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Scaffolded instruction:

Exploring multidimensional scaffolded teacher talk in an adult ESL classroom

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Note:

Kim, N. (2008, March). *Scaffolded instruction: Exploring teacher talk in an adult ESL classroom*. Paper presented at the 2008 American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, New York, NY.

*“More often than not, it [the intervention of a tutor] Involves a kind of “**scaffolding**” process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts.”*

(Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, p. 90; emphasis added)

*“So I tell them that you’re not beginning students....They should **challenge** themselves, you know. **Go to the next level**....So, think about that I talk about and **go to the next level**. Take yourselves **higher**. Did you come to stay at the same level? No! **Go to the next level**. And most of them do, most of them. I’m happy to see after that speech [laughs]*

(Anna, Interview, April 13, 2006; emphasis added)”

Statement of the Research Problem

As Lightbown and Spada (1999, p. 1; emphasis original) put it rightly, “*Language acquisition* is one of the most impressive and fascinating aspects of human development.”

When it comes to child or adult second language learning (to be referred to as “SLL” throughout this paper), and we take into account that second language learners do not just pick up their second language as naturally and easily as they acquire their first language through their primary socialization. By “impressive” and “fascinating”, they denote the complexity of SLL in which various factors are interwoven with one another. Earlier research in quest of the factors affecting on SLL contributed to the field in identifying and theorizing the factors such as input (Krashen, 1982), output (Swain, 1995), and interaction (Long, 1981 cited in Hall & Verplaetse, 2000).

Then, the second language classroom, as a major site in which SLL occurs, and the teacher’s classroom behavior, as an important factor on effective SLL, have frequently been revisited in the literature on SLL (Chaudron, 1988). Further, teacher talk, in particular, has been the recurring topic in the classroom-based research since Ferguson (1975) introduced the term, “foreigner talk,” which includes teacher talk modified toward second language learners in their classroom phonologically, morphologically, or syntactically. To address the

ultimate objectives of classroom-based research, which lie in identifying the characteristics of classrooms that lead to effective learning and, further, integrating the insight into improvement in teaching and learning through teacher training and program development (Chaudron), the effectiveness of teacher talk, as a crucial factor on and an efficient pedagogical tool to promote learning, has been paid much attention to for research, which focused mainly on the quantitative outcome in terms of changes in the students' achievement in standardized tests (Gall & Rhody, 1987).

Here, although acknowledging the contribution by the previous studies, however, it is crucially worth noting a paradigmatic gap, not limited to weakness in research methodology, in the research efforts in that the past inquiries were predominantly grounded on an epistemology towards SLL mainly influenced by the formalist, psycholinguistic paradigm (Eckman, 1994). In other words, SLL was viewed solely as an individual cognitive activity whereas other contextual, sociocultural factors were not considered as viable factors on SLL; thus, SLL was investigated in terms of product or acquisition rather than process or participation (Robbins, 2003). In this vein, this study intended to fill the gap in the body of literature by revisiting the significant topic, teacher's talk, and looking at the phenomenon from new, sociocultural perspectives.

Drawn on sociocultural perspectives towards SLL, it is viewed as the process involving “the reorganization and redevelopment of semiotic tools from the native language to the second language through participation in social practices. (Iddings, Haught, & Devlin, 2005, p. 34)” SLL, as a higher order psychological process, is regarded as a transition from intermental, social to intramental, inner psychological planes; active participation in meaningful, social interaction leads to transformation or SLL. Such meaningful social interaction is powerfully mediated by language (Vygotsky, 1978) one of whose sources in the classroom is the teacher, whose talk was the focus of this study.

An important distinction, then, needs to be made between just *teacher talk* and *scaffolded teacher talk* because every teacher’s talk does not necessarily lead to meaningful social interaction, that is, effective instruction conducive to the psychologically transformative SLL. Scaffolding, a metaphor consistent with the sociocultural notion of the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978), is defined as the “process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, p. 90).” In the context of SLL, thus, scaffolding is the higher-goal-directed, developmentally appropriate, instructional strategy that includes the domain of teacher’s talk. The accountability of the mechanism,

missing in the original metaphor of scaffolding, is supported by sociocultural, psychological perspectives on which this study was framed.

In the field of education, growing interests in and emphasis on in-depth qualitative analyses of dynamic classroom discourse led to discourse-based inquiries on scaffolded teacher talk, in the areas of literacy (McVee & Pearson, 2003) and special education (Berry & Englert, 2005). Despite the potentially powerful influence of scaffolded teacher talk on SLL as an instructional strategy, however, little has been known of its nature in an SLL classroom, particularly in an adult English as a second language (ESL) classroom in its whole-class setting (Kim, 2003).

One of the few ESL scaffolding studies is Kim's (2003) comprehensive dissertation research on scaffolded instruction. In her comparative case studies, Kim described scaffolded instruction as dialogic instruction, influenced by the teacher's classroom discursive practices relating to instruction, task-structuring, modeling, feedback, and evaluation and also by other contextual factors like the role and background of the teacher such as teaching experience and familiarity with the course content. Furthering Kim's study, this study delimited its focus on scaffolded teacher talk, as the most direct, powerful, mediational tool towards effective SLL, and intended to provide enriched accounts of the

dialogic nature of scaffolded teacher talk (Bakhtin, 1986).

Purpose of the Study

This study intended to understand the scaffolding role of teacher's talk in class for an ESL teacher with adult English language learners. Scaffolded teacher talk is understood as a pedagogical, discursive strategy with which the teacher verbally interacts with the students and helps them to learn the target language in addition to accomplishing a language-learning task that they cannot do on their own.

Research Questions

The overarching questions for this case study are:

1. What is the nature of teacher-student verbal interaction during classroom instructional time?
2. In what way, if any, does the teacher's talk scaffold her students' learning English?

Significance of the Study

Potential contribution of this study to the field is two-fold. First, theoretically, the findings from this study grounded on sociocultural perspectives may (a) present more direct

and in-depth accounts for the nature of SLL focused on teacher talk, (b) contribute to improving the body of knowledge on effective ESL instruction, and, ultimately, (c) advancing theorizing in the field about effective instruction.

Second, practically, the results may provide educational professionals—pre- and in-service teachers, and teacher educators—with opportunities to raise their awareness of the role of teacher’s talk and also reflective practitioners to begin their dialog on their discursive practice as the area for their professional development.

Methods

Research Design

I chose the qualitative case study (Creswell, 1998) to develop an in-depth analysis of and an enriched understanding of the particularity and complexity of the single case of scaffolded teacher talk bounded in the four-week, ESL classroom (Stake, 1995).

Research Site and Participants

The ESL grammar and writing class consisted of 16 adult international students and one teacher. Once placed to the advanced level two, the highest of six levels at Lake Language School¹ northwest New York, this class met for two hours from Monday through

¹ All proper names in this paper are pseudonyms to assure anonymity and confidentiality.

