classrooms and the learners could be active participants in a dialogical learning process. Nystrand et al. (2010) investigated the structure of a classroom discourse. The results showed that authentic teacher questions, uptake, and student questions function as *dialogic bids* with student questions showing a large effect. Similarly, Davari (2011) claimed that the critical recognition of Iranian ELT professionals and language teachers is growing and there are some signs of community disposition to critical approaches to ELT. Ranjbar, Rahimi Domakani, and

Mirzae (2012) appraised Iranian L2 classroom discourse contents through the lens of CP. The study showed that ELT classrooms were not useful for critical language learning because most of the teachers preferred to follow the traditional model of teaching to control students' utterances. Numerous studies conducted in different countries indicated that commonly used instructional practices are away from an ideal of dialogic teaching. To address the gap, this study was conducted to uncover Iranian EFL learners' IRF patterns with respect to Bakhtin's DDP in relation to the twelve classroom discourse features presented in the following section.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Twelve EFL classrooms in private English language institutes in Iran Language institutes (ILI) were observed. The observation was limited at two branches of ILI in Amol and Babol, North Iran. To address the research questions, purposive and availability sampling procedures were adopted for sample selection. Two groups of participants comprised the subject pool of the present study. The first group consisted of 74 EFL students. They were all adult male (N=31) and female (N=43) language learners who had minimum of three years language learning experiences. They had been formally exposed to English during their school years and had successfully passed similar instruction at the same institute. Their ages ranged from17 to 38. They were placed at the intermediate level as far as the ILI classification was concerned.

The second group of the participants consisted of 12 EFL teachers. They had different academic degrees, i.e., B.A., M.A and Ph.D. They were freelance teachers (N=4), instructors at university (N=5), and teachers at public schools (N=3). They had teaching experience to adults from 5 to 25 years. They were male (N=5) and female (N=7) teachers whose ages ranged from 24 to 52. Both learners and the teacher were Iranian and spoke Persian as their language of communication outside the classroom.

3.2. Materials and Instruments

To provide a systematic and quantitative evaluation of discourse interaction in EFL classrooms, an analytic framework was adopted to examine teachers' and students' (a) initiation move function (IMF) in 4 major areas of questioning, nominating, initiating, and informing , (b) the type of elicitation in 3 main areas of closed, marginal, and open-ended questions, and (c) follow-up move function (FMF) in 7 areas of repletion, correction, expansion, acceptance, teacher answer, praise, and criticism. They were adopted from various studies (Cullen, 2002; Hall, 1997; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Waring, 2009) with no modification to the content.

Next, the literature was extensively searched to identify principles for dialogic teaching in the classrooms. A number of studies (Alexander, 2008; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Nystrand, 1997; Xie, 2010) proposed some preconditions to change classroom discourse pattern from a monologic to a dialogic discourse. Following the instructions and requirements proposed in the literature to implement the dialogic teaching, DDP principles were formed and used with no modifications to their content (Appendix). The DDP principles consisted of 21rules. The rules were pinpointed the core dimensions on dialogic teaching such as critical thinking, initiating, participating, questioning, evaluating, giving feedback, and the IRF move. In order to detect the extent to which EFL teachers' discourses are supportive to the principles of dialogic teaching, a DDP checklist was employed. The checklist comprised 10 items in yes or no format. All items reflected the main tenets of dialogic teacing. Overall, the items were directed at three important aspects of dialogic teaching: classroom context, teachers' and students' interaction, and materials for teaching. At the same time, notes were taken and all the class interactions were audiotaped to make a safe judgment and to minimize the induced bias.

In the next stage, some steps were taken to assure the content validity of the analytic framework, DDP principle, and the checklist. To do so, five experts in the field were asked to read the instruments. The experts were requested to score each item based on the four-point content validity index from 1 (poor) to 4 (excellent), respectively. Accordingly, four indices (comprehensiveness, relevance, clarity, and wording) were assessed for each instrument. Next, all vague items were revised or removed and the final drafts were formulated.

To probe the internal consistency of the DDP checklist, the earlier version was examined with 80 prospective teachers and 32 university instructors. This was informed by Creswell and Clark's (2011) guidelines for developing quantitative observation checklists. Next, an estimate of the reliability of the instrument was determined using the internal item consistency. The checklist enjoyed high reliability with the alpha coefficient of .81. To Creswell and Clark, this index is an acceptable range for Cronbach alpha test of reliability in educational research.

3.3. Procedure

As influenced by Bakhtin's dialogic pattern, this study appraised the discourse content of 12 EFL classrooms based on the main tenets of DDP. To undertake the study, the turn-contents of the discourse exchanges of EFL learners and teachers were observed in 12 class sessions. In each session, about 90 minutes of the teachers and students talk were audiotaped. Notably, the discourse exchanges of 74 EFL learners and 12 EFL teachers were

digitally recorded in the classroom contexts. The spoken interaction included different activities in the classrooms such as checking assignments, teaching grammatical points, reading comprehension, teaching pronunciation, vocabulary, and conversational tasks. Official permission was taken to collect the data. The participants were assured of the confidentiality of the data collection. To report the quality of the real context, the researchers conducted the observations sitting back in the classrooms from the beginning to the end of each session with the aim to observe, take note, fill out the checklist, and audiotaped the discourse exchange of the classrooms. To record a natural discourse exchange, the researchers did not interfere with classroom interactions. After collecting the data, all recordings were transcribed verbatim. The recordings formulated the database for the current study. The database, along with observation checklists and notes was used to analyze the spoken discourse features and to uncover the IRF patterns. Due to the subjective nature of the present study, the researcher set out to provide a structured and bias-free account of the discourse exchange in the classroom. To this end, an analytic framework was adopted to examine discourse exchanges.

