









## ABSTRACT

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Scaffolded assistance provided by an EFL teacher during whole-class interaction

Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä, 2005, 331 p.

(Jyväskylä Studies in Humanities

ISSN 1459-4331; 32)

ISBN 951-39-2049-6

Finnish Summary

Diss.

This study investigates scaffolded assistance provided by an EFL teacher during whole-class interaction from a Vygotskian sociocultural perspective. The process of scaffolding has previously been studied mostly in one-to-one interactions, but this study focuses on teacher-fronted interactions in a naturalistic whole-class setting. The present study also extends research on scaffolding by examining the process in the Finnish school context, which has received little consideration. Firstly, the study describes the general organisation of grammar instructional episodes in the whole-class context and explores how the teacher and learners exploit the Initiation-Response-Follow-up (IRF) structure within these episodes. Secondly, the study investigates the strategies the teacher employs in providing learners with scaffolded assistance. In addition, the features of scaffolding shown to be effective by the data of the study are described.

The data comprised 11 successive audio- and video-recorded English lessons. The lessons were recorded during teacher-led whole-class interaction in a secondary school in Finland. For the purposes of the present study 15 grammar instructional episodes were chosen for micro-analysis. The data are analysed at three levels: the general organisation of grammar instructional episodes, the sequential organisation of classroom discourse and the strategies employed by the teacher in providing scaffolding. The methodology builds on previous studies of classroom discourse and scaffolding. The analysis is based on Vygotskian sociocultural theory and the concepts of scaffolding and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). The present study is a descriptive case study that focuses on one English course given by a single language teacher.

The grammar instructional episodes turned out to be organised into phases by the participants: the opening, grammar instructional and closing phases. The analysis also showed that both the teacher and the learners exploit the basic IRF structure during the teaching-learning process. Furthermore, the teacher used several different strategies in providing the learners with scaffolded assistance. Finally, the scaffolding that turned out to be effective in the present study was found to be gradual, contingent and shared by all the participants involved.

Keywords: scaffolded assistance, sociocultural theory, Vygotsky, Zone of Proximal Development, EFL classroom

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The process of doing research can be compared to an interesting adventure with its unforeseen turns. Being able to share the ups and downs of the process with many people makes the adventure even more rewarding. Many marvellous people have helped me along the way, providing guidance, support, help and friendship.

I am particular grateful to my supervisor, Professor Paula Kalaja, who has given me generous support. She has never tired of reading my work. Her comments on the many drafts helped me to clarify my ideas. She has unfailingly encouraged me and given her help. I thank her for her faith in me.

I would like to express my gratitude for the constructive comments that I have received from the examiners of the dissertation, Professor Leila Ranta of the University of Alberta and Docent Riikka Alanen of the University of Jyväskylä. I am deeply grateful to Riikka Alanen for her valuable advice that steered me in the right direction at the beginning of the process.

I wish to thank the former Department of English (now Department of Languages). The encouraging atmosphere of the department has helped me greatly to work on my thesis. I especially wish to thank Hannele Dufva for encouraging discussions and comments. I would also like to thank Tuula Hirvonen, Arja Piirainen-Marsh and Anne Pitkänen-Huhta whose courses on linguistics I have attended and who have stimulated me to continue my studies.

I wish to express my warmest thanks to Sanna Neva and her class, who volunteered to participate in the research by letting us videotape their lessons. You made this study possible.

I wish to extend my gratitude to the Department of English (Languages), Faculty of Humanities and the University of Jyväskylä for financial support which made the writing of the thesis possible. My thanks also go to David Underwood for careful proofreading of the manuscript. Any remaining errors are mine. I wish to thank Matti Haveri-Heikkilä for designing the cover.

I wish to thank all my friends. My special thanks go to Irene Hyrkstedt for many professional and not so professional discussions in Jyväskylä. I want to thank my fellow students at the Department of English (Languages) with whom I have shared many seminars. It has been rewarding to share experiences with you. My thanks also go to Katja Mäntylä who has given me valuable practical advice. I also want to thank our headmaster and my colleagues in our senior high school who have given me support.

Finally, I am deeply grateful to my family and my parents who have shared with me the best and the worst of the process. They have been understanding, loving and supportive. Without them February 19<sup>th</sup> 2005 would not look as bright as it does now.

*Omistan tämän työn äidilleni ja isälleni.*

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# 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Orientation

In foreign/second language (L2) classrooms, language has been viewed both as the target and means of instruction. In discussing L2 teacher education several researchers have noted that language teachers are charged with a number of different tasks including, for example, 1) communicating effectively to pupils about the target language, 2) communicating effectively to pupils in the target language, 3) providing pupils with opportunities to communicate about the target language, and 4) providing pupils with opportunities to communicate in the target language (e.g. Tedick and Walker 1994). L2 researchers and teachers endeavour to identify beneficial ways of assisting pupils' learning. Importantly, assistance provided by an L2 teacher in the classroom involves more than getting pupils on task and presenting content in organised ways. Assistance also involves collaborative interaction between a teacher and pupils. Such interaction is, as demonstrated in a master's thesis on a teacher's scaffolding at different levels of the ZPD (Hakamäki and Lonka 2000), much more subtle than many earlier studies on L2 classrooms have indicated. The findings of that study, in fact, greatly motivated the undertaking of this further study. The study referred to confirms the observations made by van Lier (1994), who points out that before we speculate on the ideal method of communication, we should first examine how interaction works between participants in the classroom context. Unless teachers understand the mechanisms of discourse within which they interact as teachers, effective assistance will be impossible.

Corrective feedback provided by an L2 teacher in assisting learners with different tasks has been widely studied from a number of different perspectives (see e.g. Schachter 1991). Previous studies have focused, for example, on teachers' reactions to learners' errors, the effects of the various types of feedback on L2 learning and comparison of the learning outcomes of feedback and non-feedback groups of learners (e.g. Carroll and Swain 1993, Carroll, Swain and Roberge 1992, DeKeyser 1993, Lyster and Ranta 1997, Spada and Lightbown 1993). Researchers in this field have, however, started to look into

other theoretical fields in order to conceptualise a broader and at the same time more detailed understanding of language teaching and learning that takes the larger social context of real communicative interaction into account. Accordingly, some researchers have started to consider also the abilities of learners and their participation in the correction transaction, viewing the process as joint activity in which both the teacher and the learner are actively involved. In other words, they have started to study the issue from a sociocultural perspective emphasising the interactive nature of the teaching-learning process. The idea that learning is a collaborative process, and socially constructed through interaction, is not a completely new idea. The best-known impetus for studies from a sociocultural perspective in the 1980s was the introduction of the learning theory of Lev S. Vygotsky (1896-1934) to the domain of L2 learning. Within Vygotsky's sociocultural framework researchers have begun to pay more attention to the linguistic details of expert-novice and novice-novice interactions and the learning process in different contexts (e.g. Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Antón 1999, DiCamilla and Antón 1997, Donato 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 1994, 2000, Lantolf 1994, 2000ab, Lantolf and Aljaafreh 1995, Mercer 1995, Ohta 1999, 2000ab, Wells 1999, Wertsch 1985ab, 1991a, 1998). The present study subscribes to the premises of this field of study and ventures to examine scaffolding in the Finnish foreign language classroom from a Vygotskian sociocultural perspective.

Seeing teaching and learning as a collaborative process where continuous negotiations between participants are central opens up new perspectives on the study of teacher-learner interaction in the classroom. Several premises of this perspective are significant for L2 learning. In this view, learning and development are linked. The inherited biological characteristics of language comprise only the necessary preconditions for the capacity to learn, while the environment defines the fundamental core of what gets learned and what shape it takes (e.g. Lantolf 2000b, A. A. Leont'ev 1981). Key elements of this process include the specific contexts of co-operation and the particular opportunities that learners create and other participants provide for them to participate in the activity. Development is considered to proceed as the transformation of capacities once they intertwine with mediational means constructed socioculturally (e.g. Lantolf 2000b, Wertsch 1991a, 1994, 1998). Importantly, in this view L2 learning is considered a mediated process. In activities that are realised primarily through interpersonal interactions the communicative means participants use provide the most extensive tools for working with others (e.g. Lantolf 2000b). The specific means used in these interactions define both the content and direction of the participants' communicative competence: language thus plays important roles (e.g. A. A. Leont'ev 1981). From this perspective on language and learning, classrooms where learners interact with the teacher and with each other while carrying out different tasks are considered important sites of learning.

Previous L1 and L2 studies within Vygotskian sociocultural theory have increased our understanding of teaching and learning as a social practice. There are, however, aspects that call for further studies. While the process by which an expert helps a novice to learn how to perform new tasks, that is, the process of scaffolding, has been given considerable attention in the context of one-to-one interactions, the scaffolding process in teacher-fronted interactions in a naturalistic whole-class setting has received much less attention. The scaffolding process in Finnish classrooms, in particular, has not been given much consideration. Nor has the organisation of instructional episodes and spoken discourse as a broader context for the scaffolding process. As talk is central in the classroom context, the present study recognises the important role of verbal interaction in the classroom. This study assumes that discourse shapes teaching and learning, and thus also instructional episodes. At the same time, however, interaction is also shaped by the organisation of instructional episodes. The present study further assumes that understanding the sociocultural nature of the instructional context is necessary in order to understand the actions and discourse within that context. This study seeks, therefore, to contribute to knowledge concerning the scaffolded assistance provided by an L2 teacher in the classroom by means of a detailed examination of the interaction between the teacher and the pupils. It is important to note that the term second language (L2) is here used to refer to both foreign and second language learning, without making a distinction between these two types of learning. This is in line with the approach of several researchers (e.g. Ellis 1994) who use this term as a superordinate term to cover both types of learning. However, it is also important to note in this connection that in Finland English is in fact studied as a foreign language at schools. That is, English is studied and taught in an environment where English is not commonly spoken as a everyday language.

The study draws on research into classroom discourse and studies within Vygotskian sociocultural theory. An inherent relationship exists between sociocultural theory and classroom discourse research. As Forman and McCormick (1995:3) state, "sociocultural theory proposes that instruction entails cognitive, social, cultural, affective, and communicative aspects and discourse analysis allows one to examine those aspects as they occur in real time and in naturalistic settings". If one views classroom discourse as a tool that shapes, guides and constructs teaching and learning, that is, as a mediational means, then a theoretical framework that supports and explains this viewpoint is necessary in order to study classroom discourse systematically.

## **1.2 Aims**

The present study seeks to describe L2 interaction in its naturalistic teacher-fronted whole-class setting from a Vygotskian perspective through a detailed

examination of specific instructional episodes. More specifically, the aim of the study is to analyse the scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher during whole-class interaction at the micro-level, thus providing a framework within which scaffolding can be investigated in classrooms. In the study scaffolded assistance is viewed as consisting of the different strategies the teacher employs in assisting learners through various grammar tasks. The study builds on and seeks to extend current work within the Vygotskian sociocultural framework by focusing on scaffolding during teacher-led whole-class interaction. Moreover, the aim is to contribute to the understanding of the scaffolding process, firstly by examining the organisation of the episodes and spoken discourse, and secondly by describing the scaffolding strategies the L2 teacher employs in providing learners with scaffolding as defined by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976). The present case study also aims to further research on scaffolding by examining the process in the Finnish school context, which few studies have addressed. In fact, no studies of the scaffolding process during regular L2 teacher-led whole-class interaction have been published in Finland so far. This study approaches scaffolding from a broader perspective than previous studies by examining also the different phases of a lesson and the sequential organisation of classroom discourse. In order to gain insight into the scaffolding process the study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) How are the grammar instructional episodes of the L2 (English) lesson organised in the classroom context?
- 2) How is the *Initiation-Response-Follow-up* (IRF) structure exploited within the grammar instructional episodes?
- 3) What kind of strategies does the L2 teacher employ in providing scaffolded assistance?
- 4) What kind of scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher turns out to be effective according to the data of the study?

In addressing each of these questions, the analysis focuses on the interaction between the teacher and the learners and especially on their negotiation of grammar tasks. This study builds on the premise that negotiations between the teacher and learners are central to the teaching-learning process in the classroom. The principal focus of the study is thus on the scaffolding process, that is, how the participants co-construct tasks. Thus, the end-products of the teaching-learning process alone are not examined in the study. In other words, instead of intrapersonal development the present study concentrates on the interpersonal interaction between the teacher and the learners. Moreover, although both Finnish and English are used in the episodes under scrutiny, the study does not pay attention to code-switching. A distinction between the languages is made only when it is considered to be relevant to the examination of the interaction.

### 1.3 Data and methodology

In order to carry out a detailed examination of the scaffolded assistance provided by an L2 teacher in grammar instructional episodes, data have been obtained in the form of video-recordings made in a naturally occurring classroom setting. The data of the present study come from one classroom in a secondary school. Eleven successive lessons in a language classroom were video- and audio-recorded, and later transcribed. Abstracted from those lessons, 15 grammar instructional episodes, that is, episodes having grammar points as the focus of talk, were identified and subjected to a closer analysis. The grammar instructional episodes were chosen for the study since they constituted the majority of the teacher-led whole-class interaction in the whole data.

The findings of the present case study are the outcome of a detailed examination and are based on interpretation. The data are analysed qualitatively so as to provide a description of the complex interaction between the participants. The present study also has the characteristics of an ethnographic study (e.g. Watson-Gegeo 1988, Johnson 1992). In other words, the study concentrates on a single setting and it aims to present an in-depth description of the scaffolding process by an interpretative analysis of the data obtained by recording and observing in a naturally occurring setting. .

In analysing the data, the present study draws on earlier research on classroom discourse (Cazden 1988, Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, Wells 1996, 1999, 2002) and scaffolding (Wood, Bruner and Ross 1976) as well as the notions of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky 1978), regulation and intersubjectivity (e.g. Wertsch 1979ab, 1985a). The focus of the analysis is on dialogue and interaction between the teacher and the learners as they carry out grammar tasks. To provide a microanalysis of teacher-pupil interactions and their negotiation of grammar tasks during the scaffolding process, the analysis takes place in four stages: 1) the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes in the classroom context, 2) the sequential organisation of classroom discourse in the grammar instructional episodes, 3) the strategies the teacher employs in providing scaffolded assistance as defined by Wood et al. (1976), and 4) the features of scaffolding that turn out to be effective in the grammar instructional episodes in the present study.

In the first case, the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes is examined in the light of the study by Mehan (1979) in order to provide a broader context for the scaffolding process. The aim is to illuminate how the grammar instructional episodes are organised in the participants' dialogue. As was mentioned above, the study assumes that discourse shapes the organisation of instructional episodes and is also shaped by the discursive practices of the institutional context. In the second place, classroom discourse in the grammar instructional episodes is investigated in terms of the sequential organisation defined by Wells (1996, 1999) in order to describe the ways in

which the *Initiation-Response-Follow-up* (IRF) structure is exploited by the participants. To this end the emphasis is on the choice of the follow-up move with which the participants can continue the negotiation of the tasks. The negotiations between the teacher and the learners are investigated in terms of how and in what contexts the teacher and the learners exploit the IRF routine. In the third stage, which is the main part of the analysis, in order to describe the teacher's strategies in providing scaffolded assistance, these strategies were coded for specific scaffolding features as defined by Wood et al. (1976). The aim is to describe those strategies the teacher employs in order to scaffold the pupils' learning in the classroom. Finally, the features of scaffolding that prove to be effective in the present classroom context are described. In the analysis, scaffolding is defined as effective when the pupils come up with the correct target structure with some help from the teacher.

## 1.4 Outline of the study

The present study is organised in eight chapters. To begin with, to place it in the broader context of research on L2 learning a short overview of research on corrective feedback is provided in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 presents a general account of Vygotskian sociocultural theory and a discussion of sociocultural perspectives on L2 learning in particular. Chapter 4 constitutes the theoretical backbone of the study by presenting the central concepts of Vygotskian sociocultural theory as applied in the study. The chapter focuses on those concepts that are critical to the present study. In Chapter 5, some previous L1 and L2 studies of the ZPD and the scaffolding process from a Vygotskian perspective relevant to the present study are reviewed. In addition, some aspects of these studies are evaluated in greater detail.

After the theoretical framework, Chapter 6 concentrates on the methodological background of the study. The implications of previous research are first discussed. The research problem in the form of four research questions is then addressed. Next, the data, the participants and the data collection procedure are described. Finally, the stages of the analysis are outlined.

Chapter 7 reports the results of the empirical study. Section 7.1 describes the overall organisation of the grammar instructional episodes. Section 7.2 then takes a closer look at the sequential organisation of classroom discourse and examines the use of the IRF structure in the grammar instructional episodes. Section 7.3 explores the strategies the teacher employs in providing the learners with scaffolded assistance. Finally, some features of scaffolding that turn out to be effective in the present classroom context are described and discussed in Section 7.4.

Chapter 8 concludes the study. The results of the study and its pedagogical implications as well as its limitations are discussed. Moreover, some suggestions for further research are proposed.



## 2 CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN L2 LEARNING AND TEACHING

The bulk of L2 classroom research has concentrated on specific aspects of teacher-learner interaction (see e.g. Allwright and Bailey 1991, Chaudron 1988, Ellis 1994). These studies have examined, for example, teacher talk, error treatment, teachers' questions, learner participation, task-based interaction and small group work. Research on teacher talk, which has been widely studied, has identified issues such as amount of talk, speech functions, rate of speech, pauses, phonology, intonation, articulation, stress, and modifications in vocabulary, syntax and discourse when learners are provided with feedback. In addition, corrective feedback has aroused researchers' interest in studying the issue from different perspectives.

The overall aim of the present study is to examine the scaffolding process in its naturalistic teacher-fronted whole-classroom setting from a Vygotskian perspective. Before outlining Vygotskian sociocultural theory and identifying the principles that are critical to the present study a short overview of research on corrective feedback in the L2 classroom is provided. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss some of the previous studies of corrective feedback and to place the present study in this broader context of L2 learning research. In fact, the focus of the present study is on the feedback provided by the teacher in the form of scaffolding strategies while interacting with pupils in the language classroom. In the study the teacher typically provides scaffolded assistance when learners have difficulties in carrying out the grammar tasks in hand. The notion of corrective feedback refers here to any information, implicit or explicit, including overt correction, provided to the learner whose language includes somehow problematic or unacceptable features. Section 2.1 provides a short historical background on error correction and its role in L2 learning, while in Section 2.2 corrective feedback in the L2 classroom is discussed.

## 2.1 Historical background

Feedback, including error correction, is probably the aspect of interaction in the L2 classroom that has attracted most attention from researchers and teachers. Views on feedback range from obsession with error correction to total tolerance of errors. The prevailing view has varied greatly, however, depending on the different approaches and theories of language learning and teaching prevalent at different times. However, as DeKeyser (1993) points out, very little empirical research has been done to substantiate the claims and suggestions that have been put forward by advocates of the various views.

During the period since the fifties, views on language learning and error correction have changed greatly (see e.g. Chaudron 1988, Ellis 1990, Mitchell and Myles 1998). In the fifties and sixties, when structuralism, behaviourism and audiolingualism were in vogue, errors were avoided at all costs and error correction was considered to be important for language learning. The focus was on difficult structures, and language learning was seen as the formation of habits. Consequently, error correction was seen as essential in eliminating bad habits. Since the late sixties, as a result of the Theory of Universal Grammar proposed by Chomsky, views on error correction have undergone an enormous change. Language learning, which was now seen as the unfolding of the learner's innate system, was now thought to involve only exposure to input from the environment in order to be triggered. Error correction, or what came to be known as negative evidence in the learnability theory, was viewed as unnecessary to the process of language learning (Pinker 1984). About the same time, however, learning was viewed as a process of hypothesis testing by some cognitive theories of language learning, with learners actively formulating new hypotheses and rejecting old ones. Accordingly, since errors illuminated some of the hypotheses that learners made, errors were considered to be essential to learning and corrective feedback was also viewed as essential to the process of hypothesis testing (Schachter 1991). In recent years suggestions have been as to how best to help learners to correct their errors and reformulate their hypotheses.

Since the eighties, with the focus on communicative approaches to language teaching, language learning has been seen as an interactional process of expressing messages and conveying meanings (see e.g. Ellis 1990, Mitchell and Myles 1998). The goal of teaching in the classroom has been to facilitate this process by focusing on the development of learners' fluency and language use. The interactionist position in L2 research maintained that negotiation of meaning when learners participate in communicative activities is crucial for L2 acquisition (see e.g. Gass 1997). This view is influenced by Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis, which claimed that comprehensible input triggered language acquisition (Krashen 1982, 1985). Accuracy, by contrast, was considered to come about as a by-product (e.g. Krashen 1982, 1985). Errors were still viewed as a necessary part of learning, and error correction was considered to impede fluency (e.g. Krashen 1982). Hence, it has been recommended that

since the focus is on the communicative use of language, errors should be tolerated. Early research focused on the negotiation of meaning and how negotiation made input comprehensible in learner-learner (e.g. Gass and Varonis 1985, 1986, Varonis and Gass 1985) and teacher-learner interaction (e.g. Ellis 1985, Pica 1987, 1991). Recently, however, some studies have suggested that learners who have used language communicatively for many years still have difficulties in the formal aspects of the language. In other words, although learners are fluent in their language use, their use of language is not accurate. The assumption that using language communicatively promotes knowledge of the formal aspects of the language, leading to accuracy without error correction or focusing on form, is now questioned by some researchers. (e.g. Lightbown 1991, Lightbown and Spada 1990, White 1991, White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta 1991.)

Some researchers have recently taken a different stance on the issues of input, output and feedback in L2 learning, looking at the questions from the perspective of a sociocultural theory of learning (e.g. Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Antón 1999, Guerrero and Villamil 2000, Nassaji and Swain 2000, Ohta 1995, 2000b). Within a Vygotskian sociocultural perspective, knowledge is social in nature, being constructed through a process of collaboration, interaction and communication among learners in social settings. Error correction is considered a social activity involving joint participation and meaningful transactions between the teacher and the learner. The Vygotskian approach to teacher-learner interaction and feedback is discussed in more detail when the background and the analysis of the present study are outlined in Chapter 4. In the next section some of the studies of corrective feedback in the L2 classroom are discussed as a broader background for the present study.

## **2.2 Corrective feedback and the L2 classroom**

In the context of L2 classrooms, the primary questions are whether error correction leads to learning and whether or not learners' errors should be corrected. It has already been pointed out that different and sometimes shifting views have been taken on these questions, depending on the language teaching approach. Five framing questions originally posed by Henrickson (1978) have been the focus of attention for many L2 researchers who study error correction in the classroom: should errors be corrected, when and how, which errors should be corrected and who should correct them? As pointed out by Lyster and Ranta (1997), complete answers to these questions are still not known. Some of the questions have attracted more attention than others.

Questions concerning error correction have been addressed by studies from both ethnographic and experimental perspectives. Observational studies within an ethnographic framework have mainly concentrated on the questions

concerning when, how and which errors should be corrected and so have not established very strong positive links between corrective feedback and L2 learning (see e.g. Chaudron 1988, DeKeyser 1993, Mitchell and Myles 1998). They have, however, produced several informative findings, such as that corrective feedback may be given implicitly in the form of comprehension and confirmation checks and recasts or explicitly in the form of expositions of correct target structures, that in the classroom corrective feedback may also be followed by explanations, and that more attention is apparently paid to discourse errors than to lexical, phonological or grammatical errors in the classroom setting (see e.g. Chaudron 1988, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994). In addition, Kasper (1985), for example, compared repair patterns in the form-focused and communication-focused phases of one English lesson in a Danish high school. She found that different preferences for repair patterns varied with the type of classroom activity. In his early study, Fanselow (1977) analysed transcripts of eleven teachers giving the same lesson. There was much ambiguity in the teachers' signals when they provided corrective feedback. Chaudron (1977, 1986, 1988) conducted a large scale investigation on error correction by observing French immersion teachers in their classrooms. He reported among other things that teachers tended to correct more errors earlier in the school year than later and learners were more likely to give the correct answer when the teachers shortened the learners' utterances to isolate the errors and emphasised them with a questioning tone or stress.

With regard to research concerning the first question, that is, whether errors should be corrected at all, the studies have typically involved experimental designs. The claim that error correction is apparently neither essential nor sufficient for children's L1 learning has partly spurred research on this question (e.g. Birdsong 1989, White 1991). The controversy in the experimental literature on L2 learning, as Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) point out, is whether the same arguments of error correction can be applied both to L1 and L2 learning, or whether adult L2 learners require corrective feedback in order to succeed in their learning. When discussing this debate, DeKeyser (1993) notes that the question would still remain whether the argument can be generalised to L2 learning in the classroom even if it were ultimately decided that from a psychological point of view corrective feedback is as unimportant in L2 as in L1 language acquisition. Because of the special characteristics of classroom learning, for example, the minimal input compared with the experience of L1 learners, error correction may be necessary to L2 learners. There is still a need for further research on this question (see e.g. DeKeyser 1993, Mitchell and Myles 1998).

The experimental research on error correction has established some positive links between corrective feedback and L2 learning. A number of studies (Carroll and Swain 1993, Carroll, Swain and Roberge 1992, Herron and Tomasello 1988, Lightbown and Spada 1990, Tomasello and Herron 1988, 1989) have shown, for example, that corrective feedback has a positive impact on L2 learning by comparing the performance of L2 learners provided with corrective

feedback with that of control groups given minimal or no corrective feedback. In his quasi-experimental study of high school L1 speakers of Dutch learning French, DeKeyser (1993), however, found that error correction did not have an overall impact on learning. He found instead interaction effects between error correction and learner characteristics and contextual features. As observed by DeKeyser (1993), several other studies have also recognised that in order to have an effect on learning corrective feedback must in some way be sensitive to the individual learner. For example, Birdsong (1989) in his review points out that error correction may interact with individual and situational variables. In addition, Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) argues that the effectiveness of corrective feedback may depend on learners' internal strategies and linguistic behaviour.

Finally, a cluster of Canadian studies has examined the kinds of explicit teacher feedback likely to promote accuracy in the L2 classroom. They have suggested some positive effects of corrective feedback and focus-on-form in classrooms where language is mainly taught using a communicative method (Spada and Lightbown 1993, White 1991, White, Spada, Lightbown and Ranta 1991). However, these studies have not elucidated the effectiveness of corrective feedback on its own. Instead, they have concentrated on both form-focused instructional materials and corrective feedback. Similarly, positive effects of corrective feedback and form-focused instruction have been reported in observational studies by Lightbown (1991) and Lightbown and Spada (1990). An observational classroom study by Lyster and Ranta (1997) looked at different types of error feedback offered by teachers. The researchers found that recasts were much the most common type of feedback, but they were much less likely to lead to immediate self-correction by the learners than were other types of feedback. Thus, more interactive types of feedback might be more effective.

The examination of corrective feedback is crucial in understanding L2 teaching and learning and the role of teacher-pupil interaction in the L2 classroom. As was mentioned above, the findings of both observational and experimental studies of corrective feedback have been informative. However, more research is needed to shed light on the complex interrelationship between corrective feedback and the L2 learning process. As Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994:466) point out, error correction ultimately "comes down to adjusting feedback to the individual learner" and these adjustments have to be negotiated in collaboration with the learner. Furthermore, these negotiations can never occur beforehand. On the contrary, the types of feedback have to be negotiated "online" between the teacher and pupils. From the perspective of a sociocultural theory of learning the focus of corrective feedback is in fact considered to be more on the social relationship involved in the interaction and on the way corrective feedback could result in learning than on defining types of corrective feedback (Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994). In a sociocultural framework, error correction is always a social activity involving the active participation of both the teacher and the learner.

The main purpose of the present study is to examine the strategies, that is, the types of feedback, that the L2 teacher employs in providing scaffolded assistance in the classroom. The study focuses on the problem from a sociocultural perspective, thus emphasising the mediated and interactive nature of the process. Although the present study does not concentrate on the learning outcomes that may occur as a result of corrective feedback, the strategies the teacher employs in the scaffolding process shed light on the L2 learning process. In fact, as Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) argue, the type of feedback that helps the learner to provide an appropriate answer is as important an indication of L2 development as are the actual linguistic structures that he or she produces. Thus, examining negotiations between the teacher and pupils helps to understand the L2 learning process. The discussion will now move on to look at the principles of the sociocultural theory.

### 3 SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

Developmental theories can be divided roughly into two categories based on their view of the role of social interaction in cognitive development. In other words, the distinguishing factor is whether a theory's explanation of ontogenesis begins with the individual or with the social phenomena. As Wertsch, Minick and Arns (1984:151-2) point out, "individualistic perspective" theories suppose that the explanation of the individual's psychological development begins by focusing on the individual. In contrast, "social perspective" theories emphasise social phenomena in examining the individual's ontogenesis.

The Vygotskian sociocultural approach, or, more generally, the sociocultural theory of the Vygotskian school, which belongs to the category of social perspective theories, is discussed in this chapter. Section 3.1 provides an overview of Vygotskian sociocultural theory including the central themes of genetic analysis, the social origins of higher mental functioning and mediation. Section 3.2 examines sociocultural perspectives with special emphasis on L2 learning.

#### 3.1 Overview of Vygotskian sociocultural theory

Though Vygotsky seldom, if ever, used the term *sociocultural* himself, using instead the terms *cultural historical* and *sociohistorical*, it is often taken as a code word for Vygotskian theory (Wertsch 1994:203). As DiCamilla and Antón (1997:610) point out, the framework of sociocultural theory is based primarily on the work of Vygotsky (e.g. 1978, 1987) and his colleagues and followers, especially A. N. Leont'ev (e.g. 1981ab) and Luria (e.g. 1976, 1979, 1981). In his work, Vygotsky, who considered himself an educator as well as a psychologist, emphasised the social origins of language and thinking. Research in psychology and education has been influenced by Vygotsky's ideas since the 1970s. However, it is important to note in this connection that there is no one single Vygotskian or sociocultural research paradigm (see e.g. van der Veer and

Valsiner 1991). Vygotsky's original ideas have been extended by speech-activity theorists such as A. N. Leont'ev (e.g. 1981ab) as well as other researchers such as Cole (e.g. 1985), Kozulin (e.g. 1998), Wertsch (e.g. 1979ab, 1981, 1985ab, 1991a, 1998) who have also taken them into new directions. Accordingly, the Vygotskian sociocultural approach involves studies and theories of various kinds which share a common emphasis on sociocultural aspects in the development of the individual as well as of a culture, and thus also in language learning and language use.

The genetic method in Vygotsky's approach, which is one of the central themes throughout his writings, is motivated by the assumption that in order to understand human mental functions one has to understand their origin and the transformations they undergo (Lantolf 2000a, Wertsch 1990, 1991b). The genetic method embodies a historical approach that studies something "in the process of change" (Vygotsky 1978:65). In other words, "human mental processes can be understood only by considering how and where they occur in growth" (Wertsch 1985a:17).

For Vygotsky, the approach to the mutuality of individual and environment involves investigating different embedded levels of development (Lantolf 2000a, Wertsch 1985a, 1990). The level of ontogenesis has to do with changes in thinking and behaviour in the course of the history of individuals. Phylogenetic development involves the changes over successive generations. Sociocultural development concerns how the different types of symbolic tool developed by human cultures affect the kinds of mediation favoured and the kinds of thinking valued by these cultures, for example, the impact of such tools as computers on thinking. Finally, Vygotsky called for research into microgenetic development, or the moment-to-moment learning by individuals in different contexts of problem solving. Furthermore, microgenetic development is dependent on the individual's genetic and sociocultural background. According to Wertsch and Hickmann (1987:252), Vygotsky's interest in microgenesis is based on his claims about the necessity of using process analyses, instead of object analyses, in developmental studies. Importantly, in this system of different levels the roles of the individual and the social world are seen as interrelated. In incorporating various genetic domains into his overall account Vygotsky argued that each domain is governed by a unique set of forces and mechanisms of change (Wertsch 1990, 1991b).

At the most general level, according to Wertsch (1991b, 1994, 1998), a sociocultural approach investigates the ways in which human action, including mental action, is connected to the cultural, institutional and historical settings in which it occurs. The writings of Marx and Engels, as Lucy and Wertsch (1987:68) further point out, led Vygotsky to emphasise the social origins of human consciousness. Thus, for Vygotsky, in the tradition of Marx and Engels, the mechanism of individual development is rooted in society and culture.

A further theme from Marx and Engels that is essential to Vygotskian theory, a theme that presupposes the first one, is that "higher mental functioning in the individual has its origins in social activity" (Wertsch



1990:113). Vygotsky's most general formulation of this claim appears in his *genetic law of cultural development* (see Section 4.1). Accordingly, higher mental functions that are uniquely human are inherently tied to the socio-cultural milieu in which they emerge (Wertsch 1990, 1991b). In Vygotskian thinking it is necessary to understand the social relations in which the individual exists if one wants to understand the individual (Wertsch 1990).

A third theme that runs throughout Vygotsky's writings is that human social processes are mediated by tools and signs (Wertsch 1990, 1991b) (see Section 4.1.1). The influence of Marx and Engels is especially evident when Vygotsky examines technical tools in a labour activity. However, Vygotsky's main contribution, as Lucy and Wertsch (1987:69) point out, came in connection with psychological tools or signs, of which the most important is language. For Vygotsky, signs are used to organise and plan one's own actions or the actions of others.

As Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995:108) mention, the goal of sociocultural theory is to illuminate how people organise their minds for the sake of carrying out activities. Although Vygotsky focused primarily on the role of sign and word and the notion of higher mental functions, several researchers within the Vygotskian framework, as Davydov and Radzikhovskii (1985:60) remark, have argued that his ideas are best understood in a framework that takes different units as the object of study. A. N. Leont'ev (1981b), in particular, has elaborated Vygotsky's concept of activity as the basic analytic unit rather than word or sign. There is a further difference between Vygotsky and A. N. Leont'ev's interests. A. N. Leont'ev was above all interested in "the origin and real-life functions of the mind", whereas Vygotsky's interest was above all in "the origin and the real-life functions of consciousness" (Zinchenko 1985:104). A. N. Leont'ev distinguishes activities that are linked to motives, goal-directed actions and operations as levels of analysis in his activity theory (A. N. Leont'ev 1981b:37-71, Lantolf and Appel 1994:16-22). Furthermore, activity theory involves the issue of individual development, activity and the social context. The theory specifies that studying motives and the relationship of these motives to goal-directed actions and their operations is necessary in order to explain the activity of individuals. However, it is important to note in this connection that in spite of the differences in emphasis A. N. Leont'ev's activity theory and Vygotsky's sociocultural theory are not alternative approaches. A. N. Leont'ev never rejected any basic principles of Vygotsky's theory, and Vygotsky's key ideas have been retained in Russian activity theory (D. A. Leont'ev 2002:57). The principles of activity theory have had an important effect on research on L2 learning and several L2 studies have explored the implications of activity theory for L2 (e.g. Brooks and Donato 1994, Coughlan and Duff 1994).

### 3.2 Sociocultural perspectives on L2 learning

Only a few of the theories of L2 acquisition acknowledge the essential relationship between social interaction and L2 development (see e.g. Ohta 1995). The remainder see the acquisition process as linear: input is negotiated and it becomes intake for L2 (e.g. Krashen 1985, Long 1985). Though sociocultural theory came to the fore in L2 research in the 1990s, it is still, as Lantolf remarked when interviewed by Coughlan (1995:140), “kind of the new kid on the block”. As Lantolf further points out, sociocultural theory has gained currency in the field of L2 acquisition as well as in that of education.

Central to the thinking of L2 researchers working within a sociocultural theoretical framework is the idea that L2 learning is a mediated process (Lantolf 2000b). As Lantolf (2000b:79) points out, although much of the research on L2 learning involves mediated processes, only sociocultural theory views mediation as a core construct in theorising about language learning. Sociocultural theory underscores the importance of regarding language learning as a developmental mediated process, in which mediational means are recognised to have an important role. In the classroom these mediational means include, for example, print materials, computers, teacher and peer assistance and instruction. Importantly, language is considered to be the main semiotic tool of mediation. Sociocultural theory views language as a tool of thought. In addition, as Mercer (1995:67) points out, “talk is used to get things done”. Vygotskian sociocultural theory thus provides a richer understanding of L2 learning by focusing on what learners try to accomplish through their dialogues in L2 classrooms (Brooks and Donato 1994:264). For Vygotsky L2 acquisition entails more than mastering linguistic properties (Lantolf and Pavlenko 1995:110). It involves dialectic interaction that is first developed interpersonally and then internalised by the individual.

In this view knowledge does not exist merely as an individual possession, but on the contrary exists first as a social entity (Mercer 1995:66). In other words, learning is seen first as social and then as individual. Accordingly, L2 development progresses through social interaction where learners are active participants in the process through which they acquire the L2 (Ohta 1995:94). Thus, the L2 learning process is seen as a joint activity during which a language is internalised and appropriated.

Most importantly, as Rogoff (1990:14) points out, Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory involves the idea that learners’ collaboration with more skilled partners allows them to take more mature approaches to problem solving in social interaction than when working alone. This scaffolded assistance that an expert can provide through dialogue in order to help a novice to make sense of a task is one of the main theses in Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory. In addition, this idea involves a distinction between actual and potential levels of development, that is, the metaphor of the ZPD, within which effective instruction should be provided. Ideally, in the ZPD the learner moves through stages of object- and

other-regulation to full self-regulation in the task. From this perspective learning principally takes place within the learner's ZPD (e.g. Lantolf 2000ab). As Lantolf (2000b:82) points out, for any type of mediation to be useful, that is, to result in development, "it must be sensitive to the learner's or even group's ZPD". In Vygotsky's thinking, to understand L2 learning it is important to know what learners can achieve "with assistance, or additional mediation, because it is here that the future of development is determined" (Lantolf 2000b:80). Additional mediation may come, for example, from another learner or from integration of an artefact, such as a computer, into an activity (Lantolf 2000b).

Within the sociocultural framework, activity theory has also had an important effect on research on L2 learning. It is on account of this theory that L2 researchers emphasise that individual interactions are experienced differently by different participants (e.g. Lantolf 2000a, Donato 2000). In other words, the personal goals and levels of skill that the participants bring to the activity vary. Furthermore, these elements also change in the course of collaboration. A sociocultural approach to L2 learning attempts to take this dynamic nature of interaction into account by focusing on the process and not merely on the end-products.

The discussion will now move on to look at the Vygotskian sociocultural theory in greater detail. In Chapter 4 the specific terms and features of Vygotskian theory that have an impact on research on L2 learning are discussed in greater detail.