Friday for 14 weeks. The students, as a cohort, took two other classes together, speaking/listening and reading/discussion classes, for two hours a day respectively. The intensive language program that consisted of these three classes were designed to teach English for academic purposes and help the students to prepare for their postsecondary education at U. S. universities. In the grammar and writing class, they learned to write summaries, paraphrase, cite sources, work in small groups and ask and answer questions. According to students' need, they occasionally took Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) practice tests in this class.

Anna King, the participating teacher, was an African-American female in her fifties, married to a husband and with a daughter. Anna, with her bachelor's degree in English education and masters' degree in reading specialization, was a veteran teacher with more than 28 years of teaching experiences. She was the full-time instructor and supervising teacher of the intensive language program at Lake Language School. Using published textbooks and her own handouts as main resources for the class, she seemed very organized in planning and managing the class. Her students described her as "patient" "neutral" "strict" "experienced" and "very good" (student interviews). Anna's goal in this class was to "help them to become better writers in English for academic purposes and for

work purposes” (teacher interview).

Sixteen international students in Anna’s class was a mixed group in terms of first language, gender, age, personality, and language proficiency. Students with five different language backgrounds (Japanese, Korean, Taiwanese, French, and Turkish) spoke English for communication. There were four male students. The adult students’ ages ranged from mid twenties to mid forties. Some were quiet and shy; others were talkative and dominant. They were at varied developing levels of English proficiency within the advanced placement at the institute. Most of the students shared the instrumental, language learning goal to enter a graduate program at a U. S. university. Two of the students participated in the interviews: Hyunsun and Cheng. Hyunsun, a female Korean at a very advanced level, used to teach history in Korea and recently decided to pursue her graduate degree in the U. S. Cheng, a male Taiwanese at a lower advanced level, received a conditional admission to a Ph. D. program and tried to improve his TOEFL score to obtain a full admission.

Researcher’s Role

My roles as a researcher were two-fold: those of a learner and interpreter. On the one hand, as a learner, I sought to learn about the cultural meanings of the teacher-student verbal interaction from their viewpoint by observing, asking questions, and actively

listening to their stories (Spradley, 1980). On the other hand, as an interpreter, I tried to translate the emerging meanings from the classroom talk communicable with the readers by adopting the developmental, spiral, and inductive analytical procedure (Stake, 1995).

Data Collection

Selection

I chose the theory-based, purposeful sampling strategy (Miles & Huberman, 1994, cited in Creswell, 1998) as the sampling strategy. Sampling began with recommendations from the ESL faculty who were familiar with the teaching practices of prospective, participating teachers at Lake Language School. Upon receipt of the approval for my research protocol from the Institutional Review Board, I made a brief presentation about the nature of my study at a face-to-face meeting with the gatekeeper at the institute. Also, at that time, I submitted a brief, written study plan and invitation letters to prospective teacher participants. Anna was the voluntary participant, who was the very one recommended by the ESL faculty as the strong case for this study. Two students, Hyunsun and Cheng, were also participants who responded to my open invitation extended to all students on the first day of observation.

Procedures

I collected data upon obtaining the informed consents from Anna and all 16 students on the first day of class observation. Data sources were three-fold: (a) class observations, (b) interviews including brief consultations, and (c) documents (see Table 1 on the following page, for time line of data collection procedures).

Observations. I observed 15 hours of classes on eight different days in spring semester, 2006. Although unexpected, situational constraints such as student exams prevented me from observing consecutive observations as originally planned, observed data the amount of which constructed a reasonable database for naturalistic generalizations (Seedhouse, 2004) were thematic enough to track the flow of the course and understand the cultural pattern of the classroom talk. My role during observations was that of a non-participant (Spradley, 1980). As a non-participant, limited observer (Wolcott, 1988, cited in Ely, Anzul, Friedman, & Garner, 1991), I did not have a public role other than researcher and, thus, kept my presence in class as unobtrusive as possible.

Upon consent, I audio-taped all classes to grasp “the finer details of communicative interaction” (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 66). Also, I took detailed field-notes to collect not only salient but also less salient but potentially critical elements of non-verbal, contextual data in the classroom discourse (Kasper & Rose). I used the observational

Table 1

Data Collection Time Line

Time line	Data collection events
2006 April Week 1	Institutional Review Board approval / Informed consents / O1 / D1/L
Week 2	O2 / O3 / I1 with Anna / L
Week 3	O4 / O5 / O6 / O7 / I2 with Anna / D2 / D3 / D4 / D5 / L
Week 4	O8 / L
May Week 1	I3 with Cheng / I4 with Hyunsun / D6 / L
2007 March Week 3	I5 with Anna (Member-checking) / L
Week 4	I6 with Anna (Member-checking) / L
April Week 1	I7 with Anna (Member-checking) / D7 / L

Note. O, I, and D denote class observations, interviews and documents, respectively. L

denotes the researcher's log constructed throughout the research process.

protocol adapted from Creswell (1998, p. 129) for field-notes, which distinguished

descriptive and reflective notes by column and included sketches of the physical

environment of the class and students' seating arrangements and teacher's positions.

According to language identification, verbatim, and concrete principles recommended by Spradley (1980), I used brackets for reflective language, wrote down the folk terms used by the speaker, and tried to include as many specific details as possible. I did not videotape the class because the presence of a camera could lead to increased anxiety of some introverted students learning a new language.

Interviews. Interview data consisted of three-and-a-half-hour interviews with Anna at five sessions, three-hour interviews with Hyunsun and Cheng at two sessions, one per each student, and brief field-notes taken immediately after each interview, set at mutually agreed times and places. I memorized the questions in advance to maintain eye contact with the interviewee. My dual roles during interviews were, then, those of a strategic prober and an active listener. Each one-to-one, structured interview took about one hour and it was audio-taped. English was the language at all interviews, with one exception when Hyunsun wanted to add her personal comment about classroom interaction in Korean after the formal interview.

Interviews were structured and connected. By structured, first, I used an interview protocol as a guide for an effective interview rather than open-ended conversation, in taking

into account that this case study had a specific focus on teacher talk. Exceptions were member-checking interviews with the teacher after the semester ended. The sessions were more like Anna's narrative responding to my preliminary analysis of the data. By connected, then, while adhering to the protocol, I also followed the flow of communication during the interview and, when needed, asked additional questions for clarification or further information (Seidman, 1998).

The protocol questions for the teacher at two introspective interviews conducted during the academic semester addressed such topics as personal backgrounds, the goal of teaching and learning in this class, the topics and styles of the teacher's talk in and out of the class, success stories and difficulties in this class, classroom communication in this class, and the role of teacher's talk in general. Similarly, the questions for each of the two students included their learning experience and goal at Lake Language School, success stories and difficulties in this class, the topics of classroom talk, communication flow in the class, ways to solve communication difficulties in class, various teachers' talk patterns, and the role of teacher's talk in class.

Documents. Documents were multi-fold. I collected classroom handouts—such as grammar practices (D1 in Table 1), a website resource (D2), writing practice and checklists

(D3 & D4), and TOEFL practice tests (D5), a student essay sample (D6), and textbook information (D7). In addition, an effective tool for the entire analytical and writing processes was the researcher's log that included all data in print collected and developed throughout the research process—hand-written fieldnotes, annotated transcripts, analytical memos, literature memos, and preliminary categories charts.