3.4. Data Analysis

This study extracted authentic data from two groups of participants including both teachers and learners. The data were analyzed using an analytical framework. For this purpose, the discourse content of the classrooms was transcribed verbatim and sign-coded accordingly. The rules of DDP have been the basis for coding the degree of dialogicality in the classroom discourse. The data were examined quantitatively with respect to three dimensions included in 14 sections of the framework. For teachers' and students' IRF exchanges, different IMFs, elicitation types, FMFs, frequency counts and percentages were obtained. Besides, a Chi-square goodness of fit test was run to specify if the number of occurrences of each move function utilized by teachers and students was statistically significant or not. To determine the nature of classroom spoken discourse features, an interpretive approach was adopted to the interactional episodes. In addition, the data were triangulated with taking notes and filling out a checklist. To estimate the reliability of the interpretation, twenty percent of the data were randomly selected and analyzed by two colleagues holding a PhD degree in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). A moderate mean internal consistency was obtained with an alpha coefficient of 0.75.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Results

4.1.1. Results Related to the First Research Question

To probe the first research question, i.e., are the EFL students' discourse content in the classroom dialogic discourse? the analytic framework was used to examine the number of incidences and frequency percentage of IRF exchanges. The function of each exchange was identified by counting the number of occurrence of each move in four areas including questioning, nominating, initiating, informing. Table 1 indicates the frequency and percentage of IMFs.

Table1

Frequency and Percentage of Initiation Move Functions for EFL learners

Item	Functions	Observed Frequency	Percentage of the Function	Expected Frequency	Residual
1	Q	16	37.20%	10.8	5.2
2	N	5	11.62%	10.8	-5.8
3	SI	15	34.88%	10.8	4.2
4	I	7	16.27%	10.8	-3.8
5	Total	43			

1.Q= Questioning; 2.N= Nominating;3.SI= Student Initiationing; 4. I=Informing

To determine whether or not the functions were equally used by the participants in the classrooms, a Chi-Square Test for IMFs was conducted.

Table2

Chi-Square Test for Initiation Move Functions

Chi-Square	Df Asymp.	Sig.
IMF	8.628[a] 3	.035

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 10.8.

Table 2 indicates that there is a significant difference between the number of IMFs employed by the students and the teachers ($x2$ = 8.268 df = 3, p< 0.05). The findings indicated that 37.20% of all the initiation moves were in the form of questions or elicitations. Besides questioning, there were other types of initiations in the discourse exchange of the classroom. More specifically, teachers used 5 nominating, about 34.88% of the initiations functioned by the students to nominate themselves explicitly by their names, and 16.27% of the initiating used by students to give information. The findings indicated the least and the most frequent IMF was nominating and questioning respectively. Figure 1 represents the schematic presentation of the most and least frequent IMFs.

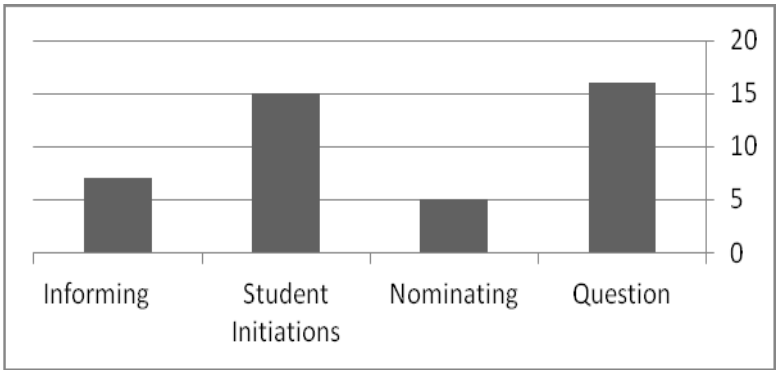


Figure 1. Schematic Presentation of the Most and Least Frequent IMF

Figure 1 indicates that about one and a half fourth of all IMFs were in the form of questioning. The figure indicates that 37.2% of all the IMFs devoted to questioning in the classroom discourse content. Because a large number of the classroom interactions were directed to questioning, it seems necessary to uncover the type of elicitation employed by the participants. To this end, three types of elicitations were taken into account.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Different Types of Elicitations

Item	Functions	Observed Frequency	Percentage of the Function	Expected Frequency	Residual
1	CQ	15	93.75	8.00	7.00
2	MG	0	0	0.00	.000
3	OQ	1	6.25%	8.00	-7.00
4	Total	16			

CQ= Closed Question; MQ= Marginal Question; OC=Open-ended Question

Table 3 shows that out of the 16 questions used by the teachers in the initiation move, 15 were display questions, no managerial and only 1 question functioned as an open-ended question. The result shows that students preferred to advocate a product-oriented policy. To examine the extent to which different types of questions were used equally by the interrogators, a Chi-square test was run. Table 4 reveals the Chi-square test for the elicitation types.

The results of the Chi-Square Test for question types indicate that closed, managerial, and open-ended questions were not used equally by the students *(x^2= 12.250; df* = 3; $p< 0.05$). The finding confirms that product-oriented questions were statistically frequent in classroom discourse. To

delve into the nature of the content of the discourse exchanges presented above, Table 5 and Table 6 illustrate some recorded episodes.