## 4 VYGOTSKIAN THEORY AND THE ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT

Vygotskian theory and especially Vygotsky's notion of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) have received considerable attention from researchers. While most early studies have concerned L1 learning, there has recently been a growing interest in this concept among L2 researchers. As Alanen (2000a) notes, this interest in Vygotskian thinking may be due to Vygotsky's optimistic ideas about the individual's learning potential and the close-knit relationship between the individual and society. Since the 1980s Vygotsky's ideas have been applied to studies on a great number of different issues, including intelligence testing (e.g. Brown and Ferrara 1985, Campione et al. 1984), memory (e.g. Ellis and Rogoff 1982, Rogoff and Gardner 1984), problem solving (e.g. Brooks and Donato 1994, Saxe et al. 1984, Wertsch and Hickmann 1987), different computer-based activities (e.g. Mercer and Fisher 1993), beliefs about language learning (e.g. Alanen 2003), and, as was mentioned above, L1 and L2 acquisition (e.g. Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994, Aljaafreh 1992, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 2000, Lantolf and Aljaafreh 1995, Ohta 2000ab, Rogoff et al. 1984).

The present study aims to investigate the organisation of grammar instructional episodes and the strategies the teacher employs in providing learners with scaffolded assistance. In the study, a sociocultural view of L2 learning is adopted, in which L2 learning is taken to be a mediated process (Lantolf 2000b). More specifically, L2 learning is seen as a type of semiotically-mediated activity in which the language learner internalises and appropriates an L2 through participating in social activity with other people (e.g. Wertsch 1998). On a sociocultural view the internalisation and appropriation of an L2 occurs within the learner's ZPD, a central notion in a sociocultural theory of learning. In the ZPD the learner may move through stages of object- and other-regulation to complete self-regulation, the stage when the learner is capable of independent problem solving (e.g. Wertsch 1985a, 1998). Through social interaction the participants may achieve a state of intersubjectivity where they finally share an almost symmetrical situation definition (e.g. Wertsch 1985a). A concept associated with the ZPD is scaffolding, a joint process constructed on

the basis of the learner's needs. On a sociocultural view, during the scaffolding process the teacher and the learner collaborate within the learner's ZPD (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994). In the case of L2 learning, an important venue for learning is the L2 classroom, since it is here that the teacher can provide learners with scaffolded assistance and learners can interact with the teacher and with each other. In the present study scaffolding occurs in the form of the different strategies that the teacher employs when she assists learners through grammar tasks in the classroom. The present study thus focuses on the scaffolded assistance that the teacher provides for her students in the course of grammar instructional episodes during whole-class interaction. In the following chapters the above-mentioned different factors in the learning process as seen from a sociocultural perspective are discussed in greater detail.

This chapter examines the theoretical background for the approach taken in the present study. Some key principles of Vygotskian theory are first described. Section 4.1 examines the social origin of individual mental functions introducing the notions of *mediation*, *appropriation*, *the ZPD* and *regulation*. In Section 4.2 Wertsch's work on elaborating the ZPD is discussed with the notions of *situation definition* and *intersubjectivity*. Section 4.3 examines the process of scaffolding describing the metaphor of *scaffolding* and the mechanisms of effective help. In addition, different stages of scaffolded learning are introduced and some limitations of the metaphor are discussed.

#### **4.1 Social interactions and the origins of individual mental functions**

Vygotsky's assumption that the understanding of individual mental functioning begins with the understanding of social life is central to all his work (Wertsch 1985a:58-77, 1991a:18-46). Fundamental to Vygotskian theory (Vygotsky 1978, 1981, 1987) is the thesis that the development of human cognitive functions proceeds from the social, or interpsychological plane, to the individual, or intrapsychological plane. Furthermore, this development is gained through the use of symbolic, socioculturally developed tools, the most important of which is language. As Lucy (1988) points out, language stands at the centre of Vygotsky's psychology as the mediational means by which developmental transformations occur. Vygotsky was critical of many psychological theories of his time, such as that of Piaget, who claimed that the individual was to be given analytic priority (e.g. van der Veer and Valsiner 1991, Wertsch 1985a:42, 61-3, Wertsch and Bivens 1992). Vygotsky aimed instead to show that individual functions emerge from social life (e.g. Luria 1981, Vygotsky 1978, 1981, 1987, Wertsch 1979b, 1981, 1985ab). This idea can be found in his *genetic law of cultural development* of higher mental functions:

Any function in the child's development appears twice, or on two planes. First it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. First it appears between people as an interpsychological category, and then within the child as an intrapsychological category. This is equally true with regard to voluntary attention, logical memory, the formation of concepts, and the development of volition...It goes without saying that internalization transforms the process itself and changes its structure and functions. Social relations or relations among people genetically underlie all higher functions and their relationships. (Vygotsky 1981:163.)

This law synthesises the idea that mental functioning occurs first between people in social interaction and then within the individual on the psychological or intrapsychological plane. In the present study, an attempt is made to gain insight into the strategies employed by the teacher in providing scaffolded assistance on the social plane of the classroom. Thus, the aim of the study is not to investigate what the pupils have learned. The focus is on teacher-learner interaction and the teacher's strategies during the teaching-learning process.

In this section the idea of the social origins of individual mental functions is discussed and four important notions of Vygotskian theory, namely, *mediation*, *appropriation*, *the Zone of Proximal Development* and *regulation*, are examined. These concepts are central in discussing the social nature of the learning process in the Vygotskian tradition.

#### 4.1.1 Mediation

*Mediation*, which is a central notion of Vygotskian sociocultural theory, "is understood to be the introduction of an auxiliary device into an activity that then links humans to the world of objects or to the world of mental behavior" (Lantolf 1994:418). Sociocultural theory involves the idea that specifically human forms of mental activity arise in the interactions between individuals and other members of their culture and in the experiences people have with the artefacts produced by their ancestors and contemporaries. Importantly, rather than maintaining the dualistic idea of the mental and the social, the theory emphasises a seamless and a dialectic relationship between these two areas (e.g. Lantolf 2000b, Säljö 2001). In other words, not only is the nature of social life determined by people's mental activity, but the way people regulate their mental processes is also determined by the world of human relationships and artefacts. The theory recognises that mental processes are constructed on the material layer of the brain involving genetically determined capacities. These capacities are, however, "reorganised into specifically human forms of consciousness which allow us to intentionally and voluntarily control our memory, attention, planning, rational thought, problem solving and learning" (Lantolf 2000b:79, see also Luria 1973). This process occurs when people interact with each other and with the artefacts constructed and deployed by the culture.

The distinguishing theme of sociocultural theory, as was mentioned in Section 4.1, is the claim that higher mental functioning is mediated by tools, whether material or psychological. Vygotsky (1987) made his most concrete comments on psychological, or symbolic, tools. He argued that people use symbolic tools in order to mediate and regulate their relationships with other

people and with themselves in the same way as they rely on the use of tools when acting indirectly on the physical world. These physical and symbolic tools are artefacts that are created by cultures over time and are passed on to future generations, which often modify them for future use. Although Vygotsky's studies mainly concentrated on semiotic mediation in connection with language, his list of psychological tools also included "various systems of counting; mnemonic techniques; algebraic symbol systems; works of art; writing; schemes; diagrams; maps; and mechanical drawings; all sort of conventional signs" (Vygotsky 1981:137). When explicating Vygotsky's ideas, Wertsch (1998) discusses mediational means and mediated action. For him mediational means are cultural tools that provide a link between action and the cultural, institutional, and historical contexts, thus being "inherently situated culturally, institutionally, and historically" (p.24).

According to Wertsch (1998), mediated action is characterised by an "irreducible tension" between agents and cultural tools. They are interconnected elements in the same mediated action. Wertsch emphasises that mediational means can have their impact only when they are used by an agent, that is, the learner. Mediated action typically also has multiple simultaneous goals. For example, a studious learner may at the same time be motivated by the goals of passing a test, getting a good job and impressing his or her parents. Wertsch also points out that mediated action is not a static process and is always in the process of undergoing further change.

When discussing mediational means, Wertsch (1998, see also Alanen 2003) mentions the notion of affordance, drawing on a Gibsonian notion (1979). Wertsch points out that a mediational means must also present affordances for the learner. That is, if the learner is active and engaged, he or she must be able to perceive certain properties of the tool that can be made use of in a particular learning activity. However, if the learner does not perceive the opportunities for action, he or she cannot make use of a particular mediational means. This also has implications for the teacher's scaffolded assistance in the classroom. When learners become aware of the consequences of the teacher's strategies, they learn to perceive their own gradual development and stages of learning (see also Alanen 2003 for a discussion of beliefs about language learning). In addition to having this enabling potential, Wertsch (1998) sees mediational means also as imposing constraints. Some cultural tools may not work as well as others and learners need to be made aware of this. In fact, the introduction of novel cultural means may transform the whole mediated action.

In addition, Wertsch (1998) points out that power and authority play a role in the appropriation of cultural tools. Accordingly, the means used by those in the position of power are often considered more acceptable than those used by people who do not have so much authority. In the classroom situation in the present study the teacher usually has the authority, and thus the means used by her are considered to be worthwhile. However, learners can also question the teacher's position of power, thus appropriating alternative ways of working.

As Wertsch (1991b:91) points out, in order to understand Vygotsky's explanation of human mental functioning two critical properties of such tools must be taken into account. First, Vygotsky (1981:137) emphasised that "by being included in the process of behavior, the psychological tool alters the entire flow and structure of mental functions". Accordingly, Vygotsky considered the use of a psychological tool, such as language, to cause a fundamental transformation of the particular mental function, such as memory. In other words, such mediational means do not simply help an existing mental function without changing it qualitatively. Second, according to Vygotsky (1981:137), "by their nature [psychological tools] are social, not organic or individual". More specifically, as Wertsch (1991b:91) points out, psychological tools are social in the sense that they are typically used in interpsychological processes and that being products of sociocultural evolution they are "inherently situated in sociocultural context". Being part of a social milieu, people have access to psychological tools.

In brief, the theme of mediation runs throughout Vygotsky's formulation of a sociocultural approach to mind. His ideas about mediation underline both his genetic method and his idea of the link between interpsychological and intrapsychological functioning. For Vygotsky development means the appropriation by people of the mediational means that other people have made available for them in their environment in order to take better control over their own mental activity. Language, which is the most important symbolic tool, mediates human consciousness, and thus it imbues us with the ability to organise and control our mental functioning. In fact, Vygotsky's fundamental insight is that higher forms of human mental activity are always and everywhere mediated by symbolic means. This insight is also critical to the present study, which deals with social mediation, that is, mediation by others in social interaction. In the classroom, the teacher and pupils always make use of mediational means, such as textbooks, workbooks, classroom discourse patterns, teacher and peer assistance and instruction. The assumption that classroom discourse and teacher assistance mediate language learning in the classroom is fundamental to this study.

#### **4.1.2 Appropriation**

The term internalisation, or more properly for a sociocultural theory, *appropriation* is a key concept for explaining how the development of human cognitive functions from an external to an internal plane is made possible. With this concept Vygotskian theory (1978:56) refers to the process of "internal reconstruction of an external operation". This process has also been described as "the bridge between external and internal activity" (Zinchenko 1985:106). Originally the term appropriation comes largely from Bakhtin's (1981) views on language (Wertsch 1998, see also Alanen 2003). According to Bakhtin, as Alanen (2003:59) points out, speakers tend to use words that other people have used in order to appropriate their utterances, and thus most of people's utterances are appropriated from other people. This also occurs in the language classroom



where learners appropriate new linguistic constructions from the teacher and their peers. In fact, Bakhtin's ideas of language and dialogic speech have greatly influenced sociocultural approaches. For example, Wertsch (1991ab, 1998) has extended Vygotsky's approach by introducing ideas from Bakhtin.

When discussing mediational means Wertsch (1998) separates the terms internalisation, mastery and appropriation. In traditional Vygotskian terms, the use of a particular tool is considered to be internalised by the learner. However, the term internalisation can be misleading (Wertsch 1998, Wertsch and Stone 1985, see also Alanen 2003, Rogoff 1990, Säljö 2001). The process does not mean automatization of skills but involves structural changes. The term also entails a kind of opposition between external and internal processes that leads to a misleading mind-body dualism. Therefore, Wertsch uses the term mastery as "knowing how". He prefers this term because many forms of mediated action are in fact carried out externally (Wertsch 1998:50).

Wertsch (1998) also describes the relationship of agents toward mediational means in terms of appropriation. The exact relationship of the terms internalisation and appropriation is not always clear. In most cases, the processes are intertwined. Higher levels of mastery are often correlated with appropriation (Wertsch 1998, see also Alanen 2003). However, it is also possible that learners master the use of a tool but are unwilling to use it or use it reluctantly, because they do not view it as belonging to them (Wertsch 1998:56). In the classroom, this means that a learner is unwilling or reluctant to make use of the teacher's verbal assistance and to participate in social interaction between the teacher and learners. However, in the classroom the teacher usually expects learners to participate actively in the classroom discussions through which they may be able to appropriate a new foreign language. In fact, as Wertsch (1998) points out, appropriation always involves some sort of resistance and the agent's own willingness is needed for cultural tools to be appropriated.

As was mentioned above, the Vygotskian approach rejects the assumption that the structures of external and internal activity are identical (Zinchenko 1985:94-118). In addition, the assumption that these structures are unrelated is rejected. When formulating his genetic law of cultural development, Vygotsky (1981:163) asserts that "it goes without saying that internalization transforms the process itself and changes its structure and function". The following words by A. N. Leont'ev (1981b:57) crystallise the essence of the process of appropriation: "The process of internalization is not the transfer of an external activity to a preexisting, internal 'plane of consciousness': it is the process in which this internal plane is formed".

In brief, the process of internalisation was important for Vygotsky. The notion of internalisation being somewhat problematic, Wertsch (1998) uses the terms mastery and appropriation to characterise the relationship of agents to mediational means, referring to internalisation with the term mastery. The term appropriation is crucial also to the present study. According to a sociocultural view of L2 learning adopted in this study, learners are considered to appropriate a target language through social interaction in the classroom. In

this process, classroom discourse and teacher assistance are used as mediational means.

### 4.1.3 The Zone of Proximal Development

The transformation of external or social functions into internal or mental functions is a dynamic process of qualitative change. In this context the notion of *the Zone of Proximal Development*<sup>1</sup> (ZPD) has a crucial role in Vygotskian theory. The ZPD is important because it is within the ZPD, and through the ZPD, that children appropriate those forms of mental functioning valued by a culture (Newman et al. 1989:68). Furthermore, Lantolf and Appel (1994:10) note that it is critical to Vygotsky's theory that this process of development should concern at least two people, one of whom is an expert and one a novice in regard to an action in question. However, the current view of the ZPD has been expanded beyond expert-novice interaction. Current research continues to seek a better understanding of how L2 learning is mediated in the ZPD, but looks more closely at peer rather than only expert-novice interactions in the ZPD. The ZPD is considered to be an opportunity for learning with and from others, including all participants (Antón 1999, Lantolf 2000b, Wells 1998). As was mentioned in Section 4.1.1, equally important is the fact that speech mediates this interactive process between the two participants. As Lantolf (2000a:16) points out, the ZPD is a site for the social forms of mediation. In addition, Lantolf (2000a:17) emphasises that the ZPD should not be understood as a physical place in time and space, but rather as "a metaphor for observing and understanding how mediational means are appropriated and internalised".

It was in the course of applying his theoretical concepts to practical psychological and educational problems that Vygotsky introduced the idea of the ZPD. Many of his comments about the ZPD derive from criticism of psychological testing (e.g. Alanen 2000a, 2002, Campione et al. 1984:78-9, Griffin and Cole 1984:46, Wertsch and Stone 1985). Vygotsky criticises psychological and educational practices that determine children's mental development only on the basis of the level of individual, independent functioning and orient educational practices toward this level. In addition, Vygotsky argues that standardised psychological tests take into account only the development that is completed (Griffin and Cole 1984:46). Thus, according to him, these tests focus on the level a child has reached and they ignore his or her potential growth. Instead, according to Vygotsky (1978:84-85) "learning and development are interrelated from the child's very first day of life" and thus he asserts that to discover the relations between learning and development two levels must be determined, namely, the *actual developmental* level and the level of *potential development*. The former characterises a novice's ability to perform different tasks independently and fundamentally refers to a novice's level of mental

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<sup>1</sup> The Russian word *blixhaishego* is the superlative form of the word for *close*. Thus, the Russian term *zona blizhaishevo razvitiya* means literally *zone of the nearest development* (Rogoff and Wertsch 1984:1).

development “that has been established as a result of certain already completed developmental cycles” (Vygotsky 1978:85). The latter level of development characterises those functions that a novice can perform with the help of, or in collaboration with, a more experienced member of society. Consequently, Vygotsky (1978:86-91) asserts that it is important to take the level of potential development into account, as it varies independently from actual development. Furthermore, the potential level of development indicates a novice’s mental development more accurately than the actual developmental level. The distance between these two levels, namely, a novice’s individual capacity and the capacity to perform with assistance, makes the boundaries of the ZPD. Vygotsky (1978:86) defines the ZPD as

the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

Additionally, Vygotsky gives the concept of the ZPD a maturational slant (Tudge 1990:157). Vygotsky emphasises the fact that on the one hand the actual level of development defines the end-product of development, that is, those functions that have been matured, and on the other hand, the ZPD defines those functions that are still in the process of maturation:

The zone of proximal development defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state. These functions could be termed the “buds” or “flowers” of development rather than the “fruits” of development. The actual developmental level characterizes mental development retrospectively, while the zone of proximal development characterizes mental development prospectively. (Vygotsky 1978:86-7.)

In other words, as Hickmann (1985:236) notes, the actual developmental level indicates those psychological functions that are consolidated and that enable the novice to act independently in a given situation. Conversely, as she further remarks, the potential developmental level defines those functions that are not yet matured enough to enable the novice to act independently. These last-mentioned functions can be elicited by means of assistance provided by others, for example, by clues or leading questions.

Moreover, distinguishing a novice’s actual developmental level from his or her potential developmental level has profound implications for educational practices (Gallimore and Tharp 1990:177, Tharp and Gallimore 1988:31). As a result, the Vygotskian approach is also concerned with the appropriate level of collaborative functioning for a novice. Rogoff and Wertsch (1984:3) note that in terms of instructional practices and their relationship to development Vygotsky argues that for a child to profit from a joint cognitive activity and an expert’s assistance, these should be geared appropriately toward his or her potential level of development. Hence, the actual developmental level of a novice will be moved forward. In addition, Vygotsky (1978:89) criticises instruction that is oriented toward stages already completed, while it does not take the ZPD into

account and try to assist the novice to what he or she could do in future. In other words, instruction that orients toward the actual development is ineffective. Vygotsky argues instead, that “instruction is good only when it proceeds ahead of development” (Vygotsky 1956:278, quoted in Wertsch and Stone 1985:165<sup>2</sup>). Furthermore, in Vygotskian terms teaching is good only when it “*awakens and rouses to life those functions which are in a stage of maturing, which lie in the zone of proximal development*” (Vygotsky 1956:278, quoted in Wertsch and Stone 1985:165, italics in original). The ZPD is thus the dynamic space where latent abilities are sensitive to development with the appropriate assistance from another person (Villamil and Guerrero 1998:495). Due to these characteristics of the ZPD, Wood and Middleton (1975) call it *a region of sensitivity to instruction* (See Section 5.1). In addition, it is within the ZPD that transformation from the interpsychological to intrapsychological plane takes place.

On this basis, Tharp and Gallimore (1988:31) propose a general definition of teaching, according to which teaching includes assisting performance through the ZPD and offering this assistance at the points in the ZPD at which it is required. In other words, effective instruction within the ZPD is provided to novices by more capable others in a joint activity. As was mentioned above, effective instruction should concentrate on the functions that are still developing, or at the potential developmental level, and not on the ones that are already developed, or at the actual developmental level. In other words, effective instruction should encourage novices to function at levels higher than their capabilities at that particular moment. The transfer of responsibility from an expert to a novice is also one of the crucial characteristics of effective instruction (see Section 4.3). The aim is to help a novice to function independently in the final stages of development.

As was mentioned above, Vygotskian ideas have in recent decades also been increasingly applied to L2 acquisition. Language learning occurs when learners participate in collaborative activities within the interactively constituted social and cognitive location, that is, within the learners’ ZPDs (Newman and Hozman 1993, Vygotsky 1987). As Lantolf (2000b) points out, language learning involves assistance or additional mediation. Additional mediation may come, for example, from “someone else or from integration of an artifact, such as a computer, into the particular activity” (Lantolf 2000b:80). The notion of the ZPD has also been found to be useful for L2 purposes (e.g. Ohta 1995, Villamil and Guerrero 1998). Ohta (1995:96) adapts the concept to L2 learning and teaching as follows:

For SLA purposes, I would like to conceptualize the ZPD as the difference between the L2 learner’s developmental level as determined by independent language use, and the higher level of potential development as determined by how language is used in collaboration with a more capable interlocutor.

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<sup>2</sup> Rogoff and Wertsch (1984) point out that the Russian word *obuchenie*, which covers the notions of teaching as well as learning, is translated as *instruction*, while it has no precise equivalent in English.

Furthermore, as Villamil and Guerrero (1998) remark, the traditional interpretation of the ZPD poses the presence of the more capable expert and thus involves the suggestion of the unidirectional nature of assistance. Again, the mutual help in novice-novice interactions has been studied by many L2 researchers within sociocultural theory (e.g. Brooks and Donato 1994, DiCamilla and Antón 1997, Donato 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 2000, Ohta 1995, Swain and Lapkin 1998). In fact, as was mentioned above, the current view of the ZPD has been expanded to involve also other interactions than only interactions between experts and novices. Accordingly, Wells (1998:345) considers “the ZPD as an opportunity for learning with and from others to apply potentially to all participants, and not simply to the less skillful or knowledgeable”. Several studies of L2 learning demonstrate that assistance can indeed be provided equally between peers in collaborative interaction between language learners (e.g. Ohta 1995, Swain and Lapkin 1998).

In brief, the concept of the ZPD has an important role in Vygotskian theory. For Vygotsky, learning emerges as a result of interaction within the ZPD. The concept defines the distance between the learner’s actual and potential levels of development. According to Vygotsky, instruction is effective only when it is geared toward the learner’s potential developmental level. Examining interactions between the teacher and the learners, the present study also makes use of the metaphor of the ZPD. Through negotiations with the learner the teacher attempts to find out whether a particular grammar structure is low or high in the learner’s ZPD. In fact, the collaborative work of both the teacher and the learner determines the level of assistance to be invoked.

#### **4.1.3.1 Different interpretations of the ZPD**

As was mentioned above, in recent years, language education has witnessed the increasing prominence of Vygotskian sociocultural theory and the ZPD, in particular. The ZPD is not an unproblematic concept, however, and it has inspired several different interpretations, most of which, however, agree that the ZPD should be examined in the framework of the same broader sociogenetic cognitive theory. In her 2002 article, Kinginger discussed various interpretations that the notion has received in the US foreign language classroom. This section presents these interpretations.

In the ‘skills’ interpretation, as Kinginger (2002:252) points out, the ZPD is used as a means of relating pedagogical practice to “the exigencies of real communication to further the acquisition of skills”. Although Vygotsky’s ZPD is often referred to in new materials for language teachers, it has been unconvincingly juxtaposed with Krashen’s metaphor of comprehensible input ( $i+1$ ) (e.g. Richard-Amato 1983, Schinke-Llano 1993). However, as Dunn and Lantolf (1998) and Thorne (2000) point out, Krashen’s  $i+1$  and Vygotsky’s ZPD are unrelated in their conceptualisation, philosophical underpinnings, focus processes and results. The ZPD has been abstracted from the worldview with which it is compatible by emphasising only its focus on the significance of social interaction for learning. Kinginger (2002) further argues that in the ‘skills’

interpretation, the ZPD is reindexed through reduction and simplification in order to reinforce traditional views of the language classroom as a locus of skill acquisition.

The 'scaffolding' interpretation, according to Kinginger (2002), describes the ZPD in progressive educational discourses serving as a background for conventional classroom practices. Kinginger (2002) argues that learning situations referred to as the ZPD by some researchers are the same as have always occurred in classrooms. As van Lier (1996) points out, the right to participate may be distributed to some extent but the interaction takes place within the "closed discourse format" of the IRF. The teacher is still in control and pupils are not authorised to call the practices into question. According to Kinginger (2002), the problem with this interpretation is that pupils seem to follow the agenda, but they do not seem to appropriate the same agenda for their own purposes.

Finally, the 'metalinguistic' interpretation, according to Kinginger (2002:252), presents a holistic interpretation of the ZPD "applied to the appropriation of metalinguistic knowledge". Emphasising the importance of language production and the active role of learners in the process, Swain and her colleagues (e.g. Nassaji and Swain 2000, Swain 2000, Swain and Lapkin 1998) argue that language production may also have a reflective or metalinguistic function. In their research they focus on collaborative tasks that make learners reflect on their own language production when negotiating meaning. Citing Wells (1998), Nassaji and Wells (2000:36) propose the following definition of the ZPD:

The ZPD is now considered not as a fixed trait of the learner but as an emergent and open-ended one that unfolds through interaction and expands the potential for learning by providing opportunities which were not anticipated in the first place.

Kinginger (2002) points out that the holistic focus on activity emphasises the importance of observing and testing what learners do instead of only assuming what they do. Furthermore, she remarks that the 'metalinguistic' interpretation paves the way for further research on the unpredictable and creative agendas learners impose on themselves.

In brief, as Kinginger (2002:256) points out, the metaphor of the ZPD is "Vygotsky's great unfinished concept". Because of the obscurity of its original meaning, the metaphor is prone to different interpretations. Although the main focus of the present study is not on learning outcomes, the ZPD is a critical concept in the description of teacher-learner interaction. In consort with the learner the teacher attempts to co-construct a ZPD in which the teacher's assistance becomes relevant and can thus be appropriated by the learner. In other words, through negotiations with the learner the teacher attempts to define the ZPD which the task in hand represents for him or her. Thus, in line with the study by Wells (1998), in the present study the ZPD is not considered a fixed trait of the learner. Rather, it is an emergent trait that unfolds through negotiation. In the classroom different learners may also have different ZPDs

for the same target structure, which the teacher attempts to take into account in providing scaffolded assistance.

#### 4.1.4 Regulation and the Zone of Proximal Development

As was pointed out in Section 4.1.3, the ZPD can often be observed when two or more people with unequal expertise are jointly engaged in a task. An expert is a “go-between” between a novice and a task. Furthermore, this idea of an expert and a novice working in collaboration includes the concept of *regulation*, or control, which is also a central notion of Vygotskian theory. This concept is examined in this section.

Communication in L2 research has often been presented by the “conduit metaphor” (Reddy 1979), according to which communication essentially includes the transmitting of messages back and forth. However, Lantolf and Frawley (1984:426) argue that from a Vygotskian perspective communication has “nothing to do with the transfer of information, rather it has everything to do with how individuals maintain their individuality; i.e., self-regulation in presence of other self-regulated individuals”. Furthermore, Frawley and Lantolf (1984:143) argue that the purpose of speaking is to control objects, other humans and the self. In Vygotskian theory there are three types of regulation or ways of obtaining control. The classifications distinguished by Wertsch (1979a:79-98, 1979b:1-22, 1985a:158-183) are summarised in Table 1:

TABLE 1 Stages of regulation outlined by Wertsch (1979ab, 1985a)

Object-regulation	A novice’s understanding of the situation is limited and he or she is controlled by the environment.
Other-regulation	A novice is able to carry out some tasks, but only if he or she is assisted by appropriate linguistically-mediated utterances from another person. In other words, a novice’s speech is controlled by other humans.
Self-regulation	A novice has progressed to the point where he or she can resolve task-related difficulties independently, no longer distracted by irrelevant features in the environment, and no longer overly dependent on the assistance of others. A novice uses private speech to control the task.

In the beginning, a novice is usually incapable of exerting much control over new, unfamiliar tasks (Wertsch 1979a:79-98, 1979b:1-22, 1985a:158-183). A novice’s utterances are said to be *object-regulated* when he or she is controlled by the environment (see Table 1). When discussing this first type of regulation Lantolf and Appel (1994:11-12) describe an example of a child who is instructed by his or her mother to fetch a toy located at some distance from the child. However, the child being object-regulated is often distracted by other objects on his or her way to accomplishing the task. In this situation the child may completely forget the original task, or he or she may fetch the wrong toy.

At the next stage of development, the stage of *other-regulation* (see Table 1), a novice is able to accomplish certain tasks with the help of another person (Wertsch 1979a:79-98, 1979b:1-22, 1985a:158-184). An other-regulated novice working in the ZPD needs help through dialogue with a more capable person in

order to be able to complete a given task (Guerrero and Villamil 1994:484). In other words, at this stage a novice is controlled by other people, and yet a novice is able to concentrate on a given goal and ignore task-irrelevant features in the environment (McCafferty 1994:424).

Eventually a novice takes over a larger part of the responsibility for a given task, until the last stage of development, *self-regulation* (see Table 1), is achieved (Wertsch 1979a:79-98, 1979b:1-22, 1985a:158-184). At this stage a novice is no longer controlled by the dialogue with an expert. Instead, according to Lantolf and Frawley (1984:426), a novice's utterances reflect self-regulation since he or she speaks to control himself or herself. Furthermore, at this stage a novice has internalised the strategies provided by others and is capable of accomplishing the task alone. In Vygotskian thinking, self-regulation is seen as a goal in the ZPD (Alanen 2003:78).

However, as Frawley and Lantolf (1985:20) and Lantolf and Appel (1994:12) point out, "attaining self-regulation is not absolute". That is, if a novice achieves self-regulation in a certain task, he or she is not necessarily self-regulated in all tasks. In other words, self-regulation is task-specific. Nor is self-regulation achieved at a certain point of ontogenetic maturation (Frawley and Lantolf 1985:20, Lantolf and Appel 1994:12). Wertsch and Hickmann (1987:251-266) describe how a 4-year old child may be self-regulated in a given task, while an older child may need other-regulation in the same task.

Related to the transitions in regulation are the notions of *inner* and *private speech*<sup>3</sup>. According to Vygotskian theory, a novice gains self-regulation through dialogic interaction with an expert. Speech, as Vygotsky (1987) points out, has two functions, namely, an interpersonal or communicative function and an intrapersonal or egocentric function. The former serves to carry out social interactions. The latter, however, has a central role in the conduct of mental activities. Furthermore, according to Vygotsky (1987:75), egocentric speech does not disappear when a novice gains self-regulation; it goes "underground", that is, it turns into inner speech.

Moreover, the stage of self-regulation does not, in Vygotskian theory, signal the end of development. Vygotskian theory considers development to be dynamic (Lantolf and Appel 1994:15) and once egocentric speech goes "underground" as inner speech, it does not stay there forever. On the contrary, when an individual confronts a difficult task he or she externalises inner speech in order to regain self-regulation. As Lantolf and Frawley (1984:427) put it, "inner speech surfaces as private speech in order to be internalised again". Furthermore, any speaker has continuous access to all the stages of regulation, when he or she engages in a difficult task. Thus, in difficult situations an individual can revert to lower stages of regulation in order to regain self-regulation.

In brief, Vygotsky was interested in how children achieve the ability to regulate their own activities. Regulation is thus a central notion of Vygotskian

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<sup>3</sup> The term *private speech* was first coined by Flavell (1966) (Lantolf and Appel 1994:15).



theory. In the transition from interpsychological to intrapsychological functioning, the learner moves through stages of object-regulation and other-regulation to complete self-regulation, which is considered a goal in the ZPD. Stages of regulation are also critical to the present study of how the teacher assists the learners with their grammar tasks. By negotiating grammar problems with the learner the teacher attempts to find out the learner's stage of regulation with regard to the problem in hand. Depending on the learner's stage of regulation the teacher provides different kinds of scaffolded assistance to assist him or her through the ZPD. Learners also occasionally try to gain self-regulation through self-directed speech, that is, private speech. In other words, in difficult situations they may attempt to gain control over the problem by using speech that is not directed at an interlocutor but is intended for the speaker himself or herself.

## 4.2 Elaborating the Zone of Proximal Development

As was mentioned above, Vygotsky's notion of the ZPD has recently aroused a great deal of interest. The concept has been incorporated into various areas concerning both children and adults (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Mercer and Fisher 1993, Tharp and Gallimore 1988) and been elaborated in the light of contemporary research.

Wertsch (e.g. 1979ab, 1981, 1984, 1985ab, 1991a, 1998) has done most valuable work in this area. He elaborates Vygotskian ideas with regard to the nature of collaboration between adult experts and child novices by outlining three interdependent prerequisites for a child's learning through this interaction, namely, *situation definition*, *intersubjectivity* and *mediation*. These notions are important for understanding the mechanics of the ZPD, thus having implications also for the teaching-learning process in the classroom situation under study. The notion of mediation was dealt with in Section 4.1.1. The other two concepts, that is, situation definition and intersubjectivity are discussed in this section.

### 4.2.1 Situation definition

This section deals with the notion of *situation definition* as outlined by Wertsch. In his earlier work (1984) with adult-child dyads, Wertsch introduces theoretical constructs in order to explain how learning can occur when novices work with experts. He writes that adults often define tasks in one way and children in another (see also Alanen and Dufva 2001, Coughlan-Duff 1994). In other words, participants working in collaboration within the ZPD often start with different definitions of the situation. A situation definition is described by Wertsch (1984:8) as "the way in which a setting or a context is represented - that is, defined - by those who are operating in that setting". As Wertsch (1984:9) points

out, although the participants work in the same spatiotemporal context, they often represent this context in such different ways that they are not actually doing the same task. However, as Wertsch (1984:11) further argues, in order for growth within the ZPD to occur, it is essential that the participants have the same situation definition, that is, “situation redefinition” must also occur. Accordingly, this development cannot be conceptualised solely in terms of quantitative change. Rather, a novice gives up his or her previous “situation definition in favor of a qualitative new one” (Wertsch 1984:11).

In brief, at the beginning of joint activity, the task may often be represented or defined in quite different ways by different participants. In other words, participants have different definitions of the situation, which constrains their attempts to collaborate within the ZPD. In the classroom situation in the present study, the teacher also occasionally defines the problem in one way and the learners represent it in another. However, in order to be able to provide the learners with scaffolded assistance, the teacher and the learners have to start with the same situation definition. Thus, the teacher and the learners have to start to work on the problem by negotiating situation redefinition.

#### **4.2.2 Intersubjectivity**

The process of co-constructing the situation necessarily involves social interaction in which both participants have the responsibility in determining how a task is defined and carried out (Lantolf and Ahmed 1989:102). According to Wertsch (1984:12, 1998:111), this can be established through the concept of *intersubjectivity*, a concept initially introduced by Rommetveit (1974, 1979). Wertsch (1984:12) claims that intersubjectivity allows participants to negotiate a definition of the situation (see Section 4.2.1) that may be different from their original ones so that effective communication can be established (see also Alanen and Dufva 2001, Alanen 2000b). In addition, Rommetveit (1985:187) argues that intersubjectivity is achieved between two participants if, and only if, some state of affairs is brought into consideration by one of the participants and is jointly dealt with by both of them. As Wertsch (1984:12) puts it, “intersubjectivity exists between two interlocutors in a task setting when they share the same situation definition and know that they share the same situation definition”.

Moreover, because attaining intersubjectivity requires participants to share the same situation definition and because they typically have different definitions of the situation at the beginning of the activity, Wertsch (1979b:8-18, 1985a:161-167) argues that different levels of intersubjectivity need to be taken into account in the ZPD. The four stages of intersubjectivity between adult-child interaction are summarised in Table 2:

TABLE 2 Four levels of intersubjectivity as defined by Wertsch (1979b, 1985a)

1. level	Situation definitions of participants are so different that communication is very difficult.
2. level	A child begins to participate appropriately, but there are still asymmetries in mutual understanding.
3. level	A child's situation definition is nearly the same as that of an adult. A child can work on a task with minimal help from an adult.
4. level	An almost symmetrical situation definition exists between participants and a child can carry out a task independently.

According to Wertsch (1979b:8-18, 1985a:161-4), intersubjectivity thus exists at four different levels. At the first level of intersubjectivity a child may fail to interpret an adult's utterances in terms of a task. He or she may fail to respond to an adult completely or give an answer that has nothing to do with the adult's situation definition. In this situation communication is very difficult (see Table 2). At the second level, in spite of asymmetries in mutual understanding, a child is able to respond to specific questions posed by an adult. At this level a child's interpretations of an adult's situation definition are still limited. At the next level, a child has already taken some responsibility for regulating his or her own activity, and he or she can respond appropriately to other-regulation. However, this activity is still carried out in the interpsychological plane of functioning. Finally, the fourth level is characterised by an almost symmetrical situation definition. A child can accomplish a task independently. This is the final level in the transition from the interpsychological to the intrapsychological plane.

It is important to note in this connection that in his study Wertsch (1979b) examines adult-child intermental functioning in terms of varying levels of intersubjectivity as part of an attempt to extend Vygotsky's ideas about the ZPD. However, in his more recent work Wertsch (1998:118) notes that although few would dispute that "increasing intersubjectivity is one dimension along which children's development occurs", some investigators have begun to argue that research focusing on intersubjectivity does not take into account that development may also arise through conflict rather than consensus (e.g. Matusov 1996). Rommetveit (1979) views total intersubjectivity as being possible, but in actuality he rejects such a possibility. He further suggests that intersubjectivity is a tendency that characterises human communication.

According to Wertsch (1984:13-14, 1985a:167), the negotiation of a symmetrical situation definition involves mediation through the use of different tools, of which the most important is the use of language (see Section 4.1.1). Intersubjectivity can be established by using appropriate forms of semiotic mediation in communication. Furthermore, Wertsch (1984:14) points out that "speech can create, rather than merely reflect an intersubjective situation definition". Different forms of directives used by experts, for example, may establish different levels of intersubjectivity because of their presuppositions. However, in a joint activity of creating intersubjectivity both a novice and an expert are active participants and thus a novice can also play a major role in this process. Wertsch (1984:14) remarks that an expert's utterances are bids in the

negotiation and that bids can also be made by a novice. In other words, for intersubjectivity to exist, a novice has also to respond appropriately to an expert's utterances, or at least he or she has to understand an expert's situation definition (see Section 4.2.1).