Data Analysis

In general, the qualitative analysis of the data was developmental and spiral. By developmental, I analyzed the data through progressive focusing by four stages (Spradley, 1980). By spiral, I revisited the work done at the previous analytical stage(s) when beginning every new stage and made constant comparisons (Creswell, 1998). The general structure of the four stages is shown in Table 2 in the following page. Discussion of the details, then, follows.

Stage One: Data Management and Preliminary Annotation

My analysis began with re-listening the audio-taped data and, then, expanding and annotating hand-written field-notes. This preliminary work, done in a timely manner before the next data collection, helped me to grasp the picture of the classroom talk. Each of the audio-taped data was transcribed word for word, and stored in computer files. A small

Table 2

Data Analysis Procedure: Four Stages

Stage	Data analysis representation
One	Data management and preliminary annotation (Preliminary analysis) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Re-listening / Expanding and annotating field-notes / Transcribing and translating
Two	Detailed annotation and memoing (Descriptive analysis) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Re-reading / Annotating transcripts / Analytical memos
Three	Categorical aggregation (Focused analysis) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Charting and updating preliminary categories
Four	Color-coding and theme development (Naturalistic generalizations) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Color-coding / Finalizing thematic levels of categories / Thematic inventory

amount of data in Korean was translated into English. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, I replaced all proper names in field-notes with pseudonyms and continued to use them in transcripts and all other future documents.

Stage Two: Detailed Annotation and Memoing

I annotated the data on the transcripts fully. Re-reading annotations, preliminary and detailed, was the next step before hand-writing a preliminary analytical memo (PAM) on each observation data entry. Based on the growing understanding of the meanings in the data through annotations and PAMs, I then word-processed a more developed analytical memo (AM) for each observation entry. Analytic work through detailed annotations, eight PAMs and eight AMs led to a deeper-level descriptive analysis of the case.

Stage Three: Categorical Aggregation

Classifying the data by aggregating codes inductively followed the AMs. For classification, I developed a chart of preliminary categories (PC) for each observation data entry and updated the categories until the eighth PC. Three additional PAMs helped me to go through interview data again and to create the ninth PC with its full data coverage. Importantly, developing PCs was not a linear process of listing categories; it was a focused analysis to seek relationships between categories and their meanings. At this point of analysis, emerged three levels of thematic categories (e.g., collective/dialogical learning as a theme > sharing roles as a sub-theme > lesson transition upon student call as an instance). It showed six possible themes—collective/dialogical learning, mediational tools, sensitive response toward learning activity, process of learning on the conscious level, comfort zone,

and designing for redesigned language learning.

Stage Four: Color-Coding and Theme Development

Another spiral re-reading added, changed, or merged categories, and thus produced the more refined, tenth PC that showed four levels of thematic categories (e.g., dialogic talk as a theme > sensitivity for development as a sub-theme > seamlessly responsive as a claim > requesting students for repetition as an instance). Based on this tenth PC, I assigned colors to each claim and color-coded the data. This spiral analysis of color coding helped me to develop and decide final themes and thematic relationships among the different levels of the categories. Also, at the time of color-coding, representative examples, in folk terms, of each level of thematic category were extracted and stored in a thematic inventory for later references as examples for writing. As a result, recursive, thematic patterns confirmed through spiral analyses at this stage reached the naturalistic generalization.

Trustworthiness

I used several strategies to manage my subjectivity, improve trustworthiness, and validate emerging themes. First, I used three types of triangulation (Denzin, 1978, cited in Mathison, 1988): data, theory and methodological triangulations. For data triangulation, I collected multiple data sources from different points of time (Stake, 1995). For theory

triangulation, I continued writing literature memos that helped to interpret the data. For methodological triangulation, within my spiral analysis, I used different methods of analysis: annotations, analytical memos, and preliminary category charts. Second, I consulted peers and the supervising instructor of the research methodology course for feedback (Ely, Anzul, Friedman, & Garner, 1991). Third, I met with the participating teacher to share my interpretation, upon developing the tenth preliminary categories for member-checking (Ely et al., 1991; Stake, 1995)

Overall, the developmental, spiral analysis described above led to finding multiple dimensions of the scaffolded teacher talk that mediated and facilitated students' learning English. Anna's scaffolded talk was dialogic, mediated, purposeful, and comfortable and each of these themes is to be discussed in the following sections.

Multidimensional Scaffolded Teacher Talk

Anna King's verbal interaction with her students in her ESL grammar and writing class was, clearly, a type of everyday talk or "the ordinary kinds of communicating people do in schools" (Tracy, 2002, p. 5). A closer look, however, found her talk to be more special than ordinary, with multiple dimensions featuring the talk.

Anna's talk, being special, did not feel distant or difficult to understand. Her students could

“one hundred percent understand her” (student interview) although English, the target language of the class, was often described as “ambiguous” and “challenging” (Anna) or “complicated” and “difficult” (Hyunsun). Additionally, Anna’s language in interaction was by no means modified to the simpler version or lower level in terms of vocabulary or sentence structure (teacher interview) as many native speakers of English would do in their “foreigner talk” with non-English background speakers (Ferguson, 1975). Rather, her talk was the special scaffold (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976) or tool towards higher levels of learning and development (Vygotsky, 1994, cited in Robbins, 2003). Four dimensions that characterized Anna’s talk as special or scaffolded talk consisted of comfort, dialogicality, mediation, and purposefulness (Figure 1); further discussions of each dimension follow.

Comfortable Talk

Anna’s scaffolded talk was comfortable. It concerned the comfort zone created in the classroom through her talk. Anna’s supportive talk helped her students and herself to co-construct a safe space (Miller, Thompson, & Boyd, in press) for dialogic, mediated, and purposeful learning to occur in this grammar and writing class. Sharing Anna’s personal stories, calibrating language in use, personalizing, and using humor were the elements that made her talk comfortable and contributed to “building a relationship with the students”.