Table 4

Chi-Square Test for the Elicitation Types

Chi-Square	Df Asymp.	Sig.
Elicitation types	12.250[a]1	.000

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 8.0.

Table 5

Discourse Exchange between Teachers and Students (Episode I)

Line	Mode	Episode
(1)	(N)	T: Mr. Emami,
(2)	(CQ)	T: When do we use the present perfect?
(3)	(LR)	L1: When we have indefinite time in the past.
(4)	(Rpt)	T: Indefinite time in the past.
(5)	(Rpt)	L1: Indefinite time in the past.
(6)	(N)	T: Mr. Sabbagh,
(7)	(EXP)	T: When we don't know the exact time.
(8)	(ACP)	L2: Yes.
(9)	(N)	T: Mr. Emami,
(10)	(CQ)	T: Example?
(11)	(LR)	L1: He has gone to London.
(12)	(P)	T: Good.
(13)	(N)	T: Mr. Sabbagh,
(14)	(CQ)	T: Have you ever gone to another country?
(15)	(SR)	L2: Yes, I have.
(16)	(OQ)	T: What have you done there?

A= Acceptance; CQ= Closed Question; EXP= Expanding; N= Nominating; OQ= Open-ended Question; Rpt= Repetition; LR= Learners' Response; P= Praise

Table 5 indicates that the teacher initiates the episode by nominating one of the students. The teacher asked a closed question of "when do we use the present perfect?" which is followed by the learner's response in line 3. In line 4, the teacher repeats the learner's response. Next, the teacher continues by nominating another student to have him pay attention by expanding grammar which is followed by learner's acceptance. In line 12, the teacher

praises the student and in line 16 the teacher asks an open-ended question which the student does not know the answer and leads to a meaningful process.

Table 6 illustrates that the teacher initiates the interaction first by asking a managerial question. In line 3, the teacher directs the students to look at page 50. In line 4, the teacher again directs the students to look at the picture and explain what they see. In line 7, there is criticism from the teacher because the student is silent and does not answer the teacher's question. In line 10, the teacher asks an open-ended question. In lines 6 and 9, the teacher uses repetition. The teacher corrects the student's response in line 13. As it is clear in the episode, the teacher initiations are in the form of asking open-ended questions, criticism, repetition, correctness, and directing them to do some activities. So the interactional exchanges among the teachers and students are almost real.

Table 6

Discourse Exchange between Teachers and Students (Episode II)

Line	Mode	Episode
(1)	(MQ)	T: Which page?
(2)	(LR)	L1: Page 50.
(3)	(D)	T: Look at page 50.
(4)	(D)	T: Look at this picture.
(5)	(OQ)	T: What can you see in the picture?
(6)	(Rpt)	T: What can you see in the picture?
(7)	(CR)	T: Why are you silent?
(8)	(LR)	L2: There is a conversation.
(9)	(Rpt)	T: There is a conversation.
(10)	(OQ)	T: What can you guess?
(11)	(Rpt)	T: What can you guess?
(12)	(LR)	L2: She is a woman and she buys printer ink.
(13)	(C)	T: She wants to buy printer ink.

C= Correction; CR= Criticism; D= Direction; MQ= Managerial Question; OQ= Open-ended Question; Rpt= Repetition; LR= Learners' Response

4.1.2. Results Related to the Second Research Question

To investigate whether the discourse contents of the EFL teachers follow or violate dialogic discourse pattern, the functions of each turn were examined quantitatively by the analytic framework. Next, the number of incidences and frequency percentage were computed for them. Table 5 indicates the frequency and percentage of IMFs for the teachers.

Table 7 indicates that 44.19% of all the initiation moves were in the form of questioning. Of all the IMFs, about 41.98% functioned by the teachers to nominate students explicitly by their names, and 8.28% of the

initiations used by teachers to give information. To see if there was a significant difference among the number of IMF, a Chi-Square Test was run. Table 8 indicates the result of the Chi-Square test for the IMFs exploited by the EFL teachers in the classrooms.

Table 7

Frequency and Percentage of Initiation Move Functions for EFL Teachers

Item	Functions	Observed Frequency	Percentage of the Function	Expected Frequency	Residual
1	Q	80	44.19%	45.2	34.8
2	N	76	41.98%	45.2	30.8
3	Ini.	15	8.28%	45.2	-30.2
4	Inf.	10	5.52%	45.2	-35.2
5	Total	181			

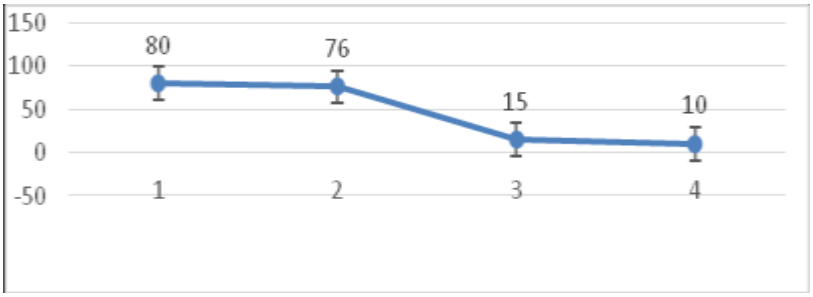
1.Q=Questioning; 2.N= Nominating ;3. Init= Initiating; 4. Inf= Informing

Table 8

Chi-square Test for Initiation Move Functions

Chi-Square	Df Asymp.	Sig.
IMFs	268.150*3	.000

The result reveals that there was a significant difference in the number of IMFs employed by the teachers ($x2$ = 268.150, df = 3, p< 0.05). To put it differently, the display questions were statistically frequent in IMFs employed by teachers in the discourse exchanges in the classroom. Figure 2 illustrates the least and the most frequent IMFs employed by the teachers.