In brief, intersubjectivity concerns the degree to which participants in a communicative situation share the same situation definition. Intersubjectivity between participants, which is crucial to successful interaction in the ZPD, can be established and maintained through negotiations. The Vygotskian approach contains a strong emphasis on these social interactions through which learners can be helped to move towards self-regulation. In the present study, the notion of intersubjectivity also plays an important role. When working on joint tasks the teacher and the learners attempt to establish and maintain certain level of intersubjectivity in the course of communication.

### 4.3 The process of scaffolding

The metaphor of *scaffolding* has been developed in neo-Vygotskian discussions to describe the type of other-regulation within the ZPD that is most effective in helping novices to learn. Furthermore, education has taken on board the concept of scaffolding while including, as Bliss et al. (1996:37) point out, "a psycho-social model of teaching and learning".

The metaphor of scaffolding is crucial to the purposes of the present study. The study examines the scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher for pupils in the classroom and an attempt is made to illuminate the strategies the teacher employs in providing scaffolding. For the purposes of the present study the concept of scaffolding as defined by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976), is adapted. Scaffolding is here seen as consisting of the strategies the teacher uses in interactions with the learners when different grammar problems are solved in co-operation.

In this section the process of scaffolding is discussed. First of all the metaphor and the features of scaffolding are examined. Then the mechanisms of effective help based on previous studies (e.g. Aljaafreh 1992, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Rogoff 1990) are discussed. The mechanisms considered here include the tutor's role in making connections between a novice's old and new knowledge, the graduated, contingent and dialogic nature of the intervention, and the active roles of both participants. Next, the stages of scaffolded learning distinguished by Tharp and Gallimore (1988) are examined. Finally, some limitations of the concept of scaffolding are discussed.

### 4.3.1 Scaffolding

The concept of *scaffolding* has its origins in cognitive psychology and L1 research (Donato 1994:40) (see Section 5.1 for a detailed discussion of the first studies of scaffolding). The concept is associated with the ZPD and it was already mentioned by Vygotsky and Luria when they referred to adults introducing children to cultural means (Vygotsky 1930:202, quoted in van der Veer and Valsiner 1991:226), thus anticipating later research by several decades. The concept was later used by Bruner (1978) as a metaphor for a mother's verbal assistance in maintaining conversation with a child and indirectly in promoting language learning. The concept has also been introduced in the context of tutorial interactions where a tutor helps someone less skilled to solve a problem. Wood et al. (1976) use the term as a metaphor for the process by which an adult helps a child to learn how to perform a task that the child could not master alone. They describe the process of scaffolding as consisting of "the adult's controlling those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capacity" (p. 90), thus enabling a learner to concentrate on and complete those elements of the task that he or she is incapable of doing without help. In this way the task can be successfully completed. However, as Wood et al. (1976:90) further argue, "the process can potentially achieve much more for the learner than an assisted completion of the task" and it can eventually result in "development of task competence by the learner at a pace that would far outstrip his unassisted efforts".

The definition of scaffolding above by Wood et al. (1976) is in accordance with Vygotsky's view of the ZPD and so, as Hobsbaum et al. (1996:17) remark, other researchers (e.g. Rogoff and Wertsch 1984) soon drew parallels between the concept of scaffolding and Vygotsky's (1978) more general notion of the ZPD. However, Vygotsky's concept of the ZPD (see Section 4.1.3), as Wood and Wood (1996) point out, does not define the nature of the assistance and collaboration that promotes development. The notion of scaffolding can be seen as one attempt to address this question of the nature of the help or guidance provided. The term was coined to describe the ideal role of an expert in providing assistance to a novice. Greenfield (1984:119) notes that the idea is not to simplify the task, but to simplify a novice's role in the task through graduated assistance from an expert. Accordingly, scaffolding 1) creates support, 2) functions as a tool, 3) expands the range of the learner, 4) permits the learner to achieve a task not otherwise possible, and 5) is used selectively to help the learner where needed.

Wood and Middleton (1975) and Wood (1980) use a procedure of intervention derived from the notion of scaffolding when investigating the instructional behaviour of mothers in relation to children's performance in problem-solving activities. In their studies (1975, 1980), maternal help is categorised in terms of five levels of intervention, which are graduated in nature. These levels start from general verbal encouragement and become increasingly explicit until a full demonstration is provided by mothers, who take more responsibility for the task during the process. In addition, they note

that the level of effective intervention by mothers affects children's ability to complete the task. They refer to this phenomenon as *the contingency rule*. This close relation of optimum assistance to a learner's successes and failures has also been studied by several other researchers (e.g. Bruner 1985, Palincsar 1986, Rogoff 1990, Tharp and Gallimore 1988, Wertsch 1979b, 1985a). Related concepts, such as guided participation (Rogoff 1990), reciprocal teaching (Brown and Campione 1990, Palincsar and Brown 1984), cognitive apprenticeship (Collins et al. 1989) and instructional conversation (Tharp and Gallimore 1988), have also been formulated.

In another study by Wood et al. (1976), scaffolded help is characterised by six features (see Section 6.4). They suggest that an adult can serve several key tutoring functions during problem solving. The first of these functions involves recruiting a novice's interest in and adherence to the goals of the task. At this stage an expert is principally concerned with "luring" a novice further and further into the joint activity (Wood et al. 1976:95, Wertsch 1979b:20). Secondly, an expert has to simplify the task so that a novice is able to understand what is required. Next, after the task has been simplified a novice's orientation towards task-relevant goals has to be maintained. Fourthly, an expert has to highlight critical features of the task that may be overlooked by a novice. An expert then helps a novice to control his or her frustration and, finally, demonstrates how to achieve the ideal solution to the task. As Wood and Wood (1996:5) point out, the latter function of an expert is achieved by ensuring that a novice is neither given too little assistance nor prevented from participating in the activity by being given too much help. These functions do not, however, automatically follow each other in succession, but instead these functions require a high degree of fine tuning, although probably intuitive, on the tutor's part (Wood et al. 1976). In other words, the tutor's task is to find out what kind of assistance is needed by different learners in different situations. The notion of scaffolding also includes an expert's continual adaptation of scaffolded help to a novice's emerging capabilities (Rogoff 1990:94).

In their work, Mercer and colleagues (Mercer 1995, Mercer and Fisher 1993) have particularly focused on the role of teacher interventions in scaffolding students' learning in the classroom, at the same time applying Vygotsky's (1987) concept of "working in the ZPD". In their study, Mercer and Fisher (1993) argue that the transfer of responsibility for the task to the learner should be one of the major goals of the teacher's scaffolding. They propose three criteria that a teaching and learning event should meet in order to qualify as scaffolding. They define scaffolding as help that: 1) enables learners to accomplish a task that they would not have been able to manage on their own; 2) is intended to bring learners closer to a state of competence which will enable them eventually to complete such a task on their own; and 3) is followed by evidence of learners having achieved some greater level of independent competence as a result of the scaffolding experience (p. 343). In other words, according to this definition, scaffolding is not just any assistance which helps a learner to accomplish a task. Instead, help is qualified as scaffolding only if a

student really learns something as a result of it. However, the researchers admit that it is often difficult to observe learning. In other words, the third criterion is often difficult to satisfy.

In brief, the concept of scaffolding, which is associated with the ZPD, is critical to the present study of the teacher's scaffolded assistance in the classroom. It was first used as a metaphor for a mother's verbal efforts to maintain conversation with a child and, indirectly, to foster language acquisition. The metaphor has been later applied to interactions where, for example, knowledge is constructed or problems are solved between people who have a common L1. Although the metaphor was thus originally coined to describe child development in interaction with adults in L1 situations, it was later adapted to L2 learning situations as well. In other words, the concept has been extended to refer to a number of different scaffolding processes. Furthermore, some definitions of scaffolding include the requirement of evidence of learners' increased competence. In the present study, scaffolding is seen as consisting of the strategies the teacher employs in the interactions with the learners when different grammar problems are solved in co-operation. The present study does not focus on the learning outcomes alone, and thus no evidence of the learners actually having increased their knowledge of L2 is required for a teaching and learning event to qualify as scaffolding.

#### **4.3.2 Mechanisms of effective help**

As Wood and Wood (1996:6) note, there are a great number of studies of scaffolding in the ZPD, as well as reviews of these studies (e.g. Rogoff 1990). On the basis of these studies several features of effective instruction within the ZPD can be identified. These features, namely, the tutor's role in making connections between a novice's old and new knowledge, the graduated, contingent and dialogic nature of the intervention, and, finally, the active role of both participants are discussed in turn in this section.

Firstly, a tutor serves to provide bridges between a learner's existing skills and those needed to solve new problems (Rogoff 1990:65-85). When making connections, as Rogoff and Gardner (1984) observe, a tutor specifies how the old task resembles the new. By giving help a tutor provides a structure to support a novice's learning (Rogoff 1990:86-110). This establishment of an intelligible context is important, while a learner's appropriation of new information depends considerably on its compatibility with his or her previous knowledge (Rogoff and Gardner 1984:97). As Wood and Wood (1996) point out, when working alone a learner may not recognise the features that are common to the old and new tasks.

Secondly, as Aljaafreh (1992:79) and Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994:468) note, effective collaboration is graduated. Assistance provided by a more experienced participant in an activity is designed to discover a learner's ZPD in order to provide appropriate help. This is important for development, as was mentioned in Section 4.1.3, since after discovering the appropriate level of help an expert can encourage a novice to function at his or her potential level. Furthermore, as

was mentioned in Sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, this involves a process of negotiating intersubjective situation redefinitions in order to establish mutual understanding between a novice and an expert. In other words, the purpose of this negotiation is to find the minimum help needed to ensure joint success. According to Aljaafreh (1992) and Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), the most effective way of doing this is to start with implicit clues and gradually move to more explicit instructions until the appropriate level is discovered. This appropriate level can sometimes be estimated by very subtle clues, such as hesitation, direction of gaze and postural change, as well as errors made by a learner (Rogoff et al. 1984:35).

Thirdly, according to Aljaafreh (1992:80) and Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994:468), effective help is contingent, meaning that it is responsive to a learner's needs. They point out that effective assistance is related to a novice's capability of performing the activity. In other words, contingent help is given only when needed, and responsibility on the part of an expert is withdrawn as soon as a novice shows signs of ability to take over (Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994:468). This transfer of responsibility is a central feature of effective guidance (Rogoff 1990). Moreover, the mechanisms of gradation and contingency are actually one collaborative process in which an attempt is made to discover a novice's ZPD in order to estimate the appropriate level of help (Aljaafreh 1992:80, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994:468). In this context Wood and Middleton (1975) use the term *sensitive scaffolding* (see Section 5.1).

Fourthly, dialogue has an essential role in scaffolded instruction (e.g. Ahmed 1994, Aljaafreh 1992, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Lantolf and Appel 1994, Palincsar 1986, Palincsar and Brown 1984). A collaborative process, in which an expert tries to discover a novice's potential level of development and provides help according to it, is at its core, as Aljaafreh (1992:81) and Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994:468) point out, a dialogic or interactive activity between at least two people. Dialogue is the means by which support is given and adjusted. Overall, dialogicality is an essential aspect of the whole Vygotskian theory (e.g. Wertsch 1979b, 1980, 1991) and thus of the ZPD and scaffolding. In his study, Wood (1980:288), for example, shows that "effective instruction...rests on close relationship between language and action". In comparing different strategies, he reports that "neither descriptions nor demonstrations are adequate by themselves" (p. 288). As Wertsch (1984:14) points out, effective assistance within a novice's ZPD can only be managed through dialogic negotiation.

Finally, the active role of the learner is recognised in the process of effective scaffolding (e.g. Aljaafreh 1992, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Rogoff 1990, Rogoff and Gardner 1984, Tharp and Gallimore 1988). Although in the beginning the learner participates in a task that is beyond the reach, guided assistance makes it possible for the learner to play an active role in learning (Rogoff 1990:195-6). Thus, the learner contributes to the successful completion of a given task. Such guided participation can also often occur naturally



without being deliberately set up, for example, in everyday activities (Rogoff 1990).

In brief, based on previous studies of scaffolding, several features of effective instruction within the ZPD can be identified. These features include the tutor's role in making connections between a learner's old and new knowledge, the graduated, contingent and dialogic nature of the intervention and the active role of both the expert and the novice. By focusing on teacher-learner interactions in the classroom the present study aims to illuminate the strategies the teacher employs in providing learners with scaffolded assistance. Building on previous studies of effective scaffolding, the study also examines the nature of the scaffolding that turns out to be effective in the classroom situation under study.

### **4.3.3 The stages of scaffolded learning**

As will be described in Chapter 5, the metaphors of the ZPD and scaffolding have been applied to the teaching-learning process in various different contexts. Gallimore and Tharp (1990) and Tharp and Gallimore (1988) have incorporated Vygotsky's theory into educational settings and acknowledged three means of assisting a novice through the ZPD, that is, modelling, contingency management, and cognitive structuring. Tharp and Gallimore (1988:6) have used a "contextualist and interactionist view of human development" in constructing a theory of teaching and schooling within the ZPD. According to this view, utterances made by discourse participants are regarded as starting points for further conversation and for the creation of new meanings (Wertsch and Bivens 1992:41). According to Tharp and Gallimore (1988:8), teaching that is "understood as assisted performance of apprentices in joint activity with experts ... can guide training and yet remain firmly rooted in theory". Furthermore, their model of progress within the ZPD emphasises the relationship between self-control and social-control (Aljaafreh 1992:83). As Tharp and Gallimore (1988:33) put it, "the development of any performance capacity in the individual represents a changing relationship between self-regulation and social-regulation". The four developmental stages of this model are shown in Figure 1:

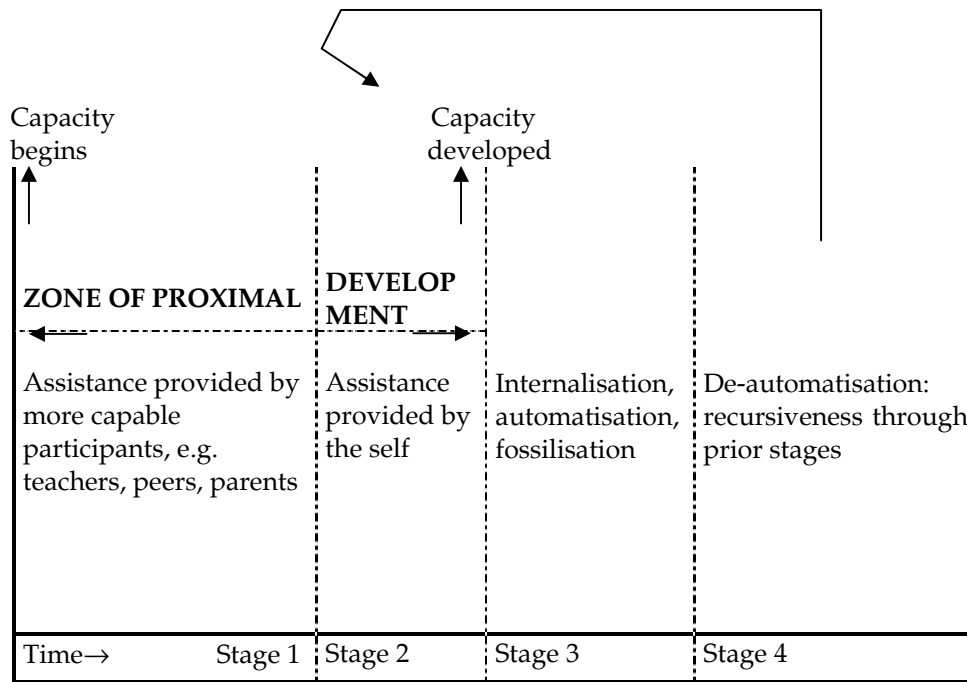


FIGURE 1 The stages of scaffolded learning based on Tharp and Gallimore (1988:35).

At the first stage, the stage of other-assisted performance, the novice has a limited understanding of a task and he or she relies on the expert for task regulation and task performance (see Figure 1). As a result, the expert offers models and directions for the novice to carry out (e.g. Greenfield 1984, Griffin and Cole 1984, Wertsch 1979b, 1981 1985a). As Tharp and Gallimore (1988:33-6, 250) observe, the responsibility of the expert gradually declines as the novice takes over more responsibility for the task. The developmental task of this stage is the transition from other-regulation to self-regulation.

At the second stage, the stage of self-assisted performance, the novice performs a task without assistance from others, but, as Tharp and Gallimore (1988:36, 252) remark, the performance is not fully developed. Regulation may be taken over by the novice, but "the control function remains with the overt verbalisation" in the form of self-directed speech (p. 37). The major function of self-directed speech is observed to be this self-control (Berk 1986, Gallimore et al. 1986, Tudge 1992); Tharp and Gallimore (1988:37), following Vygotskian theory, argue that its significance in the novice's development is profound. It indicates the transition of responsibility from the expert to the novice, who starts to direct himself or herself after the stage of other-regulation (see Figure 1).

At the next stage verbal assistance from the expert or from the self is no longer needed. This stage is referred to as the stage of internalisation and automatization. As Tharp and Gallimore (1988:38) point out, instructions from others are now disruptive and irritating. It is at this stage that the novice emerges "from the ZPD into the developmental stage" and the task is internalised (pp. 38, 257) (see Figure 1). The skill is no longer developing but fully developed. Vygotsky (1978:86-7) refers to it as the "fruit" of development. The term *fossilised* is also used to describe its fixity (Tudge 1992).

The final stage is the stage of de-automatisation of performance and that of recursion back through the ZPD. Tharp and Gallimore (1988:38) point out that for every individual at any age “there will be a mix of other-regulation, self-regulation and automatised processes”. De-automatisation occurs when a novice cannot do what he or she could formerly do. According to Tharp and Gallimore (1988:39), reasons for such de-automatisation include, for example, environmental changes, individual stress or major upheavals. In such situations a novice first retreats to the prior self-regulating stage (see Figure 1). However, if that is not enough to complete a given task, other-regulation is needed.

In brief, the metaphors of the ZPD and scaffolding have been applied to the teaching-learning process in different contexts. The stages of scaffolded learning distinguished by Gallimore and Tharp (1988) describe progress within the ZPD in educational settings. The stages, which are metaphors like the ZPD and scaffolding, include other-assisted performance, self-assisted performance, automatised and de-automatisation. These different stages can also be applied to the classroom situation under study, where different grammar tasks represent different ZPDs for different pupils.

#### **4.3.4 Limitations of the metaphor**

Although the metaphor of scaffolding has been widely applied to studies in different fields, the notion has also been criticised. Originally the metaphors of the ZPD and scaffolding were constructed to describe expert-novice interactions. In the early analyses emphasis was placed on the adult’s role as a support enabling the child to achieve the goal by analysing the task and by practising subcomponents. As Stone (1993:170) points out, the result was viewed as “independent functioning on the part of the child”. However, this view of the metaphors was widely criticised for focusing too narrowly on expert-novice scaffolding in the ZPD. Consequently, recent studies have expanded the view beyond expert-novice interaction. The current view considers the ZPD to be an opportunity for learning for all participants (Wells 1998). It is seen as an opportunity for shared learning, for learning with and from others. Current work thus aims to better understand how L2 learning is mediated in the ZPD, already a topic of earlier work, but now with the focus extended to include peer scaffolding as well (Lantolf 2000b). This view of shared learning in the ZPD is also critical to the present study of scaffolding in the classroom. In the study, the metaphors of the ZPD and scaffolding are considered to describe both expert-novice and peer scaffolding in the ZPD. In other words, although the focus is on the strategies the teacher employs in providing the learners with scaffolded assistance, the examples also include instances where pupils provide help for each other.

When discussing the limitations of the metaphor Stone (1993:170) notes that the initial discussions of scaffolding concentrated on identifying and describing scaffolded interactions and on investigating their effectiveness in teaching the child new capabilities. Researchers paid little attention to the actual mechanisms by which responsibility was transferred from an expert to a novice.

Thus, as Stone (1993:170) claims, “a persisting limitation of the metaphor of scaffolding relates to the specification of the communicative mechanisms involved in the adult-child interaction constituting the scaffolding process”. These mechanisms, however, are critical to Vygotsky’s theoretical framework. Stone (1993:171-181) acknowledges that the semiotic systems of scaffolding are complex, involving such communicative mechanisms as prolepsis, conversational implicature, presuppositional triggers, and other nonverbal communicative devices such as gestures and pauses.

The concept of *prolepsis*, as Stone (1993) points out, is important in understanding interaction in the ZPD. Rommetveit (1974, 1979) uses this term in referring to utterances which presuppose some as yet unprovided knowledge and thus challenge the listener to make assumptions in order to interpret the intended meaning of the speaker’s utterance. For example, to assist a child in solving a jigsaw puzzle, the adult may at first ask a general question such as, “What piece goes next”? Then, if necessary, the adult may provide more directed verbal or nonverbal instructions that provide the meaning presupposed by the initial question. In this way the child will understand what was presupposed by the initial question. The child is also led to construct with the adult a shared perspective of the task goal or what Rommetveit (1974, 1979) calls intersubjectivity. Thus, in dialogic interaction, prolepsis leads participants to reach an understanding of each other’s views of problems and solution. According to Stone (1993:174), prolepsis can be understood as “a special type of conversational implicature in which the necessary context is specified *after* the utterance rather than before it” (*italics in original*). The concept of prolepsis can also be applied to the present study, where the teacher assists the learners in solving grammar problems. In the same way as the adult in the example, the teacher often starts with a general question followed by more specific questions and instructions. In this way the learners are also led to understand what the teacher meant by the initial question.

Stone (1993) points out that interpersonal relationships between participants in general also have a crucial impact on the effectiveness of scaffolded interactions and thus interpersonal dynamics should also be taken into account when scaffolding in the ZPD is examined. Forman and Cazden (1985), for example, argue that there is a close correspondence between the nature of the participants’ interpersonal relationships and the degree of cognitive progress during their joint problem-solving sessions. In addition to the interpersonal dynamics, the symbolic status of the to-be-learned activity also has an impact on the scaffolding process (Stone 1993). For example, if the teacher or the learner places little value on the activity in hand, they are not motivated to engage in solving the task. This can also be applied to the present study where one of the teacher’s tasks is in fact to keep the learners motivated to complete the tasks.

In brief, the metaphor of scaffolding has been criticised. Originally the metaphors of the ZPD and scaffolding were coined to describe child development in interaction with adults in L1 situations, but the metaphors are

useful in examining L2 learning interactions as well. The current application of the metaphors has also been extended beyond expert-novice interaction. The need to specify the communicative mechanisms involved in scaffolding in the ZPD has been pointed out. The semiotics of scaffolding are complex and it has been argued that a full understanding of scaffolded interactions requires the analysis of such communicative moves as prolepsis as well as the nature of interpersonal dynamics. The aim of the present study is to contribute to the understanding of the scaffolding process by examining the organisation of the grammar instructional episodes and the strategies the teacher employs in providing the learners with scaffolded assistance. The discussion will now move on to look at some previous studies of scaffolding within the Vygotskian framework.

## **5 PREVIOUS STUDIES OF SCAFFOLDING WITHIN THE VYGOTSKIAN FRAMEWORK**

Scaffolding is one of the concepts that is commonly associated with a sociocultural perspective on teaching and learning and it was originally introduced to describe adult-child interaction in L1 situations. Most early studies have thus concerned interaction in L1. In L1 contexts experts help novices to carry out different tasks and this process takes place through the use of L1. Later the concept was found to be useful in analysing L2 learning situations as well. At first L2 studies focused on expert-novice scaffolding. Current research, however, while still aiming at a better understanding of the scaffolding process, is looking more closely at scaffolding taking place among peers and in concrete classroom situations.

The concept of scaffolding within the Vygotskian framework has been applied in a large number of studies, and so it is not possible to review them all here. Even though the present study focuses on L2 learning in Vygotskian theory, it is important to review previous studies of scaffolding in L1 contexts as well. Those studies are relevant to the present L2 study, because the origins of the concept of scaffolding is in L1 expert-novice interaction. The studies shown in the tables were chosen on the basis of their focus. All the studies reviewed here are concerned with scaffolding in the ZPD, and most of them focus on scaffolding in a school context. While they cover both experiments and studies arranged in naturalistic settings, most of them concern experiments. The studies in which the earliest applications of the scaffolding metaphor were originally introduced are first described in Section 5.1. Some previous studies of the scaffolding in the L1 context are then outlined in Section 5.2. These studies focused on scaffolded situations where different tasks were solved using L1. Section 5.3 then deals with previous studies of the scaffolding of L2 learning, whose focus was on the interaction during which L2 learning was scaffolded. Finally, the studies reviewed in Chapter 5 are evaluated in Section 5.4.

## 5.1 The origins of the scaffolding metaphor

Scaffolding is a concept applied to a pattern of interaction generally occurring between experts and novices but also between novices and novices. In response to criticism, the current view of the concept has in fact been extended beyond expert-novice interaction. The concept of scaffolding refers to a process through which help is provided from person to person such that an interlocutor is enabled to do something he or she might not have been able to do without any assistance. Furthermore, it involves the gradual withdrawal of support as the novice increasingly masters a given task (Diaz, Neal and Amaya-Williams 1990:139). However, the origins of the scaffolding metaphor are in studies of adults' supportive interactions with young children (Bruner 1978, Wertsch, McNamee, McLane and Budwig 1980, Wood, Bruner and Ross 1976, Wood and Middleton 1975, Wood, Wood and Middleton 1978). A review of these studies is presented in this section.

Wood and his colleagues conducted several studies on adult-child interaction during a pyramid construction task. Wood and Middleton (1975) examined the interactions between 12 mothers and their 3- and 4-year-old children and the effects of the mothers' instructions and support on the children's subsequent ability to complete the task alone. The purpose was to describe and evaluate the pattern of interactions between mothers and their children during problem solving activities.

In the study by Wood and Middleton (1975) five measures were used, three of them based on the activity of the mothers and two on the child's subsequent behaviour following the instructions. More specifically, the levels of the mother's interventions and activities in the child's region of sensitivity to instructions, a construct very similar to what is referred to by Vygotsky (1978) as the ZPD, were measured. In addition, the mother's sensitivity to feedback from the child's actions was measured. In addition to these levels of the mother's interventions, the child's probability of achieving a task-appropriate construction following instruction and his or her probability of rejecting an error during post-instructional construction were also measured. Although the findings indicated that the mothers differed markedly in their instructional behaviour, significant correlations could be found between both the measurement of the mothers' instructional approaches and the measurement of the child's post-instruction activities. The main finding of the study was that in order to be effective the instruction had to be focused on the child's region of sensitivity to instruction.

In a subsequent study, Wood, Wood and Middleton (1978) characterised this effective instruction as contingent and tested the hypothesis that children who were provided with contingent help would perform more effectively than those provided with non-contingent support. In the study, four groups of 3- and 4-year-old children were assigned to different instructional conditions where different levels of instructor intervention were provided. During the

study the experimenters delivered the instruction instead of the mothers. The first group was provided with contingent instruction that adhered to the loosely structured rule according to which the child was given less help after he or she succeeded with a sub-task and, conversely, given more help if he or she failed. In the second group, the instructor made a model of the toy pyramid while the children watched. The third group of children was told each step in the completion of the task but given no other support, while the fourth and last group was provided with non-specific verbal encouragement and demonstrations.

It turned out that the contingently instructed group of children got through the task better than the other groups, and thus Wood, Wood and Middleton's (1978) hypothesis was confirmed. The researchers explained:

The major characteristic of the Contingent strategy, which differentiated it from the others, was that it continually presented the child with problems of controlled complexity – which we argue is at the heart of effective teaching. The strategy demands that the instructor increases control immediately, when the child starts to fail, to the point where the child finds himself successful, and that then, the instructor attempts to progressively relinquish control to the child, leaving him with a limited scope for error. In such a situation, the child never succeeds too easily nor fails too often. (Wood, Wood and Middleton 1978:144.)

In other words, this study by Wood et al. (1978) confirmed the results of the previous study by Wood and Middleton (1975) according to which the most effective instructional approach was contingent instruction based on a child's region of sensitivity. This result can also be applied to instructional dialogue in the classroom. In other words, it is important for the teacher to find out whether the task in hand is low or high in the learner's ZPD, and accordingly be able to provide the appropriate kind of scaffolded assistance. The appropriate level of assistance can be discovered through instructional negotiations.

Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) continued to investigate adult-child interaction during the pyramid construction task. Although they did not refer to a sociocultural approach or to Vygotsky, Vygotsky's sociocultural ideas have since been associated with their work. In other words, it has been concluded that their ideas and results concerning tutorial interactions can be applied to studies within the Vygotskian sociocultural framework. They investigated the influences of the tutorial relationship on problem solving and described this process as one of scaffolding. They hypothesised that this tutorial support would be beneficial to the children only if they were able to recognise the solution to the problem before taking the steps leading to it without any assistance. In the study, the instructor, guided by pre-determined rules, tutored thirty children, aged from 3 to 5 years, as they constructed the toy pyramid. The instructor gave verbal instructions before giving direct assistance and left the children working on their own as much as possible. The researchers analysed the tutorial process, the tutorial relationship, the fidelity of the tutoring to the pre-determined rules and the scaffolding process.

In examining the tutorial process, Wood et al. (1976) found that the children's success and intuitive ability to fit pieces together increased with age.



The findings relating to the children's ability to differentiate correct and incorrect constructions supported the researchers' contention that recognition would precede production. In addition, the analysis of the tutorial relationship revealed that the 3-year-olds needed more assistance than the older children did, and the quality of the help required by children of different ages differed. More specifically, the findings showed that the 3-year-olds tended to ignore verbal suggestions, and thus had to be lured into the task with demonstrations and different materials. The 4-year-olds required half as many interactions as the 3-year-olds, and these interactions were primarily verbal. The 5-year-olds in turn required half as many interactions as the 4-year-olds, with the interactions being generally confirmatory in nature. In exploring the tutor's fidelity to the pre-determined rules of interaction the researchers then suggested that tutorials might be most difficult at the midpoint in the learning process, that is, with 4-year-olds, because at that point it is harder to interpret what the learner knows. The researchers concluded that in order to be successful the tutor had to follow a pattern that was dependent on both the tutee and the given task. In other words, while the learner primarily focuses on the goal of the task, the tutor must attend to: a) "the theory of the task or problem and how it may be completed" and b) "the theory of the performance characteristics" of the learner (Wood et al. 1976:97). The interaction of these two theories, task and performance, will also determine how the teacher scaffolds the learner in the classroom. The teacher's choice of the form of scaffolded assistance serves as a supportive tool enabling learners to extend their skill so as to achieve the goal of the task. It appears that the success of scaffolding depends on how the teacher manages the interaction between the demands of the task and the learner's needs.

Although Wood et al. (1976) examined scaffolded assistance taking place in tutorial sessions between a tutor and a 3-, 4, or 5-year-old child, their description of the role of the tutor and the role of the teacher in the classroom can be seen to have many common features. For example, the tutor was described as acting as "a verbal prodder" and "a corrector" for the 4-year-old children (p. 95). In the classroom the teacher also has to introduce the task to the learners and get the activity started. The teacher also has to show the learners the possible incorrect or incomplete structures in their responses. In addition, Wood et al. (1976:96) described the tutor of the 5-year-olds to be primarily "a confirmer" or "a checker of constructions". In the classroom, the teacher also confirms the learners' correct answers and checks whether they have understood the task correctly. Thus, the tasks of the tutor in an adult-child tutorial session and that of the teacher in an L2 classroom can be seen to have features in common.

Lastly, in analysing the tutorial process as scaffolding, Wood et al. (1976) delineated six different features of the process: recruiting interest in the task, simplifying the task, maintaining pursuit of the goal, marking critical features and discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution, controlling frustration during problem solving and demonstrating an idealised

version of the act to be performed (see Sections 4.3.1 and 6.5). Wood et al. (1976) did pathbreaking work in describing these different features of scaffolded interactions. Their work has been widely referred to in different studies. In fact, they outlined the features after they had observed the tutorial sessions, thus having no predetermined categories. However, it can be argued that their definitions of the components of scaffolding are rather broad. According to the first definition, that is, recruitment, for example, the tutor's first task is "to enlist the problem solver's interest in and adherence to the requirements of the task" (Wood et al. 1976:98). However, at the beginning of the activity, the teacher in the classroom often simply has to draw the learner's attention to the task by mentioning his or her name, for example. After having the learner's attention the teacher has to try to enlist his or her interest in the task. Similarly, the third definition, that is, direction maintenance, is a broad one consisting of all the teacher's strategies in keeping the learners' attention on the task. Hence, in order to be able to apply these features in the present study, the definitions will be modified to fit the context of an L2 teacher-fronted classroom (see Section 7.3 for a detailed discussion of the teacher's scaffolded assistance).

Bruner (1978) used the concept of scaffolding to describe the verbal efforts that a mother made in attempting to maintain conversation with her child, which also indirectly promoted language acquisition. In analysing mother-child dialogues, Bruner (1978) discovered five characteristics in the mother's scaffolding: a) reducing the complexity of the task, b) concentrating the child's attention into a manageable domain, c) providing models, d) extending the scope of the situation, and e) offering support so that the child can carry on with the task.

Werth, McNamee, McLane and Budwig (1980) performed a study similar to that of Wood and his colleagues. They examined the collaboration of 18 mother-child dyads during a puzzle completion task. The aim of their study was to demonstrate Vygotsky's (1978) theory according to which cognitive processes first emerge on the social, or interpersonal, plane and then become internalised and appear on the intrapersonal plane. The researchers showed how the strategic responsibilities for carrying out a problem solving task were divided up by the mothers and their preschool children before the children were able to function as independent problem solvers.

The problem solving task attempted by the mothers and their children involved the child's construction of a truck puzzle on the basis of a model puzzle. The researchers coded both verbal and nonverbal behaviours, such as the child's gazes, the mother's and child's pointing gestures and the mother's and child's handling of the pieces. Eye gazes were used to measure regulation of strategic behaviour, the mother's regulation of the child's behaviour or the child's regulation of his or her own behaviour. A child's gaze was coded as other-regulated if, prior to the gaze, the mother pointed to the model puzzle, explicitly mentioned the model puzzle, or implicitly directed the child to the model. On the other hand, a gaze was coded as self-regulated if it was not preceded by any of these maternal behaviours. Wertsch et al. (1980)

hypothesised that if the development of monitoring abilities was indicated by a transfer of responsibility from mother to child, the proportion of other-regulated gazes to the model as the children's ages increased would decrease. This hypothesis was supported by the data in the study. The researchers found that the 4-year-old children relied markedly less on their mothers' regulation of their moves than the younger ones. In addition, they made more effective use of their mothers' language and gestures to facilitate the completion of the puzzle.

In sum, the scaffolding metaphor is based on work on mother-child tutorial interactions (Bruner 1978, Wertsch et al. 1980, Wood et al. 1976, Wood et al. 1978, Wood and Middleton 1975). Summarising the contributions of these studies, some findings stand out. Firstly, Wood et al. (1978) noted that instructional patterns affected children's performance. In addition, the most effective approach to instruction was found to focus on a child's region of sensitivity to instruction (Wood and Middleton 1975, Wood et al. 1978). Wood et al. (1976) characterised this process as scaffolding, during which an adult regulates those components of a task that are beyond a child's capabilities, thus permitting the child to focus on and complete only those components that are within his or her ability. Furthermore, Bruner (1978) observed that the adults in his study adjusted their scaffolding as the children's expertise developed. Lastly, there was found to be a gradual transfer from other-regulation to self-regulation as children's expertise increased (Wertsch et al. 1980). The discussion will now move on to look at some previous studies of the scaffolding in the L1 context.

## **5.2 Previous studies of the scaffolding of L1 interaction within the Vygotskian framework**

The Vygotskian framework has been applied to a large number of studies, most of which have concerned interaction in L1. Indeed the concepts of the ZPD and scaffolding were originally introduced to describe expert-novice interactions in L1 situations. However, these studies have also made a contribution to research on scaffolding in L2 learning contexts, the focus of the present study, in illuminating interaction between experts and novices. Hence, some previous studies of L1 situations were chosen for review here, since they focus on the notions of the ZPD and scaffolding.

From the perspective of a sociocultural theory, the teaching-learning process is considered to have a motive, that is, it is an intentional activity during which learners are scaffolded in complex tasks as they interact with the teacher or peers. The goal of the teaching-learning process in the L1 studies under review was to assist learners through various problem-solving activities using L1 as a mediational means. None of the L1 studies focused on language learning, most of them, six in number, focused on collaborative interaction in a classroom setting, which is also the focus of the present study. In addition, the

study by Schinke-Llano (1994) considered both classroom teachers and mothers as experts teaching children. In line with the earlier view of the ZPD and scaffolding most of the studies focused on expert-novice scaffolding. However, the current view of the concepts has expanded beyond expert-novice interaction, and thus some of the studies also focused on peer scaffolding.

In this section some issues that are relevant from the point of view of the present study, such as the context of scaffolding, the age of the participants and the number of the participants, are discussed. In Table 3, the focus and research problems of the L1 studies, participants, procedure, data and analyses, and finally main results are first summarised and then described in greater detail. Table 3 lists the studies in chronological order.