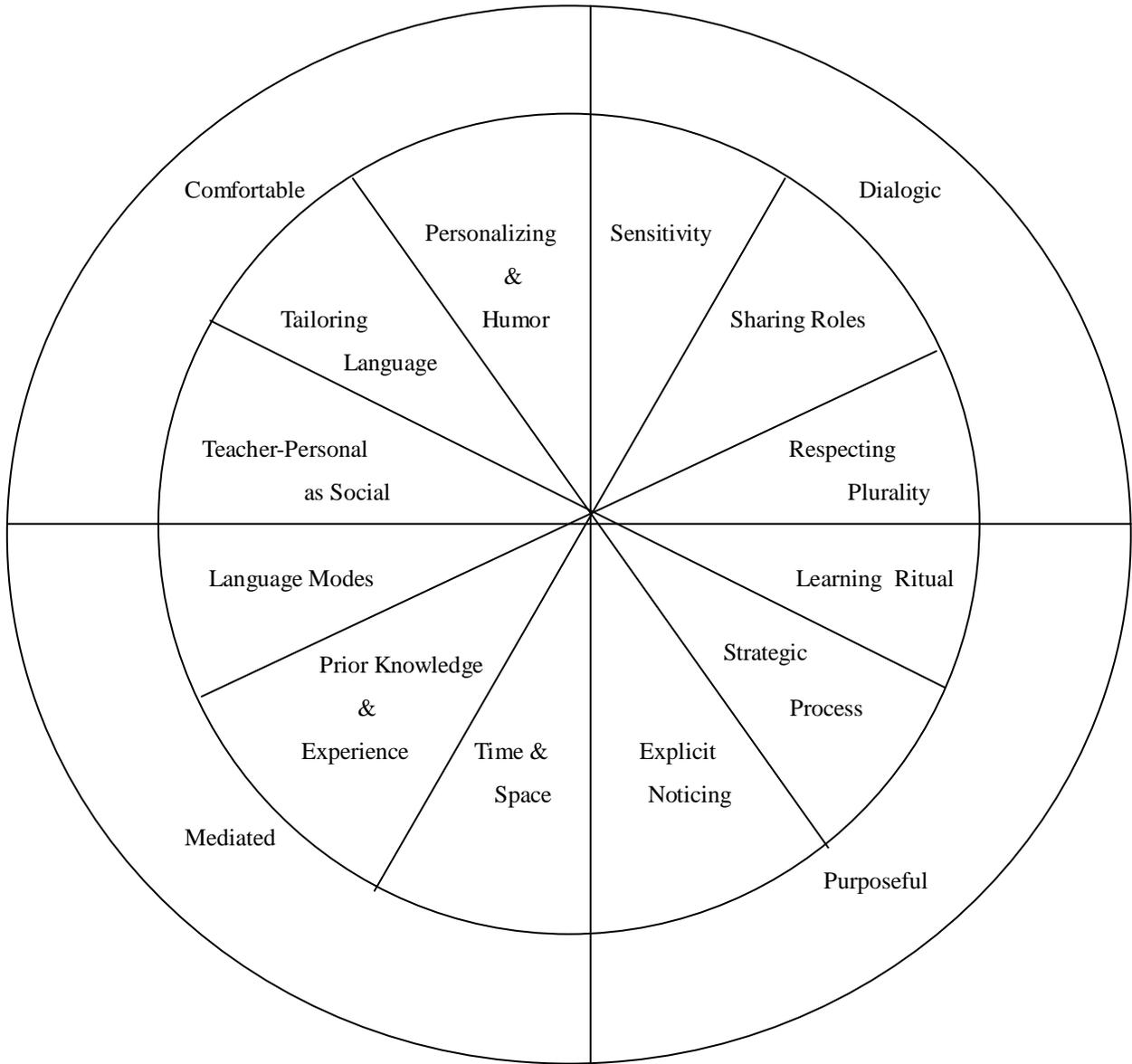


Figure 1. Anna's scaffolded teacher talk: Theme web

Making Teacher-Personal Social

Anna's talk was comfortable when she shared her personal stories openly with her students. She was open-minded when she (a) gave personal examples (e.g., "While I was in South America"), (b) talked about her own or local practices and events (e.g., "There was a chicken wing eating contest"), (c) admitted her lack of knowledge (e.g., "I don't know the situation"), (d) shared her own feelings about the class (e.g., "For me, it is always interesting. Every class is so different. You know, I see all of you INDIVIDUALS. But it is really interesting to look at you all as a class"), and (e) talked about her own growth as a teacher from the class (e.g., "Students present challenges and you LEARN from the challenges and that's why I appreciate that. I appreciate that about the class, all of you. You know, it's nice to be able to come into class").

In this comfortable, safe space created in Anna's class, students' growth to become "confident" language learners (student interview) was not the only change. Regardless of her intention to maintain strictness throughout the course, according as Anna became more comfortable with and built a relationship with her students, more of her "true personality come [came] out" with her students (teacher interview). Establishing rapport in the classroom was noticeable with the increase in her "giving more and more little life hints",

“sharing a little truism, a little life” or “mothering” in class (teacher interview).

Tailoring Language in Use

The comfort zone of Anna’s class was in part due to her tailoring the language in use with her students. Utterance tailoring was double-fold.

On the one hand, Anna was prudent in selecting words or expressions to ameliorate her language. For example, when students were worried about doing homework to write an argumentative essay, Anna emphasized it was “preliminary” not “definite.” Also, when they found English grammar confusing, Anna preferred to use “challenging” rather than “difficult” because “[If they say it’s difficult] they don’t think they can learn.it...You rise because of the challenge.” (teacher interview) Ameliorating the language in class could lead to “framing” and, thus, motivating the students to make efforts and achieve the goal.

On the other hand, Anna often provided the students with implicit corrective feedback when responding to their errors. She rarely said that they were wrong or incorrect. Rather, Anna referred to the correct answer as “a better one”. Also, as a response to Yuko’s utterance “I eat medicine,” Anna said, “Oh, you could say that, yeah. And *I would* use take, to take medicine. [italics added for emphasis]” Her implicit error correction oriented the class towards developing fluency rather than dichotomized accuracy.

Personalizing

Personalizing was, to Anna, “the first way to get the students to have the relationship with you and to know that the teacher cares.” (teacher interview) For this, she called on them as individuals by calling them by their first names (e.g., “How about the next one, *Michael?*; Anybody else, *Miki*, what are you good at // ?”), a type of talk observed very frequently in her class. Also Anna used students’ names in the examples (e.g., “It’s easy for *Cynthia* to pass the TOEFL or for me to pass the TOEFL, okay?”). Personalizing confirmed to the students that Anna knew them individually and such a practice helped to narrow the distance between Anna and her students and to reinforce the comfort in the community.

Using Humor

Anna’s talk contained much humor and meaning potential. Numerous incidents of humor in her talk strengthened my earlier image of the class upon my first observation: This was a “Class of Smiles” (analytical memo). To draw one incident, their grammar problem solving was like a game that both Anna and her students enjoyed: “This is a big one. Ying, Ying doesn’t get it? It goes to somebody else. I’m gonna ask you, Yuko. Go ahead for seven dollars.” Then, big laughter from every one of them filled the classroom.

As shown in the above example, humor in Anna's talk naturally invited her own and students' silent smile or voiced laughter. Crucially, smile and laughter were not solitary or unidirectional but shared. Shared humor was readily used by Anna and students as the response and respect to each other. It gave us insight into symmetry in classroom power and, also, the high level of engagement in class (Mariage, 2001). Smile and laughter often replaced or preceded/accompanied verbal language in Anna's class. Along with language, they were, therefore, fully meaningful semiotic tools for their communication and building comfortable relationships.

In summary, through her comfortable talk, Anna sought to build relationships with the students and scaffold learning by making teacher-personal social, tailoring language in use, personalizing, and using humor.