1=Questioning, 2= Nominating; 3= Initiating; 4= Informing

Figure 2. Schematic Presentation of the Most and Least Frequent IMF

Figure 2 illustrates that the most IMFs employed by the teachers were questioning (44.19%). In order to examine the question types, different types of elicitation performed in the classroom discourse exchange were examined.

Table 9 illustrates the types of elicitation used by the teachers in the discourse exchanges of the classrooms.

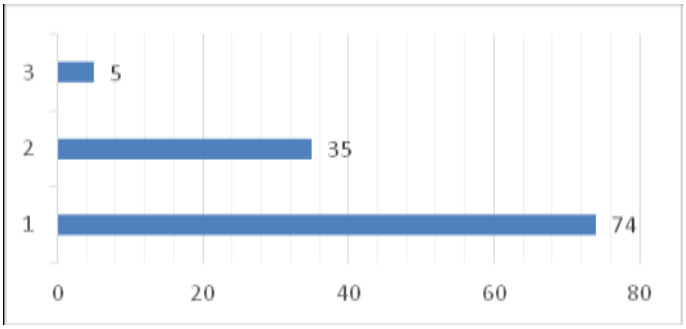
Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for the Different Question Types

Item	Functions	Observed Frequency	Percentage of the Function*	Expected Frequency	Residual
1	CQ	47	53.40%	29.3	17.7
2	MG	35	39.77%	29.3	5.7
3	OQ	6	6.81%	29.3	-23.3
4	Total	88			

CQ= Closed Question; MQ= Marginal Question; OC=Open-ended Question

Table 9 shows that out of the 88 questions employed by the teachers in the initiation move, 53.40% of the functions were closed questions, 39.77% were managerial and only 6.81% were open-ended questions. This type of questions provides little room for students to become critical thinkers. Figure 3 below presents the schematic representation of the data.



1= Closed Question; 2= Managerial Question; 3= Open-end Question

Figure 3. Teachers' Question Types in the Classrooms

Figure 3 indicates that teachers had a stronger tendency toward closed and managerial questions than open-ended ones. To determine whether different types of questions were used equally by the teachers in the classroom, a Chi-square test was run. Table 10 represents the results of the Chi-square test for the question types.

Table 10

Chi-square Test for Question Types

Chi-Square	Df Asymp.	Sig.
Question Types	132.42*	.000

Table 10 indicates that different types of questions were not used equally by the teachers (x^2= 132.42*df* = 2, *p*< 0.05). It implies that different questions were not used similarly. In order to determine the most and least frequent functions, the number of the elicited IMFs in the EFL classrooms were counted. Table 11 presents functions of feedback move, frequency and percentage of FMFs in the discourse exchange of the classrooms.

Table 11

Frequency and Percentage of Follow-up Move Functions

Item	Functions	Observed Frequency	Percentage of the Function*	Expected Frequency	Residual
1	Repetition	120	44.60%	38.4	81.6
2	Correction	24	8.92%	38.4	-14.4
3	Expansion	12	4.46%	38.4	-26.4
4	Acceptance	52	19.33%	38.4	13.6
5	Teacher Answer	30	11.15%	38.4	-8.4
6	Praise	23	8.55%	38.4	-15.4
7	Criticism	8	2.97%	38.4	-30.4
8	Total	269			

Table 11 indicates that 44.60% of the FMFs were in the form of repetition. Besides, teachers utilized 19.33% of the moves to accept students' answers. Of 269 follow up moves, 8.92% were used to correct students' answers, 4.46% to expand them, 11.15% to answer them, and 8.55% to praise them. It is interesting to note that the least FMF was function of criticism. It implies that teachers attempted to provide an opportunity for the students to speak. To provide a better schematic representation, all the functions are summarized in Figure 4.

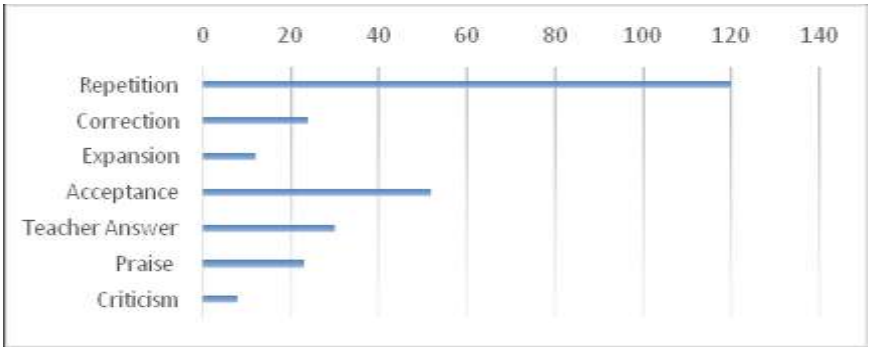


Figure 4. Teachers Follow-up Move Functions

To probe if the functions were equally used by the teacher in the classrooms, a Chi-Square Test for FMFs was run. Table 12 represents the result for IMFs.