TABLE 3. Previous L1 studies with a focus on the ZPD and scaffolding

STUDY	FOCUS / PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE / ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Forman 1981 (cited in Forman and Cazden 1985) L1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- How do the reasoning strategies of collaborative problem solvers differ from those of solitary problem solvers?</li> <li>- How do social interactions and cognitive strategies differ?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Eight middle-class children in the fourth and fifth grade</li> <li>- About nine years of age</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Children were individually pre-and post-tested</li> <li>- Teaching interactions were taped and later transcribed</li> <li>- Pairs participated in 11 problem-solving sessions, once a week over a 3-month period</li> <li>- Post-tests were arranged within a week after the last session</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The first two experiments of a chemical reaction task were performed by the teacher in a chemistry lesson</li> <li>- The pupils were asked standard questions</li> <li>- Next the pupils were asked to do some experiments without mixing the chemicals and after that they were allowed to mix combinations they had selected</li> <li>- The original questions were repeated</li> <li>- Levels of procedural interactions were identified: parallel, associative and co-operative</li> <li>- Basic types of experimentation strategies were observed: a trial-and-error strategy, an isolation-of-variables strategy, a combinatorial strategy (adapted from Kuhn &amp; Phelps 1982)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The collaborators were able to use more sophisticated problem-solving strategies than the singletons</li> <li>- Though the pairs seemed to solve the chemical combination problems faster than the singletons they did not do better than the singletons on all the post-test measures</li> <li>- The difference in partnership, that is, the level of procedural interaction, also affected the success of the pair work</li> <li>- The peer observer seemed to provide scaffolded assistance of a kind usually thought to be commonly provided by among adult teachers</li> </ul>
Wertsch and Hickmann 1987 L1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The importance of social interaction in cognitive development</li> <li>- Different social interactive processes where adults regulate children's problem-solving activities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Dyad 1: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- a 4 1/2-year-old child and her mother</li> </ul> </li> <li>Dyad 2: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- a 3 1/2-year-old child and his mother</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Interactions between children and their mothers were videotaped and the tapes were later transcribed</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- After a practice task each mother-child dyad was given two puzzles depicting a truck, one of which the child was supposed to complete in accordance with the other</li> <li>- The mother was asked to help the child if any help was needed</li> <li>- The puzzle consisted of 12 truck "cargo" pieces and nine "non-cargo" pieces</li> <li>- In addition there were also 12 extra cargo pieces which did not belong in the model puzzle</li> <li>- Interactions were segmented into "episodes" which were defined as the segment of interaction centred around one piece of the puzzle and further broken down into component activities, e.g. attention to model and piece selection</li> <li>- Several non-verbal behaviours were coded, e.g. gaze and pointing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- In the first dyad (4 1/2 years) the transition from other- to self-regulation could be said to have occurred but not in the second (3 1/2 years)</li> <li>- There were two "prerequisites" for the transition to occur: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The children's ability to regulate their own problem-solving activity depended in part on whether the adults let them do so</li> <li>2. The children's level of cognitive readiness in relation to the task difficulty influenced the transition</li> </ol> </li> </ul>

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Tudge 1990 L1	- Interaction in peer collaboration in which there is a difference in the level of ability of the partners but in which the more advanced partner is not necessarily more confident of his or her beliefs	STUDY 1: - 51 children from kindergarten, 56 6-7-year olds, 47 8-9-year olds - Children were approximately equally divided by gender STUDY 2: - 180 children, aged from six to eight years	- Children were pre-tested before the actual study to find out how they predicted the movement of the beam when differing configurations of weights were placed at differing distances from the fulcrum and post-tested after the study - Problem-solving interactions were observed	- The task on which the children worked required them to predict the working of a mathematical balance beam - The pattern of the children's predictions determined which of the six rules defined in the study they used - The weights were placed on only one stick on each side of the fulcrum, with a maximum of six weights on any one side and a maximum of ten on both sticks - The children had 14 different trials STUDY 1: - Four different conditions: without a partner, equal rule partners, lower rule partners, higher rule partners STUDY 2 with minor exceptions the design was like that in Study 1: - After reaching agreement the supports holding the beam in place were removed - 2/3 of the children were given feedback, 1/3 were given no feedback - Conditions as in Study 1	- Depending on the specific characteristics of the participants and task, that is, the children's confidence in their knowledge, their reasoning, the role of feedback in facilitating learning, the children either progress or regress in their learning - One important factor was the degree of confidence each child brought to the interaction. In other words, the children regressed when confronted with less competent and confident partners when feedback was not provided - When feedback was provided its impact overshadowed other effects of a discussion with a partner
Mercer and Fisher 1993 L1	- How do teachers help children to learn during computer-based activities?	- 50 pupils aged between 5 and 12 years of age - 15 teachers from ten different schools	- Groups of children doing computer activities were videotaped - The researchers and the teachers met regularly during the study - The teachers and the researchers talked about the activities with the pupils	- The teachers were explained that the study was concerned with examining the potential of various computer activities for generating discussions between the teacher and pupils - The teachers developed activities in discussion with the researchers for content-based lessons - The teacher helped the pupils when they had problems with the tasks	- The teacher's assistance was qualified as scaffolding, that is, 1) it enabled the pupils to carry out a task that they would not have been able to manage on their own, 2) it was intended to bring the pupils to a state of competence, and 3) it was followed by evidence of pupils having achieved some greater level of independent competence - The study showed how the teachers used talk to influence pupils' activities

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Schinke- Llano 1994  L1	- How does the adult utilise language to structure a problem-solving task for children?	STUDY 1: - 12 monolingual English-speaking fifth- and sixth-grade teachers - 12 native English-speaking (NS) and 12 limited English-proficient (LEP) children - 10-11 -year old pupils STUDY 2: - 12 American mothers - Six pre-school normally achieving (NA) and learning disabled (LD) children - All children were male, ages 3-7 years	- Teacher-student and mother-child dyads were audiotaped and videotaped and the tapes later transcribed - Field notes were kept on any relevant comments the teachers made outside the taping sessions - Questionnaires regarding the nature of children's problems	STUDY 1: - The teachers were asked to explain to the pupils how to fill in an order blank to order two items and they were asked to give assistance when needed - In order to find out the total amount of language used lines of teacher-talk in transcript were counted and tapes timed - Non-verbal, direct and indirect directives were coded as well as teacher-regulated and student-regulated utterances STUDY 2: - The mothers were asked to assist their children to put a toy airport together according to a model - Assistance was provided when the mothers thought it was necessary for the child to complete the toy airport	STUDY 1: - The teachers talked more to LEP students and organised the tasks differently for them in regard to abbreviation - The instructions with LEP pupils were more teacher-regulated and the tasks were explained more explicitly to them STUDY 2: - The mothers in LD dyads were often physically responsible for the tasks and they utilised direct other-regulation, and had a greater part of the strategic responsibility than those in NA dyads - In both studies the adults modified their interaction patterns according to the children's developmental stages
Bayer 1996  L1	- A model of a more student-centred class with a sense of shared control - Description of a class where the teacher organises joint activities which allow students to use language as a thinking device in order to make connections between old and new knowledge	- 23 graduate students whose major was elementary education - Students participated in a one-year long course, Language and Education - Students were novices within the domain of this particular course	- The instructor (the researcher) and students met once a week over a two semester period - Each 80-minute class was videotaped and later transcribed	- The instructor developed a new lecture format in a course for university students who themselves planned to become educators - The analysis revealed two scaffolding structures: according to which activities were arranged for the purpose of eliciting student prior knowledge and for presenting a means by which students could build on that previous knowledge, and 2. "anchored knowledge scaffolding" structure which continued where the "shared knowledge" structure ended and during which new more difficult activities were introduced	- The two analysed scaffolding structures, namely, "shared knowledge scaffolding" and "anchored knowledge scaffolding" served as a means by which students were able to achieve intersubjectivity and thereby take responsibility for their learning

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Bliss, Askew and Macrae 1996 L1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Could the model of scaffolding used for everyday knowledge be transferred to specialised school knowledge?</li> <li>- Scaffolding strategies in three specific primary schooling contexts: design and technology, mathematics and science</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Five teachers and 12 design and technology, mathematics and science classes</li> <li>- Pupils were nine to eleven years old</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Teachers and pupils were observed over four terms</li> <li>- Field notes</li> <li>- Lessons were audio-recorded</li> <li>- About 50% of lessons were videotaped</li> <li>- Teachers and pupils were interviewed</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The study consisted of an exploratory phase and a developmental phase</li> <li>- During the exploratory phase spontaneous scaffolding strategies were identified and encouraged</li> <li>- During the developmental phase scaffolding strategies were observed and their role in learning discussed</li> <li>- During both phases school-based work followed by reflective work out of school</li> <li>- During the reflective out-of-school work the researcher and the teacher watched videos of lessons in order to help the teacher to use scaffolding</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Each teacher had a definite teaching style different from that of others</li> <li>- The teachers had a tendency to talk to pupils without real interaction, that is, scaffolding was found to be difficult</li> <li>- Scaffolding could happen at school but it was difficult</li> </ul>
Hobsbaum, Peters, Sylva 1996 L1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Can the interventions within the writing episode be conceptualised as scaffolding procedures?</li> <li>- Do the patterns change over time?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 17 children in Reading Recovery (RR) lessons and 7 teachers working in different schools</li> <li>- The exact age of pupils is not stated but they had studied at school for about a year</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Writing lessons in RR were studied over several school terms</li> <li>- 75 lessons were observed and audiotaped and later transcribed</li> <li>- Field notes were kept once at the beginning and at the end of their program</li> <li>- Four pupils were observed on a weekly basis throughout the program</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- RR is an early literary intervention which involves a one-to-one tutorial program arranged daily to young pupils who have had problems in learning to read and write</li> <li>- In this study a pupil and a teacher worked together to read and to produce a text and the teacher provided contingent assistance and prompted the pupil to take over more responsibility for the task as his or her skill developed</li> <li>- Teacher-child moves were studied in relation to each other</li> <li>- Patterns of and changes in interaction were identified</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Three phases of scaffolded activity were identified: the teacher monitored closely the child's work, s/he acted as prompt and s/he was essentially reactive</li> <li>- These phases identified in the data indicated that the interaction between the teacher and a child was a process of scaffolding</li> </ul>



The goal of the teaching-learning process in the L1 studies under review was to scaffold novices or peers through various problem-solving activities. In most cases the goal was to solve different problems in content-based classroom lessons at school, including problems in design and technology, maths and science classes, chemical problems, problems to be solved by computers in different content-based classes, fill-in exercises and mathematical problems (Bliss et al. 1996, Forman 1981 cited in Forman and Cazden 1985, Mercer and Fisher 1993, Schinke-Llano 1994, Tudge 1990). In the study by Bayer (1996), the aim was through discussion to recall old school memories and to shape current beliefs about education and in the study by Hobsbaum et al. (1996) learners were asked to write a story. Only two of the studies in question looked at mother-child scaffolding. The goal of scaffolding in the other research design in the study by Schinke-Llano (1994) and in the study by Wertsch and Hickmann (1987) was to complete a toy airport or a puzzle in accordance with a model. The goal in the L1 studies was thus different from that in the present study, where the aim of the activity is to scaffold pupils' L2 learning. In other words, in the present study the teacher and the learners also solve problems, but they solve grammar problems in order to learn a new language.

The overall focus of all the studies in the review was scaffolding as in the present study, although the goal of the scaffolding process in the L1 studies was different from that in the present L2 study. That is, though the goal of the scaffolding process in the L1 studies was assisting learners through problem-solving tasks and that in the L2 studies learning a new language, the focus of all the studies was scaffolded assistance. The scaffolding process between experts and novices of different ages or other proficiency levels was an issue of interest in the study by Schinke-Llano 1994 and Wertsch and Hickmann 1987. These studies examined scaffolded assistance provided, for example, to 4 ½ and 3 ½ - year-old children and limited English-proficient and learning disabled children. The study by Mercer and Fisher (1993) concentrated on the scaffolding interaction between the teacher and pupils during computer-based activities. The comparison between the scaffolding and problem-solving processes of pairs and singletons was the focus of the studies by Forman (1981 cited in Forman and Cazden 1985) and Tudge (1990). The nature of scaffolding in different L1 contexts was discussed in some of the studies reviewed here (Bayer 1996, Bliss et al. 1996). More specifically, these settings included L1 contexts, such as experiments in modelling more student-centred classes in universities and primary schools. In addition, Reading Recovery lessons, that is, one-to-one interventions for young children with difficulties in reading after one year of school, were studied in the work of Hobsbaum et al. (1996).

The age of the participants in the L1 studies varied. The studies could be divided into two broad categories depending on the age of the participants: those concerning adult experts and child novices and those concerning children working together. In the studies by Schinke-Llano 1994 and Wertsch and Hickmann 1987 adults had the role of expert and children the role of novice in tutorial sessions. In these cases the novices were young children, the oldest

being 11 years old. The study by Schinke-Llano (1994) also involved limited English-proficient and learning disabled children. Some of the studies concentrated on situations where the teacher was an expert helping a group of pupils or students in a classroom setting (Bayer 1996, Bliss et al. 1996, Hobsbaum et al. 1996, Mercer and Fisher 1993). The learners in these studies consisted of both elementary school pupils and university students. The situation in these cases was in fact similar to that in the present L2 study where the teacher provides scaffolded assistance for an entire class of teenage pupils. The studies by Forman (1981 cited in Forman and Cazden 1985) and Tudge (1990) investigated collaborative interaction between young children up to nine years of age who were not all equally proficient in the problem-solving task of the experiment.

The studies could be categorised broadly as experiments and as those studies that examined interaction in natural classroom settings. In most cases the participants were observed in natural classroom settings (Bayer et al. 1996, Bliss et al. 1996, Forman 1981 cited in Forman and Cazden 1985, Hobsbaum et al. 1996, Mercer and Fisher 1993, Tudge 1990). Except in the case of Hobsbaum et al. (1996), the learners were given tasks designed for the purposes of the studies. Hobsbaum et al. (1996) discussed the nature of scaffolding in Reading Recovery lessons and the investigation was performed in a natural classroom setting without any specific instructions for the participants. Thus, the research design of the study by Hobsbaum et al. (1996) was similar to that of the present L2 study where teacher-fronted whole-class interaction is observed in a natural classroom setting. In contrast, in the experiments by Schinke-Llano (1994) and Wertsch and Hickmann (1987) the tutorial sessions were arranged specially for the studies.

Different categories were used in the analyses of the L1 studies. Except for the study by Tudge (1990), which used observation as the means of data collection, in all cases the interactions between the participants were audio- or videotaped as in the present L2 study. For the purposes of analysis the recordings were later transcribed. Some of the studies also used field notes and interviews as additional methods of collecting data. As in the present L2 study, where the data were coded into the categories of sequential organisation of spoken discourse (Wells 1996, 1999) and the features of scaffolding (Wood et al. 1976), the data of the L1 studies were analysed by using different coding systems. In the L1 studies concentrating on collaborative interaction between experts and different novices (Schinke-Llano 1994, Wertsch and Hickmann 1987) the verbal and non-verbal instructions given by experts were analysed. In addition, different phases and strategies of scaffolding were identified in the studies that dealt with modelling and describing more pupil-centred classes (Bayer 1996, Bliss et al. 1996, Hobsbaum et al. 1996). In the studies by Forman (1981 cited in Forman and Cazden 1985) and Tudge (1990) the effects of different working conditions on problem solving were reported using quantitative methods.

Three of the L1 studies reported the learning outcomes with post-tests or longitudinal observations (Forman 1981 cited in Forman and Cazden 1985,

Hobsbaum et al. 1996, Tudge 1990), an aspect which is not examined in the present L2 study. Forman (1981 cited in Forman and Cazden 1985) demonstrated that although the pupils working in pairs did not do better than the singletons in the post-tests, collaboration affected the learning process. In the study by Tudge (1990), feedback was found to overshadow other effects of peer interaction among children and the degree of confidence was also found to be an important factor in the learning process. In their longitudinal study, Hobsbaum et al. (1996) showed how the pupils were able to take more responsibility for their studies after four school terms of scaffolded assistance in Reading Recovery lessons. The results of the L1 studies concentrating on the scaffolding process between experts and novices of different age and proficiency levels (Schinke-Llano 1994, Wertsch and Hickmann 1987) indicated that adult experts modified their scaffolding patterns depending on the novices' developmental stages. In addition, Wertsch and Hickmann (1987) pointed out that the novices' ability to become self-regulated in a problem-solving activity depended on whether the experts let them do so and whether the help provided corresponded to the novices' cognitive readiness. The studies by Bayer (1996), Bliss et al. (1996), Mercer and Fisher (1993) and Hobsbaum et al. (1996) indicated that the notion of scaffolding was applicable to different school contexts, which is consistent with the present study of scaffolding in teacher-fronted whole-class interactions.

In brief, the goal of the teaching-learning process in the studies discussed above was to assist learners through different problem-solving activities in L1 contexts. Although the goal of the scaffolding process in the studies was different from that in the present L2 study, the overall focus of all the studies was on scaffolding as in the present study. Originally the concepts of the ZPD and scaffolding were introduced to describe expert-novice interaction in an L1 situation. Previous L1 studies have illuminated the scaffolding process in tutorial sessions, thus having an impact on L2 studies as well. The discussion will now move on to look at some previous studies of the scaffolding of L2 learning.

### **5.3 Previous studies of the scaffolding of L2 learning within the Vygotskian framework**

As was mentioned before, though most early studies in the Vygotskian framework have concerned L1 interaction, Vygotskian ideas have recently also been applied to an increasing number of studies of L2. The L2 studies in the review, like the L1 studies, were chosen for their focus on the notions of the ZPD and scaffolding. However, the motives of the teaching-learning processes in the L1 and the L2 studies were different. More specifically, the goal of the scaffolding process in the L1 studies was to assist learners through different problem-solving activities using L1 as a mediational means. In contrast, the L2 studies concerned the scaffolding of L2 learning, which is also the focus of the

present L2 study. Furthermore, all the L2 studies examined scaffolding in a school setting. In accordance with the current trend of research on scaffolding, most studies have extended the view of the ZPD and scaffolding beyond expert-novice interaction to look more closely at peer scaffolding. However, the scaffolding process in a teacher-fronted whole-classroom interaction has received much less attention. Accordingly, the aim of the present study is to make a contribution to research on scaffolding by examining how a language teacher scaffolded pupils in a concrete classroom situation.

In this section the discussion will move on to previous studies focusing like the present study on L2 learning. In Table 4 the focus and research problems of the L2 studies, participants, procedure, data and analysis, and finally main results are first summarised. Like Table 3, Table 4 lists the studies in chronological order. Next, the previous L2 studies reviewed in Table 4 are described in more detail in Sections 5.3.1 to 5.3.5, which deal especially with issues relevant to the present study, such as the context of scaffolding, whether the focus was on tutorials or whole-class interaction and the age of the pupils. Finally, some aspects of the previous studies are evaluated in Section 5.4.

TABLE 4 Previous L2 studies with a focus on the ZPD and scaffolding

STUDY	FOCUS / PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE / ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Aljaafreh 1992 L2	- The effects of negative feedback on second language among adults	- Nine university learners of English as a second language, aged from 18 to 37 years - Subjects had different ethnic backgrounds and all except one were females - All subjects were considered beginners in terms of their writing abilities and they participated in an eight-week second level ESL writing and reading course	- Tutoring sessions between the researcher and three students, one at a time, were audiotaped and later transcribed - All subjects in the study wrote eight essays of which seven were corrected	- The learners were divided into three groups: Explicit Negative Feedback, Implicit Negative Feedback and ZPD Groups - The ZPD group consisted of three volunteers who participated in the tutoring sessions once a week with the researcher - The students of the Explicit and Implicit Negative Feedback Groups did not know that they were assigned into an error correction group - Compositions were always returned unmarked to the members of the ZPD group and correction was done together with the learner and the researcher, the focus being on articles, tense marking, use of prepositions and modal verbs - Before any correction was made the learner was allowed to read the written assignment in order to find the possible errors by him/herself - The levels of strategic help (adapted from Wertsch 1984 and Wertsch and Hickmann 1987) and the regulatory scale were identified in order to determine the microgenetic growth of the learners' performance	- The learners were capable of using negative feedback to improve their performance if negative feedback was given responsively to their needs - The continuum of graduated levels of help included explicit and implicit negative feedback - The learners' active involvement in the correction activity and the collaborative nature of the process were important features
Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994 L2	- How does a foreign language expert negotiate a foreign language grammar explanation with a novice speaker within the ZPD?	- A French teacher with 20 years of teaching experience in a suburban school district in Pittsburgh - A first-year French student who had studied French for five weeks prior to the tutorial session	- A one-hour long tutorial session between an expert and a novice was videotaped and later transcribed for analysis	- The researcher and the teacher designed the lesson together - An abbreviated version of "Cinderella" in French which was an "advanced organiser" for the tutorial session and a grammar exercise were the required activities - The teacher also developed her own activities - The foreign grammar point (present tense first conjugation –er verbs) was embedded in the activities - In the analysis the levels of the ZPD during explicit instruction and the discourse strategies that facilitated the development of competence in the learner were described	- The different levels of the ZPD were described on the basis of the data - Language served a functional purpose to co-construct new knowledge and skills - The ZPD lessons encouraged experimentation on the part of both the student and the teacher

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Brooks and Donato 1994 L2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The nature of selected aspects of FL learners' speech activity, such as talk about the task, talk about the talk and the use of L1</li> <li>- How does speaking during a task collaboratively influence and build a shared social reality between the students?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Eight dyads of third-year high school learners of Spanish</li> <li>- The native language of the subjects was English</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Conversations between students were audio- and videotaped and the tapes were transcribed</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Both students of each dyad were given a jigsaw task diagram</li> <li>- The subjects were instructed to find out and to draw in what the other had on his or her part of the diagram that was both similar to and different from the other's jigsaw</li> <li>- The subjects sat opposite each other with a barrier between them</li> <li>- At the end of the task the participants were supposed to have a similar kind of diagram</li> <li>- Three instrumental functions of speaking were identified: speaking as object-regulation, as shared orientation and as goal formation</li> <li>- The subjects were instructed to speak in Spanish</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The learners attempted to control the problem activity by constructing it verbally and orienting themselves to the demands of the task</li> <li>- Intersubjectivity was achieved through verbal thinking</li> <li>- The learners were successively able to orient and guide one another through more difficult problems</li> </ul>
Donato 1994 L2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- How do students co-construct their L2 learning experiences in a school setting?</li> <li>- How do social interactions in the classroom facilitate the appropriation of new linguistic knowledge by a L2 learner?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Three third semester university students of French at an American university</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Interactions between three subjects consisted of a one-hour planning session for an oral activity which took place in the following class</li> <li>- Interactions were audiotaped and later transcribed</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The subjects were asked to plan together what they thought they would need in order to participate in the oral task of the next French lesson</li> <li>- The task was to create a conclusion for the story that the teacher had told them and the presentation was to be made without any written notes</li> <li>- The students were asked to discuss the problem together</li> <li>- The students were allowed to use both L1 and L2 during the discussion</li> <li>- In the study the definitions of scaffolding defined by Wood et al. (1976) were applied</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The learners gave guided help to their peers during collaborative L2 interactions in the same way as experts provide scaffolding</li> <li>- In this L2 learning process the learners were able to expand their own language knowledge and that of their peers</li> </ul>

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Guerrero and Villamil 1994 L2 (see Villamil and Guerrero 1996, Guerrero and Villamil 2000)	- What types of interaction occur between members of a dyad in a peer revision session? - How do students regulate themselves and their partners during interaction?	- 54 intermediate ESL college students at a large private university in Puerto Rico - The native language of the subjects was Spanish - The subjects were enrolled in a course which emphasised the development of writing skills - One of the researchers was the instructor	- 40 interactions between dyads of students were audio-taped and later transcribed - Peer revisions on two different occasions, about one month apart	- The training sessions of about four weeks were devoted to train the students in two rhetorical modes (narration and preceding persuasion) and to write the first draft, on basis of which the students were divided into writers and readers - The learners were given a prompt sheet and other materials to guide revision - The pairs were randomly formed - In each pair there was a writer whose essay was revised and a reader whose task was to help the writer to revise it - On-, about- and off-task episodes and six types of on-task episode (adapted from Freedman 1992) were identified and related to three stages of regulation (adapted from Wertsch 1979b) - The social relationships were also divided into the categories of symmetry and asymmetry	- The peer revision sessions were complex and productive - The students co-operated but also interacted with the teacher and self-revised the tasks - The students frequently used L1 in order to gain self-control - Asymmetrical social relationships were dominant between self-regulated and other-regulated learners - Control was constantly readjusted as task demands changed (continuous access) - The subjects working in pairs benefited from the peer revision sessions
Lantolf and Aljaafreh 1995 L2	- Regression in L2 learning interactions	- A Japanese and a Portuguese learner of English as a second language at the English language institute of an American university - Both subjects were females - The subjects were enrolled in an 8-week second level ESL writing and reading course - The tutor was one of the researchers	- Tutorials between the researcher and one student at a time were audiotaped and later transcribed - The students were asked to write one in-class essay per week	- The students were asked to write an essay on a topic of their choice every week - To examine linguistic development over time some features that had a fairly high probability of recurrence across compositions were selected for analysis, such as articles, tense, prepositions, modal verbs, third person singular -s - In the analysis of the transcripts the regulatory scale defined by the researchers was deployed	- Development, though beneficial for the learners, was not uniform and linear but included regression - Regression was manifested both in the linguistic performance of the L2 learners and in the frequency and quality of assistance provided by the tutor in negotiated interaction

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Ohta 1995 L2 (see Ohta 2000b)	- How is L2 development constructed by learners in teacher-fronted and pair work interactions involving two learners of Japanese?	- Learners in a second-year university level Japanese class - The analysis focused on 20-year-old Becky and 27-year-old Mark - Becky was a Filipina-American undergraduate and Mark an American MBA student	- A 100-minute Japanese lesson was audio- and videotaped and later transcribed - Becky, a volunteer student, carried one microphone which enabled collection of data during the students' pair work	-The teacher arranged pair work on the day of data collection as she usually did - First, polite requests in L2 were practised with the teacher after which pair work was arranged and then the teacher returned the class to the teacher-fronted context for pairs to perform for the whole class - The analysis focused on the role of scaffolding, especially on six different characteristics: 1. The impact of the setting and interlocutor (teacher or another student), 2. The occurrence of peer scaffolding, 3. The function of Japanese, 4. The handling of errors, 5. Novice-expert roles, and 6. The results of peer interaction	- Pair work provided an environment which allowed learner-learner collaborative activity between two students of different levels of proficiency -The learners' competence in the ZPD developed through their collaboration and they provided scaffolding for one another and used L2 for a variety of authentic purposes - The participants reached a higher level of accuracy and communicative competence - The roles of expert and novice were not fixed
Villamil and Guerrero 1996 L2 (see Guerrero and Villamil 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 2000)	- What kind of social-cognitive activities, mediation strategies and aspects of social behaviour characterise peer review?	- One of the researchers was the instructor - 54 intermediate ESL college students at a large private university in Puerto Rico - The L1 of the students was Spanish - The students were enrolled in a course which emphasised the development of writing skills	- 40 interactions between dyads of students were audio- and videotaped and later transcribed for analysis - Peer revisions on two different occasions, about one month apart	- The training sessions of about four weeks were devoted to training the students in two rhetorical modes (narration and persuasion) and to writing the first draft, on the basis of which the students were divided into writers and readers - The pairs were randomly formed - In each pair there was a writer whose essay was revised and a reader whose task was to help the writer to revise the work - The students were given written instructions for the revision and the writers were also orally instructed to read the essays aloud before the session - After each session the students were asked to work on their revised essays at home and to submit them a week later - Five different types of socio-cognitive activity, five types of mediating strategy and four aspects of social behaviour were identified	- With different types of activities and strategies identified in the study the students were able to establish intersubjectivity - The dyadic peer revision offered an opportunity for collaborative work and bilateral learning - The different forms of mutual scaffolding were important in order to achieve the task goals - The social relations were not static but rather flexible



STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
DiCamilla and Antón 1997 L2 (see Antón and DiCamilla 1998)	- What kind of role does repetition have in the collaborative discourse of L2 learners?	- Five dyads of English native speaking adults who participated in a six-week intensive Spanish course at beginner level - One of the researchers was the teacher of the course	- Three collaborative sessions between students of five dyads completing a writing task in an FL class were audio- and videotaped in a language laboratory and the tapes were transcribed - The class met daily for a period of three hours during a six-week course	- The pairs of students were asked to collaborate in the production of one common essay on three different occasions - The tasks were broadly based on course topics and they were to be informative in nature - Three prompts were given: the students were asked to write about a trip to Mexico, about popular sports and players in their own country and about eating habits and popular food and restaurants in the USA - All instances of repetition were coded and they were understood to refer to any restatement of either the content or the form of the essay	- Several instances of repetition were found in the subjects' discourse - Repetition helped the participants to establish and maintain intersubjectivity between the interlocutors - The role of repetition was to distribute scaffolded help throughout the activity - Repetition helped the participants to cling to what they had constructed and work on the collective construction of the scaffolding
Antón and DiCamilla 1998 L2 (see DiCamilla and Antón 1997)	- The nature of the collaborative process and the strategies, especially the use of L1, used by students in collaborative activities in the L2 classroom	- Five dyads of adult learners of Spanish in a six-week intensive Spanish class at beginner level - The L1 of the students was English	- Three collaborative interactions of five dyads completing a writing task in an FL class were audiotaped in a language laboratory and the tapes were later transcribed - Three collaborative sessions were recorded - The class met daily for a three-hour session	- The participants were asked to plan and write a story in Spanish in pairs - The writing tasks were informative in nature: the students were asked to write about a trip to Mexico, about popular sports and players in their own country and about eating habits and popular food and restaurants in the USA	- The use of L1 was beneficial for language learning - The use of L1 had three important functions in the L2 learning process within the learners' ZPDs: the construction of scaffolded help, the establishment of intersubjectivity and the use of private speech (PS) - L1 was also used to generate the content and to create "a workplace" in which the students were able to help each other

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Antón 1999 L2	- Discursive devices used by teachers in order to achieve the functions of scaffolding in teacher-centred and learner-centred classrooms	- One first-year university French class and one Italian class and their French and Italian teachers	- French and Italian lessons were audiotaped and later transcribed - Field notes from classroom observations were also studied - The teachers and several students were interviewed	- Both L2 classes were structured in three components: grammar explanation, practice of structures and oral practice - The French class was presented as an example of a learner-centred environment and the Italian class that of a teacher-centred one - The analysis focused on the discourse of teacher instruction, providing feedback, allocating turns and discussing learners' preferences and strategies	- When the learners were engaged in negotiation with their teachers language could be used to serve the functions of scaffolding and also to give effective help as the learners progressed through their ZPDs - Through dialogue the teachers could lead the learners to become involved in the negotiation process
Ohta 1999 L2	- How do interactional routines function in the socialisation of L2 interactional competence?	- 14 first-year university Japanese language classes and four teachers - During the pair work the focus was on Candace, a college freshman	- Data consisted of both teacher-fronted full-class and pair work interactions - 15 hours of video- and audiotaped data from 14 first-year university Japanese classes - Data from five 50-minute-long classes were transcribed	- The learners and their teachers practised the use of assessments in Japanese both in teacher-fronted and pair work contexts - The teacher's use of the follow-up turn of the IRF structure for assessment was analysed	- The learner expression of alignment was limited in teacher-fronted contexts - However, it was possible for the teachers to reallocate turns so that the learners had the opportunity to express alignment with other students both in teacher-fronted and pair work interactions - Peripheral learner participation was also beneficial for language learning - The IRF functioned as a language socialisation tool

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Mc-Cormick and Donato 2000 L2	- How can an ESL teacher's questions provide scaffolded assistance and how do these questions reflect the functions of scaffolding?	- A female native English-speaking teacher - Seven 25-40-year-old students, five of whom were female and two male - The native language of the students was Chinese or Japanese - The students were enrolled in a semester-long integrated skills ESL university class	- Data consisted of two audiotaped teacher interviews, teacher's verbal reports, teacher journals, videotapes of 20 two-hour teacher-fronted classes, field notes	- Five of the 20 videotapes were selected for analysis as being representative of the recurring routines of the course and providing an adequate number of teacher-fronted presentations for the analysis - The data was further reduced to teacher-fronted activities - A total of 15 segments were identified and further transcribed - The teacher's questions were coded for a specific scaffolding function (Wood et al. 1976) - The teacher's instructional goals were also identified on the basis of the data in order to connect her goals and the use of questions	- The teacher's questions reflected the characteristics and functions of scaffolding and her own instructional goals - The teacher's questions facilitated comprehension and learner participation - Teacher questions served as semiotic tools for shared cognitive functioning
Guerrero and Villamil 2000 L2 (see Guerrero and Villamil 1994, Villamil and Guerrero 1996)	- The mechanisms by which strategies of revision develop when two L2 learners work jointly in their respective ZPDs	- Two male intermediate ESL college learners whose native language was Spanish - The students participated in a course focusing on the development of writing skills - One of researchers was the instructor	- The conversation of one dyad of students during their revision session was audiotaped and later transcribed - Additional sources of information were the writers' first and final drafts	- During the course the students participated in two revision sessions in which pairs revised a composition written by one of them - The pairs were formed randomly - On the basis of the first drafts it was determined which of the two would be the writer and which the reader, whose task was to help the writer to revise the composition - The topic of the composition was "Narrate an experience that taught you something about yourself or an experience that made you reflect on life" - The pair was instructed to revise the draft and the writer was asked to read the essay aloud before revision - The transcriptions were segmented into episodes in which scaffolded mechanisms employed by the students were identified - The categories of scaffolding identified in previous studies (mainly in those of Lidz 1991, Bruner 1978, Villamil and Guerrero 1996 and Wood et al. 1976) were used	- The reader's supportive behaviours which facilitate the writer's linguistic development included recruiting the writer's interest, marking critical features, explicitly instructing and modelling - The reader's performance displayed also intentionality, task regulation, meaning and contingent responsibility - The use of L1 facilitated interaction throughout the session - Intersubjectivity was established and maintained during interaction - Though the examples illustrated also regression the benefits of scaffolding were mutual

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Hakamäki and Lonka 2000 L2 (A master's thesis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The applicability of the notions of the ZPD and scaffolding to the study of teacher-fronted full-class L2 interaction</li> <li>- Scaffolded help provided by a teacher at the different levels of scaffolded learning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 17 eighth-grade learners of English in a secondary school and their teacher</li> <li>- Learners were about 14 to 15 years old</li> <li>- 10 of the pupils were boys and 7 girls</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 11 consecutive English lessons were observed, audio- and videotaped and later transcribed</li> <li>- 16 episodes were chosen for the analysis</li> <li>- Discussions with the teacher</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The English lessons were recorded in a natural teacher-fronted whole-class setting</li> <li>- 16 episodes were chosen on the basis of the method of instruction so as to include the most dialogic interaction between the teacher and her pupils in a teacher-fronted whole-class context</li> <li>- Primary functions of the teacher's strategies (adapted from Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) were identified</li> <li>- 4 different levels of scaffolded learning were identified on the basis of the data and the scaffolding process at these levels was analysed</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The notions of the ZPD and scaffolding have application also in teacher-fronted full-class L2 interactions</li> <li>- The teacher was able to provide the learners with different kind of scaffolded assistance at the different levels of scaffolded learning</li> </ul>
Nassaji and Swain 2000 L2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Can corrective feedback provided within a learner's ZPD improve his or her use of L2 English articles better than feedback provided randomly and irrespective of the learner's ZPD?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Two adult Korean learners of English in a 5-week intensive intermediate writing class and their tutor</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Four 40-minute long weekly tutorials for both learners were audiotaped and transcribed later</li> <li>- Learners were also tested for any improvement on the use of articles with student-specific task-related cloze tests</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The students were randomly chosen for a ZPD error treatment tutorial (the student received corrective feedback on her essay within her ZPD) and a non-ZPD error treatment one (the student received random feedback)</li> <li>1. A qualitative in-depth analysis of the tutorial transcripts:</li> <li>- A microgenetic analysis of the effect of a corrective procedure by comparing the amount of help given in two episodes within one tutorial session</li> <li>- A macrogenetic analysis of the similar comparisons across sessions</li> <li>- A process-product analysis of the relationship between the help given and the learner's response in the final test</li> <li>2. A quantitative analysis of the correct production of articles in each essay and the final cloze tests</li> <li>- In the analysis the regulatory scale developed by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) was deployed</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Help provided within the ZPD was more effective than help provided randomly</li> <li>- The ZPD student showed consistent growth over sessions</li> <li>- Random help was more useful when it was more rather than less explicit</li> </ul>

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE	MAIN RESULTS
Ohta 2000b L2 (see Ohta 1995)	- The nature of effective assistance in peer learning situations, the mechanisms through which that help is sought and provided and the impact that effective help has on the acquisition of a grammatical structure	- Learners in a second-year university level Japanese class - The analysis focused on 33-year-old Hal and 20-year-old Becky - Becky was Filipina-American and Hal Taiwanese	- A Japanese lesson was audio-taped and videotaped and later transcribed - The analysis focused on the pair work of Hal and Becky during a grammar translation task	- In the translation task, on which the learners worked together orally, the learners were to combine two elements into sentences (“person who wants someone to do something” and “what he or she wants who to do”) using the desiderative as shown in the example sentence - The learners were given translation task sheets - The vocabulary used was mostly familiar - The analysis first examined the notion of assistance in order to illuminate its possible appropriateness and its mechanisms - The analysis then turned to internalisation processes - The levels of internalisation outlined by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) were applied in the analysis	- In his effective help Hal was responsive to Becky’s requests for help which showed her readiness for assistance - The importance of learner engagement became apparent - In the process both the students evidenced development
Verplaeetse 2000 L2	- What particular discourse strategies does one highly dialogic middle school science teacher use to create an interactive classroom during teacher-fronted full-class discussions?	- A middle school science teacher in the USA and his science class including LEP (limited English-proficient) students whose native languages were Russian, Vietnamese, Cambodian or Haitian	- 5 hours of transcribed classroom discussions, 6 additional hours of classroom observations, 3 interviews with the teacher - For the quantitative comparison 4 hours of transcribed classroom discussions with two other teachers	- The discussions were coded in a modified version of the Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) system designed for English-speaking classrooms - The teacher’s utterances were coded for move types and act types - 4 move types were identified: initiation, scaffold/initiation, response, feedback - 3 scaffolding events were identified: scaffold/initiation move, feedback elicitation, response elicitation	- Two full-class participant structures were identified: the inquiry phase and rapid-fire review - The teacher used distinctive discourse strategies - The teacher used more elicitations and higher cognitive level elicitations in two scaffolding events, those that repaired faulty student answers and those that expanded satisfactory answers - The teacher used questions to wonder out loud - The teacher often used acceptance acts (e.g. paraphrases) especially after a student’s faulty comments without adding information or evaluation - Because of the teacher’s paraphrases the students felt motivated, they listened to other speakers’ turns, ultimately responses were presented in science talk and the teacher’s voice became the voice of the students

STUDY	FOCUS/ PROBLEMS	SUBJECTS	DATA	PROCEDURE/ ANALYSIS	MAIN RESULTS
Gibbons 2003 L2	- How can two teachers mediate between the learners' current L2 skills and their commonsense understandings of science on the one hand, and the educational discourse and specialist understandings of the subject on the other?	- Two classes of 9- and 10-year-olds in the fifth year of school in Australia and their two science teachers - Pupils were from language backgrounds other than English	- 7 and 11 successive lessons of each class were audiotaped and later transcribed - 14 hours of discourse in total - Field notes and teacher and student interviews as additional sources of data	- The teachers and the researcher planned teaching and learning activities for science classes: 1. doing an experiment in small groups using concrete materials 2. teacher-guided reporting of their experiences 3. completing an informal writing task in science journals - First the typical interaction pattern was identified on the basis of the data - Then the data was searched for relevant interactions - The mode continuum as in the work of Halliday was employed to describe the different registers used	- The teachers were able to mediate language and learning in different ways: mode shifting through recasting, signalling the learners how to reformulate, indicating the need for reformulation, recontextualising personal knowledge - In order to be effective support must be contingent

### 5.3.1 Focus and research problems

Even though all the L2 studies in the review made use of the notions of the ZPD and scaffolding in their analyses, each of them had its own specific research questions. All the L2 studies also focused on collaborative interaction in a school setting. In contrast to the L1 studies reviewed, the goal of the teaching-learning process in the L2 studies was L2 learning, on which the present study also focuses. In accordance with Vygotskian thinking, the studies reviewed here concentrated not only on the end-products but also on the process of L2 learning.