Dialogic Talk

Anna's talk was dialogic. The classroom discourse that she led and in which both she and her students engaged actively was a good example of Bakhtinian or genuine dialogue, understood as "communication between simultaneous differences (Clark & Holquist, 1984, p. 9)"; it was dialogue not because two or more people were physically conversing but because Anna, the focus of this study, "attempted to comprehend the

complex factors that make dialogue possible. (p. 9)” She was a significant figure among students and the image of Anna, “a good friend and advisor” (student interview), was far from an authoritarian dictator of the classroom interaction. On the contrary, Anna, a “non-authoritarian, authoritative” leader (Morson, 2004), was attentive to her students’ emergent needs; she, then, sought to make possible “reciprocal” dialogue (student interview), through her talk, by sharing roles with them, respecting plurality, and answering with sensitivity for their development.

Answering with Sensitivity for Development

A core feature of Anna and her students’ genuine dialogue created in this class related to notably sensitive answerability or addressivity (Hestenes, Cassidy, & Niemeyer, 2004; Holquist, 2002; Wertsch, 1991) towards the goal of understanding and development that Anna’s talk maintained throughout the course. In other words, Anna—who “worked very hard to listen” (teacher interview) to her students and, reciprocally, was “totally understood” (student interview) by them—assumed the third ear and eye (Clark & Holquist, 1984; Hawkins, 2004) towards her students’ voices, uttered or unspoken. As a result, Anna and her students, both of whom understood each other, became themselves full participants in the genuine dialogue (Clark & Holquist, 1984). Anna’s sensitive answering,

inclusive of responding to students' utterances and of uttering in anticipation of them ("prolepsis", Rommetveit, 1979, cited in Wertsch, 1991), was further characterized in two ways: seamless responsive and appropriately bridging.

Seamlessly responsive. Anna's talk felt like "glue" (analytical memo) to link all members of the class; her interaction with her students, thus, constituted "seamless discourse" (analytical memo). Further, I wrote in my analytical memo that "Both students and teacher grew here. Then, I see the relationships (teacher responsiveness > student and teacher reciprocal responsiveness > collective learning and development)." To elaborate, Anna's responsive or sensitive, as opposed to restrictive, talk (Cassidy & Buell, 1996) was conducive to creating and developing dialogic classroom interaction and, therefore, leading to the transformation of peripheral participants into full participants in the shared learning environment (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Anna's discourse was abundant in the instances of seamlessly responsive talk. To illustrate, she was seamlessly responsive when (a) asking genuine, not display or answer-known, questions "based on the interest level of the class" (teacher interview), (b) promptly requesting students to repeat unheard or unclear utterances, (c) repeating students' utterances ("revoicing", O'Connor & Michaels, 1993), (d) chorusing students' echoing of

Anna's modeling, (e) checking understanding (e.g., "Does it make sense?"; "Show me that you're with me"; "Younghoon?/// You got it. You sure?"), (f) immediately announcing real-time changes in the agenda so that "they're not confused" or do not "get frustrated" (teacher interview), (g) repeating or elaborating her own question for clarification, (h) acknowledging students' effort, and (i) following up students' silent questions (e.g., "Tell me what you want to tell me"; "If that's you were gonna ask me").

Anna: Okay, it introduces to the reader what the opposite side is saying.

Do they know the opposite side's saying? So, WHAT argument can be a lot stronger? Michael, *what were you gonna say? You have looked at me* [italics added for emphasis].

Michael: (unintelligible)

Anna: Okay, that's good. That's uh // your argument is the best argument, exactly.

The dialogue segment above shows an exemplary case of the last category, following up students' silent questions, worth further discussion here. It was while Anna was engaging another student when she was suddenly responding to Michael who did not say anything yet. She was reading the class. Every incident of this type of teacher's move impressed me

due to its sensitivity or seamlessness because the student, being responded to, had, in fact, a question not yet to come out. My hand-written annotation under this transcript segment reads, “Sensitivity: She notices his [Michael’s] intention to ask [a] Q or contribute to the discourse then makes a purposeful reading of facial expression.” Such seamlessly responsive talk shed lights on her epistemology in practice that resounded that of Bakhtin’s dialogism: Anna acknowledged the “simultaneous existence of manifold possibilities” (Holquist, 2002, p. 181) and equally valued differences among students.

Appropriately bridging. The other facet of Anna’s sensitive answerability concerned her providing the students with the very scaffold (Wood et al., 1976) on which for less competent learners could grow from the stage of independent performance to the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978; Wood et al.).

Anna’s repertoire of the “temporary framework for construction progress” (Cazden, 1983, cited in McVee & Pearson, 2003) was double-fold. On one hand, when a student had difficulty in solving the problem at hand independently, Anna (a) encouraged peers to help only when needed, (b) gave crucial hints or word meaning to progress, (c) broke down the task or assigned a different task to different individuals to make it manageable, and (d) filled the gap at the point of hesitation. On the other hand, when a student or group of

students succeeded in one task, Anna (e) metacognitively summarized the work done and prepared them for the next stage, (f) encouraged them to try an enrichment activity independently, (g) expanded the student's contribution with further information or new knowledge (McVee & Pearson, 2003), or (h) advised them to expand themselves.

During one writing practice session, Anna says to students who wrote a one-word sentence:

Write a longer sentence. Don't just write a little baby..little sentence. Okay? He, he should, he COULD have studied BECAUSE..da da da da da da da da da da. Okay? So, go ON with the sentence. Don't just write that little, that little bit, okay? That's, that's easy...Challenge yourself.

By encouraging the students to do a better or harder job and providing the beginning of the constructed sentence, as in the above, Anna scaffolded their development in the cognitive dimension. Equally importantly, she intentionally made such utterances to make them challenge and feel successful and "confident" because "confidence [is] the key to the student's being able to do well" (teacher interview). It suggests that her talk also addressed the interpersonal dimension of development, often neglected in our understanding of scaffolded instruction (Stone, 1993).

Sharing Roles

Another nature featuring Anna's dialogic talk concerned her sharing roles with students. To share roles, she involved students in her grammar and writing class as significant participants and co-teachers. In so doing, Anna transferred control and shared ownership of ideas and process with them (Berry, 2006).

Significant participants. In Anna's class, students were not passive recipients of knowledge or skills that a teacher transmitted or the textbook prescribed. What to teach or the whole plan of the class was, then, not at Anna's total command, but at her and all her students'. In her class, Anna was "opening up the floor to everyone" (teacher interview) and continued to do that not to "allow someone to dominate the class". In other words, the students were significant participants and "part of that plan" because "this [class] is after all your [students'] class and this is."

To exemplify Anna's involvement of the students as significant participants, here is a partial list of her strategies: She (a) called students as a whole-group or an individual for contribution (e.g., "What about you..what is your preference to this?"), (b) assigned credit to the student's contribution (e.g., "Be cautious of ANY research, but *as Michael said*, the potential BENEFITS of stem cell research are more important than the danger. Did you see

that?” [italics added for emphasis]), (c) decided lesson transitions upon the student’s decision, and (d) took up students’ utterance as the substance or what to discuss at the given point of the class (e.g., “I wanna go back to something /// Younghoon does ask me this now and Hyunsun asks me also”), the last category of which deserves further discussion below.