Table12

Chi-square Test for Follow-Up Move Functions

Chi-Square	Df Asymp.	Sig.
Question Types	2.337E2[a]	.000

Cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 38.4.

Table 12 indicates that there is a significant difference among the number of FMFs employed by the teachers ($x2 = 2.337$ $df = 6$, $p< 0.05$). It implies that the repetition was the most frequent function employed by the teachers.

4.1.3. Results Related to the Third Research Question

In order to determine whether EFL teachers' discourses are supportive to the principles of dialogic teaching in the classrooms, Bakhtin's rule for DDP was employed as a checklist for the data collection. Table 13 reveals the frequency and percentage of teachers' discourse exchanges in the classrooms.

Table 13 indicates that 33.3% of the teachers strived to aid learners to think critically in the classroom contexts. In other words, two third of the teachers did not advocate critical thinking in the turn-contents. However, they all attempted to provide an equal opportunity for students to communicate in the classrooms. One-fourth of the teachers related the materials to the students' real-life concern. It implies that 75% of the course contents do not match the principles of DDP. Due to the top-down policy in the system of education, it is interesting to note that none of the teachers allowed students to select textbooks and choose their favorite and interesting topics for teaching. Besides, none of the teachers helped students know themselves and social status. As it is obvious in item 7, of all teachers only 16.6% let their students speak freely in the classrooms. However, they did not discuss any political issues in the targeted classrooms. In fact, all teachers made an attempt to avoid political discussion. In addition, the analysis indicated that about 13.3% of the teachers imposed their beliefs on the students. To put it differently, it provides no room for implementing the principles of DDP in the classrooms. Of all turn-contents of discourse exchanges in the classroom, only 3.3% of the teachers allowed students to participate in the process of teaching. It manifests that teachers considered themselves as the authority in the classroom. Simply put, they did not believe that there is a balance of power between students and teachers. The analysis of checklist indicates that teachers' spoken discourse features were not

supportive to the principles of dialogic teaching due to a number of reasons such as top-down teaching policy, authoritarian nature of teachers' role in the classroom, pre-planned curriculum and syllabus, the nature of teachers' and students' interaction in teaching a course, the avoidance of political discussion in the classrooms, insufficient attempt to raise students' awareness on social issues, and lack of care for the needs of the students in selecting a textbook and choosing topics for teaching.

Table 13

The Frequency and Percentage of Teachers' Discourse Exchange

NO.	Items of DDP Checklist	F		P	Expected Frequency	Residual
		Yes	**NO**		**5.9**	**-4.9**
	Does the teacher assist students to know themselves and their social status?	0	*		5.9	4.1
	Does the teacher help learners think critically in the classroom context?	10		33.3%	5.9	23.1
	Does the teacher give an equal opportunity to the learners in communicating in the classroom?	12		100%	5.9	.1
	Does the teacher relate the materials to students' real life?	6		20%	5.9	-4.9
	Does the teacher give a chance to the learners to select the textbook?	0	*	---	5.9	-4.9
	Does the teacher allow the learners to choose their favorite and interesting topics for teaching?	0	*	----	5.9	-.9
	Does the teacher allow the learners to speak freely in the classroom?	5		16.6%	5.9	-4.9
	Does the teacher use political issues in the classroom?	0	*	----	5.9	-1.9
	Does the teacher impose his/her beliefs on the learners?	4		13.3%	5.9	-4.9
	Does the teacher encourage students' participation allow to teach a course?	1		3.3%	5.9	

F=Frequency; P=Percentage

4.2. Discussion

Dialogic teaching aims to empower learners for shared responsibility in the classrooms and to help learners develop high levels of autonomy (Sedova, 2017). The dialogic teaching approach is based on teacher and student interactions in which knowledge understood as gradually constructed in this type of interaction and higher forms of cognitive processes are dominant on the students' part (Mortimer & Scott, 2003). Proponents of dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2008; Reznitskaya & Gregory, 2013; Nystrand, et al., 2010) believe that learning happens when learners participate in a certain type of discourse because students' involvement in classroom

discourse can help them to foster their thought process and criticality. A number of studies (Cazden & Beck, 2003; Kincheloe, 2005; Morgan, 1998; Mortimer & Scott, 2003; Shor, 2012) support the idea that a critical perspective in education can help both teachers and learners become social agents in a society.

The initially stated overarching idea of this study was to appraise the discourse content of EFL classrooms. The first research question aimed to examine if the turn-contents of current exchanges of EFL learners go along with the principle of dialogic teaching. To do this, the functions of students' discourse exchange were examined quantitatively by an analytic framework in four main areas of IMF, elicitation type, and FMF. The result showed that the p-value is less than 0.05 and the mean difference is significant ($x^2 = 12.250 df = 3, p < 0.05$). In this regard, it can be claimed that the turn-contents of the students' discourse exchanges do not conform to the principles of DDP but there is a chance for the learners in expressing their ideas and being critical thinkers. According to Ennis (1996), a critical person should not only try to find causes and but also try to be a well-formed person. Evidence of the current research showed that most of the time students waited to receive feedback from the teacher and they were not confident enough to go further without getting feedback, but they corrected their own utterances in some cases. The students mostly gave a brief response and they had a few opportunities to reflect on their utterances or to provide correct responses by other students. However, there were some evidence of negotiation of meaning in the discourse exchange of the observed classrooms. Authors (McGrew, 2005; Woods, 2014) postulated that the way in which students produce verbal collaboration is noteworthy because it aids them to express their ideas and pave the ground to be critical thinkers. The absence of DDP in the setting of Iranian classrooms might be related to the features of the educational system and the ignorance of critical thinking in teacher training centers (Davari, 2011; Pishghadam & Naji, 2011). Education can be developed through dialogical exchanges among teachers and students focusing on sociopolitical contexts (Kincheloe, 2005; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; McLaren, 2003).