It is important to point out that the focus of the present L2 study, that is, scaffolding practised in teacher-fronted whole-class situations, has not been the main focus of many earlier studies. In fact, apart from the five studies by Antón (1999), Gibbons (2003), Hakamäki and Lonka (2000), McCormick and Donato (2000) and Verplaetse (2000), the L2 studies summarised above concentrated on the nature of scaffolding between peers or between a tutor and a student. The study by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000) and the present study employ the same data, but the study by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000) investigated the teacher's scaffolded assistance on different levels of scaffolded learning instead of looking at complete instructional episodes. Although the focus of the four remaining studies was also on the scaffolded assistance provided in teacher-fronted full-class contexts, the research design differed from that in the present study. Language classrooms in a university setting were examined in the studies by Antón (1999) and McCormick and Donato (2000). More specifically, Antón (1999) compared scaffolding in learner-centred and teacher-centred classroom interactions and McCormick and Donato (2000) focused on an L2 teacher's questions serving to scaffold learning. Meanwhile the studies by Gibbons (2003) and Verplaetse (2000) were concerned with scaffolding in content-based classes. In both of these studies the pupils were from language backgrounds other than English, and so English was both a target and a medium of instruction in their science classes. In addition, Verplaetse (2000) was interested in the scaffolding strategies of one particularly dialogic teacher.

As was mentioned above, some of the L2 studies under review examined scaffolded assistance between a tutor as expert and a student as novice during a tutorial session. The concepts of the ZPD and scaffolding were in fact originally constructed to describe expert-novice interaction, though not in L2 situations but in L1 situations. Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995) examined the appearance of regression and Aljaafreh (1992) the effects of negative feedback on L2 learning processes among adult learners instructed by one of the researchers. In the study by Nassaji and Swain (2000) the focus of interest was on a comparison of help given randomly with help given within the learners' ZPDs. Lastly, the study by Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994), whose focus was similar to that of the present study, examined the negotiation processes of foreign language grammar explanations between an expert and a novice. However, Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994) were interested in scaffolding taking place during tutorial sessions and not in a teacher-fronted full-class setting.

Most of the L2 studies reviewed examined collaborative interactions between peers. The study by Brooks and Donato (1994) investigated the nature of scaffolding between pairs of high school students solving a problem with a jigsaw diagram. Scaffolding processes between university students working in pairs or in groups of three in L2 lessons were the focus of the studies by Donato (1994) and Ohta (2000b). The studies by Guerrero and Villamil (1994), Guerrero and Villamil (2000) and Villamil and Guerrero (1996) looked at scaffolding in peer revision sessions on written texts between university L2 students. The first of these studies concentrated on the regulation strategies between the partners. Some specific features of the collaborative discourse of L2 learners were also an issue of interest in some studies. More specifically, the study by DiCamilla and Antón (1997) examined the role of repetition and that by Antón and DiCamilla (1998) the role of L1 in the L2 learning process.

The two remaining L2 studies (Ohta 1995, 1999) examined the scaffolding process in two different contexts. The scaffolding taking place both in the collaborative interactions of dyads of university students and in teacher-fronted L2 classrooms was observed in these studies, which compared the effects of these two different settings on L2 learning interactions.

Finally, the studies by Gibbons (2003), Ohta (1995, 1999) and Verplaetse (2000) looked as well at the IRF sequences between the teacher and learners. This is also an issue of interest in the present study, which examines how the teacher and learners exploit the IRF structure in teacher-fronted whole-class interactions. Ohta (1995, 1999) focused on the differences in the use of the IRF in teacher-fronted and pair work contexts, whereas Gibbons (2003) and Verplaetse (2000) observed the use of the IRF structure in content-based classes.

### 5.3.2 Participants

The L2 studies, like the L1 studies in Table 3, can be divided into two broad categories according to the age of the participants. However, the L2 studies did not involve interactions between children. They concentrated instead on collaborative interactions between adult experts and child or adult novices, and especially those between adult participants who were both novices in regard to the given task. Only four studies had their main focus on scaffolded assistance in teacher-fronted whole-class interactions as investigated by the present L2 study.

Most of the L2 studies under review, 14 of the 19 studies, examined the nature of scaffolding during collaborative sessions between adult participants or between an adult expert and one or more adult novices. Most of these studies examined the scaffolding process between adult university students (Antón and DiCamilla 1998, Guerrero and Villamil 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 2000, DiCamilla and Antón 1997, Donato 1994, Ohta 2000b, Villamil and Guerrero 1996). The participants in the study by Brooks and Donato (1994) were young adults studying at high school. In other words, all these studies involved peers working together.



As was noted above, the focus of interest in some of the studies reviewed here was the scaffolding process between an adult expert and an adult novice. In the studies by Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994), Aljaafreh (1992), Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995) and Nassaji and Swain (2000), one of the researchers or the teacher was an expert helping university students with their grammar problems. Three studies had their main focus on scaffolded assistance provided by an L2 teacher to a whole-class (Antón 1999, Hakamäki and Lonka 2000, McCormick and Donato 2000), as with the present study, while the study by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000) actually had the same participants as the present study. However, the participants in the four remaining studies (Antón 1999, McCormick and Donato 2000, Ohta 1995, 1999) were older than those in the present study, which examines interaction between a secondary school teacher and her class. These other studies involved instead a university teacher as expert and a class of university students as novices. Two of the studies involved both university teachers as experts working with university classes as novices on the one hand, and dyads of university students working together as novices on the other (Ohta 1995, 1999).

The two remaining L2 studies differed from the others in having content-based lessons given to classes of pupils from language backgrounds other than English as their focus of interest. More specifically, the study by Verplaetse (2000) examined the scaffolding strategies provided by a middle school teacher and that by Gibbons (2003) focused on collaborative interactions between two science teachers and their classes of 9- and 10-year-olds in their fifth year of schooling. Both these studies had schoolchildren in the role of the novices.

### 5.3.3 Procedure

This section covers issues concerning tasks used in the studies and instructions given to the participants. Like the L1 studies, the L2 studies under review could be categorised broadly as quasi-experiments and as studies concentrating on collaborative interaction in a natural classroom setting. However, recordings made in a teacher-fronted whole-class setting were used as the main means of collecting data, as in the present study, in only five of the studies under review.

Most of the L2 studies examined participants interacting in pairs or small groups while discussing possible alternative solutions for different problems. The tasks included essay revision sessions (Aljaafreh 1992, Guerrero and Villamil 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 2000, Lantolf and Aljaafreh 1995, Nassaji and Swain 2000, Villamil and Guerrero 1996), collaborative essay writing tasks (Antón and DiCamilla 1998, DiCamilla and Antón 1997), discussions of texts and exercises (Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994), and plans for an oral activity (Donato 1994). The focus of the study by Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994) was similar to that in the present study. More specifically, the study involves the teacher interacting with a learner in order to help her to work out the answers to grammar exercises. In addition, some studies involved problem-solving tasks, where participants were supposed to find the only possible correct solutions through discussion with each other. The study by Brooks and Donato

(1994) used jigsaw task diagrams for which there was only one correct solution. Likewise, in the study by Ohta (2000b) a dyad of university students was given a translation task sheet, which they were supposed to fill in with correct alternatives. In the same way, the study by Nassaji and Swain (2000) included also cloze tests for which there were of course specific correct answers.

Some of the studies reviewed used research methods involving recordings in natural classroom settings. These are also employed in the present L2 study. However, as Hammersley and Atkinson (1995:164) point out, even observation or recordings can affect a setting, and thus the data for these studies could also be affected by the research process. Only three of the studies were conducted entirely in a natural full-class L2 setting, which is the context of the present study. However, the main focus of these studies differed from that of the present study. One of these compared two classroom interactions which were chosen as examples of learner-centred and teacher-centred environments (Antón 1999), the second centred on teacher questions as scaffolding strategies (McCormick and Donato 2000) and the third focused on the different levels of scaffolded learning (Hakamäki and Lonka 2000). The studies examining content-based classrooms were also conducted in natural whole-class settings (Gibbons 2003, Verplaetse 2000). However, for the study by Gibbons (2003) the teachers and the researcher planned some teaching and learning activities beforehand together. In addition, scaffolded assistance taking place during pair work or in small groups in a classroom setting was involved in some of the studies in the review. Two of the studies included both pair work and whole-class interactions (Ohta 1995, 1999), and one focused only on collaborative interaction between three students (Donato 1994).

Finally, the studies can be divided into two categories by the type of instruction given to the participants, that is, those with precise or minimal instructions and those with no instructions. In all those studies in which the participants were given a discussion topic or a problem-solving task, the researcher gave the participants either minimal or very detailed instructions as to how to complete the tasks depending on the structure and complexity of the exercises. In the studies that were conducted in natural classroom settings specific instructions were not provided.

### **5.3.4 Data and analysis**

Though all the L2 studies examined the nature of scaffolding, the emphasis varied, and thus different categories were used in the analyses. Collaborative interactions between participants were audio- or video-recorded and the tapes were later transcribed. This is also the method of data collection in the present study.

All the previous studies reviewed here have some features of the research design in common with the present study. In other words, all the studies under review shared a qualitative, interpretative, case-study perspective on the L2 scaffolding process. Furthermore, they carried out the observation of language use as it occurred moment-by-moment in one particular setting. That is to say,

in all the studies a microgenetic analysis was conducted. These features are also found in the present study. In addition to a qualitative component, the studies by Nassaji and Swain (2000), Ohta (1999), and Verplaetse (2000) also provided a quantitative perspective in their data analyses. More specifically, Ohta (1999) calculated the number of turns taken by the teacher and students, Nassaji and Swain (2000) the number of correct answers provided by the students in the final tests and Verplaetse (2000) the number of certain feedback acts. In addition, alongside a microgenetic approach a macrogenetic analysis was performed in the studies by Nassaji and Swain (2000) and Ohta (1999). In other words, both these studies also examined development across learning sessions.

The L2 studies of scaffolding between peers reviewed here employed different categories to examine this specific type of collaboration. The scaffolding process was operationalised based on previously established categories, such as those of Wood et al. (1976), in the studies by Donato (1994) and Guerrero and Villamil (2000), and the regulation levels were adopted from Wertsch (1979b) in the study by Guerrero and Villamil (1994). In the studies by Ohta (1995, 1999) the functions of asymmetrical collaboration and the IRF structure were examined, while the study by Ohta (2000b) focused on assistance and the levels of internalisation identified by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994). In addition, Brooks and Donato (1994) and Villamil and Guerrero (1996) developed specific categories for analysing peer collaboration. In the remaining two studies, namely those by DiCamilla and Antón (1997) and Antón and DiCamilla (1998), instances of repetition and L1, respectively, were identified and analysed.

In the L2 study by Aljaafreh (1992), in which the scaffolding process between a tutor and a learner was examined, all the instances of the tutor's feedback and their effects on the learner's discourse were identified. Furthermore, in the data analysis the different levels of regulation, which were adapted from Wertsch (1979b), were examined and a regulatory scale was developed on the basis of the data. In other words, the study demonstrated how feedback was negotiated in the ZPD in terms of the regulatory scale. This same regulatory scale of negotiated help was utilised in the studies by Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995) and Nassaji and Swain (2000). Similarly, the study by Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994) identified different levels of the ZPD based on the studies by Wertsch (1979b) and Tharp and Gallimore (1988).

Five of the studies reviewed here had the collaborative interactional process in whole-class settings as their main focus, as in the present study. To identify and examine the scaffolding process two of these studies (Antón 1999, McCormick and Donato 2000) drew on the definitions of scaffolding developed by Wood et al. (1976). These definitions are also applied in the present study. Furthermore, the study by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000) employed the functions of the speaking turns adapted from Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in analysing the scaffolding process. The study by Verplaetse (2000) focusing on content-based classroom lessons coded the discussions in a modified version of Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system of classroom discourse. In the other study of content-based classroom lessons (Gibbons 2003), the typical interaction pattern

and its relevant interactions were identified on the basis of the data. In order to investigate the different registers employed in the classroom this study drew on systemic functional grammar following, for example, the work of Halliday.

Finally, although as was mentioned above, the data for these studies consisted of audio- or videotaped and later transcribed interactions between the participants, which was one of the criteria for inclusion in this review, some of them also used additional methods of collecting data. The studies of essay revision sessions (Aljaafreh 1992, Guerrero and Villamil 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 2000, Lantolf and Aljaafreh 1995, Nassaji and Swain 2000, Villamil and Guerrero 1996) had the essays written by the participants as additional sources of data. Observation, field notes and interviews were also used in some of the studies (Antón 1999, Gibbons 2003, McCormick and Donato 2000, Verplaetse 2000). In addition, task-related cloze tests were administered in the study by Nassaji and Swain (2000) to clarify the effects of the negotiated and random assistance provided by the teacher.

### 5.3.5 Main results

The results obtained depend on the different research problems, procedures, and analyses involved, and thus the detailed results of the studies under review also differ. Taken together, however, the main results are fairly similar.

In the L2 studies examining the effect of mutual help in novice-novice interactions among adult students the results of the studies corroborated each other. In contrast to some of the L1 studies, all the L2 studies implied that peer scaffolding was beneficial for all participants. In other words, the results of these microgenetic studies demonstrated that scaffolding helped learners to solve difficult problems and they were able to make use of the tutor's or the peer's scaffolded assistance. The roles of the partners in dyads or small groups were flexible, which meant that participants both provided and received scaffolded help.

Those studies that focused on certain features of collaborative interaction demonstrated that feedback (Aljaafreh 1992), repetition (DiCamilla and Antón 1997) and the use of L1 (Antón and DiCamilla 1998) helped learners in the L2 learning process. More specifically, Aljaafreh (1992) concluded that effective feedback in the ZPD should be contingent on and tailored to the learner's potential level of development. In addition, the study by Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994), which focused on interaction between a teacher and a student, emphasised the role of language in co-constructing new knowledge and skills. Their study showed that the ZPD lessons encouraged both the teacher and the student to experiment and take risks. Moreover, in the study by Nassaji and Swain (2000) corrective feedback provided within a learner's ZPD was found to be more beneficial than feedback provided randomly. The results of all these studies were in accord with those of the study by Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995) which showed that despite instances of regression the scaffolded learning process was useful. In fact, regression gave rise to development in some cases.

In a whole-class interaction teachers were found to be able to mediate language and learning in several ways both in L2 and content-based classes (Gibbons 2003, Hakamäki and Lonka 2000, McCormick and Donato 2000, Verplaetse 2000). Teachers used distinctive discourse strategies, such as questions and paraphrases, to activate learner participation. In addition, the study by Gibbons (2003) showed that the building of linguistic bridges between the learners' current language and the target academic register could facilitate the development of a new register and thus improve the whole process of learning. Similarly, Antón (1999) and Ohta (1999) argued in their studies that teachers could lead learners through a dialogue to become involved in classroom negotiation. Above all, teachers were able to use the follow-up turn of the IRF structure to create more possibilities for student participation (Ohta 1999). Ohta (1999) also pointed out that not only active but also peripheral learner participation is beneficial for the L2 learning process.

Finally, most L2 studies in the review involved microgenetic analyses, that is, they focused on the development of language use within one session or one lesson. These studies demonstrated that participants were able to make use of scaffolding. However, the studies by Aljaafreh (1992), Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995) and Nassaji and Swain (2000) also involved macrogenetic analyses, that is, they also looked at the development of language use across sessions. These studies demonstrated that the learning outcomes improved after scaffolded help, though regression was also involved.

### 5.3.6 Summary

The studies discussed above have all made an important contribution to the examination of scaffolding of L2 learning. The studies examined the scaffolding process by concentrating on several different issues. Most studies investigated scaffolding taking place during pair work or in small groups among peers or between a tutor and an individual learner. Only five studies had their main focus on scaffolding in teacher-fronted whole-class interactions, which the present study aims to examine. The main focus of these studies also differs from that of the present study of the use of the IRF structure and the teacher's strategies in providing her class with scaffolded assistance.

The age of the participants also varied in the L2 studies reviewed here. The study by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000) was the only study that looked at scaffolding between an L2 teacher and a class of teenage pupils. Most studies looked at scaffolding among adults, that is, a tutor and an adult learner or two adult learners. The studies concentrating on scaffolding in content-based classes involved a teacher and middle school children.

In some of the studies recordings in a natural full-class setting were used as the main means of collecting data, as in the present study. However, most studies investigated learners or a tutor and an individual learner interacting while they worked on different exercises. The focus of the study by Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994) was on the negotiations while a learner was carrying

out grammar exercises. However, in contrast with the present study, the focus was on teacher-learner interaction rather than whole-class setting interaction.

The present L2 study and the previous studies share a qualitative, microgenetic, case-study perspective on the L2 scaffolding process. The categories used in the analyses varied depending on the emphasis of each study. The present study employs the IRF sequence and the features of scaffolding defined by Wood et al. (1976), which were also used in some of the studies. The studies by Ohta (1999) and Verplaetse (2000) both examined the teacher's use of the follow-up turn of the IRF structure. Ohta (1999) compared interaction during pair work and in a full-class context and Verplaetse (2000) looked at the scaffolding of one particular dialogic teacher in content-based lessons. The features of scaffolding defined by Wood et al. (1976) were applied in the studies of scaffolding during pair work by Donato (1994) and Guerrero and Villamil (2000) and in full-class interaction by Antón (1999) and McCormick and Donato (2000). However, as was mentioned above, the emphasises of these studies were different from that of the present study.

The main results of the studies were fairly similar. They showed that scaffolded assistance taking place during pair work, in small groups and in teacher-fronted whole-class contexts can promote the L2 use of all participants. In addition, the studies demonstrated how certain features, such as feedback, repetition and the use of L1 helped the L2 learning process. The results of the study by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000) showed how the teacher provided the learners with different forms of scaffolded assistance at four levels of scaffolded learning. The study by Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994) is also particularly relevant from the point of view of the present study in analysing the role of language in negotiating foreign language grammar explanations in tutorial sessions. The studies by Gibbons (2003), Ohta (1995, 1999) and Verplaetse (2000) observed the use of the IRF structure. The study of scaffolding during pair work and in a classroom context by Ohta (1999) is especially relevant to the present study, because it showed that the role of the IRF sequence is important in creating more possibilities for student participation.

#### **5.4 Evaluation of previous L1 and L2 studies of scaffolding**

In this section, some aspects of previous studies of the scaffolding of L1 interaction and that of L2 learning will be discussed in greater detail. These aspects are the goal of scaffolding, the nature of the experiments, the naturally occurring data, the social context of the studies and the broader context of scaffolding within a lesson.

All the previous studies reviewed above, that is, both those concerning L1 interaction and those concentrating on L2 learning, had scaffolding as their focus. In other words, they all examined scaffolded assistance that must be geared toward a novice's potential level of development in order to be effective.

However, the goal of scaffolding is different in these studies, that is, problem solving through L1 interaction and L2 learning. The L1 studies are relevant from the point of view of the present study, since the concept of scaffolding has its origins in L1 tutorial interactions between an adult and a child. These studies have greatly increased our understanding of the process in the field of education by providing a detailed analysis of talk between experts and novices. However, the context of L1 studies always differs greatly from that of L2 studies even in classroom settings. The participants are more fluent in L1 than L2, and thus they have no such problems in expressing themselves as pupils in L2 classrooms. Naturally the main focus of L1 studies is not on learning a new language but on assisting novices through different problem-solving activities. Thus, the starting points of the L1 studies were different from those of the L2 studies discussed here.

As was discussed in the previous section, all the previous L2 studies in the review concentrated on verbal interaction in a school setting. Most of these studies were experimental, which had an effect on the results. In experiments the nature of the scaffolding process can be strongly affected by the instructions and the design of the study. Most of the L2 studies involved pairs or small groups negotiating possible solutions for different written exercises (Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994, Aljaafreh 1992, Antón and DiCamilla 1998, Brooks and Donato 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 2000, DiCamilla and Antón 1997, Donato 1994, Lantolf and Aljaafreh 1995, Nassaji and Swain 2000, Ohta 2000b, Villamil and Guerrero 1996). In the case of the actual experiments both an expert and a novice or novices were given instructions in advance for carrying out the tasks in hand, which must have affected the process. Instructions often eased the process, since because of the instructions the participants had similar task definitions from the start, unlike in natural settings where the participants typically started with different definitions of the situation. Moreover, in these experimental studies the learning material was often constructed or manipulated somehow. This was done to discover the effect of scaffolded assistance on learning a certain grammar point, for example. Accordingly, the description and results of the experiments can never be transferred as such to a natural classroom setting.

In addition to experiments, some L2 studies involved recordings and observations in natural classroom settings. Though the data consisted of recordings in concrete classroom settings, the participants may have been affected by the observation and recording procedures. Thus, the authenticity of the data can always be considered questionable to some extent. More importantly, the focus of the studies involving natural classroom settings naturally also had a critical effect on the results. For example, the L2 study by Antón (1999), which compared learner-centred and teacher-centred environments confirmed the hypotheses about learner-centred classrooms providing learners with more opportunities for the negotiation of meaning. The study highlighted the positive effects of learner-centredness and showed it in a more positive light than teacher-centred instruction without pointing out that

situations vary in a classroom, and that teaching methods should therefore also vary. It should be noted also that the teaching activities had often been planned even before the studies concerning natural classroom settings (e.g. Gibbons 2003), and this naturally affected the results obtained in the studies.

What is also crucial in the research design is the number of participants involved. In other words, whether the focus of a study is on scaffolding taking place during pair work, in small groups or in a teacher-fronted whole-class setting has a critical effect on the scaffolding process as a whole. In Vygotskian sociocultural theory the social context has an important role in the scaffolding process. As Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995:116) point out, "sociocultural theory situates the locus of learning in the dialogue interactions that arise between socially constituted individuals engaged in activities which are co-constructed with other individuals". Since most of the previous studies focused on one-to-one tutorial sessions or groups of pupils (Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994, Aljaafreh 1992, Antón and DiCamilla 1998, Brooks and Donato 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 1994, Guerrero and Villamil 2000, DiCamilla and Antón 1997, Donato 1994, Lantolf and Aljaafreh 1995, Nassaji and Swain 2000, Villamil and Guerrero 1996), the results of these studies cannot be transferred to a teacher-led full-classroom setting, which is the norm in Finland. Furthermore, as Stone (1993) points out, interpersonal relationships between participants have a crucial impact on the effectiveness of scaffolded interactions. Accordingly, the uniqueness of situations should be taken into account when interpreting the results. None of the studies mentioned the effects of nonverbal communicative devices on the process either. However, nonverbal communication is an important part of the scaffolding process. In fact, scaffolded assistance can often be provided using only nonverbal communicative devices, such as nods or gestures.

Arguably, none of the studies took into account the overall structure of the lesson when investigating scaffolded assistance among participants. However, the context always has its effect on the scaffolding process, and thus the place of the scaffolding situation within a language lesson also has its impact on the process. For example, at the beginning of a lesson the teaching-learning process typically contains pupils' off-task discussions on their personal concerns and the teacher may have to react to them. As Mehan (1979) points out, lessons are organised sequentially into different phases, which are characterised by participants' verbal and nonverbal behaviour serving different purposes in the various phases of a lesson. In addition, forms of interaction, such as question-answer patterns, affect the process by creating opportunities for pupils to participate. In other words, the teaching-learning process always has its broader context within a lesson, which should be taken into account in order to understand the scaffolding process.

In spite of the wealth of studies in the field, there are areas in which research has scarcely begun. The present study aims to contribute to current research by looking at the general organisation of instructional episodes, the use of the IRF sequence by a teacher and learners and a teacher's strategies in



providing scaffolded assistance in teacher-fronted whole-class L2 interaction. The discussion will now move on to look at the research questions, data and methods of the study.

## **6 THE PRESENT STUDY: THE SCAFFOLDING PROCESS FROM A VYGOTSKIAN PERSPECTIVE**

The starting point of the present study is L2 interaction in its naturalistic classroom setting. The aim is to examine the organisation of grammar instructional episodes and the strategies the teacher employs in providing scaffolded assistance during grammar instructional episodes from a Vygotskian perspective. This chapter starts with a discussion of the implications of previous research in Section 6.1. Section 6.2 then presents the research problem in the form of four research questions. Some aspects of the research methodology are discussed in Section 6.3. Section 6.4 outlines data collection, participants and data description, in turn. Finally, Section 6.5 deals with the methods of the analysis.

### **6.1 Implications of previous research within the Vygotskian framework**

The studies of the scaffolding process reviewed in Chapter 5 all approached collaborative interaction from a Vygotskian perspective. Partly because Vygotskian ideas have only recently been applied to research on L2 learning to any great extent, there are questions that remain to be answered in future studies. Many of these relate to the research design and especially the settings where the studies have been conducted. Four issues are of particular interest for the present study, namely, the classroom as a setting for the process, the teacher-fronted interactions, the organisation of episodes, and the verbal scaffolding strategies used by a teacher.

As was mentioned in Chapter 5, the perspective of the previous studies differs from that of the present study. The previous studies have highlighted many aspects of scaffolding, but since studies conducted in naturalistic L2 classroom settings have been limited in number, they have only been able to examine certain aspects of the process in limited contexts. However, the

primary functions of scaffolding strategies are not context-free, but vary and are adapted to the demands of each communicative occasion (see Section 6.5.1). Therefore, all the specific arrangements and the instructions given to the participants have had their effects on the scaffolding process in different studies. To gain a fuller understanding of the nature of scaffolding a focus on a teacher's strategies in an L2 classroom setting is thus necessary.

Since teacher-fronted interactions are the norm in many primary and secondary L2 classrooms in Finland, it is worthwhile to examine whole-class interactions in greater detail. The teaching-learning process in a teacher-led setting has received some attention, but this line of research needs to be taken further from a Vygotskian perspective. The broad range of strategies available to an L2 teacher in providing learners with scaffolding in various teacher-led situations needs to be explored further. In addition, more emphasis needs to be placed on the collaborative nature of the teaching-learning process.

Moreover, although several separate aspects of the teaching-learning process have been examined in the studies focusing on classroom contexts, the organisation of instructional episodes and spoken discourse as a setting for an L2 teacher's scaffolded assistance needs to be examined in more detail. The present study seeks to investigate the scaffolding process so that both the organisation of instructional episodes and spoken discourse as well as the various strategies employed by an L2 teacher are examined in detail. The aim is to describe the diversity of the scaffolding process in a classroom setting.

The present study attempts to show that the situations in a classroom can vary and that the scaffolding strategies used by a classroom teacher also vary accordingly. The nature of scaffolded assistance needs to vary depending on a variety of factors, such as the developmental level of the learner. A teacher needs to be able to interpret the level of a learner's ZPD at which the problem in hand is and to provide help accordingly. More specifically, a teacher needs to attempt to find the appropriate level through negotiations with a learner. The collaborative nature of the scaffolding process is thus an important factor in the process. Furthermore, the present study seeks to describe the distinctive strategies with which an L2 teacher is able to extend the IRF routine common to classroom discourse. The need to expand the IRF sequence naturally varies in different situations and with different learners. The scaffolding process is also affected by the often fast tempo of lessons, which the present study endeavours to take into consideration.

## 6.2 Research questions

The overall aim of the present study is to examine the L2 teaching-learning process during naturalistic teacher-fronted whole-classroom interaction from a Vygotskian perspective. Previous research on the scaffolding process needs to be extended, especially with respect to the organisation of the learning context.

Earlier studies have not provided a detailed description of the structure of scaffolding situations.

In the present study it is assumed that participants in the scaffolding process both shape and make use of the organisation of instructional episodes. The first research question thus focuses on the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes:

- 1) How are the grammar instructional episodes of the L2 (English) lesson organised in the classroom context?

Furthermore, in order to gain a fuller understanding of the structure of the scaffolding process the present study focuses on the sequential organisation of the spoken discourse between the teacher and the pupils in the grammar instructional episodes. The second research question deals with the use of the IRF sequence by both the teacher and the learners. More specifically, the aim is to examine how the participants expand and make use of each other's turns in order to achieve the task goal:

- 2) How is the *Initiation-Response-Follow-up* (IRF) structure exploited within the grammar instructional episodes?

The third and fourth research questions, in turn, pay attention to the teacher's strategies in the scaffolding process during grammar instructional episodes. The third research question examines the actual strategies the teacher employs in providing the pupils with scaffolded assistance in various learning situations and the fourth question focuses on the features of effective scaffolding typical of this classroom. It is to be noted that in the present study, an effective scaffolding process is defined as one where scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher helps the pupils to come up with the correct response.

- 3) What kind of strategies does the L2 teacher employ in providing scaffolded assistance?
- 4) What kind of scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher turns out to be effective according to the data of the study?

The main focus of the study is thus on shedding more light on the scaffolded assistance provided by an L2 teacher during naturalistic teacher-led whole-class interaction. In accordance with Vygotskian theory the present study does not focus on the end-product alone. Instead, the aim is to take the dynamic nature of classroom interaction into account by focusing on the process of scaffolding. The scaffolded assistance will be discussed in detail and the research questions will be answered through an analysis of teacher-pupil dialogues from a Vygotskian perspective.

### 6.3 Research methodology

Some aspects of the research methodology used in the present study are discussed in this section. Firstly, in the present study the data are analysed qualitatively for two reasons. The first reason is related to the aim of the study, which is to describe L2 learning in its naturalistic classroom setting. A qualitative approach is particularly appropriate for this purpose in view of its naturalistic, uncontrolled, subjective and process-oriented features (Reichardt and Cook 1979). A qualitative approach was also chosen as it is consistent with Vygotskian theory, which is applied in the present study. As Alanen (2002) notes, Vygotsky's interest in the study of processes rather than merely end-products is seen in his work. Vygotskian theory places emphasis on the developmental processes that are based on dialogic interaction. The teacher and pupils are active participants in a joint dialogic activity and the nature of this complex interaction is best unfolded in a qualitative description of its elements and processes. The present study thus aims to provide a description, explanation and interpretation of teacher-learner interaction and the teacher's strategies in providing scaffolded assistance in a teacher-led full-class setting. The aim is not to make any generalisations by quantifying different aspects of the data. The study consists of episodes relevant from the point of view of the present study, that is, episodes containing teacher-fronted whole-class interaction. More specifically, the episodes concern grammar since grammar instructional episodes represented the majority of the teacher-led whole-class interaction in all the 11 lessons collected for the study. Hence, quantitative analysis of the data would not provide any proper generalisations of the language lessons as whole either. Moreover, the study does not involve pre- or post-tests. It deliberately does not focus on learning outcomes, and so quantitative generalisations as to the links between instruction and learning are beyond the scope of the present study.

It is important to note in this connection that although the division into quantitative and qualitative research traditions is attractive in its simplicity, it does not, in fact, match up with reality (Alasuutari 1994:22). The division is based on research paradigms. Methods are not rigidly tied to the type of research. However, in the present study qualitative analysis means the kind of process of finding solutions to a puzzle that Alasuutari (1994) refers to. Different clues in the data are taken into account in building a complete picture of the focus of the study. Furthermore, because of the contextual nature of the object of the study, that is, the scaffolding process during teacher-led full-class interaction, it is important to obtain data in a natural context with minimal disruptions.

A second feature of the research methodology is that a case study approach is used to provide a microanalysis of the nature of the L2 classroom interaction from a Vygotskian perspective. As Johnson (1992:75) notes, a case study is a study of one case focusing on a single entity, usually as it exists in its

naturally occurring environment. The data collection of this study focused on one entity in gathering in-depth information about the scaffolding process in one classroom, and especially about the strategies employed by one L2 teacher in providing pupils with scaffolded assistance. The case study approach is particularly applicable to this study, seeking as it does to investigate an entity in its context, that is, its natural environment. For classroom research to be conducted in situ, the researcher cannot maintain control over the teacher, students and activities if data are to be collected that reflect what actually occurs in the classroom. Consequently, as Johnson (1992:83) notes, a case study approach that is “flexible and is formulated to suit the purpose of the study” is the most appropriate choice. In addition, the contextual nature of the object of the present study assumes a particular view of reality. The present study subscribes to the constructivist paradigm with its basic belief system and worldview. In the constructivist paradigm it is important that realities are locally constructed and diverse, and the relationship between the researcher and the object being examined is interactive (Pirainen-Marsh and Huhta 2000:82, see also Pitkänen-Huhta 2003). Accordingly, the results are created in the course of the research process and the description of the object becomes clearer as the investigation proceeds. Thus, the aim is not to find the absolute truth but instead the findings are based on the researcher’s interpretation created during the process.

Elements of ethnographic research are added to the research methodology to complement the case study approach. As in the present study, in applied language studies in general, ethnographic research is considered to examine the use of language as a social, cultural and contextual process (Pirainen-Marsh and Huhta 2000:97, see also Pitkänen-Huhta 2003). In addition, its purpose is to produce a well-organised and profound description of a specific subject (Pirainen-Marsh and Huhta 2000:98). In spite of the variation in ethnographic research, there are some features constant in ethnographically oriented studies (e.g. Hammersley and Atkinson 1995, Mehan 1979, Watson-Gegeo 1988, see also Pitkänen-Huhta 2003). Ethnography focuses on the nature of a particular social phenomenon, especially on groups and on cultural patterns in people’s behaviour. The ethnographer’s goal is to provide a description and an interpretative-explanatory account of a certain social setting. Observations conducted by the researcher can be either participant or non-participant observation or something in between. The data typically come from naturally occurring situations and are not manipulated for the purposes of the study. Finally, in ethnography a holistic approach is adopted. As Mehan (1979:20) points out, “a policy guiding ethnography is a comprehensive analysis”. That is, all the data are analysed and representative examples are used in reporting, reflecting varied and typical features of the data. As Johnson (1992:142) points out, the goal of ethnographic research is also to reveal the insider’s view of reality, that is, the emic view. The emic view involves understanding the interpretations of the members of the culture, as well as the ways in which the members “conceptualise and encode knowledge” to guide their own actions

(Watson-Gegeo 1988:580). If, as Johnson (1992) points out, an emic view of classroom discourse is to be found, comprehensive and accurate information about the setting and the participants should be provided. This information is needed for both ethnographies and case studies, and thus the two research approaches share this particular characteristic of research. The above-mentioned features of ethnography are adopted in the present study, where the analysis and its interpretation starts from the data.

Finally, as Cazden (1988) states, the study of interaction in classrooms involves discourse. With discourse analysis it is possible to study closely classroom interaction and the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. In the present analysis, the sequential organisation of spoken discourse as defined by Wells (1996, 1999) is applied to the data of teacher-led whole-class interaction. Wells, in turn, based his work largely on the discourse analysis of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).

To summarise, the present study starts from the constructivist paradigm and uses a case-study approach. This research methodology is supplemented with elements taken from ethnographic research and discourse analysis in order to enhance the collection, treatment and interpretation of the data. In the present microgenetic study within the Vygotskian sociocultural framework, the overall organisation of instructional episodes is first examined as defined by Mehan (1979) in his study of classroom discourse. To examine the use of the IRF structure in more detail the study draws on the work of Wells (1996, 1999), whose system is largely based on the discourse analysis of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). The theoretical background of this system is, to a large extent, based on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. In illuminating the strategies the teacher uses in providing scaffolded assistance the definitions of Wood et al. (1976) are modified to describe the present data.

## **6.4 Data and participants**

The setting and the participants have an important impact on the scaffolding process, and before looking more closely at the stages of the analysis, the data and the participants of the present study are described. Section 6.4.1 deals with data collection, Section 6.4.2 focuses on the participants interacting in the study and Section 6.4.3 gives an outline description of the data.

### **6.4.1 Data collection**

The data were collected in a medium-sized urban secondary school in Southern Finland in the spring of 1999. Two researchers were involved in the data

collection<sup>1</sup>. The teacher, pupils and school were selected randomly. However, an essential criterion for the selection of the teacher was that he or she would give traditional teacher-fronted L2 lessons in a naturalistic whole-classroom setting and that these lessons could be audio- and videotaped. The teacher who volunteered and who was selected for the research is a friend of the researchers. The teacher selected the particular class which took part in the study on the basis of the pupils' record of active participation. She also informed the principal of the school about the study. Importantly, neither the teacher nor the pupils were informed of the exact purpose of the study. They were told that the researchers were working on a study of classroom discourse, the focus being on its overall structure. In addition, it was emphasised to the pupils that the researchers were more interested in the teacher's talk than their part in the interaction, and thus the pupils were expected to behave more naturally in the classroom. Consequently, the results of the study would more likely to be reliable. Obviously, outsiders in the classroom with a video camera, tape-recorders and notebooks have an effect on the situation, a factor which is not denied in the study.

At the outset two consecutive lessons were observed by the researchers without any system of recording other than paper and pencil to see whether the instruction methods of the teacher were appropriate for the present study. More specifically, teacher-fronted instruction was expected. Then 11 consecutive lessons were videotaped by one video camera positioned in one front corner of the classroom. The lessons were also audio-recorded using three small tape-recorders in the other corners of the classroom (see Appendix 2 for the seating arrangement in the class). One researcher used the video camera and the other made observations on paper of the overall course of events during the class. These observations were not systematic and worked only as an additional aid in the coding process.

Before and after the lessons special features and events of the lessons were briefly discussed with the teacher. For example, the teacher told the researchers that the pupils had been restless because they would have an examination during the following lesson. However, the purpose of the study was never discussed with the teacher in more detail. In this way the researchers tried to guarantee the most natural setting possible for the study.