Students’ uptake indicates the level of engagement and is, thus, a good sign for active learning (Ferdig & Roehler, 2003-2004). In addition to numerous incidents of student uptake as an increased participation pattern to be discussed later in this paper, Anna’s classroom discourse raised an interesting question about teacher’s uptake: “Who is the one that takes up?” (analytical memo) Then, my first analytical memo answers my own question: “My on-going analysis tells me that she, the teacher took up the student’s utterance and tried to understand (e.g., “What do you mean?”) and used it as a lesson material for the whole group.” The memo continues with my comment written with excitement: “Very interesting is that Anna made a bridge from an individual student’s question or interest to a bigger group: [H]er talk made the mediation for collective and, often, collaborative learning (T invitation > individual S question > whole-group learning).” In this sense, Anna’s talk was conducive to dialogic learning and her students were significant participants in that learning.

Multiple teachers. One of the roles that Anna willingly shared with her significant students was that of a teacher. For the students to take this new role, she (a) told them to check their own, plural answers with their partners or in a group, (b) encouraged them to learn from peers (e.g., “You can go and listen to Ying and Yuko”), and (c) asked them when Anna was not sure of the problem.

To further explain this role-sharing, when Anna had difficulty with the problem at hand herself, she intentionally “throw [threw] it out to the class. It gives me [gave her] time to think /// Someone from the class always adds [added] to it.” (teacher interview) It did not mean she was not competent with the content or pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987). In fact, Anna with two postsecondary education degrees and years of teaching experiences was acclaimed as an expert at both areas: Cheng commented about her expertise: “Sometimes after class we [students] talk about the teacher[s] with other level student[s]. And all the Lake Language School student[s] think // Ms King, Anna King, she is a very // good teacher.... She always know[s] how to explain.” The reason Anna promoted students-as-teachers opportunities, then, lay in her belief in peer learning, as she said, “They [Students] learn something quickly from their partners // The partner explained it in a better way // It’s comfortable”, and also in her philosophy in practice that student

agency leads to learning (Roth, 2002, cited in Berry & Englert, 2005): She tried “not to make the grammar and writing class teacher-dominated” (teacher interview).

Respecting Plurality

The other feature of Anna’s dialogic talk related to its respect for plurality, that is, respect for reality. In many institutional settings, students often live in an either/or world that does not reflect the reality of their life worlds. Their competence to recognize or produce prescriptively accurate structures or forms is, thus, mistakenly considered to be the sole indicator that learning has happened or the only truth has been found. By contrast, and more desirably, Anna’s talk drew on and made real the true plurality of Bakhtinian, both/and epistemology that celebrates cultural-specific relations over universality (Clark & Holquist, 1984; Holquist, 2002) in her pedagogy: “We’re learning formal grammar in here but when you go to the real world outside the classroom, you’re gonna hear this, and this, and this, and this. That’s one thing. But also, there are multiple ways to say something and that’s the grammar class is all about.” (teacher interview)

More in detail, to extend the plural reality to her grammar and writing class, Anna (a) acknowledged diverse ways to say a thing (e.g., “Now, just different ways to say it, to say the same thing”; “You know, there’s no rule that says you have to do this way....These

are just examples of two different styles.”), (b) let students challenge the answer key in the textbook or teacher’s answer to the problem, (c) had them choose the way to work on an activity (e.g., “You can work together if you want to.”), and (d) asked them about their own cultural practices (e.g., “How about other countries?”).

In summary, through her talk, Anna provided her students with verbal scaffolds towards dialogic teaching and learning, by means of responding seamlessly and appropriately, sharing roles with significant student-teachers, and celebrating plural, multicultural literacy practices.

Mediated Talk

Anna’s talk was mediated. It was not a mere verbalization of prefixed, abstract structures. Rather, her talk-in-interaction was co-constructed and mediated by concepts and cultural entities (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978) available to her. Incomplete are, thus, any attempts to describe her talk as an instructional tool without taking into consideration various mediating elements. Language modes, prior knowledge and experience, space, and time embedded Anna’s talk; she was a designer of these elements towards her students’ multimodal learning, through her talk (New London Group, 1996).

Language Modes as Meaning-Making Resources

Both oral and written modes of Anna's talk mediated linguistic, audio, and visual aspects of multimodal meaning-making or learning.

Oral-mode design. Oral language constituted the linguistic and audio elements of multimodal learning. On the one hand, for linguistic design (New London Group, 1996), Anna (a) tried different sentence structures (statements, questions, non-inverted questions) to make understood her intention until she received students' response, (b) paraphrased using synonyms to facilitate students' understanding and (c) analyzed the structure of student's utterance using grammar terms (e.g., "First you used the noun"). On the other hand, for audio design, she (d) read aloud the problem while students read it themselves, (e) thought aloud her private speech for problem solving modeling, (f) asked students in pairs to read aloud the dialogue in the textbook or handout, and (g) heightened the voice to emphasize key words of the problem. Anna's audio design was effective in that the changing tone of voice or intonation "gave meaning to the sentence" and the students who heard it with its enriched meaning "got it right away" (teacher interview).

Written-mode design. Written language promoted visual learning (New London Group, 1996). For this, Anna (a) referred the essay in the textbook to "*show* them [students]

a lot of model essays” (teacher interview), (b) pointed to the sentence or paragraph on the board or handout, (c) wrote down examples on the board (e.g., “Let me write the sentence to *see*”), and, (d) made sure the students *see* the written language as the reference. She did so because it was “important for the language learners to *see* what we’re talking about” and “[writing] on the board [will] direct their attention // Their seeing it and reading it hopefully will lock it in.” (teacher interview) Additional mode of language to the verbal instruction added salience and helped students to pay attention to and, possibly, intake and, further, internalize the second language (Swain, 1985).

Prior Knowledge and Experience as Meaning-Making Resources

Students’ prior knowledge and experience also embedded and mediated Anna’s talk. Her talk showed the developmental, social nature of learning (Vygotsky, 1978), first, from familiar to unfamiliar by intertextualizing knowledge and experience, and, second, from social to individual by distributing knowledge and experience.

Intertextualizing developmental knowledge and experience. Students’ learned knowledge and experience in the past, whether in institutionalized or cultural settings, are important resources or available designs for meaning-making in Anna’s classroom talk (New London Group, 1996). She built on students’ learning experience by (a) referring

other ESL classes that were topically connected with the grammar and writing class, and (b) reminding the students that they knew the basic concept from previous lessons with her (e.g., “You noticed this already”) or in their home countries (e.g., “You learned back home”).

The familiar knowledge and experience of the text, then constructed as the result of social interaction (Kress, 2003) in class and back home was skillfully connected with the new. Anna’s intertextualizing was beyond mere juxtaposing different texts (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993, cited in Kyratzis & Green, 1997). Such discursive moves helped to create “richly textured opportunities” (Goldenberg, 1993) for learning and mediated development from spontaneous to scientific concepts (Vygotsky, 1978) so that Anna’s lesson made developmental transitions in terms of “the social organization of the relations between texts” (Holquist, 2002, p. 88) or social interaction, for example, from her lead to students’ own explanation of what they learned (e.g., “Explain it to your partner”; “Let me hear your explanation”).