According to the second research question stating if the discourse contents of the EFL teachers follow/violate DDP, the data were analyzed through a Chi-square test. The finding indicated that teachers had the authority to control all parts of the teaching and learning process. Sometimes, teachers provided students with opportunity to correct themselves or other students through dialogical interaction. Violating the principles of DDP on teachers' side may have educational consequences. Thus, such teaching may foster a teacher-oriented instruction in a classroom by neglecting students' academic needs, interest and preferences. This violation will cause a learning

problem due to teachers' unawareness of learning theories. More precisely, it will promote rote learning, preclude criticality among the students, and prevent negotiation and dialogue among the learners. Freire (1970) denounced teacher-centered classrooms. He used a metaphor to refer students as a container into which a teacher should put knowledge on students' mind. Freire used the term banking model of education for traditional instruction. Willingham (2008) postulated that teacher-oriented instruction as a misguided system disseminates a lack of critical thinking and personality traits such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, and self-confidence among the learners. Students usually pick up such attitudes during education.

In order to examine the third research question, the data were triangulated with observation, taking notes and filling out a checklist. The results indicated that the classroom discourse did not support learners to think critically and to empower them to actively engage in the classroom discussion. Teachers failed to relate the materials to the students' real-life concern. Students could not choose their favorite topics for learning. Teachers imposed their beliefs on the students. In addition, students were not allowed to participate in the teaching process. As it was evidenced, the teachers had a strong tendency to use display or closed questions to control the interactions more than process-reasoning or open-ended questions which can provide the opportunity for negotiation of meaning and creating dialogue by learners (Nunan, 2004). The results echo Tsui, Marton, Mok, and Ng (2004) who concluded that teachers attempt to use display questions rather than open-ended questions. Freire posits that such a pedagogy fosters power connections hinders dialogue in classrooms. Such limited discourse trains students to provide short and brief answers. Therefore, it leaves no room for the students to reflect on their utterances and to work collaboratively in order to construct meaning and knowledge (Foster & Ohta, 2005). The data of the present study revealed that teachers provided students with the correct answers in the IMF move. Most of the times, teachers repeated the utterances or changed students speech as far as their own ideas were concerned. Another reason that the discourse content of the classrooms violated the principle of DDP may be due to teachers' adherence to top-down policy for the book selection, pre-determined curriculum, and syllabus in which students should follow. Bakhtin (1981) claimed that such a system of education impedes the opportunities for cultivating a dialogic interaction in a classroom. The findings support Pishghadam and Mirzaee (2008) who challenged the possibility of postmodernism at any levels of education in Iran. Pishghadam and Mirzaee considered factors such as top-down language policy and centralized system for traditional values and principles. They suggested the decentralizing system of education, giving more power to teachers, giving more autonomy to learners, and encouraging action research can help an

educational system move toward postmodernism. The findings indicated that the discourse content of the observed classrooms were not designed in a dialogical way to raise students' critical awareness in transforming their knowledge because most of the teachers preferred to follow the traditional teaching to control students' utterances. Thus, it limits learners' autonomy and their joint knowledge. The result obtained in this study were similar to those of Ranjbar et al. (2012) who conclude that an anti-dialogical instruction is not effective for the development of students' critical language awareness and critical thinking ability. The results are in line with Ahmadi (2017) who concluded that different mode of Japanese classroom discourse is monologic, recitation, and occasionally dialogic.

5. Conclusion and Implications

This study provides us with an understanding of typical EFL classrooms in Iran to examine the extent to which teachers' and students' interactions are dialogical. In relation to IRF exchanges, the findings revealed that most of the F-moves employed in the classrooms were not advantageous due to the hidden narrative feature of teachers' role in traditional pedagogy, teachers' large amount of control, and little trace of students' negotiation among the interactions in the observed classrooms. In addition, the participants did not have the opportunity to self-correct or to provide feedback for their peers. This provides an anti-dialogical approach toward education which would hinder a dialogic classroom. Thus, a portion of classroom discourse should be organized in advance following the principles of DDP to motivate students in order to move toward critical awareness and critical thinking. Providing an opportunity for students to negotiate for self/other correct and to invigorate them to break the ice through a dialogical approach can be fruitful for learners to make them critical thinkers and invite them in dialogic interaction. It is concluded that the application of dialogic pedagogy in an educational system should be imperative for transforming knowledge and turning students' role to be active collaborators. To provide dialogic teaching, the present study concludes that teachers and students should share their ideas in a supportive way without fear of embarrassment in giving a wrong answer. Students should be actively engaged to participate in classroom communication where knowledge is not given but constructed through interaction.

References

Ahmadi, M. H. (2017). Investigating characteristics of a dialogic discourse pattern in Japanese academic English classrooms. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 7*(1) 25-44. doi:10.5539/ijel.v7n1p25

Alexander, R. (2008). *Towards dialogic teaching: Rethinking classroom talk* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Dialogos.