#### **6.4.2 Participants**

As was mentioned in the previous section, the teacher and the pupils were randomly selected for the present study and they were not informed of its aim. The core of the study was a female teacher in her mid-twenties, who had studied English as her major and Swedish as her minor subject at a Finnish university. She had not yet graduated, but she had finished her teacher training

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<sup>4</sup> The data were originally collected for a master's thesis by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000).



studies three years earlier. The teacher had three years of teaching experience in total and two years with the particular group participating in the study. As she also taught this class Swedish, they met each other several times a week. Due to this close teacher-pupil relationship the setting of the study was not influenced by any unfamiliarity between the participants.

The pupils taking part in the study were 17 Grade 8 learners of English, with ten boys and seven girls. The pupils were approximately 14 to 15 years of age. They had studied English as a second language from Grade 3 onwards, that is, six years in total. It is assumed that at this level the pupils have the tools and abilities needed for negotiation with the teacher, and for this reason this grade was chosen for the present study.

In the transcription the boys were coded with the symbols from LM1 to LM10 and the girls from LF1 to LF7 (see Appendix 1 for the transcription conventions). Each participant is given the same identification throughout the study. Similarly, the pupils occupied the same desk in every lesson, which helped the researchers to identify the participants (see Appendix 2 for the seating arrangements in the class). Although not all the pupils had a small tape-recorder on their desks, the tape-recorders in the corners of the classroom and the video camera recorded both the teacher's and the pupils' talk clearly enough for it to be transcribed.

### 6.4.3 Data description

The data of the present study consist of the transcripts of 11 consecutive lessons recorded in a Grade 8 L2 (English) classroom in Southern Finland in the spring of 1999. The same teacher gave all the lessons and her class was the same over the whole period of the investigation. The lessons were given in succession during one specific period. As within other expert-novice apprenticeships, the relationship between the teacher and her pupils was asymmetrical, with the teacher guiding the joint activities.

For the purposes of the present study 15 episodes of the 11 audio- and video-recorded lessons were chosen for closer analysis. All the episodes concerned grammar teaching. These grammar instructional episodes were chosen on the basis of the method of instruction, that is, they involved the most dialogic interaction between the teacher and her pupils in all the 11 lessons. That is, the teacher and the pupils co-constructed the target grammar structures through verbal interaction. The teacher also used other methods of instruction, such as pair and group work, but only those episodes that contained teacher-led whole-class dialogic interaction were chosen for analysis. Furthermore, the study focused on verbal interaction while taking into account communicative devices such as intonation, pace and stress.

The episodes chosen for analysis involved different grammar topics with different materials, and slightly different interactive teaching methods. The textbook and practice book used by the class was *Success 8* (Auvinen et al. 1992ab). The grammar instructional episodes are listed in chronological order in more detail in Table 5:

TABLE 5 Grammar instructional episodes 1-15.

	TOPIC	MATERIALS	DIALOGIC METHOD	MIN
1	New grammar point: tag questions	Sample sentences with tag questions and grammar rules on a transparency	The teacher shows sample sentences on a transparency, highlights the differences between the structures and asks questions	5min 40sec
2	Old grammar point: tag questions	Exercise 8 in the exercise book, correct answers on a transparency	The teacher asks the pupils to read sentences one by one and asks questions	3min 59sec
3	Old grammar point: perfect tense	Exercise 12 in the exercise book, correct answers on a transparency	The teacher asks the pupils to read sentences one by one and asks questions	5min 59sec
4	New grammar point: adverbs	No specific materials	The teacher introduces the adverbs to the pupils and asks questions	58sec
5	New grammar point: adverbs	Words and sentences in the pupils' notebooks, an exercise on a transparency	The teacher introduces the adverbs to the pupils and asks questions	1min 13sec
6	Old grammar point: adverbs	Sentences in the pupils' notebooks, correct answers on a transparency	The teacher asks the pupils to read the words one by one and asks questions	4min 54sec
7	Old grammar point: adverbs	Pictures on a transparency, sentences in the pupils' notebooks	The teacher asks the pupils to read sentences one by one and asks questions	6min 31sec
8	New grammar point: structure <i>had better</i>	The new grammar structure is first pointed out in the text and the teacher and pupils do Exercise 4A in the exercise book, correct answers on a transparency	The teacher asks the pupils to read sentences one by one and asks questions	5min 22sec
9	New grammar point: different forms of the auxiliary verbs <i>can</i> and <i>may</i>	Sample sentences on the blackboard	The teacher introduces the pupils with the grammar point, asks the pupils to translate sentences into English and writes the correct forms on the blackboard	13min 56sec
10	New grammar point: different forms of the auxiliary verbs <i>can</i> and <i>may</i>	Grammar rules in the exercise book and sample sentences on the board	The teacher asks the pupils to translate sample sentences into English and asks questions about the new topic and the sentences	4min 42sec
11	Old grammar point: structure <i>to be able to</i>	The pupils have written sentences in their notebooks, correct answers on a transparency	The teacher asks the pupils to read their sentences one by one and asks questions about the grammar point and the sentences	5min 36sec

continues

TABLE 5 continues

12	Old grammar point: structures <i>to be able to</i> and <i>to be allowed to</i>	The pupils have written sentences in their notebooks and the teacher writes the correct forms on a transparency	The teacher asks the pupils to read their sentences one by one and asks questions about the grammar point and the sentences	20min 10sec
13	New grammar point: different forms of the auxiliary verb <i>must</i>	Sample sentences on the blackboard	The teacher asks the pupils to translate the sample sentences into English, writes them on the blackboard and asks questions about the new grammar point	9min 2sec
14	Old grammar point: structure <i>to have to</i>	The pupils have written sentences in their notebooks, correct answers on a transparency	The teacher asks the pupils to read their sentences one by one and asks questions about them	8min 25sec
15	Old grammar point: structure <i>to have to</i>	The pupils write translation sentences on the blackboard	The teacher asks every pupil to read the sentence that s/he has written, the teacher and pupils discuss the structures and the teacher asks questions	12min

Table 5 lists the 15 different episodes chosen for analysis. As was mentioned above, all the episodes concerned grammar teaching. However, they can be divided into two broad categories: those introducing new grammar points and those where the teacher and the learners revised old ones, that is, the grammar points they had gone through in previous lessons. Importantly, all the episodes involved dialogic teacher-led whole-class interaction between the participants. The duration of the episodes varied from around one to 20 minutes.

## 6.5 Analysis of the data

As was mentioned in Chapter 5, previous L2 studies of the scaffolding process from a Vygotskian perspective focused mainly on experimental one-to-one interactions. Furthermore, these studies did not look at any specific categories of functions or the sequential organisation of spoken discourse when investigating the learning process. In the present study, an attempt is made to approach the scaffolding process from a slightly different angle. In addition to investigating the scaffolding process in teacher-fronted L2 lessons in a naturalistic whole-classroom setting, different methods were employed. More specifically, after transcribing the recorded lessons, the overall structure of the lessons, the sequential organisation of classroom discourse and the primary functions of the scaffolding strategies used by the teacher were identified by using the analytic schema developed by Wells (1996, 1999).

This section deals with the analysis of the data. The stages of the analysis are discussed in more detail in Section 6.5.1. In addition, examples of the transcription conventions and categories used in the analysis are presented. Section 6.5.2 deals with terms used in the analysis.

### 6.5.1 Stages of the analysis

The analysis took place in stages, which are described in the following. Firstly, the transcription is described. Secondly, the procedures for each research question are outlined. Finally, some examples of the transcription are discussed.

**Transcription.** Transcription is an important part of the analysis in the present study. When researchers transcribe data they already make some decisions, which have an effect on the whole analysis. Thus, transcription is always affected by a researcher's subjective point of view.

All the 11 videotapes were recorded on audiotapes, which were then transcribed by one of the researchers (see Appendix 1 for the transcription conventions). Next, the three additional audiotapes recorded in every lesson using the small tape-recorders were listened to, and the transcripts were elaborated in more detail with the help of these tapes. Then the whole process was repeated by the other researcher and as a result some changes and corrections were made to the transcripts. The fact that the transcripts were written and checked by both of the researchers adds to their reliability and accuracy. After selecting 15 relevant grammar instructional episodes for further analysis the general organisation of the episodes and the place of the episodes within the whole lesson was examined. The episodes were then studied in order to find out how the *Initiation-Response-Follow-up* (IRF) structure was exploited by the participants and what kind of strategies the teacher employed in providing scaffolded assistance. The categories of the sequential organisation of classroom discourse and the primary functions of the scaffolding strategies provided by the teacher were coded (Wells 1996, 1999).

**General organisation of the grammar instructional episodes.** In order to answer the first research question concerning the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes, the transcribed data were searched for relevant episodes. As mentioned above, a relevant episode is defined as an episode containing teaching in a teacher-fronted whole-class setting. As Leinhardt and Putnam (1987) point out, an instructional episode is a detachable piece of instructional material that has a recognisable beginning and end point for both teacher and pupil. In the organisation of spoken discourse defined by Wells (1996, 1999) the largest unit is an *episode* consisting of all the talk that is produced by the teacher and the pupils in carrying out a single activity. In the present study one episode consists of all the talk that occurs in the teaching of one grammar point, for example, adverbs, in one lesson. In other words, during the same episode the teacher and the pupils may go through several separate tasks concerning the same grammar point.

For the first research question the overall structural organisation of teacher-pupil interaction in shaping the grammar instructional episodes was examined. As previous research on classroom discourse (e.g. Cazden 1988, Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) has demonstrated, lessons are organised into phases. In the present study the overall organisation as defined by Mehan (1979) is examined in the context of smaller parts of a lesson, that is, grammar instructional episodes. This also needs to be examined, as the overall structure of episodes is the basis for the scaffolding process between the teacher and the pupils. As pointed out by Mehan (1979), the verbal interaction of the participants consists of different interactional sequences which perform different functions in the various phases of the episode. For instance, informative sequences are typical of openings and closings whereas elicitation sequences occur in the instructional phase.

*Sequential organisation of classroom discourse.* To examine the grammar instructional episodes in more detail and to answer the second research question concerning the ways in which the *Initiation-Response-Follow-up* (IRF) structure is exploited within the grammar instructional episodes, the discussions between the teacher and pupils within the episodes were coded into the categories of sequential organisation of spoken discourse as defined by Wells (1996, 1999). The theoretical background of the studies by Wells is, to a large extent, based on the ideas initially proposed by Vygotsky, that is, on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. The categories defined by Wells were thus found to be applicable to the present study, which has its basis in the same theory. Wells further developed the categories in order to examine the various forms and functions of *triadic dialogue* (Lemke 1990), also known as the *Initiation-Response-Follow-up* (IRF) or the *Initiation-Response-Evaluate* (IRE) sequence, and the effect of the teacher's follow-up move on student participation, which is also the purpose of the present analysis. Central to his approach is the recognition that spoken discourse always mediates some purpose within a larger structure of joint activity. In his studies Wells (1996, 1999) found that triadic dialogue was widely used by teachers. In addition, he discovered that the choice of initiating question and follow-up had an influence on the way in which classroom discourse developed. Later he identified a four-level schema for the analysis of spoken discourse, which was also adapted for the purposes of the present study.

In most subsequent North American research on classroom discourse (e.g. Cazden 1988) *Evaluate* is the term used to designate the third move of every triadic dialogue. For example, in Mehan's (1979) study this three-part structure was labelled *Initiate-Response-Evaluate* (IRE). The primary function of this evaluative follow-up is to provide individual students with feedback about their performance, and in particular, in the language classroom, as Chaudron (1988:134) puts it, to allow learners "to confirm, disconfirm, and possibly modify the hypothetical, 'transitional' rules of their developing grammars". However, there is a wider range of options available for the teacher in the third

move of the sequence. Correspondingly, in Mehan's (1979) study the functional category of the third move in the IRE structure consists of subcategories to its two most common functions of accept and reject. These subcategories include functions such as reformulate or correct which also have an evaluative role in ongoing discourse. In their study, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) called the three-part structure *Initiate-Response-Follow-up (IRF)*, thus also viewing the third move as consisting of subcategories. They proposed three categories of acts, that is, accept/reject, evaluate and comment, with the latter category expanded to include exemplify, expand and justify. In line with previous studies of classroom discourse (e.g. Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, see also Cullen 2002), in the present study teacher-learner exchanges were first divided into those including no expansions by the participants and those with expansions.

In examining teacher-learner interaction, Wells (1999:232) developed his analytic framework in order to examine "the turn-by-turn organisational structure of talk" and "the different functions that talk performs in enabling, interpreting, and evaluating the joint activities of which it is a part". The framework is based on an articulation of activity theory (A. N. Leont'ev 1981b) and systemic linguistics (Halliday 1978, 1984). Wells examined learning from the point of view of sociocultural activity theory developed by A. N. Leont'ev, applying the concepts of operation, action and activity to develop a framework for understanding classroom discourse. In other words, he combined the analysis of discourse with the categories proposed by activity theory, of which the central notion is the goal-oriented action. When adopting the schema identified by Wells, the present analysis, however, did not take the categories of activity theory into account. Thus, the categories of the sequential organisation of spoken discourse were adopted for the purposes of the present study without the categories of activity. Since there was no explicit focus on the goals of the teacher or learners, this was found to be appropriate to the present study, although the different goals of the scaffolding process have a certain impact on the process as a whole and they were taken into account in the analysis.

As was mentioned above, the largest unit in the organisation defined by Wells (1996, 1999) is an *episode*. Episodes consist of *sequences* that "individually and cumulatively contribute to the achievement of the activity or task goal" (Nassaji and Wells 2000:383). In the present study each sequence within an episode consists of all the talk that is produced in carrying out a single grammar task, for example, translating a sentence into English. Each sequence further consists of an obligatory *nuclear exchange* and any *bound exchanges*, that is, *dependent*, *embedded* and *preparatory exchanges*. Bound exchanges, unlike nuclear exchanges, are not free-standing but always depend on a nuclear exchange in some way. The most important bound exchanges are dependent exchanges through which some aspect of the nuclear exchange may be highlighted and raised for further discussion. Embedded exchanges, in turn, deal with problems in the uptake of a move, for example, a need for repetition of the previous move. Meanwhile preparatory exchanges are used to establish

communication or to select the next speaker. Finally, whether nuclear or bound, each exchange consists of an *initiating* and *responding move* both being obligatory. These moves may also on occasion be nonverbal. An exchange may also contain a *follow-up move*, which in a classroom setting is normally expected. This scale of constituent elements is shown in Figure 2:

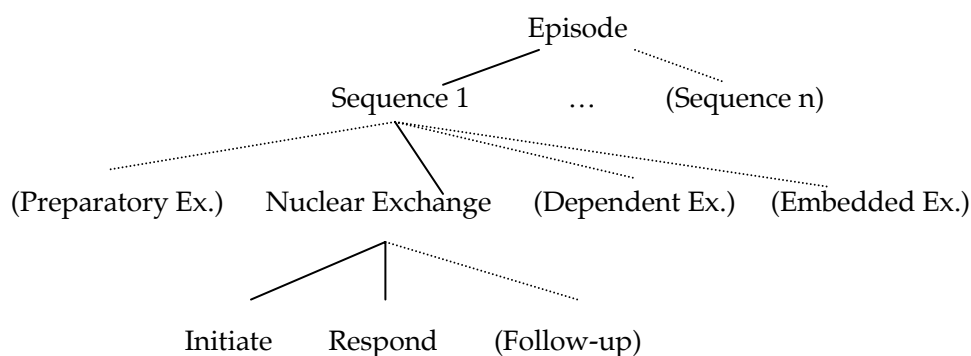


FIGURE 2 Sequential organisation of spoken discourse as defined by Wells (1999:237).

The level of the sequence is of the greatest functional significance. As Wells (1999:236) points out, “it is in the succession of moves that occurs in following through on the expectations set up by the initiating move in nuclear exchange that the ‘commodity’ being exchanged – some form of goods or services, or some form of information – is introduced, negotiated and brought to completion”. In accordance with this, in the present analysis a single sequence consists of one grammar task being introduced, negotiated and completed in a succession of moves and exchanges.

However, it is important to note in this connection that the boundaries between different constituent elements are not always clear-cut. More than one exchange may proceed at the same time, or a move may be interpreted differently by different pupils, resulting in different and competing implications. Therefore, in analysing discourse it is important to take into account both the speaker’s presumed intention and its interpretation, which is revealed by the move following it.

In addition to the sequential organisation of spoken discourse, the present analysis also takes into account the scale of prospectiveness described by Wells (1999). The scale is an integral part of the analysis. As Wells (1999:247) points out, it shows how “in very different contexts, the use of the same basic strategy of exploiting the possibility for follow-up within a sequence in progress allows a more knowledgeable participant to contribute to the learning of the less knowledgeable in ways which nevertheless incorporate and build on the latter’s contributions”. Moves were thus also coded for their degree of prospectiveness. In other words, as Wells (1981) and Brazil (1981) note, a general principle of conversation is that moves decrease in prospectiveness within an exchange. A *demand* is the most strongly prospective move, and it requires a *give* in response. An *acknowledgement*, in turn, is the least prospective, and it occurs in response to a more prospective move. However, it does not expect any further response.

Consequently, the scale is ordered D>G>A. In addition, Wells (1999) describes three basic exchange types: 1) Demand(D)-Give(G)-Acknowledgement(A), 2) Give(G)-Acknowledgement(A), and 3) Demand(D)-Give(G). However, as Wells (1999) points out, in “normal” conversation such minimal sequences consisting of only a single nuclear exchange are the exception. There is thus a second principle, according to which “at any point after the initiating move in an exchange, a participant can, while still minimally or implicitly fulfilling the expectations of the preceding move, step up the prospectiveness of the current move so that it, in turn, requires or expects a response” (Wells 1999:247). This affects conversation by initiating a further, dependent exchange in which an element of the preceding exchange can be extended. The dominant mode of interaction in the classroom is not casual conversation; this principle, however, has also an effect on teacher-pupil interaction, which is the subject of analysis in the present study.

Despite the general applicability of the schema by Wells (1996, 1999) to classroom discourse, there are some limitations that should be taken into account. It is important to emphasise, as Wells (1999) himself also points out, that his account of the organisation of spoken discourse is both schematic and idealised. Discourse in concrete classroom situations is often less tidy. As was noted above, the boundaries both between different episodes and their constituent elements are not clear-cut. For example, participants may be involved in more than one conversation at the same time, responses do not always immediately follow initiations and learners may provide more than one answer to the teacher’s question. Furthermore, the definitions of some of the terms used in the system are not clear. For example, it is not always easy to separate curricular activity and task. Activity, the function of which is to promote learners’ knowledge of grammar, for example, may consist of only one task. However, activity, with a single purpose, to increase knowledge of the past tense, for example, may sometimes consist of several different tasks. Moreover, activity may have several purposes, and then it has to be decided whether it is a question of one curricular activity or sub-activities. In the present study, to avoid some of these problems and to simplify the description, the terms task and activity are both given different definitions from those in the schema of Wells (see Section 6.5.2).

Finally, in addition to their sequential organisation and their place on the scale of prospectiveness, moves were also coded for their primary function. To illuminate the dialogues the primary functions were written down in their own column in the examples. As Jarvis and Robinson (1997) point out, classroom discourse needs to be understood through its pedagogic functions in order to get a more profound idea of the pedagogic purpose of the interaction. In the present study the functions identified by Wells (1996, 1999) were adopted. That is, both the sequential organisation and the functions were originally identified in the same studies, thus being compatible. The functions used in the analysis are shown with their definitions in alphabetical order in Table 6:



TABLE 6 Primary functions of moves (adopted from Wells 1999).

SYMBOL	LABEL	DEFINITION
acc	accept	Its function is to indicate that the preceding response has been heard and that the reply was appropriate.
ack	acknowledge	Its function is to show that the turn has been understood.
che	check	Its function is to enable the teacher to see if the learners have any problems that could prevent the progress of the lesson.
clar	clarify	Its function is to give clarification of the preceding turn.
clue	give a clue	It functions as additional information that helps the learner to come up with an answer.
con	confirm	Its function is to confirm that the previous suggestion is appropriate.
eval	evaluate	It functions to comment on the quality of the learner's answer. eval.pos in the transcripts means that the answer is correct and eval.neg that it is incorrect. If the function of the teacher's response is eval.pos.neg, the learner's answer is partly correct and partly incorrect.
ext	extend	Its function is to extend the preceding turn in some way.
exp	give explanation	Its function is to give extra information and to explain the task in hand further.
info	give information	Its function is to provide linguistic response to the preceding question.
ms	meta statement	It functions to help learners to see the structure of the lesson, understand the purpose of the tasks in hand and see where the lesson will lead.
nom	nominate the next speaker	Its function is to call on or give permission to the next speaker to participate in the discussion.
pro	prompt	Its function is to reinforce a request for information by encouraging the learner and by indicating that the teacher is still waiting for an appropriate answer.
rep	repeat	It functions to reinforce a request for information with a repetition and encourage the learner to answer.
reph	rephrase	Its function is to help the learner to understand the task in hand and encourage him or her to participate in the activity by rephrasing a question.
req.clar	request clarification	Its function is to request a clarification of the form of the preceding turn.
req.con	request confirmation	Its function is to request a confirmation of the preceding response.
req.info	request information	Its function is to request a linguistic response.
req.exp	request explanation	Its function is to request an explanation of the preceding response.
req.rep	request repetition	Its function is to request a repetition of the preceding turn.
sug	give suggestion	Its function is to suggest a structure or part of it for the correct answer.
trans	transfer	Its function is to call on the next speaker because the previous learner has failed to produce an appropriate answer.

The nature of the present data, classroom discourse, has an important effect on defining the primary functions of the participants' moves. In the present study one participant has acknowledged responsibility for the direction of the discourse, for selecting the next speaker and for introducing and closing the tasks in hand. In addition, in classroom interaction a move frequently has several functions. For example, a teacher may first accept a response, then give more

comments and finally request a further response. In other words, the primary functions of the moves have to be determined by the context in which they are uttered. This situatedness of the meaning of utterances and other problems in defining the primary functions will be discussed in more detail in Section 8.6.

In order to increase the reliability of the coding the researcher went through the data altogether three times to verify the categories attributed. In addition, another language teacher coded four randomly selected episodes out of the possible 15 episodes. Later some adaptations were collaboratively made based on discussions of the differences between the researcher's and the other teacher's coding of the episodes. It should be noted that the purpose of the coding was not to describe the data quantitatively or to make any generalisations about different aspects of the data, but rather, in accordance with the general aim of the study, to serve the qualitative analysis in illuminating the organisation of classroom discourse during teacher-led full-class interaction.

*The teacher's strategies in providing scaffolding.* To answer the third research question, the teacher's strategies within sequences were coded for specific scaffolding features as defined by Wood et al. (1976) (see Section 5.1 for a detailed description of the study). Both the studies by Wells (1996, 1999) and that by Wood et al. (1976) have their theoretical background in Vygotskian sociocultural theory, thus the analyses should be compatible. However, it is important to note that Wood et al. (1976) did not themselves refer to Vygotsky and his theory. Nevertheless, the connection between them has been established by later researchers.

The analysis was based on the pathbreaking study by Wood et al. (1976) in which they introduced the metaphor of scaffolding and identified several features and requirements of scaffolded assistance (see Chapter 7 and Section 8.3.3 for a further discussion of the applicability of the features to the present study). In the present study scaffolding is seen as consisting of the strategies the teacher employed during interactions with the learners when they solved grammar tasks in co-operation. The six features of scaffolding as defined by Wood et al. (1976) are summarised in Table 7:

TABLE 7 Features of scaffolding as defined by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976).

	FEATURE	DEFINITION
1	recruitment	enlisting the novice's interest in and adherence to the requirements of the task
2	reduction in degrees of freedom	simplifying the task
3	direction maintenance	helping to keep the novice motivated and in pursuit of the goal
4	marking critical features	highlighting certain relevant features and pointing out discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution
5	frustration control	reducing stress and frustration during problem solving without encouraging the novice's dependence on the expert
6	demonstration	modelling an idealised form of the act to be performed by completing the act or by explicating the novice's partial solution

The study by Wood et al. (1976) was chosen as a basis for the present study because in their work the researchers characterised scaffolding with several features applicable to data of teacher-led full-class interaction. Although some other researchers (e.g. Bruner 1978, Lidz 1991) have developed different scales for scaffolding, that of Wood et al. (1976) was found to be suitable for further revision for the present study. The definitions of the features of scaffolding by Wood et al. (1976), though useful, are rather imprecise. For the purposes of the present study, as was pointed out in Section 5.1, some additions and revisions have to be made to the original categories. In order to be able to apply these categories in the present study, the definitions are revised for the context of an L2 teacher-fronted whole-classroom of the present study.

In assigning scaffolding features to the strategies, the primary functions of the moves were first determined and then the scaffolding features were applied to them. In defining the strategies and what primary functions were involved in each strategy, the context in which they were used had to be taken into account. No particular functions were an indication of a particular strategy but the context affected the final coding. That is, the choice of each strategy was contextual. To illuminate the analysed dialogues the primary functions have been written down in the examples.

As with the coding of the sequential organisation of discourse, to increase the reliability of the coding the researcher went through the data three times to verify the scaffolding features of the teacher's strategies. In order to identify the teacher's strategies in providing scaffolding another teacher coded four randomly selected episodes. Later, on the basis of discussion of the differences between the researcher's and the other teacher's coding of the episodes, some adaptations were made. In addition, it was agreed that the original scaffolding features were sufficient to allow coding of the strategies in the data to be started. As noted above, during the analysis certain revisions and expansions have to be made to the features by Wood et al. (1976).

In describing the teacher's strategies in providing the learners with scaffolded assistance the present study also takes into account the ZPDs that the grammar points in hand represent for the learners. In addition, the stages of regulation and intersubjectivity are identified when these are relevant to the analysis. In other words, the aim is to provide a detailed description of the teacher's strategies during the scaffolding process by employing the features of scaffolding and the concepts of the ZPD, regulation and intersubjectivity.

*Effective scaffolded assistance.* This part of the analysis examined the features of effective scaffolding in the classroom situation under study. While the possible learning outcomes are beyond the scope of the present study, an effective scaffolding process is defined as one where the pupils come up with the correct target structure with the help provided by the teacher. Thus, this analysis is concerned with those sequences where the problems in hand were solved through negotiations between the participants. A similar aspect has been studied within a different framework in connection with the concept of uptake

(e.g. Lyster and Ranta 1997). In this connection it is also important to emphasise that this part of the present study did not investigate those sequences where scaffolding turned out to be ineffective, where, despite the teacher's scaffolded assistance the pupils did not manage to complete the tasks properly and the teacher had to provide the correct structure herself. In order to examine the features of effective scaffolding, the functions of the teacher's strategies were investigated and relevant sequences were chosen for the analysis.

**Examples of the transcription conventions and categories used in the analysis.**

As a rule, the transcriptions are presented so that the utterances follow each other line by line. However, the teacher's and the pupils' turns are sometimes displayed in two parallel columns. In addition, to illustrate more clearly the simultaneous competing discussions by different participants the different discussions are written in different colours. In these cases, the different topics separate the different discussions from each other. The following example illustrates the competing discussions shown in the transcriptions:

EXAMPLE 1 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

Line number	Speaker / Teacher	Turn	Speaker / Learner	Turn
1	T	SITTE SIIRRYTÄÄN UUTEEN ASIAAN VIELLÄ ↑		
2			LF2	ai tuleeks seki siihen kokeesee
3	T	tulee ↑		
4			LF2	>no ku mä en osaa ennen (xx) miks nää hei kirjota ylös< ne mitkä sivut siinä
5	T	näpit irti siitä		
6			LF2	hei
7	T	yhtää et koske		
8			LL	[[((laugh))]]
9			LF2	[hei]
10	T	LM2		
11			LL	LM2 näpit irti
12			LL	[(xx)]
13	T	[odotas] (.)LM2 hei .		
14			LL	((laugh))
15	T	jos se on siinä pöydällä ni se on siinä pöydällä (.) [sinä et siihen koske]		
16			LM2	[[((laugh))]]
17			LL	(xx)
18	T	joo [(.) SITTEN (.)] pistä (.) kirjat hetkeksi kiinni		
19			LF7	[vieläks LM1 istuu puiston penkillä]
20	T	ja tavarat sinne väliin		

(15 lines omitted from the opening)

This example is from the beginning of a lesson. It contains four different topics, that is, one official discourse and three unofficial discourses, which are presented in different colours. In the present study, an official discourse refers to discourse that is normally initiated by the teacher and concerns the task that the pupils are supposed to work on. An unofficial discourse, on the other hand, deals with matters that are not linked to the dominant line of talk. In Example 1, the official discourse, which is written in red, concerns the teacher's attempt to start the task (lines 1, 18 and 20). The first unofficial discourse recorded in green concerns the exam, which LF2 brings up (lines 2-4, 6 and 9). The second unofficial discourse is about the tape recorder on a desk and it is written in grey (lines 5, 7-8, 10-11, 13-16). The beginning of the third unofficial discourse about one of the pupils in a park is written in blue (line 19). Example 1 also shows how the sequences are not always written down in their entirety and this has been registered in the examples. In this case 15 lines have been omitted from the opening. Sequences are sometimes rather long and in order to describe the relevant point it is not always necessary to include the whole sequence.

As was mentioned above, the present study takes into account the sequential organisation of spoken discourse, the scale of prospectiveness and the primary functions of the moves. The following example illustrates these tools of analysis:

EXAMPLE 2 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 13						
Line number	Speaker	Turn	Exchange	Move	Prospectiveness	Primary function
184	T	katotaas viel yks aikamuoto ↑	nuc	I	D	ms
185	LM1	(xx) saanks mä lainata sun terotinta				
186	LF2	joo				
187	T	mites sanot että (.) minä tulen olemaan nuori futuurissa (.) aina (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
188	T	tulen aina olemaan nuori (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info rep
189	T	LF2	prep	I	D	nom
190	LF2	onkse se I will be young	nuc dep	R I	G D	sug
191	T	mm ↑ (..)	dep	R	G	con
192	T	I will always be young laitetaan tänne nyt vaa will be (.)	dep	F	G	clar

This example is the thirteenth sequence of Episode 9 in Lesson 7. The numbering starts from 184, which also refers to the line number in the original transcription. The examples are also coded for the grammar point they deal with. For example, this example concerns the different forms of the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may*, which the teacher introduces to the pupils for the first time. In other words, the example concerns a new grammar point. Lines 185 and 186

are highlighted in grey, which is an indication of their being off-task exchanges and therefore not relevant to the present analysis.

In line 184, the teacher initiates the nuclear exchange with her metastatement *katotaas viel yks aikamuoto*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  (let's look at one more tense). The pupils' utterances that do not concern the task in hand in lines 185-6 are highlighted in grey in order to separate them from the main discussion. After this, in lines 187-8, the teacher continues her initiation of the nuclear exchange by requesting information. These moves are strongly prospective, that is, they demand a response. The pupils do not give any verbal response until the teacher nominates LF2 whom she wants to answer next in line 189. LF2 gives her response in the form of a suggestion by saying *onkse se I will be young* (is it *I will be young*) in line 190. Her suggestion is both a response to the nuclear exchange and the initiation of a further dependent exchange, because she seems to want the teacher to confirm the correctness of the answer by asking whether her response is appropriate. Accordingly, the teacher responds by giving the confirmation *mm*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  in line 191. At this point the teacher steps up the prospectiveness of the current move by providing LF2 with a further clarification in her follow-up move in line 192 by saying *I will always be young laitetaan tänne nyt vaa will be* (.) (*I will always be young let's write will be here*).

Finally, in investigating the strategies the teacher employs in providing the learners with scaffolded assistance the primary functions and the features of scaffolding are examined. The following example illustrates recruitment involving the teacher's emphatic nomination of the next speaker:

EXAMPLE 3 Episode 14. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 2			
Line number	Speaker	Turn	Primary function
118	T	LF2 seuraava (.)	nom req.info
119	LF2	<I had (.) [to go to school at eight o'clock yesterday]>	info
120	LM2	[siel on yks moniste]	
121	T	mm (.)	acc

Example 3 is chosen as a relevant example of the teacher's drawing the learner's attention to the next task by emphatically nominating the next speaker. In Example 3, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on the structure *to have to*. The focus of the example is thus on the old grammar point that the teacher and the learners have gone through in the previous lessons and on which the teacher has given homework. At the beginning of Example 3, the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the sentence in hand by saying simply *LF2 seuraava* (LF2 next please) (line 118). In other words, the teacher nominates the next speaker by saying her name emphatically aloud. Instead of reading the sentence to be translated she says only *seuraava* (next) (line 118). However, LF2

seems to know that she is expected to say the next sentence aloud, though this is not explicitly stated. She provides the correct information (line 119). LF2's response being correct, the teacher accepts it at the end of the sequence (line 121). In other words, this particular grammar point seems to be high in LF2's ZPD, and thus LF2 seems to be self-regulated in the task. In addition, the teacher and LF2 have symmetrical definitions of the task situation, and consequently they are able to work on the task without any problems. In the example above, line 120 is highlighted in grey, which means that LM2's turn is not part of the official discourse in the exchange. That is, it is not relevant to the example of the teacher's strategies in recruiting the pupils into the next task.

### 6.5.2 Terms in the analysis

The present study makes use of several of the concepts of Vygotskian sociocultural theory which were defined in Chapter 4. The metaphor of scaffolding as defined by Wood et al. (1976), which is the main concept in the present analysis, is often referred to. In the present study, as was mentioned in Chapter 4, scaffolding consists of the different strategies employed by the teacher in assisting learners through grammar tasks in the classroom. The concept of scaffolded assistance refers to the assistance the teacher provides for learners during the teaching-learning process. The concepts of the scaffolding process and scaffolding are used interchangeably and the concept of scaffolded learning refers to learning that involves the teacher's scaffolded assistance. This is in contrast with the conduit metaphor of communication (Reddy 1979).

In addition to the central concepts of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, the present study makes use of several further terms. First, in coding the dialogues in terms of the categories of the organisation of spoken discourse using the analytical schema developed by Wells (1996, 1999) the analysis employs the terms *episode*, *sequence*, *exchange* and *move*, which were defined in the previous section. These terms describe categories of sequential organisation into which the stream of discourse can be segmented. Thus, these terms are used as defined by Wells (1996, 1999).

A further term is that of *task*. In describing his schema Wells (1996, 1999) defined different operations at different levels of action. According to Wells (1999), sequences of discourse are co-constructed at the level of step using for example the IRF sequence. Thus, talk during the IRF sequences occurs at a lower level than that of task, unlike in the present case. In the present study grammar instructional episodes within language lessons focus on certain tasks which the participants are expected to carry out. Each sequence contains one grammar task, for example, a sentence to be translated, whereas within one particular episode participants may carry out several tasks that all focus on the same grammar point.

The grammar episodes also contain *activities*. According to Wells (1999) activity can mean different things. Overall, it refers to the higher level of operations, for example, tasks or lesson activities, the purpose of which is to promote, for example, learners' knowledge of the past tense. For the purposes

of the present study, this definition has been modified. Here activities are taken to consist of asking and answering questions concerning a grammar point in question. That is, activities refer to the carrying out of tasks.

Another concept used in examining the scaffolding process in the present study is that of *strategy*. The analysis describes the strategies the teacher employs in providing the pupils with scaffolded assistance. That is, the analysis describes the ways in which the teacher elicits responses from the pupils in order to assist them to complete the tasks in hand, such as repeating or clarifying her question. Furthermore, although the analysis attempts to take into account some communicative devices, for example, intonation, the focus is on verbal strategies.

Finally, the concepts of *official* and *unofficial discourse* are employed in describing the different dialogues during the episodes. Official discourse is normally initiated by the teacher and it concerns the task that the pupils are expected to work on. Unofficial discourse, in contrast, deals with matters that are not linked to the dominant line of talk, as, for example, when pupils talk with each other about personal matters.

By focusing on these aspects of teacher-learner interaction in the classroom the present study aims to examine scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher in a whole-classroom setting. The following chapter will present the analysis. Section 7.1 deals with the overall structure of the grammar instructional episodes, Section 7.2 focuses on the use of the IRF structure, Section 7.3 examines the different strategies the teacher uses in providing learners with scaffolded assistance, and Section 7.4 describes the features of scaffolding that turn out to be effective in the grammar instructional episodes.



## **7 ANALYSIS OF DATA: SCAFFOLDED ASSISTANCE PROVIDED BY THE TEACHER**

The present study aims to provide a description, explanation and interpretation of the scaffolding process in the grammar instructional episodes. The following four sections will present the analysis. Section 7.1 examines the overall organisation of the grammar episodes. Section 7.2 focuses on the sequential organisation of classroom discourse. The teacher's strategies in providing scaffolding are discussed in Section 7.3. The final section presents some features of scaffolding that turn out to be effective in this particular classroom.

### **7.1 The organisation of the grammar instructional episodes**

Grammar instructional episodes are embedded in the broader instructional context of a classroom. Since the classroom is an institutional context there are certain educational practices that determine how instructional episodes proceed and what their typical organisation is in that particular setting. Consequently, to be able to examine the scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher during grammar instructional episodes the different phases need to be looked at first. The purpose of this section is thus to illuminate the general organisation of the episodes in the present data. These instructional episodes are segments of L2 lessons. In other words, this section aims to answer the first research question: How are the grammar instructional episodes of the L2 lesson organised in the classroom context? The focus will be especially on the teacher's talk in shaping the episodes. However, teaching and learning always being a collaborative process, the learners' contributions to the success of the episodes are of vital importance. That is, the teacher's and the learners' moves within the episodes are always interdependent and the participants perform their turns of speech in relation to each other's turns.

It turns out that there are three sequential parts in the grammar instructional episodes. These parts correspond to those found in Mehan's study

(1979) on the structure of classroom interaction. In other words, the grammar instructional episodes consist of three sequentially organised phases. These are *the opening phase*, *the grammar instructional phase* and *the closing phase*. Although the three phases can be identified in all the grammar instructional episodes, both the structure and especially the length of the phases vary significantly depending on the context in which the episodes occur within a language lesson as a whole. In consequence, the following analysis discusses the nature of the different phases and their context within the lesson, thus illuminating the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes.