Celebrating distributed knowledge and experience. Anna used her talk in various ways to promote social learning in the community of 16 learners. She (a) shared feedback to individual students’ homework or small-group work with the whole-group (e.g., “Those

are good, Cynthia. Alright, everybody, let me have your attention for a minute, Everyone!”), (b) read aloud individual students’ answers written on their notebooks, (c) asked students to repeat their opinion or say louder to make sure everyone heard it, and (d) had them explain to each other what they learned (e.g., “With partners, don’t do it by yourself”). Such social processes helped the students to openly share and learn from distributed knowledge (Gee, 2004), and, as a result, promoted opportunities for individuals’ externalizations of their subjective knowledge and experience in the social space, the essential process needed for internalization or learning (Chen & Hung, 2002).

Time and Space as Meaning-Making Resources

Time and space were two other important mediators embedded in Anna’s talk. These mediators in her talk were not transcendental concepts, but “the forms of the most immediate reality” (Clark & Holquist, 1984, p. 59).

In Anna’s class, she designed a social space for learning in following explicit, real ways: She (a) told the students to leave the door open in the beginning of the lesson (e.g., “Hyunsun, would you leave that open, just a little bit?”), (b) reminded them not to sit with those who spoke the same language (e.g., “Alert! Alert! Two Japanese students sitting together....Red light is on. Rang, rang, rang, rang”), and (c) diversified small-group

arrangements according to language proficiency, cooperative attitudes, and personality (e.g., “Because you are not confident, I’m gonna group you Ying with someone else”).

Also, Anna designed time in these real ways: She (a) arranged timed agenda for the task and break (e.g., “We’ll take a break now, early, um because, otherwise, we start something // and have to stop”), (b) kept time during small-group work (e.g., “Three minutes!”), (c) revisited a certain topic at different times to “review something every day you did the day before or a week ago” (teacher interview), and (d) maintained wait time to elicit students’ contribution (e.g., “And then remembering is // “ [answered by a student’s response “Object!”]). In these concrete ways, time and space in Anna’s talk added values to meaning-making potential or learning potential in the class (Clark & Holquist, 1984).

In summary, oral and written language modes, prior knowledge and experience, and time and space, as resources for meaning-making in Anna’s class, mediated her scaffolding students’ learning.

Purposeful Talk

Anna’s talk was purposeful. Her talk-in-interaction was a dynamic action towards the conscious goal of learning (Robbins, 2003). Through her talk, Anna sought to build a learning ritual, make learning a strategic process, and promote explicit noticing in the

classroom.

Building a Learning Ritual

Anna's purposeful talk ritualized learning in her class. As Anna affirmed during the interview, "There's something done every single lesson." Her talk created a ritual, a series of actions or repeated procedure. As discussed previously, she (a) reminded the students of the sitting rule (e.g., "Remember you're not supposed to sit with somebody of your own language group"), and (b) did not fail to ask questions before making lesson transitions (e.g., "Any questions about any of those? Further explanations? ///// No? ///// Okay! Move along"). Also, she continuously (c) announced the lesson agenda of the day and the one after, (d) announced the assessment plan (e.g., "This is how I gave you the grade"), (e) referred the page number of the task, and (f) explained the nature and purpose of the classroom task and homework (e.g., "The purpose of this just is using uh verbs that take infinitives").

Anna's verbal scaffolds above were "rhythmic repetition" (Tusting, 2000) so that the pattern was ritualized in the community of learners and students could, thus, even recall the "cycle" (student interview). Participating in the learning ritual became a "habit" (teacher interview), not in the behaviorist sense, but in the cultural historical activity sense,

understood as an automatized, situated “operation” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Anna’s ritually synchronizing students’ participation structure in the class (Tusting) helped the lesson look “organized” and the organized or ritualized lesson helped them to build their “confidence in the lesson, in the teacher and also in themselves” and, further, “inspires them and encourages them to work harder” (teacher interview). Impressively, neither the rules in this class nor Anna were authoritarian; students felt “comfortable” with the rules and their teacher because “the purpose of the rules is [was] to help people”; therefore “they [the rules] worked well.” (student interview)

Making Learning a Strategic Process

Anna, through her purposeful talk, tried to make learning a strategic or effective process. Effective ESL instruction affects and enhances the quality of learning English. In this regard, Anna used various scaffolds to mediate strategic learning: She (a) told the students problem solving strategies (e.g., “Remember the adjective comes before the noun”), (b) gave them learning tips such as writing to learn to write (e.g., “You really need to write some of these yourself to really understand it”) or using a checklist to review their own writing process (e.g., “I asked them to check it off // not that they don’t know, they just don’t look carefully, teacher interview”), (c) guided them to learning resources such as the

textbook (e.g., “Read that part. That will explain”) or a useful website (e.g., “Can you be gone on to the Opposing Viewpoints site? Have you been yet?”), and (d) provided them with mini lessons such as those on challenges in learning (e.g., “Figure it out on your own, torture yourself, you should be figuring it out”; “You need to challenge yourself”; “You should move up to a higher level”).

One impressive mini lesson that Anna constantly shared with her students throughout the semester was the lesson of “tolerance hat” (the term that Anna wrote on the board during her lesson): It was about ambiguity in learning and emphasized the need for tolerance and patience. She elaborates why they should wear the tolerance hat in class:

To learn grammar, you must have tolerance for ambiguity, and we talked about what that meant. Tolerance, high tolerance of ambiguity. You have to be able to // stand something that you can't understand. Get to tolerate that you don't understand it. Don't expect to get it first. First time we go over the book, you might be confused. It's after you work through it and work through the sentences. I explain it more. You work some more and then you get it.

Then, she adds what learning a language is like by comparing it with math:

It's not always like math (laughs) It's not one plus one is two. (laughs) It's more

like one plus one is sometimes two, sometimes two and a half (laughs) and sometimes it's not two at all (laughs)... Grammar, learning a language is not always precise. There's a lot of ambiguity.

This type of strategic learning lessons gave insights on the interpersonal dimension of scaffolding (Stone, 1993) in that, by doing so, Anna helped the students to “reduce their frustration” that they often felt when they made mistakes and, thus, encouraged them to understand each other better and to “build cohesiveness among the classroom” (teacher interview).

Promoting Explicit Noticing

Anna's purposeful talk promoted students' explicit noticing. Although “deep learning works better as a cultural process than it does as an instructed process” (Gee, 2004, p. 13) and every error should not be pointed out for correction unless it interferes communication as advocated in focus-on-form, not focus-on-forms, ESL instruction, instructional intervention at the point of need is a crucial element in effective instruction (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

Anna did her verbal intervention by (a) correcting students' errors in terms of form (e.g., [Cheng: She shouldn't have been uncareful] “Okay, UNcareful is careless”) or

meaning (e.g., [Student: Someone didn't come] "Wait, they did come so // because someone came into the house"), and (b) identifying their weakness areas that they needed to work on (e.g., [in a lesson about reduction such as should've instead of should have] "It gets reduced to a. And so that's why sometimes you don't understand Americans, not because your ENGLISH is not good. It's because you're waiting for them to say THIS [should have]").