Anderson, K. T. (2017). Leveraging researcher reflexivity to consider a classroom event over time: Reflexive discourse analysis of what counts. *Classroom Discourse, 8*(1), 36-54. doi.org/10.1080/19 4630 14.2016.1271742

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Sorensen, C. k., & Walker, D. A. (2013). *Introduction to research in education* (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co. Inc.

Baker, P., & Ellece, S. (2011). *Key terms in discourse analysis*. London and New York: Continuum.

Bakhtin, M. M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays* (C. Emerson & M. Holquist, Trans.). Austin, Tx: University of Texas Press.

Bakhtin, M. M. (1984). *Problems of Dostoevsky's poetics* (C. Emerson, Trans.). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.

Bakhtin, M. (1986). The problem of speech genres (V. McGee, Trans.). In C. Emerson, & M. Holquist (Eds.), *Speech genres and other late essays* (pp. 60-102). Austin, Tx: Univ. of Texas Press

Cazden, C. (2001). *Classroom discourse: The language of learning and teaching.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann

Cazden, C. B., & Beck, S. W. (2003). Classroom discourse. In A. C. Graesser, M. A. Gernsbacher, & S. R. Goldman (Eds.), *Handbook of discourse processes* (pp. 165–197). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

Creswell, J. W. & Clark, V. L. P. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

Chappell, P. J. (2014). Engaging Learners: conversation or dialogic driven pedagogy? *ELT Journal, 68*(1), 1-11.

Cullen, R. (2002). Supportive teacher talk: The importance of the F- move. *ELT Journal, 56*(2), 117-127.

Davari, H. (2011). Linguistic imperialism or global understanding: ELT in globalization from an Iranian perspective. *(Unpublished Master's thesis). Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran*.

Degener, S. C. (2001). Making sense of critical pedagogy in adult literacy education. *Annual Review of Adult Learning and Literacy, 2*(1), 26-62.

Ellis, R. (1992). *Second language acquisition and language pedagogy*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Ennis, R. H. (1996). Critical thinking dispositions: Their nature and assessability. *Informal Logic, 18*(2) 165-182. doi.org/10.1057/9 781137378057_2

Foster, P., & Ohta, A. S. (2005). Negotiation for meaning and peer assistance in second language classrooms. *Applied Linguistics, 26*(3), 402-430. doi.org/10.1016/B978-012589042-7/50015-3.

Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Continuum.

Giroux, H. A. (1998). Education in unsettling times: Public intellectuals and the promise of cultural studies. In D. Carlson, & M. Apple (Eds.), *Power, knowledge, pedagogy, the meaning of democratic education in unsettling times* (305-333). Boulder, CO: West view Press.

Giroux, H. A. & Mclaren, P. (1996). Teacher education and the politics of engagement: The case for democratic schooling. In P. Leistyna, A. Woodrum, & S. A. Sherblom (Eds.), *Breaking free: The transformative power of critical pedagogy* (pp. 301-331). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Educational Review

Hall, J. K. (1997). Differential teacher attention to student utterances: The construction of different opportunities for learning in the IRF. *Linguistics and Education, 9*(3), 287-311.

Hall, J. K. (2018). From L2 interactional competence to L2 interactional repertoires: Reconceptualising the objects of L2 learning. *Classroom Discourse, 9*(1), 25-39. doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2018.1433050

Hemati, F., & Valadi, A. (2107). EFL classroom discourse in Iranian context: Investigating teacher talk adaptation to students' proficiency Level. *Iranian Journal of Applied Language Studies, 8*(2) 99-122.

Kharaghani, N. (2013). Patterns of interaction in EFL classrooms. Proceeding of *The Global Summit on Education* (pp. 859–864). Kuala Lumpur: WorldConferences.net.

Jarvis, J., & Robinson, M. (1997). Analyzing educational discourse: An exploratory study of teacher response and support to pupils' learning. *Applied Linguistics, 18*(2), 212-228.

Kincheloe, J. L. (2005). *Critical constructivism primer*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Kiramba, L. K. (2018). Language ideologies and epistemic exclusion. *Language and Education, 32*, 291–312. doi 10.1080/095007 82. 2018.1438469

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to post method*. New York, NY: Routledge.

McGrew, S. (2005). Student questions in an intermediate modern Hebrew classroom. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics, 21*(1),61-78.

McLaren, P. (2003). Critical Pedagogy: A look at the major concepts. In A. Darder, M. Baltodano, & R. Torres (Eds.), *The critical pedagogy reader* (pp. 69–96). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis, Inc.

Morgan, B. D. (1998). *The ESL classroom: Teaching, critical practice, and community development*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Mortimer, E. F., & Scott, P. H. (2003). *Meaning making in secondary science classrooms*. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press

Nassaji, H., & Wells, G. (2000). What's the use of triadic dialogue?: An investigation of teacher-student interaction. *Applied Linguistics, 21*(3), 376-406.

Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D., & Carter, R. (2001). *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. London, UK: Ernst Klett Sprachen.

Nystrand, M. (1997). Dialogic instruction: When recitation becomes conversation. In M. Nystrand, A. Gamoran, R. Kachur, & C. Prendergast (Eds.), *Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom* (pp. 1-29). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Nystrand, M., Lawrence L. W., Gamoran, A., Zeiser, S., & Long, D. A. (2010). Questions in Time: Investigating the Structure and Dynamics of Unfolding Classroom Discourse. *Discourse Processes, 35*(2), 135-198.