The sections describe each of the three phases, in turn. Section 7.1.1 focuses on the opening phase, Section 7.1.2 on the grammar instructional phase and Section 7.1.3 on the structure of the closing phase. Based on the data, different kinds of structures are identified and these are described in greater detail and illustrated with relevant examples. In Section 7.1.4, a short summary on the general organisation of the episodes is presented.

### **7.1.1 Opening phase**

This section focuses on the opening phase of the grammar instructional episodes of the present data. In the opening phase, the teacher and the pupils first prepare themselves physically for the next grammar instructional episode to start. The teacher provides instructions about what is going to happen during the main part of the episode. In other words, both the teacher and the learners orient themselves towards the start of the next episode.

The structure of the opening phase is described in this section. The opening at the beginning of the lesson is examined in Section 7.1.1.1, while Section 7.1.1.2 focuses on the opening in the middle of the lesson.

#### **7.1.1.1 Opening phase at the beginning of the lesson**

As was mentioned above, the length and the structure of the opening phase depend on the place of the episode within the language lesson. If the episode is at the beginning of the lesson, the opening phase is fairly long and consists of several different elements. The teacher starts to give instructions about the next task and tries to direct the pupils' attention to the task. In examining the opening at the beginning of the lesson I have identified such opening phases as *opening phases containing competing discussions*.

*Opening phase containing competing discussions.* At the beginning of the lesson there are often pupils who are not yet ready to get down to work. Instead of concentrating on the tasks in hand they continue to talk about personal matters. The main focus, however, is on the pupils' talk and inquiries about the homework and the teacher's responses to these inquiries. In other words, on these occasions there are usually several clearly competing discussions, as in Example 4. In the example, the topics of different discussions are written in different colours. The teacher's attempt to start the task and talk about the

homework, that is, the official discussion, is put down in red. The learners' discussion of the weather is in blue. The third new topic of discussion, that is, the pupils' plans for the first of May, is recorded in grey. Finally, LF2 starts the fourth topic concerning lunch, which appears in green.

EXAMPLE 4 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structure *be able to*.

SEQUENCE 1				
1	T	good morning ↑		
2			LL	good morning
3	T	please be seated		
4			LF5	mul on sateenvarjo mukana
5			LF2	ei varmaan olla (xx)
6			LF1	tääl on kuuma laittakaa ikkunat auki (.) ihan okeesti tännehän kuolee kuumuutee
7			LF2	KUUMUUTEE tääl on KYLMÄ
8			LF1	mul on kuuma ku tääl istuu
9			LF2	tääl on kylmä
10			LF1	onkohan mul mä oon vähän sairas sitte
11			LF2	no nii oot
12			LF1	mul on joku teepaita
13			LF2	* sul on LF1 jalatkii * [(laugh)]
14	T	[today] let's start by checking your homework ↑ (.) <your homework was this handout with may> (.) [<and can>]		
15			LM2	[I can]
16			LM5	do you remember ↑
17			LM	joo joo
18			LM2	ai toi ei mul oo
19			LF2	vähän mua väsyttää
20			LF1	mun piti purkaa koko reppu
21			LM3	mitä niist oikee piti tehdä ↑(.) viis lausetta
22			LM2	ai mistä
23	T	no (.) this one		
24			LM2	mikäs toi on
25			LM5	mitä:
26			LM8	nii just
27			LM3	mikäs toi on
28	T	moniste		
29			LM5	huija[usta]
30			LM2	[no ei] oo mulla kyllä tommosta
31			LM4	no ei kyl mulla[kaa]
32	T	[se oli] läksynä		
33			LF5	mitäs LF2 meinaa tehdä vappuna
34			LF2	en tiiä varmaan meen kotiin
35			LM3	ai piti tää tehdä
36			LM6	ei mullakaa oo sitä
37			LF2	[mitäs LF5 meinaa tehdä]
38			LM3	[ai nii mä en muistanu sitä tehdä]
39			LF5	olla kipee [(.)] olla kipee mä oon nyt jo kipee
40			LF2	[mitäh]
41			LM8	(xx)
42			LM3	mikä puoli se oli hei (.) hei

continues

## EXAMPLE 4 continues

43			LF5	en tiää (.) olla kotona (.) mä oon ihan varma et mä oon kipee
44			LM8	mä tein vahingos väärän puolen
45			LF1	KUMPI PUOLI PITI TEHÄ (.) kumpi puoli piti tehdä (.) jess
46			LM6	huono juttu ei voinu olla pois kotoonta
47			LM5	no ei mul o tommosta
48			LF5	neljäkymmenen asteen kuumeessa jo
49			LF2	mä oon ollu ystävänpäiväst täst viimiset kolme vuotta pois kotoont (.) kiva (.) aina kisoissa ja aina samas paikas aina joka kerta (xx)
50	T	täällä ↑ (.) LM5 ↑		
51			LM	ei mul oo tota=
52			LM3	=mul on tää (.) tää
53	T	sullakaa (.) te ootte kyllä saanu (.) [kukas ottaa (xx)]		
54			LM2	[pitiks tää puoli]
55	T	kirjotatte vihkoo sit		
56			LM3	tuo mullekki
57	T	<katsotte yhdessä>		
58			LF2	mul on hirvee nälkä
59			LF5	onks meil tän jälkee ruokailu
60			LF2	on
61	T	ok (.)		

Example 4 above is the beginning of Episode 11 and, at the same time, the beginning of the whole English lesson. This means that the teacher starts the episode by wishing good morning to the pupils and asking them to take their seats. The pupils respond to the teacher's turn by sitting down (lines 1-3). After this, LF1, LF2 and LF5 start to talk about personal matters and do not seem to pay any attention to the teacher (lines 4-13). Despite the girls' talk the teacher starts to orient the pupils towards the first task of the lesson simultaneously showing the class the handout in question. She uses the word *let's* to show that the next task is a joint activity (line 14). However, using the word *your* when referring to the pupils' homework she seems to want to emphasise that every pupil has his or her own exercises that he or she is supposed to have done at home (line 14). Before she manages to close her turn, LM2 repeats the name of the auxiliary verb *can*, which was the subject of the pupils' homework. This, in turn, triggers a fairly long dialogue between the teacher and the pupils about the homework (lines 15-32, 35-36, 38, 41-42, 44-45, 47, 50-57 and 61). The pupils are supposed to have translated sentences on a handout that the teacher gave them in the last lesson. Some pupils, however, explain to the teacher that they have either not done the homework or done the wrong exercises. Meanwhile, other pupils do not have the handout and the teacher starts the lesson by giving them the missing exercises. Simultaneously with the talk about the homework, LF2 and LF5 discuss their plans for the first of May (lines 33-4, 37, 39-40, 43, 46 and 48-9). At the end of the opening phase the girls still exchange remarks about lunch (line 58-60).

Example 4 is a typical illustration of how complicated conversational life often is in the secondary school classroom. There are clearly several competing discussions simultaneously in progress during the opening of Episode 11. Some of the pupils' questions the teacher considers appropriate and responds to them, but simultaneously with the official discussion about the next task, that is, the homework, some of the pupils are engaged in unofficial discussions about personal matters. Apparently, however, at this point the teacher is so deeply engaged in explaining the homework to the boys and making sure that everyone has the handout in question (lines 14, 23, 28, 32, 50 and 53) that she does not consider the pupils' unofficial discussions to disturb the opening of the episode. The teacher evidently wants to set the episode in motion by providing the pupils with the necessary accessories. She does not want to initiate the first question before everyone has access to the handout. She wants to create a shared intersubjectivity between herself and the pupils. In addition, by asking these questions about the handout the pupils show that they are actively involved in getting ready for the next task. Finally, the teacher uses the word *ok* (okay) to mark a switch from the opening phase to the grammar instructional phase (line 61). This seems to be also a sign for the pupils that the teacher does not want to hear any more talk that is not related to the task. In fact, the unofficial discussions between the pupils die out and they start to focus on the task.

As was pointed out above, when the grammar teaching episode is at the beginning of the whole lesson, the opening phase contains the pupils' talk about personal matters. If the simultaneous discussions are too disrupting, the teacher has to comment on the pupils' unofficial discourse in order to set the next task in motion. These unofficial discourses may prolong the opening too much, and then the teacher has to indicate to the pupils that they should concentrate on the next task, as in Example 5. The teacher's attempt to start the task in hand, that is, the teacher-imposed official discussion, is recorded in red. The pupils' discussion of their plans for the next day is written in blue. The teacher's request for LM1 and for LF2 to be quiet is in lilac. Finally, the discussion initiated by the teacher's comment LF2 *↑we're waiting for you* (line 33) is in green.

EXAMPLE 5 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 1				
1	T	let's start then LM1 and LF2 please		
2			LF2	mitä
3	T	good morning=		
4			LL	=good morning
5	T	please be seated		
6			LF1	* mitä vittua *
7			LM1	mitä
8			LF1	((laugh))
9	T	how are you today?		
10			LM1	[FINE]
11			LM2	[fine]=
12	T	=you're fine		

continues

## EXAMPLE 5 continues

13			LM1	but (xx)=
14	T	=today (.) let's (.) start with (.) <exercise twelve> (.) you've done exercise twelve		
15			LF2	[mä en] ymmärtäny kyl mitä
16			LL	[(xx)]
17	T	pa[ge two]hundred and three		
18			LF2	[ai tää]
19			LF1	hei LF2
20			LF5	Kaisalla on vaiheella vielä
21			LF2	no nii (.) no huh huh
22			LM1	tytöt <b>hiljaa</b> (.) oppimisrauha
23			LF2	no nii to[ttai kai] mitäs muuta
24			LF5	[totta kai]
25			LF2	* vähän sä saat kestää '
26	T	<lisää puuttuvat verbimuodot vihjeiden avulla>		
27			LF2	hei me lähetää huomen
28			LF5	mihin me lähetää huomen
29			LF1	täh
30			LF5	mihin me lähetää huomen
31			LF2	me vissii lähetää huomen (xx)
32			LF5	noi menee (xx)
33	T	LF[2↑] we're waiting for you		
34			LF2	[mitä] (.) mitäs oottamist mus on
35			LF1	((laugh))
36			LF2	no miks muo pitää oottaa

This example shows how the teacher has to react to the pupils' contributions when they are not related to the task in question in order to gain their attention and establish a shared focus for the next task. She wants to create a shared intersubjectivity between all the participants in the interaction. Right at the beginning of this opening phase, the teacher mentions the names of two pupils, indicating that they too are expected to attend to the next task (line 1). After wishing good morning to everybody and asking how they are the teacher attempts to start the task in hand by saying *today (.) let's (.) start with (.) <exercise twelve> (.) you've done exercise twelve* (line 14). Interestingly, she says in the form of a statement *you've done exercise twelve*, though she cannot be sure whether the pupils have done it (line 14). This situation can be described using the concept of prolepsis, which refers to a communicative move in which the speaker presupposes some as yet unprovided information (Rommetveit 1974, 1979). The teacher seems to take for granted that everyone has done the homework. Apparently, the teacher also wants to emphasise the importance of doing the homework at home. After this LF2 indicates that she has not understood what exercise they were supposed to do (line 15). The teacher does not respond to this (line 15). Instead, she gives the number of the page (line 17).

Some of the students still find it difficult to pay attention to the task and start to talk to each other (lines 18-25). Since it is the teacher's responsibility to control the work in the classroom, she attempts here to direct the pupils' attention to the task by ignoring the pupils' disruptive contributions and by

reading the instructions aloud: <lisää puuttuvat verbimuodot vihjeiden avulla> (please add the missing verb forms according to the instructions) (line 26). However, LF1, LF2 and LF5 continue to talk about personal matters without paying any attention to the topic of the lesson (lines 27-32). Eventually, the teacher needs to put an end to their talk by explicitly indicating that everyone is waiting for LF2 to stop talking and to focus on the teacher's instructions: LF2 ↑ *we're waiting for you* (line 33). LF2 still seems to be reluctant to comply with the teacher's requests and makes a cheeky comment: *mitä (.) mitäs oottamist mus on* (what what's the point of waiting for me) (line 34), which further makes LF1 laugh (line 35). This laugh seems to encourage LF2 to make a further comment: *no miks muo pitää oottaa* (well why do you have to wait for me) (line 36). Apparently, with these final comments the girls want to challenge the teacher's position as the authoritative source of knowledge.

### 7.1.1.2 Opening phase in the middle of the lesson

As was noted above, the opening phase of the grammar instructional episode is typically fairly long when it is also the beginning of the language lesson. In contrast, when the opening phase is in the middle of a lesson, it may be long or short, depending amongst other things on the types of tasks involved. In examining the opening phase in the middle of the lesson I have distinguished *opening phases containing competing discussions* and *those containing only an official discussion*.

***Opening phase containing competing discussions.*** The opening phase may be of longer duration in the middle of the lesson if it marks a switch from individual work to whole-class interaction. On these occasions the pupils have to orient themselves towards the new tasks and this may first cause disruptive contributions in the form of competing discussions. In Example 6, the teacher attempts to get started on tasks relating to a new grammar point, that is, a grammar point that the pupils have not yet learned at school. The previous activity consisted of tasks relating to auxiliary verbs, which had been done individually. In the next activity, which the teacher tries to introduce, the pupils have to practise the other way of saying the verb *must* under the teacher's guidance. The teacher-imposed official discussion of the task in hand is recorded in red. The discussion of the exam is in green. The third topic of discussion, that is, the tape recorder on a desk, is in grey. The teacher's dialogue with LM8 is in light blue and that with LM4 is in lilac. In both these dialogues the teacher attempts to calm the pupils down. Finally, LF7's words concerning LM1 are in blue.

EXAMPLE 6 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 1				
1	T	SITTE SIIRRYTÄÄN UUTEEN ASIAAN VIELLÄ ↑		
2			LF2	ai tuleeks seki siihen kokeesee
3	T	tulee ↑		
4			LF2	>no ku mä en osaa ennen (xx) miks nää hei kirjota ylös< ne mitkä sivut siinä
5	T	näpit irti siitä		
6			LF2	hei
7	T	yhtää et koske		
8			LL	[[((laugh))]]
9			LF2	[hei]
10	T	LM2		
11			LL	LM2 näpit irti
12			LL	[(xx)]
13	T	[odotas] (.)LM2 hei .		
14			LL	((laugh))
15	T	jos se on siinä pöydällä ni se on siinä pöydällä (.) [sinä et siihen koske]		
16			LM2	[[((laugh))]]
17			LL	(xx)
18	T	joo [(.) SITTEN (.)] pistä (.) kirjat hetkeksi kiinni		
19			LF7	[vieläks LM1 istuu puiston penkillä]
20	T	ja tavarat sinne väliin		
21			LF2	>ku eiks sit voi sitä niihin mitä tulee siihen imperfektii ja perfektii eiks ne voi kirjottaa johonki ku mä en osaa niitä ne on ihan kamalia<
22	T	SITTE HÖPINÄT POIS JA KIRJAT KIINNI HETKEKSI		
23			LL	(xx)
24			LM8	mitä
25	T	LM8 kanssa		
26			LM8	no ku mä kertaan tolle yhdelle (xx)
27			LL	(xx)
28			LM8	[mä oon merkannu ne sullekkii (xx)]
29	T	[LM8:kin rauhattuu]		
30			LM8	(xx)
31			LF2	halleluja
32	T	LM4 (.) ja sinä istut oikeinpäin		
33			LM4	ai nii joo
34	T	pistä kirja kiinni (.)		
35			LL	(xx)
36	T	ELIKKÄ (.) viimeks oli puhetta apuverbeistä ↑ oli puhetta siitä canistä ja maysta [(.) ni nyt on vielä yks apuverbi] se on täytyä (.)		
37			LL	[(xx)]
38	T	sit pitää maltaa kuunnella ↑		

This example illustrates that the change of activities within the grammar instructional episode does not always take place smoothly and the pupils are not ready to move on to the next task. Before introducing the next task the teacher



needs to create intersubjectivity between herself and the pupils. First, the teacher tries to catch the learners' attention by saying in a loud voice with rising intonation that they are going to work on a new grammar point: *sitte siirrytään uuteen asiaan viellä* ↑ (let's move on to the next item) (line 1). She uses the word *sitte* (next) to mark a switch to the next task. The pupils will have an exam in the near future and this triggers some questions from them (lines 2, 4 and 21). Right at the beginning of the example, LF2 wants to know which grammar points they have to study for the test and asks the teacher to write them on the blackboard (lines 2-4). Later in the opening phase she repeats her request (line 21). However, despite these requests the teacher does not repeat the grammar points that the pupils have to study for the exam. The dialogue between the teacher and LM8 is also about the exam (lines 24-29). LM8 helps his friend with the grammar structures and the teacher wants him to stop talking because it disturbs the opening of the episode and says *LM8:kin rauhottuu* (LM8 also calms down) (line 29). The teacher also asks LM4 to turn around and to concentrate on the task in hand (lines 32 and 34). Curiously enough, the presence of the tape-recorders also causes some disturbance, although this episode is from the tenth observed lesson. LM2's playing with the tape recorder disrupts the teacher's giving of instructions and the teacher has to ask him to leave it alone (lines 5-15).

In the face of the several competing activities the teacher attempts to establish a common focus, in the same way as in Examples 4 and 5. She attempts to put an end to the pupils' talk and explicitly asks them to move on. She makes several attempts to orient the class towards the grammar point of the next episode (lines 18, 20, 22, 36 and 38). She asks them to concentrate on the lesson by saying *sitten pistä kirjat hetkeksi kiinni* (please close your books for a while) (line 18) and by repeating her request several times later during the opening. Finally, she refers to the grammar point of the last lesson and indicates that there is still one auxiliary verb to be studied (line 36). She uses the word *elikkä* (so) to indicate that she will not tolerate any more disturbances, and that everyone should start to concentrate on the task in hand (line 36). She also emphasises that the pupils should listen by saying *sit pitää malttaa kuunnella* (now you should listen) (line 38).

***Opening phase containing only an official discussion.*** All the three openings discussed so far were fairly long and in addition to an official discussion, consisted of several unofficial discussions. The opening phase can, however, be short and consist only of an official discussion between the teacher and the learners. Furthermore, during the opening phase the teacher can revise the previous grammar points. Example 7 illustrates short openings of this kind:

## EXAMPLE 7 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 1		
1	T	VIIMEEKS PUHUTTII adverbeista (.) pääsitte (.) näin pitkälle=
2	LM1	=MÄ EN OLLU KOULUSSA
3	LM4	en mäkää
4	T	mm nyt sä näet sitte (.)
5	T	oli ensin teil adjektiiveja (.) jotka piti kirjottaa ylös ↑ (.) niinku tääl on ↑ (.) sen jälkee oli tehtävä et ne piti muuttaa adverbeiks (.)
6	T	kuis se tapahtu
7	LF2	mist mä tiän
8	LF1	äl yy perää
9	T	äl yy laitetaa perää (.) adjektiivin perää (.)
10	T	katotaas kuin ne menee sitte (.) vihkosta pitäs löytyä ↑ (.)

This is an opening phase of Episode 6 in the middle of the lesson. The previous episode concerned vocabulary exercises and the focus of the next episode, which in the example is about to start, is on grammar. More specifically, the focus is on an old grammar point, that is, the grammar point on which the learners have done homework. Both these activities are done jointly by the teacher and the pupils. Again here the teacher attempts to gain the pupils' attention by starting to speak in a loud voice (line 1). In addition, the teacher refers first to the previous lesson by saying *VIIMEEKS PUHUTTII adverbeista (.) pääsitte (.) näin pitkälle* (last time we talked about adverbs (.) you've done so far) (line 1). This immediately triggers some responses from the pupils (lines 2-3). LM1 and LM4 remind the teacher that they were not present in the previous lesson. The teacher seems to consider these responses appropriate, because she acknowledges them by saying *mm nyt sä näet sitte (.)* (now you see then) (line 4). After this short exchange the teacher continues by reminding the learners what they have done during the previous lesson and asks the class whether they remember how adverbs are formed in English (lines 5-6). LF2 first indicates that she does not know by saying *mist mä tiän* (how should I know) (line 7). Then LF1 gives the correct answer by saying *äl yy perää* (you place the letters l and y at the end) (line 8). The teacher does not respond to LF2's turn, but immediately accepts LF1's correct answer by repeating it: *äl yy laitetaa perää (.) adjektiivin perää (.)* (the letters l and y at the end after the adjective) (line 9). After this short revision of the adverbs the teacher indicates to the pupils that next they are going to go through their exercises by saying *katotaas kuin ne menee sitte (.) vihkosta pitäs löytyä ↑* (let's see how it goes (.) they should be in your notebooks) (line 10) After this they start to work on the tasks. This opening phase thus includes only one discussion under the teacher's guidance. It is also notable that the revision of the grammar point is an important part of this opening. The teacher does not, however, go into a monologue when revising the formation of adverbs, but engages the pupils in the discussion by asking a question (line 6).

As was pointed out above, the length of the opening phase is affected by its position within the language lesson. The focus of the episode, that is, whether it is new grammar points or grammar points that the learners have studied earlier, does not appear to have such an effect on the length or the structure of the opening phase. However, the opening phases of the episodes

focusing on old grammar points tend to be shorter than those focusing on new ones. This tendency is due to the teacher's longer introductions and explanations when a new grammar point is involved. This is natural, because the teacher needs to explain the new grammar points to the pupils in detail before doing the exercises. Example 8 illustrates short opening phases of episodes with old grammar points in focus in the middle of the language lesson:

EXAMPLE 8 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 1		
1	T	sitte on pitänyt kirjottaa lauseita englanniksi (.)
2	LL	joo
3	T	ja nyt piti olla äärimmäisen huolellinen <b>aikamuodoissa</b> (.)

Just before this example the teacher and the pupils have worked on their first piece of homework. In this example, as in Example 6, the teacher uses the word *sitte* (next) (line 1) to mark a switch from the previous task to the next one, which is about to start here. The teacher and the pupils continue to check the homework. However, the teacher not only reads the instructions aloud to the class but interprets them in her own words by rephrasing the text: *sitte on pitänyt kirjottaa lauseita englanniksi* (.) (next you had to translate the sentences into English) (line 1). In addition, she emphasises the core of the grammar task by saying *ja nyt piti olla äärimmäisen huolellinen aikamuodoissa* (.) (and now it is important to be careful with the tenses) (line 3). After this short opening the teacher starts eliciting answers from the learners by reading aloud the sentences in Finnish and the discussion goes on smoothly. The teacher thus starts the grammar instructional episode without any disruptions.

In sum, the length of the opening phase is affected by its place within the lesson as a whole. If the opening phase of the grammar instructional episode also starts the lesson, it is typically fairly long. Moreover, the opening of an episode with new grammar points in focus tends to be longer than that of an episode focusing on old grammar points. In the opening phase the teacher and the pupils orient themselves towards the next grammar instructional episode. The teacher seeks to establish a shared orientation if there are competing activities going on. In other words, the pupils are sometimes not ready to start the next grammar task and continue to talk about personal matters or other issues that are not always considered appropriate by the teacher. On these occasions the teacher does not react to the questions but continues the official discussion by introducing the next task. If the learners do not react to the teacher's instructions and their off-task exchanges seem to prolong the opening too much, the teacher at some point needs to put an end to the pupils' talk by explicitly ordering them to be quiet. However, the teacher's use of words like *elikkä* (so) or *sitte* (next) to mark a switch from the previous task to the next one is often enough to catch the learners' attention to the task in hand. In addition, the teacher shows different orientations towards the class by using expressions

like *let's start* or *your homework* depending whether she wants to emphasise, for example, a joint activity or every pupil's responsibility for his or her own exercises.

### **7.1.2 Grammar instructional phase**

The grammar instructional phase is the core of the grammar episode. During this phase the teacher and the pupils complete the grammar tasks in hand. Like the opening phase, the grammar instructional phase is affected by the main focus of the episode. That is, an instructional phase focusing on new grammar points and one with old grammar points in focus have different emphases in their structures. This is due to the difference between the nature of the exercises on new and old grammar points. Consequently, the grammar instructional phase is described here under two headings, instructional phases with new grammar points in focus and those focusing on old grammar points.

However, there are also common features in the grammar instructional phases of episodes with new and old grammar points in focus. For example, in all instructional phases one sequence primarily involves only one grammar task, that is, one grammar sentence to be translated. The instructional phases are also affected by the complexity of the grammar rules involved. Another important factor that affects the structure of the episode is the process of selecting the next speaker. In this class the teacher usually nominates the pupil she wants to answer without waiting for the pupils to raise their hands. Sometimes the pupils also raise their hands to bid for a turn and the teacher gives one of them permission to speak. Furthermore, nominating is not always even necessary. On these occasions the pupils are expected to answer in succession according to their order of seating. Accordingly, reading aloud the next item or simply mentioning its number is enough to trigger an answer from the next pupil in the row. The pupils are familiar with these routines, and normally there are no disruptions.

This section describes the nature of the grammar instructional phase of the episodes. A more detailed analysis of the exchanges between the teacher and the pupils will be presented in Section 7.2. In addition, the strategies used by the teacher in order to provide the pupils with scaffolded assistance will be discussed in Section 7.3. This section, by contrast, focuses on the general structure of the grammar instructional phase. Grammar instructional episodes with new grammar and old grammar points in focus are examined in Sections 7.1.2.1 and 7.1.2.2, respectively.

#### **7.1.2.1 New grammar points in focus**

In the grammar instructional phases with new grammar points in focus the teacher introduces the pupils to grammar points they have not learned before at school. In the instructional phases focusing on new grammar points the participants primarily work on one grammar task within one sequence. However, in the grammar instructional phases concentrating on new grammar

points, the teacher and the pupils may also revise old grammar rules, for example, the verb *to be* in different finite forms and tenses, before the introduction of a new grammar point. In these cases one sequence contains several short sentences for translation that are connected to each other by their form and tense. Furthermore, in both cases the length and structure of the phase is affected by the complexity of the grammar rules in question. In other words, if the pupils have problems with the tasks, the instructional phases are longer and more complicated than if no problems arise. In addition, the nature of instructional phases introducing new grammar points has an effect on the structure of the phase. The revision of already given grammar points, in particular, is a prominent feature of most of the cases when new grammar points are in focus in this classroom.

As pointed out above, instructional phases with new grammar points in focus and those concentrating on old grammar points have different emphases in their structures, and thus the grammar instructional phases are investigated here in two sections. In examining instructional phases with new grammar points in focus, I have identified such phases as *grammar instructional phases with revision of grammar* and *those without any revision*.

***Grammar instructional phase with revision of grammar.*** When the teacher in the classroom situation under study starts to introduce new grammar points to the pupils, she typically foregrounds important elements by first referring to the old grammar points. In other words, she initiates a new item only after revising grammar rules in question at great length. The teacher explicitly informs the pupils that before proceeding they have to revise the grammar rules, as in Example 9:

EXAMPLE 9 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 2		
27	T	OSAA:N (.) eikäko <b>saan</b> mennä elokuvaan . (.) perjantaina (.)
28	T	LM2
29	LM2	I may go to the (.) movies Friday night
30	T	mm (.) <b>on</b> Friday night (.)
(Sequences 3-5 omitted)		
SEQUENCE 6		
55	T	kuinka sanot <b>saan</b> tiskata (..)
56	T	saan tiskata ↑
57	T	LF6
58	LF6	se on (.) I may: (.) [wash up]
59	T	[wash up] mm
(Sequences 7-9 omitted)		
SEQUENCE 10		
79	T	nyt mejjän pitäis katsoa kuinka niille tehdään kaikki muut aikamuodot (.) ja se alkaa sillä että kerrataan olla verbin aikamuotojen käyttöä (.)
80	T	kuinkas sanot imperfektissä että: <minä olin nuori> (.)
81	T	LM3 ↑
82	LM3	I was young
83	T	mm (.)
84	T	miten sanot (.) <b>sinä</b> olit nuori (.)

continues

## EXAMPLE 9 continues

85	T	LM8
86	LM8	you were (.) young
(11 lines omitted from the sequence)		
SEQUENCE 11		
107	T	kuinkas sitte (..)
108	T	kuinkas tehhä perfekti (.) minä olen ollut nuori (.)
109	T	LM8
110	LM8	I have been young
111	T	mm↑ (.)
112	T	kuinkas tulee sinä olet ollut nuori (.)
113	T	LM7↑
114	LM7	you have been
115	T	kyllä↑
(17 lines from Sequence 11 and Sequence 12 omitted)		
SEQUENCE 13		
184	T	katotaas viel yks aikamuoto ↑
185	LM1	(xx) saanks mä lainata sun terotinta
186	LF2	joo
187	T	mites sanot että (.) minä tulen olemaan nuori futuurissa (.) aina (.)
188	T	tulen aina olemaan nuori (.)
189	T	LF2
190	LF2	onkse se I will be young
191	T	mm↑ (..)
192	T	I will always be young laitetaan tänne nyt vaa will be (.)
193	T	kuinkas sanot hän (.) eikö ku sinä tulet aina olemaan nuori (.)
194	T	LM9 haluu sanoo selvästi↑
195		(..)
196	LM9	ai mitä
197	T	sinä tulet aina olemaan nuori↑
198	LF6	[tulet aina olemaan (xx)]
199	LM9	[you will be]
200	T	mm↑
(8 lines from the sequence omitted)		

In the grammar instructional phase of Episode 9, the teacher first asks the pupils to translate some sentences into English that contain the auxiliary verbs *can* or *may* in the present tense. In Sequence 2, the teacher reads a sentence aloud in Finnish and nominates LM2 whom she wants to translate it (lines 27-8). After LM2's response the teacher accepts it with a slight elaboration by adding a preposition to it (lines 29-30). A similar process occurs in Sequences 3-5. A little later, in Sequence 6, the teacher again reads the next sentence in hand aloud in Finnish, repeats the verb because there is no immediate response and calls upon LF6 to translate the sentence (lines 55-7). Again the pupil gives the correct answer, which the teacher accepts (lines 58-9). In the subsequent sequences a similar fairly short question-response procedure is repeated. In other words, in the grammar instructional phase of Episode 9, the teacher first revises the use of the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may* in the present tense by asking the pupils to translate sentences into English.

Finally, after going through several sentences the teacher explicitly indicates to the pupils that next they will look at the formation of the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may* in the rest of the tenses. She also informs them that they will first revise the use of the verb *to be* (line 79). Thus, in Sequences 10-13 the

teacher and the pupils go through sentences that involve the verb *to be* in different tenses and in different finite forms. In Sequence 10, the teacher first asks the pupils to translate a sentence that contains the verb *to be* in the first person singular in the past tense by saying *kuinkas sanot imperfektissä että: <minä olin nuori>.(.)* (how do you say in the past tense *I was young*) (line 80). After LM3's correct answer the teacher accepts it, and immediately initiates the next translation exercise that contains the verb *to be* in the second person in the past tense by saying *miten sanot (.) sinä olit nuori (.)* (how do you say *you were young*) (line 84). The teacher and the pupils likewise go through all the finite forms of the verb *to be* in the past tense in the last part of Sequence 10. In Sequence 11, the teacher starts to revise the verb *to be* in the present perfect tense from line 108 onwards. As in Sequence 10, the teacher and the pupils go through several sentences involving the verb *to be* in the different finite forms. First the teacher says the sentence in Finnish, selects the next speaker and when given the correct answer accepts it. In Sequence 12, they revise the past perfect tense and in Sequence 13, from line 184 onwards, the future tense in the same way.

Although the participants mainly go through the questions fairly quickly and efficiently without any further comments from the teacher, some translation sentences trigger further clarifications from her. In Sequence 13, where the teacher and the pupils revise the future tense, LF2 gives her response in the form of a suggestion by saying *onkse se I will be (is it I will be)* (line 190). Obviously, this triggers further comments from the teacher and she emphasises the correct verb form by saying *I will always be young laitetaan tänne nyt vaa will be (.)* (*I will always be young let's write will be here*) (line 192). Next, the teacher elicits a response from LM9 by saying *kuinkas sanot hän (.) eikö ku sinä tulet aina olemaan nuori (.)* (how do you say *he no you will always be young*) (lines 193-4). After the repetitions of the sentence (lines 197-8) LM9 gives the correct translation (line 199), which the teacher accepts (line 200). The revision of the future tense proceeds in the same way till the end of the sequence.

After revising the verb *to be* in different tenses and different finite forms the teacher introduces the new grammar point in question, that is, the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may* in different tenses, and the pupils start to do pair work on the topic. Apparently, the teacher knows from experience that this grammar point usually causes problems for the pupils, and thus she spends quite a long time revising the different tenses. In doing this she seeks to orient the pupils towards the next new grammar point and to invite their active participation in the teaching-learning process.

***Grammar instructional phase without revision of grammar.*** Even though grammar instructional phases with new grammar points in focus typically contain fairly long revisions of grammar rules, this does not, however, mean that the teacher always starts the instructional phase by revising grammar. In Example 10, the teacher instead briefly introduces the new grammar point in the opening phase and starts the instructional phase by referring to the English

textbook, making use of the authority of the textbook to introduce the next topic:

EXAMPLE 10 Episode 10. Lesson 8. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 2		
11	T	nyt tutkippa kirjasta sivulta kaksiyksiviisi (..)
12	T	millä tavalla (.) se kierretään kaikis muissa aikamuodois paitsi preesensissä
13	LF7	mikä
14	LF1	((laugh))
15	T	kaksiyksiviisi ↑
16	LM2	LM8 riehuu taas
17	LF1	((laugh))
18	T	mm ↑
19	T	kuinka kierretään
20	T	LF6
21	LF6	be <i>allowed</i> to
22	T	LM6 sano et se oli be allowed to
23	T	mm (.)
SEQUENCE 3		
24	T	nyt jos mä sanosin=
25	LF1	=mä nyt en tiä et mis me nyt ollaa oikee (.) ollaaks me näis lauseis viel
26	T	puhutaan maystä (.) saada olla lupa tehdä jotain
27	LM6	lopeta (.) kato kirjast
28	LF1	maystä ↑
29	T	may verbistä (.) ja se kierrettiin rakenteella be allowed to (.)
30	T	nyt jos mä sanosin suomeks <että> (..) minä (.) sain (.) tupakoida kotona (.) kotona ↑ (.) ni kuinkas sanosit (..)
31	T	<sain tupakoida kotona> [(.)]
32	LF6	[nii]
33	T	LF6
34	LF6	I <i>was</i> allowed to (.) smoke at home
35	LF1	[LF6:lla on kivat porukat]
36	T	[mm (.)]
37	LF1	[* kotona *]
38	T	kerrotko mitä teit [mistä] tiesit et se tulee sillee
39	LM1	(xx)
40	LF1	siks ku se on hikari
41	LF6	no -
42	LF1	ai ((laugh))
43	T	jos sä vertaat tähän näin (..)
44	T	mitä sä vaa oot tehny
45	LF6	no (.) siihen (.) siin muuttuu vaa se allowed to
46	LF1	onnistuisi vaan silleen
47	LM1	mä kirjotan (xx)
48	T	näin tulee (.) minulla oli lupa tehdä jotakin (.)

This example shows how the teacher invites the learners' active participation in the task by asking them to look for the new grammar structure in their textbooks (lines 11-2). She assists their learning by saying *nyt tutkippa kirjasta sivulta kaksiyksiviisi (..) millä tavalla (.) se kierretään kaikis muissa aikamuodois paitsi preesensissä* (now please look at page 215 in the book what is the other way of saying this in all other tenses except the present tense) (lines 11-2). Just before this example, in the opening phase, the teacher has reminded the pupils of the auxiliary verb *may*. However, the pupils have not yet learned how to say this



auxiliary verb in another way, and here the teacher directs their attention to the new point. At the beginning of the instructional phase, some of the pupils are still engaged in their off-task activities, and thus LF7 asks the teacher to repeat the page number to help her to locate the structure in question by saying *mikä* (what) (line 13). The teacher repeats the correct page number (line 15) but does not react to the other disruptions. She repeats her question by asking *kuinka kierretään* (what is the other way of saying this) and selects the next speaker (lines 19-20). After LF6's answer she repeats the correct response and accepts it (lines 21-2).

After Sequence 2 the teacher tries to initiate the next sequence by asking the next question, but she is again interrupted by LF1 who has not listened to the teacher's instructions, and she has to repeat the new grammar point to her (lines 26 and 29). Interestingly another pupil also refers to the textbook by saying *lopeta (.) kato kirjast* (stop it (.) look it up in the book) (line 27). In other words, the important role of the English textbook in the introduction of the new grammar point is also recognised by LM6. After LF1 has also found the correct page in the book the teacher says the next sentence in Finnish and asks the pupils to translate it into English, saying *nyt jos mä sanosin suomeks <että> (..) minä (..) sain (..) tupakoida kotona (..) kotona* ↑ (..) *ni kuinkas sanosit (.)* (if I said in Finnish I was allowed to smoke at home how would you say it in English) (line 30). After a pause the teacher repeats the sentence for translation in Finnish (lines 31). LF6 signals that she is listening to the teacher by saying *nii* (yes) (line 32), and thus the teacher selects her to translate the sentence (line 33). LF6's response is correct and the teacher accepts it (lines 34 and 36). At this point LF1 makes an off-task comment, saying *LF6:lla on kivat porukat* (LF6 has a nice family) (line 35) and a little later she adds laughingly *kotona* (at home) (line 38). In other words, she connects the content of the sentence for translation to a real life situation, meaning that since LF6 is allowed to smoke at home her family is very nice.

After accepting LF6's correct answer, the teacher does not, however, close the sequence here but asks LF6 a further question (line 37). Apparently, because it is a question of a new grammar point, the teacher wants to clarify the formation of the new structure to everyone. She does this by asking LF6: *kerrotko mitä teit mistä tiesit et se tulee sillee* (could you tell us what you did and how you knew it was like that) (line 37). Again here LF1 makes an off-task comment by answering the teacher: *siks ku se on hikari* (because she is a swot) (line 40). After LF6's hesitant start the teacher prompts her to give an explanation by saying *jos sä vertaat tähän näin (..)* (if you compare it to this here) (line 43). Because LF6 does not come up with an answer, the teacher prompts her further by saying *mitä sä vaa oot tehny* (what you just did) (line 44). After this LF6 provides her explanation (line 45). Nevertheless, the new structure still seems to be a source of problems for some pupils, since LF1 indicates her uncertainty by saying *onnistuisi vaan silleen* (I wish it were so easy) (line 46). However, at this point the teacher does not react to LF1's comment but closes the sequence by saying *näin tulee (..) minulla oli lupa tehdä jotakin* (it is like this I was allowed to do something) (line 48). This example illustrates how the new

structure is first presented in the textbook and then it is introduced to the pupils more directly by the teacher's sample sentences. In this way the pupils are engaged in co-constructing the task.