Further, her interventional scaffold was not a discrete-item structural drill; also, it did not end as a diagnosis of problem areas; in essence, her talk provided needed treatment. Anna kept telling the students to avoid being obsessed in structure (e.g., "The grammar is correct....But the meaning wouldn't be there") and to make "meaning", "a story" or "context" (the words on which Anna put heavy emphasis throughout the lessons) for communication (e.g., "To make sense, you have to have meaning. You can't put it in any old sentence....So, what's the story?"). Through Anna's talk, her students were trained or socialized to notice or become meta-aware of their weakness and reflect on their language in use.

In summary, Anna's moves to build a learning ritual, make learning a strategic process and promote explicit noticing made her talk and, further, learning in the class,

purposeful, strategic, and, thus, effective.

Second Language Learning Through Scaffolded Teacher Talk

In addition to the multi-dimensions of Anna's scaffolded teacher talk, this study also found the effect of scaffolded teacher talk on learning ESL. Analyses of the data led to finding multiple dimensions where second language learning was noted. Learning, scaffolded by meaningful social interaction in general and Anna's talk in particular, was well evidenced in the students' production, process and affective dimensions.

Learning in the Production Dimension

Students' learning occurred in their writing and grammar let alone the scores in grammar practice tests. Among three courses in the intensive English program in which the students enrolled, writing, in which grammar in use was embedded and which Anna taught, tended "to be the biggest growth they make [made]." (teacher interview) Reflecting on their trajectory in the course, Anna commented on students' growth in their language in use:

Before that, it's kind of, like pulling a heavy load up the hill, for them and for me, too, you know, chuck chuck chuck very slowly up....Writing become smoother.

Their papers become smoother and the grammar in the paper was better and I think this is that point. They reached that point maybe about three weeks ago....Now they

are at the top and they are going along quickly. They're not going up the hill slowly any more.

The sharp improvement was evident to the students as well. Cheng, whose friends used to call him to ask the meaning in his email, was certain to say:

When I opened the before [earlier] assignment on my computer, I can find many, many mistake[s]. Yes, so, I think I improved in writing, not, not just grammar. And sometimes that's the organization, the structure. [Previously] I didn't say main idea, uh I didn't, I didn't make conclusion. I didn't talk about my thesis statement.....

That's the evidence. I know I improved a lot in the writing.

It was not certain that Anna's talk was the causal factor on students' productive learning; it was, however, certain that her talk or asking played a crucial role on their production, as Cheng added: "We know how to organize, how to develop a[n] essay yeah.

And she *ask[ed]* we have to say that again. [italics added for emphasis]"

Learning in the Process Dimension

Learning is better understood in terms of process or participation than scores in standardized tests (Robbins, 2003). A remarkable growth was seen in the students' participation patterns in this class. The high level of participation kept drawing my attention

since the first day of observation—students’ voluntary participation; climate of this class, grammar class, very conversational (handwritten fieldnote).

For example, students, as significant participants in this class, frequently initiated discussions with their own questions or comments and continued asking questions until they reached understanding. The students, also as multiple teachers in the class, brought up their own examples, gave corrective feedback to other students, collectively or individually, and even interrupted teacher-student conversations to contribute to collective learning. Students participated actively because “[t]hey really wanna understand it” (teacher interview). In the middle of the heated participation towards understanding, continued students’ overlapping utterances, “Aha” “Uhum uhum uhum” and shared laughters.

The students, “timid” and “unconfident” at first (teacher interview), did not begin the course as active questioners but changed due to changing participation patterns in the class and constant teacher encouragement (e.g., “You have to ask questions”) as Anna reflected:

They weren’t doing that [asking questions] in the beginning. They had to get used to, used to that. We had to // *encourage* them to do that. You know, eventually, it’s true that they do that. They’re *asked* to practice....They see other students do it //

Encouragement from teachers, you know, caused them to go ahead now questions.

(italics added for emphasis)

Learning in the Affective Dimension

Strong glimmers of language learning were also found in the students' improved confidence, relationships with teacher and peers, and attitudes towards grammar.

First, Hyunsun succinctly stated her change in confidence, in her contrast with the past: "I was scary of writing English in my home country before....But I think I can do it [write English] (laughs)" She, then, added how growing confidence influenced her own endeavor in life: "The most important thing. Now I have confidence in learning English. So if I study harder for a long time, I could, I will achieve my goal." To Hyunsun, now confident, the new life-goal, unexpected in the beginning of the course, was to pursue graduate studies in the United States. She attributed the challenge to Anna: "She made people study and try." Hyunsun challenged herself to "go to the next level" as repeatedly emphasized in Anna's mini lessons.

Next, students' building relationships with Anna and their peers was a remarkable accomplishment and indication of learning. Anna, maintaining the usual "sternness" "strictness" and "seriousness" (student interview), was called "grandma" in class. She was

not only a “very good teacher” but also a “good friend and advisor” whom the students could “depend on” and “trust” (student interview). Students, who “were not getting along” in the beginning (teacher interview), shared information and encouraged each other as the class and their relationship developed (student interview). In short, they became a “cohesive group” (teacher interview).

Then, an interesting finding from students’ invited reflections on the last class was that, regardless of varied extents of liking or interest, they came to understand in unison grammar as an “important” “necessary” and “useful” tool for language learning. To them, grammar was not a subject to study for tests; it was compared to “a frame of the house” (Hyunsun), and also described as “a basic structural framework for everyday conversation” and “every language’s grandma” (Nori).

To summarize, in Anna’s scaffolded grammar and writing class, students showed various dimensions of second language learning such as in their grammar and writing productions, classroom participation processes, and relationship buildings. In other words, her instruction mediated by her scaffolded teacher talk seemed to provide the students with both semiotic and interpersonal dimensions of scaffolding (Stone, 1993).

Conclusion

The developmental, spiral analyses, grounded on the sociocultural framework, of the teacher-student verbal interaction in the ESL grammar and writing class resulted in finding multiple dimensions of scaffolded teacher talk. Through her talk, Anna scaffolded comfortable, dialogic, mediated, and purposeful learning. Also, found was the impact of scaffolded teacher talk on second language learning. Learning in production, participation, and affective dimensions were well noted.

Implications of the findings of this study are two-fold. First, theoretically, this study rightly draws attention to the sociocultural, paradigmatic understanding of language and language learning. Language is a semiotic resource; thus, as advocated in the participation metaphor of language learning, it can be effectively evidenced and assessed in the dynamic process of changing class participation patterns and attitudinal changes, not merely in the quantified scores in the standardized tests. Second, practically, the findings of this study may encourage teachers and teacher-educators to raise awareness of their language in use as a powerful tool to mediate effective learning. Crucially needed is dialogue about developing scaffolded teacher talk among practitioners.

In taking into consideration that this study focused on the teacher's side of the

classroom discourse, in order to improve our understanding of scaffolded instruction through talk, I call for further research that extends the focus to students' talk in class and also includes non-verbal semiotic actions as integral elements in the classroom social interaction.

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