Pishghadam, R., & Mirzaee, A. (2008). English language teaching in the postmodern era. *TELL, 2,* 89-109

Pishghadam, R., & Naji, E. (2011). Applied ELT as a panacea for linguistic imperialism. *Iranian EFL Journal, 8*(1), 35-58.

Ranjbar, M., Rahimi Domakani, M., & Mirzae, A. (2012). *The status of critical pedagogy in EFL classrooms: A case of Iran's EFL Classrooms.* Saarbrücken, Germany: LAP Lambert Academic Publishing.

Reznitskaya, A., & Gregory, M. (2013). Student thought and classroom language: Examining the mechanisms of change in dialogic teaching. *Educational Psychologist, 48*(2), 114e133.

Scott, P. H., Mortimer, E. F., & Aguiar, O. G. (2006). The tension between authoritative and dialogic discourse: A fundamental characteristic of meaning-making interactions in high school science lessons. *Science Education, 90*(4), 605-631.

Sedova, K. (2017). A case study of a transition to dialogic teaching as a process of gradual change. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 67*, 278-290. doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.06.018

Seedhouse, P. (2005). Conversation analysis and language learning. *Language Teaching, 38*(4), 165-187. doi:10.1017/S0261444805003010

Shin, H., & Crookes, G. (2005). Exploring the possibilities for EFL critical pedagogy in Korea: A two-part case study. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies, 2*(2), 113-136. doi: 10.1207/s15427595cils0202_3

Shor, I. (2012). *Empowering education: Critical teaching for social change*: Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, R. M. (1975). *Towards an Analysis of Discourse.* London, UK: Oxford University Press.

Singh, P, Nicolson, H., & Exley, B. (2001). *Teacher Talk and Classroom Practice: An analysis of the Constitution of Pedagogic Identities.* Paper presented at the AARE Conference, Fremantle.

Thoms, J. J. (2012). Classroom discourse in foreign language classrooms: A review of the literature. *Foreign Language Annual, 4*(S1), 8-27.

Thornbury, S. (1996). Teachers research teacher talk. *ELT journal, 50*(4), 279-289.

Tsui, A. B., Marton, F., Mok, I. A., & Ng, D. F. (2004). Questions and the space of learning. In F. Marton & A. B. M. Tsui (Eds.), *Classroom discourse and the space of learning* (pp. 113-137). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Van Lier, L. (1998). Constraints and resources in classroom talk: Issues of equality and symmetry. In H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Learning foreign and second languages* (pp. 157–182). New York, NY: The Modern language association of America.

Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. London, UK: Routledge.

Waring, H. Z. (2009). Moving out of IRF (Initiation-Response- Feedback): A single case analysis. *Language Learning, 59*(4), 796-824. doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00526.x

Willingham, D. T. (2008). Critical thinking: Why is it so hard to teach? *Arts Education Policy Review, 109*(4), 21-32. doi:10.3200/AEPR.109.4.21-32.

Woods, N. (2014). *Describing discourse: A practical guide to discourse analysis*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Xie, X. (2010). Turn allocation patterns and learning opportunities. *ELT journal, 65*(3), 240-250. doi:10.1093/elt/ccq064

Appendix

Principles of DDP

Rule	Description
1	Make connections between your lesson and students' concerns and interests outside the classroom.
2	Give room to your students' questions and responses and follow up on your students' contributions.
3	*Use authentic questions* as far as possible. (Questions that you don't have any pre-determined answer in your mind.)
4	*Use uptake* in your class.
5	Have *a high-level evaluation* for the students' responses. (Make them explain, clarify or give more information rather than just giving them answers like very good or you are right).
6	Include questions *with high cognitive level.* (Such questions need more critical thinking involving students' own voice and perspectives.)
7	*Use referential questions*. (The teacher does not know the answer for referential questions and they are answered through negotiation and exploration of the topic).
8	Ask questions that need longer answers.
9	Give *content feedback*. (The feedback on the content of what the student says rather than its form.)
10	Provide your students with *wait-time*.
11	Develop *student-initiated talk*.
12	Teach *collectively*. (Learning tasks with the students as a group/class).
13	Teach *reciprocally*. (Listen to your students and make them listen to each other and share their ideas.)
14	Teach *supportively*. (Make your students articulate their ideas freely without fear of embarrassment)
15	Teach *cumulatively*. (Make your students build on each others' ideas and chain them into coherent lines of thinking and inquiry).
16	Teach *purposefully. (*Plan and steer classroom talk with specific educational goals).
17	Carefully manage the F-move. If we consider teachers' question as initiation (I, the first move), the students' response as a response (R, the second move) and your reaction as follow up (F, the third move), and the last move can enhance a dialogic discourse.
18	Let your students self-select themselves or sometimes select other students.
19	Be a wise turn-manager. (Under the IRF pattern, you can address the question to the whole class in the *I* move. In the *F* move, you can choose to give the floor back to the responders by asking them to modify or elaborate their reply).
20	Try to frame and facilitate the class activities and keep your utterances and intervention in a minimum.
21	Negotiate topics and subtopics of discussion with your students and sometimes let your students choose the topics.

Bibliographic information of this paper for citing:

Niknezhad Naeijabad, F., Khodareza, M. R., Mashhadi Heidar, D. (2019). Appraising discourse content of EFL classrooms through the lens of Bakhtin's Ddialogic discourse pattern. *Journal of Modern research in English Language Studies, 6*(1), 51-78.