As well as by revising grammar rules or referring to the English textbook the teacher may also start the grammar instructional phase with new grammar points in focus by asking the pupils to read sample sentences aloud and translate them into Finnish. The teacher introduces the pupils to the next grammar point by showing sample sentences on a transparency. These sentences contain the new structure that is the core of the episode. Consider Example 11:

EXAMPLE 11 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 2		
26	T	luetaanpa läpi lause kerrallaan (.)
27	T	LM3 voi lukasta ensimmäisen lauseen
28	LM3	ai englanniks=
29	T	=[joo]
30	LF1	=[ranskaks]
31	LM3	joo (.) I usually wake up at about five (.) don't (.) I
32	T	mm (.)
33	T	kuis se toinen menee LM2 ↑
34	LM2	ehm (.) yes and the B brings me a worm or two doesn't he
35	T	mm kuinkas käännettäs ensimmäinen lause (.)
36	T	ei tarvi kirjottaa tota tekstiä (.)
37	T	kuinkas käännettäs ensimmäinen lause
38	LM5	ai mihin käännetää
39	T	suomeks (.)
40	T	LM5↑
41	LM5	yleensä mä herään viideltä enkö eikö niin
42	T	mm
43	T	entäpä toinen
44		(..)
45	T	mikä on a worm
46	LF1	[mato]=
47	LF2	[mato]=
48	T	=mato
49	LF1	mikäs toi B on ((laugh))
50	T	no se on se (.) her- silakka B (.)
51	T	LF1
52	LF1	no sit se B silakka B eeh tuo minulle eeh madon tai ka:ksi eikö niin tai eikö tuo
53	T	joo:o (.)
(26 lines omitted from Sequence 2)		
SEQUENCE 3		
82	T	nyt jos mä sanon että näis lauseis on <kahdenlaisia lauseita> (.) yhden lauseen sisältä löytyy PÄÄLAUSE JA LIITEKYSYMYS
83	T	[mitkä tääl ois]=
84	LF1	=[pitääks noi kirjottaa]=
85	T	=ei vielä (.)
86	T	mitkä näistä olis liitekysymyksiä (.)
87	T	LM1
88	LM1	no noi mitkä on vähä niinku lihavoitu noi
89	T	joo (.) se on liitekysymys (.)
90	T	eli se tarkoittaa sillä haetaan (.) toiselta vahvistusta kysymykseen (.) et o- onhan näin eikö olekin (..)

continues

## EXAMPLE 11 continues

SEQUENCE 4		
91	T	mutta sitte mejän pitäis tarkkailla muutamia tapauksia katsotaanpa ensin vaik:ka tätä koko lausetta I just can't drink in the mornings can I ↑
92	T	mitä huomaatte tästä verbistä (..)
93	T	löytyykö sitä muualta [(.)]
94	T	LM5
95	LF1	[en tiää]
96	LM5	no se ei o kieltomuoto
97	T	joo:o
98	T	eli tääl oli kieltomuoto (.) mut tääl ei ollukkaan [(.)]
99	LM5	[mm]

Just before this example in the opening phase of the episode, the teacher has explained to the pupils that the formation of tag questions is the next topic. At the beginning of this instructional phase, the teacher starts to introduce the new grammar point by asking the pupils to read aloud sentences that contain the new structure: *luetaanpa läpi lause kerrallaan* (let's read aloud sentence by sentence) (line 26). She selects LM3 to read the first sentence by saying *LM3 voi lukasta ensimmäisen lauseen* (LM3 can read the first sentence) (line 27). Before reading LM3 clarifies the task by asking *ai englanniks* (do you mean in English) (line 28), which the teacher confirms. This triggers a humorous comment from LF1, who answers LM3's question by saying *ranskaks* (into French) (line 30). However, LM3's off-task comment does not cause any further reactions. LM3 reads the first sentence in English and LM2 the second one (lines 31 and 34). After accepting these the teacher asks the pupils to translate the first sentence (line 37). LM5 first clarifies what he is supposed to do by asking *ai mihin käännetää* (what do we translate into) (line 38). After the teacher's further request *suomeks (.) LM5 ↑* (into Finnish LM5) (lines 39-40) he translates the first sentence (line 41). Immediately after this the teacher moves on to the next sentence by saying *entäpä toinen* (how about the second one) (line 43). However, because no immediate response occurs and the pupils remain silent, the teacher starts to break down the sentence for the pupils in order to make it more manageable. The teacher first asks the pupils to translate the word *worm* into Finnish (line 45). Then the teacher accepts the correct answer *mato* (worm), which LF1 and LF2 give simultaneously (lines 46-48). The sentence triggers a further request for clarification by LF1 and she asks *mikä toi B on* (what is that B) (line 49). After the teacher's answer *no se on se (.) her- silakka B* (well it is that herring B) LF1 translates the sentence (line 52). From line 54 onwards, the sequence continues in the same way, and the teacher and the pupils go through all the sentences on the transparency.

At the beginning of Sequence 3, the teacher starts to explain the formation of tag questions (line 82). At first she refers to the sample sentences the pupils have translated in the previous sequence. She indicates that in every sentence there is both a main clause and a tag question by saying *nyt jos mä sanon että näis lauseis on <kahdenlaisia lauseita> (.) yhden lauseen sisältä löytyy PÄÄLAUSE JA LIITEKYSYMYYS* (now if I say that there are two types of clause in one sentence there is both a main clause and a tag-question) (line 82). Next the teacher invites

the pupils to participate in the grammar explanation by asking them to identify the tag questions. LM1 gives the correct answer to the teacher's question and the teacher accepts it (lines 88-9). However, here the teacher does not move on to the next sequence immediately but gives a further explanation of the use of tag questions by saying *sillä haetaan (.) toiselta vahvistusta kysymykseen (.) et onhan näin eikä olekkin (.)* (with it we look for a confirmation for the question (.) it is so isn't it) (line 90).

After explaining the meaning of tag questions the teacher continues to introduce the pupils to their use by referring to the sample sentences on the transparency. First, she picks up one sentence by saying *mutta sitte meidän pitäis tarkkailla muutamia tapauksia katsotaanpa ensin vaik:ka tätä koko lausetta I just can't drink in the mornings can I* ↑ (but then we should look at some cases let's first look at this complete sentence *I just can't drink in the mornings can I*) (line 91). After directing the pupils' attention to this sentence she asks whether they notice anything special about the verb by saying *mitä huomaatte tästä verbistä (.)* (what do you notice about this verb ) (line 92). However, because the pupils give no verbal response, the teacher gives a further clue by asking *löytyykö sitä muualta (.)* (can you find it anywhere else) (line 93) and selects LM5 to answer (line 94). LM5's answer is correct and the teacher accepts and clarifies it by saying *joo: o eli tääl oli kieltomuoto (.) mut tääl ei ollukkaan (.)* (yes in other words there was a negative form here but no negative form here) (lines 97-8).

Similarly, the teacher continues to introduce the use and the formation of tag questions by referring to the different verbs in the sample sentences. In doing this she seems to want to break down the new grammar point into smaller parts in order to help the pupils' participation in the activity. In other words, in this grammar instructional phase, the teacher goes through different aspects of the tag questions with the pupils and prepares them for the exercises they will be doing individually after the episode.

A fourth strategy the teacher uses in starting the grammar instructional phase involves no specific introduction. Instead of referring to sample sentences, the textbook or grammar rules, the teacher can start the grammar instructional phase with new grammar points in focus simply by going through the tasks. Consider Example 12:

EXAMPLE 12 Episode 8. Lesson 6. New grammar point: structure *had better*.

SEQUENCE 2		
9	T	nyt sun on pitänyt käyttää samaa rakennetta <had better> olisi parasta tehdä jotain
10	LF2	nii mm joo=
11	T	=sinun olisi parasta (.) mennä lääkäriin (.)
12	T	kuinka sanotaan (.)
13	T	LM8 ↑
14	LM8	you had <i>better</i> go to the doctor
15	T	mm (.) you had <i>better</i> go to the doctor ↑ (.)
16	T	you had <i>better see</i> (.) the doctor
17	LM3	go to doctor ↑
18	LF2	eiks go to go eiku go to the doctor käy=

continues

## EXAMPLE 12 continues

19	T	=on ↑ oikein
20	LF2	go to <i>the</i>
21	T	mm (.)
SEQUENCE 3		
22	T	lääkärin olisi parasta lukea=
23	LF2	=no ei mennä noin kovaa
24	T	<lääkärin> olisi parasta lukea potilaan kortti ensin
25		(..)
26	LF3	AUTS
27	T	kuinka tulee LM7 ↑
28	LM7	mm (.) the doctor had better read the patient's card first
29	T	kyllä ↑
30	LM3	voiks siihen tulla <i>medical</i> (.) eiks <i>medical</i> oo lääkäri
31	LF5	joo (.) mulla on kans ↑
32	T	ei (xx)
33	LM3	(xx) eiku mä katoin (.) [sanakirjasta]
34	T	[jostain] sanakirjasta
35	LM3	nii (.) <i>medical</i>
36	T	joo-o (.) sanakirjois on joskus hauskoja sanoja ↑ (.)

In the opening phase of Episode 8, the teacher goes through one sample sentence that contains the new structure *had better* that the teacher and the learners have not gone through before. However, at the beginning of the instructional phase, the teacher does not revise grammar rules, but gives the pupils only minimal instruction, saying *nyt sun on pitänyt käyttää samaa rakennetta <had better> olisi parasta tehdä jotain* (now you have had to use the same structure *had better* as before *had better do something*) (line 9). The teacher appears to consider the new structure *had better* to be simple enough for the learners to understand without any further revision. In the task the learners are expected to add the infinitive form of the main verb to the structure *had better* and to translate the rest of the sentence into English. Obviously, the pupils understand what they are expected to do, because already within the teacher's turns LF2 signals that she understands the task by saying *nii mm joo* (mm yes) (line 10). In addition, immediately after the teacher has read the first sentence in Finnish and selected LM8 to answer, LM8 gives the correct translation (lines 11-14). In addition to accepting this response, the teacher elaborates the pupil's answer by giving an alternative form for the target structure by saying *you had better see (.) the doctor* (line 16). This, in turn, triggers further suggestions from the learners. LM3 first suggests with a rising intonation *go to doctor* ↑ (line 17). Then LF2 asks whether another structure is correct by saying *eiks go to go eiku go to the doctor käy* (isn't go to the doctor correct) (line 18). The teacher accepts LF2's correct suggestion by saying *on ↑ oikein* (yes it's correct) (line 19).

After closing the previous sequence by confirming LF2's further question about the article in the target structure the teacher moves on to the next sentence to be translated by reading it aloud in Finnish (lines 22 and 24). After a long pause the teacher prompts LM7 to read his translation by asking *kuinka tulee LM7* ↑ (how is it LM7) (line 27). Again the pupil gives the correct answer and the teacher accepts it (lines 28-9). However, this does not bring the

sequence to an end but LM3 initiates a further question by *asking voiks siihen tulla medical (.) eiks medical oo lääkäri* (is *medical* correct doesn't *medical* mean a doctor) (line 30). The teacher rejects the incorrect word and initiates a short dialogue about the source of the word *medical* (lines 32-36), which finally closes the sequence. In other words, in this grammar instructional phase, the teacher starts to go through the use of the structure *had better* immediately and asks the pupils to translate sentences without any further explanation.

Finally, in order to orient the pupils towards a new grammar point in the grammar instructional phase the teacher in the classroom situation under study uses humour and repartee. More specifically, the teacher incorporates the pupils' off-task remarks into the teaching-learning process in order to direct their attention to the topic in hand. Consider Example 13:

EXAMPLE 13 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 7		
131	T	kuinka sanot että <Liisan täytyi ostaa Liisan on täytynyt ostaa kir[joja]>
132	LM2	[LF3] näyttelee mulle tuol kansainvälisiä sormimerkkejä
133	T	no ni [(.)] kuis sä sinne katot
134	LM2	[poliisiasia]
135	T	sun nenu on tauluu päin vaa
136	LF3	* nii justii ja irvailee koko ajan *
137	LM4	no ku se huuteli sielt rivoja [ja sit se näytteli] sellassii
138	LM	[nii]
139	LF2	te ootte vähän pentui tai jotain
140	LM1	LM4
141	LF	((laugh))
142	T	nyt rivo sanoo että Liisan on täytynyt ostaa kirjoja
143	T	LM4
144	LM4	ai
145	T	Liisan on täytynyt ostaa kirjoja
146	LM4	eeh <Liisa> (.) has had to buyed=
147	LM3	=buy
148	LL	(xx)
149	LM4	no buy (.) books
150	T	mm

This example is from the middle of the grammar instructional phase with a new grammar point in focus. In the previous sequences, the teacher and the pupils have studied several sentences including the structure *to have to*. Here the teacher initiates the new sequence by reading the sentence aloud in Finnish (line 131). However, the pupils' attention is not directed to the teacher's questions. Instead, they are engaged in their own off-task activities. After the teacher's question LM2 invites the teacher too to participate in this unofficial discussion by saying *LF3 näyttelee mulle tuol kansainvälisiä sormimerkkejä* (*LF3 is showing me international signs*) (line 132). Though LM2's statement is not related to the task in hand, the teacher comments on it by saying *no ni (.) kuis sä sinne katot sun nenu on tauluu päin vaan* (well why do you look at her your nose

is towards the blackboard) (lines 133 and 135). Apparently, because LM2's comment is directly targeted at the teacher she cannot ignore it completely. Instead, the teacher seems to follow the pupils' discussion and a little later on she incorporates the word *rivo* (coarse), which LM4 uses, in her own statement directed to LM4 by saying *nyt rivo sanoo että Liisan on täytynyt ostaa kirjoja* (now the coarse person says that *Liisa has had to buy some books*) (line 142). Immediately after the teacher mentions his name LM4 indicates that he has heard his name mentioned by saying *ai* (lines 143-4). After the teacher's repetition of the sentence to be translated LM4 provides his answer (line 146). Interestingly, the error in LM4's answer is first corrected by another pupil (line 147). LM4 accepts LM3's help and repeats the sentence without any errors. Finally, the teacher accepts the correct sentence with a minimal response *mm* (line 150), which also marks a switch to the next sequence. Thus, by participating in the short unofficial discussion the teacher is able to invite the pupils to take part in the co-construction of the target structure, and the episode continues with the teacher initiating further translation tasks.

To summarise, the teacher in the classroom situation in the present study typically revises grammar rules before introducing the pupils to a new grammar point in the grammar instructional phase. This revision may be of fairly long duration, consisting of several sequences, or shorter, with only a couple of exchanges. Instead of revising grammar rules, the teacher can start the instructional phase by referring to the textbook. Alternatively, the teacher can start to introduce the pupils to a new grammar point by asking them to read sample sentences in English and translate them into Finnish. After reading and translating the sentences the teacher picks up important elements of the particular grammar point found in the sentences. On other times the teacher starts the exercises immediately at the beginning of the instructional phase without any revision. In order to direct the learners' attention to the task in hand the teacher may also use humour by incorporating the pupils' off-task exchanges into her own comments.

### 7.1.2.2 Old grammar points in focus

As seen above, the main focus of the episode affects the overall structure of the grammar instructional phase. In the episodes whose main focus is on grammar points that the pupils have learned in the previous lessons, that is, old grammar points, the teacher and the pupils go through the homework. The teacher and the pupils discuss possible problems with the homework, and the teacher provides the pupils with the correct target structures. In examining episodes focusing on old grammar points I have identified such instructional phases as *grammar instructional phases without revision of grammar* and *those with revision of grammar*.

*Grammar instructional phase without revision of grammar.* The grammar instructional phases where the teacher and the pupils go through the homework usually consist of several sequences. The participants work on just one point within each sequence and the teacher checks that the homework has

been done and the answers are correct. Although this structure is prevalent in the grammar instructional phases, the length and the content of the sequences varies considerably. The teacher typically starts the grammar instructional phase by simply reading aloud the sentences to be translated or their numbers one by one without revising the grammar point in question. The teacher's instructions within the grammar instructional phase of the episode are very short or she gives no overt instructions at all. Consider Example 14:

EXAMPLE 14 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 2		
37	T	LM[9] the first part please
38	LM9	[aha]
39	LM9	I have spoken to Don
40	T	LM1 ↑ (.)
41	T	mm ↑ (.)
SEQUENCE 3		
42	T	how about next one ↑ (.)
43	T	LF2 ↑
44	LF2	I have woken- woken up (.) emminä tiedä=
45	LF5	=eiks tohon käy tavallinen (xx)
46	T	mm woken up exactly (.) herätä (.) herättää (.)
SEQUENCE 4		
47	T	LF2 next one please
48	LF2	mm <I: am I bought all the food fo:r our tea>
49	T	mm [(.)]
SEQUENCE 5		
50	T	LF6 ↑
51	LF2	[(xx)]
52	LF6	eeh I've done all the shopping
SEQUENCE 6		
53	T	LM1
54	LM1	and run without shopping (.) run
55	T	mm (.)

In Example 14, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on the past perfect forms of verbs. After a fairly long opening phase (see Section 7.1 Example 5) the teacher starts the actual grammar instructional phase by nominating the pupil she wants to answer next and by saying the number of the sentence concerned: *LM9 the first part please* (line 37). *LM9* gives the correct answer (line 39), which the teacher accepts by saying *mm* (line 41). In addition, here as well as later in the episode, this acceptance is used by the teacher to mark a switch to the new item that comprises the next sequence. Similarly, the teacher turns to the next grammar sentence, saying *how about the next one ↑* with a rising intonation (line 42). Here, however, she does not select the next speaker immediately but gives the pupils time to come up with an answer. Apparently, she waits for the pupils to raise their hands to bid for a turn. However, she has to order *LF2* to answer, because the pupils do not react to the pause (line 43). In this case, *LF2* gives her response in the form of a suggestion by saying *eiks tohon käy tavallinen woken* (isn't the ordinary word *woken* correct) (line 45) (see Section 7.2.2 for a discussion of the pupils' answers in the form of a suggestion). The



teacher accepts LF2's suggestion by repeating it and translating the verb into Finnish: *mm woken up exactly* (.) *herätä* (.) *herättää* (.) (*mm woken up exactly it means to wake up*) (line 46). Similarly, at the beginning of Sequence 4, the teacher elicits an answer from LF2 by mentioning her name and by saying *next one please* (line 47). LF2 gives her answer, which the teacher accepts by saying *mm* which she again uses to mark the beginning of the next sentence (line 49). In Sequence 5, however, the teacher mentions only LF6's name and immediately LF6 gives the answer to the next question (lines 50 and 52). Interestingly, the teacher does not show any overt acceptance of LF6's response, but right after the answer selects the next speaker and thus initiates the next sequence (line 53). The learners also interpret this as an indication of the teacher's acceptance. At the beginning of Sequence 6, the teacher uses the same strategy to start the task. However, here she gives overt acceptance to the correct answer (line 55).

Similar routine-like sequences continue till the end of Episode 3. The sequences in the grammar instructional phases typically seem to proceed in this way when the teacher and the pupils are engaged in checking the homework. Naturally, the sequences are longer when the pupils have problems with the homework and their first responses are not correct. On these occasions the teacher and the pupils extend the exchanges in order to come up with the correct target structures (see Section 7.2 for a discussion of extended exchanges).

As noted above, the teacher in the classroom situation under study does not revise the grammar rules in great detail before checking the pupils' homework, but tends to initiate the sequences within the grammar instructional phase without any revision. In other words, she either reads the next sentence aloud or mentions only the number of the next sentence. This is especially the case when the sentences are written on the blackboard, as in Example 15:

EXAMPLE 15 Episode 15. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 6		
88	T	=kuusi ↑ (.)
89	T	et saa lukea liikaa sotakirjoja ↑ (.)
90	T	you: (.) mustn't read too many warbooks
91	T	hyvä ↑
92	LM2	okei (.) mä oon vähän tyhmä (.) no
93	LM9	se on ihan väärin
94	LL	(xx)
95	T	many (.) oikein (.)
96	T	katso ettei ole much siellä ↑ (.)
SEQUENCE 7		
97	T	jonkun täytyy auttaa
98	LM5	((whistle)) (.) mitä
99	T	LM9 ja kumppanit ↑ (.)
100	T	täytyy auttaa Roaldia (.)
101	T	mistäpä se löytys (.)
102	T	someone (..) ei ole (.) eikäko [(..)] ihan oikein ↑ (.) on ihan oikein (..)
103	T	paitsi ↑ (..) mikäs ongelma
104	LF5	[tuol ylhääl]
105	LF2	had

continues

## EXAMPLE 15 continues

106	T	ei ookkaa had vaan on -
107	LM2	has (.) has
108	T	has (.) [(.)]
109	LM2	[turpa kii]

The sequences of Example 15 are from the middle of the grammar instructional phase. Before this episode the teacher has asked some pupils to write their translation sentences on the blackboard, and here the teacher and the pupils check those sentences together. In other words, the blackboard has an important, ancillary role in the process. The participants go through the sentences fairly quickly without any particular introduction, though some of the sequences of Episode 15 are fairly long because of the problems the learners have had with their homework.

At the beginning of Sequence 6, the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the next sentence by saying its number and reading it in Finnish (lines 88-9). After this the teacher reads the sentence aloud as it is written on the blackboard in English (line 90) and evaluates it positively by saying *hyvä* (good) (line 91). At the same time as the teacher comments on the sixth sentence, LM2 and LM9 talk about another sentence (lines 92-3). However, the teacher does not react to the boys' talk but makes a further comment on the sentence in question, saying *many* (.) *oikein* (.) (the word *many* is correct) (line 95) and emphasising the correct form by saying *katso ettei ole much siellä*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  (.) (notice that it isn't *much* there) (line 96). Without any further comments or introduction the teacher reads the beginning of the next sentence in Finnish, thus starting Sequence 7 (line 97). Some of the pupils, however, do not listen to the teacher, but talk about their personal concerns. This unofficial dialogue disturbs the opening imposed by the teacher, and therefore she calls for order by using their names and saying *LM9 ja kumppanit*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  (.) (LM9 and friends) (line 99). After this the teacher reads the rest of the sentence aloud in Finnish (line 100). Because the sentences are not written in any particular order on the blackboard it is sometimes difficult to find the right one. Thus, here the teacher has to look for the next sentence for a while before finding it (line 101). This time, instead of reading the sentence aloud, she reads it quietly to herself and at the same time gives verbal comments on it: *someone* (..) *ei ole* (.) *eikäko* (..) *ihan oikein*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  (.) *on ihan oikein* (..) (*someone* it isn't quite correct it is quite correct) (line 102). After finding an error she invites the pupils to correct it by saying *paitsi*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  *mikäs ongelma* (except what is the problem) (line 103). LF2's answer is incorrect and the teacher evaluates and explains it by saying *ei ookkaa had vaan on -* (no it isn't *had* but -) (line 106). Apparently, she wants to invite LF2 to reconsider her answer again by leaving her sentence incomplete. As a result, LF2 gives the correct form *has* (line 107). The teacher accepts this correct answer and closes the sequence by repeating the verb form (line 108).

*Grammar instructional phase with revision of grammar.* Finally, although revising grammar points before starting the exercises is not a prominent part of

the grammar instructional phases with old grammar points in focus, the teacher may sometimes spend rather a long time reminding the class about grammar rules they have learned in the previous lessons. Specifically, the teacher in this class revises grammar rules in order to foreground important, and often complicated, elements of the next task. Thus, the pupils are directed to access their prior knowledge regarding the grammar points at issue. In other words, the teacher uses what she has taught the class earlier as the basis for the task in hand. Consider Example 16:

EXAMPLE 16 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar points: structure *be able to*.

SEQUENCE 2		
61	T	kuinka (.) mikä oli se rakenne millä se can ver:bi kierrettiin
62	LF5	be allowed ((whisper))
63	LF1	kierrettiin ↑
64	T	nii ↑
65	LM5	kierret[tii]
66	T	[muis]sa aikamuodoissa (.)
67	T	LM4
68	LM4	be able to
69	T	mitäs sen been paikalle laitettiin
70	LM2	mm sepä se ↑
71	T	mikä verbi se on ↑
72	LM3	may
73	LF2	no be verbi (.) apuverbi
74	T	LF2 (.)
75	T	mikä verbi
76	LF2	olla
77	T	olla verbi ↑
78	T	ni (.) jos (.) haluat kertoa et olet osannut tehdä (.) jotakin perfektissä ↑ ni mihin (.) muotoon pistät silloin sen olla verbin
79	LF2	tulee vettä silmistä
80	LM8	mä en jaksa enää
81	T	mites se meni (.)
82	T	taululla oli silloin meil esimerkit niistä kaikista verbeistä
83	LF2	sori mut ei muista mitä opetettiin
84	T	se oli se olla verbi mitä sä (.) taivutit sen aikamuodon mukaa (.) jos se oli perfekti ↑ (.) halusit sanoa et olet osannut [tehdä jotakin]
85	LF2	[nii joo (xx)]
86	T	ni (.) <laitoit> olla verbin perfektii ↑ jos halusit kertoa mitä olit osannut tehdä ni laitoit vaa olla verbin <imperfektiin>
SEQUENCE 3		
87	T	katotaa kuinka [oot onnistunu]
88	LF2	[kaikki varmaan muistaa noi jutut] hyvä et joku muistaa
89	T	osata tai voida oikeissa muodoissa (.)
90	T	ensimmäinen lause (.)
91	T	Tom osaa lukea hyvin (..)
92	T	alotetaa (.) LM6:sta LM6 yrittää
93		(..)
94	LM6	ääh Tom (.) can read well
95	LL	(xx)
96	T	kyllä ↑ (.)

In the example above the teacher and the pupils check homework on the structure *to be able to*. Just before this example the teacher and the learners have

finished a fairly long opening phase (see Section 7.1 Example 4), during which there were several competing discussions about the homework and the pupils' personal interests. However, at the beginning of this grammar instructional phase the pupils orient themselves immediately towards the new phase after the teacher's initiation (line 61). Interestingly, the teacher starts the phase by asking questions about the formation of the auxiliary verb *can* in different tenses, which is the focus of the episode (line 61). The verb *kierrettiin* (to say it in another way) causes problems, because LF1 and LM5 do not seem to understand its meaning in this context (lines 63 and 65). LF1 first repeats the verb *kierrettiin* (to say it in another way) with a rising intonation, thus indicating that she does not understand the verb (line 63). After the teacher's confirmation *nii* ↑ (yes) (line 64) LM5 repeats the verb once again (line 65). However, the teacher does not explain the meaning of the verb in more detail. Instead, she simply repeats it and adds that the task involves putting the verb into other tenses, saying *muissa aikamuodoissa* (in other tenses) (line 66). After LM4's correct answer the teacher goes on clarifying the structure by asking a further question: *mitäs sen been paikalle laitettiin* (what did we write instead of *be*) (line 69). This triggers a comment from LM2, which can be interpreted as a sign that he does not understand the target structure (line 70). It follows that the teacher continues to prompt the learners to come up with the correct structure with yet one more question: *mikä verbi se on* ↑ (what verb is it) (line 71). This time both LM3 and LF2 respond without bidding for turns. First LM3 gives an incorrect response that the teacher does not comment on, whereas LF2's answer is correct (lines 72-3). However, in this case, instead of accepting LF2's correct response without any further comments, the teacher says LF2's name aloud and repeats her question (lines 74-5). Apparently, here the teacher wants to remind LF2 about the conversational ground rules in this class, according to which the pupils are not supposed to shout out their answers without being given permission to speak. Furthermore, she seems to want to make sure that everyone has heard the correct verb form. Accordingly, LF2 repeats the correct answer, which the teacher accepts (line 78). In addition, the teacher elicits a further response from the pupils by asking yet another additional question (line 78).

However, the grammar point in question seems to be difficult for some of the pupils, and LM8 indicates his frustration by saying *mä en jaksa enää* (I've had enough of this) (line 80). This triggers further prompts from the teacher (lines 82-4). She refers to the example that they had had on the blackboard in the previous lesson by saying *taululla oli sillon meil esimerkit niistä kaikista verbeistä* (we had examples of all those verbs on the blackboard then) (line 82). Importantly, she uses the form *we had*, thus referring to a joint task, whereas in her next turn, after LF2's comment on not remembering the structure, she uses the form *you* (line 83). By saying *se oli se olla verbi mitä sä (.) taivutit sen aikamuodon mukaan (.) jos se oli perfekti* ↑ (.) *halusit sanoa et olet osannut tehdä jotakin* (it was the verb *to be* that you conjugated according to the tense (.) if it was the perfect tense you wanted to say that *you have been able to do something*) (line 84) she seems to want to indicate that every pupil had used the auxiliary

verb *can* in different tenses in the previous lesson. Obviously, this helps LF2 to remember the structure, because she comments *nii joo* (oh yes) (line 85) and the teacher continues her explanation (line 86). In other words, the revision of the grammar point in hand continues through Sequence 2. This is due to some of the pupils' apparent uncertainty about the grammar point in question. It seems that because of the pupils' hesitant responses the teacher wants to clarify the grammar rule before starting the exercises. That is, the teacher is responsive to the learners' level of the ZPD (see Section 7.3).

In Sequence 3, after the revision in the previous section, the teacher and the pupils start to go through the homework sentence by sentence. At first the teacher orients the pupils towards the sentences to be translated by saying *katotaa kuinka oot onnistunu* (let's see how you've got on) (line 87). Again she uses the form *let's*, which seems to be the most typical way of referring to activities that are to be jointly accomplished. After this LF2 indicates her frustration by saying *kaikki varmaan muistaa noi jutut hyvä et joku muistaa* (surely everyone can remember those things it's great if somebody remembers) (line 88). The teacher then further prompts the pupils to come up with an answer by reading aloud the instructions in the book: *osata tai voida oikeissa muodoissa* (.) (the structure *to be able to* in the correct forms) (line 89). After mentioning the number of the sentence in question and reading the sentence aloud the teacher selects the next speaker, LM6, who after a little hesitation gives the correct answer (lines 90-94). Here the teacher's positive evaluation of the correct answer typically closes the sequence and signals also a move on to a new sentence within the phase (line 96).

To sum up, the grammar instructional phases focusing on grammar points the teacher and the learners have gone through in the previous lessons typically do not contain long introductions by the teacher. In addition, the teacher does not usually revise the grammar points before checking the homework. Rather, she starts the sequences immediately by reading the sentences to be translated aloud. This is the case, in particular, when the sentences have been written on the blackboard by the pupils. However, this teacher may also engage the pupils in fairly long revision sequences before checking the homework. This seems to be the case especially when the grammar point in question causes problems for the learners. With these revision sequences the teacher apparently wants to foreground important issues before going over the exercises.

### 7.1.3 Closing phase

This section focuses on the closing phase that finally brings the grammar instructional episode to an end. In the closing phase the teacher and the pupils stop working on the task in hand and orient themselves towards the next exercise or to bringing English lesson as a whole to an end. As is the case with the openings, the main focus of the episode does not appear to have a particularly important effect on the structure of the closing phase. In contrast, the place of the closing phase within the English lesson as a whole has a greater effect on its

structure. That is, the length and the content of the closing phase are different depending on whether it occurs in the middle or at the end of the lesson.

The structure of the closing phase is described in this section. In Section 7.1.3.1 the closing phase in the middle of the lesson is examined, while Section 7.1.3.2 focuses on the closing phase at the end of the lesson.

### 7.1.3.1 Closing phase in the middle of the lesson

As pointed out above, the length and the structure of the opening phase depend on the place of the episode within the language lesson. If the episode is in the middle of the lesson, its closure is typically of rather short duration. The teacher closes one episode and starts to orient the pupils towards the following episode. In examining the closing phase in the middle of the lesson, I have identified such closing phases as *closing phases marked by one word*, *closing phases consisting of the teacher's checking* and *closing phases consisting of explicit reference to the next task*.

**Closing phase marked by one word.** In contrast to most of the opening phases, the closing phases are of very short duration, especially in the middle of the lesson. They may consist of only a few words. On other occasions the teacher may use silence or a single word to mark the end of the previous episode, as in Example 17:

EXAMPLE 17 Episode 14. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 16		
5 lines omitted from the sequence		
231	T	>mikä oli ensimmäinen verbi<
232	LF1	mikä (.) she (.) haven't
233	T	ja ku se on hän (.) yksikön kolmas ni - ↑
234	LF1	has (.) hasn't
235	T	mm (.) hasn't had to
236	LM9	(xx)
237		(..)
238	T	ok sitten käänöslauseita

At the beginning of this example, the teacher asks the last question concerning the current exercise: >mikä oli ensimmäinen verbi< (what was the first verb) (line 231). Because the learner's answer is not correct, the teacher asks a further question by saying *ja ku se on hän (.) yksikön kolmas ni- ↑* (and because it is *he* the first person singular so-) (line 233). LF1 corrects her error and the teacher accepts the correction by repeating the verb *mm (.) hasn't had to* (line 235). After this last part of the exercise there is a long pause before the teacher initiates the next sequence. In addition, the teacher uses the word *ok* (okay) to mark the transition from one episode to another (line 238). After this the teacher starts to introduce the next topic by saying *sitten käänöslauseita* (next sentences to be translated) (line 238).

*Closing phase consisting of the teacher's checking.* In other instances, in the closing phase the teacher can make certain that everyone has understood the previous task before she directs their attention to the next topic. Examples 18 and 19 illustrate this:

EXAMPLE 18 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 25		
15 lines omitted from the sequence		
159	T	kysyttävää vielä (.)
160	T	ei (.)
161	T	sitte siirrytää kappaleeseen kaksikymmentäviis ↑ (..) so please take out your textbooks

EXAMPLE 19 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 12		
90	T	saiko kaikki nää ylös ↑ (.) saiko ↑ (.) mä otan pois=
91	LF3	=>emmä ainakaa<=
92	T	=aha selvä ↑
93		(..)
94	T	SEURAAVA TEHTÄVÄ oli se et sun piti keksiä omia <b>lauseita</b> käyttäen näitä adverbeja (.) siitä voit jatkaa (.)

In Example 18, the teacher finishes the episode by asking *kysyttävää vielä (.)* (any further questions) (line 159). The pupils do not give any verbal response to this, and the teacher says herself *ei* (no) (line 160). The teacher apparently interprets the pupils' silence as a sign that they do not have any questions. After checking that the pupils have understood the previous task the teacher moves on to the next one by saying *sitte siirrytää kappaleeseen kaksikymmentäviis ↑ (..) so please take out your textbooks* (then let's move to chapter 25 so please take out your textbooks) (line 161). Similarly, in Example 19, the teacher checks whether the pupils have managed to write down the correct answers, which the teacher has on the transparency (line 91). LF3, however, says that he is still writing them down. Consequently, the teacher, after acknowledging LF3's response, gives the pupils more time to finish copying the structures (lines 93-4). After the pause the teacher moves on to the next episode, in which the pupils will work individually, saying *SEURAAVA TEHTÄVÄ oli se et sun piti keksiä omia lauseita käyttäen näitä adverbeja (.) siitä voit jatkaa (.)* (in the next exercise you have to form your own sentences by using these adverbs (.) now you can continue with them) (line 94). In these cases, the closing phase is that part of the episode where the teacher first makes sure that the pupils have no further questions and then orients the pupils towards the next episode.

In addition to checking whether the pupils have further questions and orienting them towards the next episode, the teacher may give an evaluation of the previous activity in the closing phase, as illustrated by Example 20:

EXAMPLE 20 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 8		
168	T	oliko jollain kaikki oikein (.)
169	T	kenellä oli vähintään kolme oikein (.)
170	T	joo-o ↑ (.)
171	T	kenellä oli ainakin yksi oikein (.)
172	T	joo
173	T	hyvä
174	T	sitten on pitänyt kirjoittaa lauseita englanniksi

Example 20 is from an episode with homework on the structure *to be able to* in focus. At the beginning of this closing phase, the teacher checks how well the pupils have succeeded in doing their homework by asking *oliko jollain kaikki oikein (.) kenellä oli vähintään kolme oikein (.) kenellä oli ainakin yksi oikein (.)* (did anybody get all the exercises correct (.) who had at least three correct (.) who had at least one correct (.) (lines 168-9 and 171). The pupils answer by raising their hands, and the teacher acknowledges these responses (lines 170 and 172). After this the teacher evaluates the activity just completed by saying *hyvä* (good) (line 173) and moves on to the next episode by remarking *sitten on pitänyt kirjoittaa lauseita englanniksi* (then you were supposed to have written sentences in English) (line 174).

*Closing phase consisting of explicit reference to the next task.* Another possibility is for the teacher to use the English textbook or the handouts she has given to the pupils to mark the change from one episode to another. In these cases, neither any particular words nor overt evaluation is used to mark the change to the next exercise. Consider Example 21:

EXAMPLE 21 Episode 15. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 15		
300	T	<b>täytyikö</b> minun nukkua nyt
301	LF5	[did I have]
302	LF2	[did I have to]
303	LM2	LM4 hei
304	T	mm (.)
305	T	SITTE KATOTAAS (.) KIRJASTA tehtävä mitä voit vielä tehdä

In Episode 15, the teacher and the pupils go through the homework. At the beginning of Sequence 15, the teacher reads aloud the sentence in Finnish (line 300). LF5 and LF2 translate it simultaneously into English (lines 301-2) and the teacher accepts the correct response (line 304). The new episode focuses on grammar too, but now the pupils are supposed to work individually. The teacher marks the transition from the previous teacher-led activity to the new episode by switching teaching materials. She directs the pupils' attention to the textbook by saying *SITTE KATOTAAS (.) KIRJASTA tehtävä mitä voit vielä tehdä* (then let's find another exercise in your textbooks) (line 305).

In the closing phase the teacher may also explicitly say that the exercise has come to an end and that they are going to start a new exercise. In addition



to checking whether the pupils have finished the exercises, the teacher can ask general questions concerning the difficulty of the tasks. This is the case, in particular, when she has fixed the date of the next exam and she wants to know whether the pupils need further practice to prepare for it. Example 22 illustrates this:

EXAMPLE 22 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

333	T	saitteko valmiiks ↑
334	LF2	joo ei saatu
335		(..)
336	T	tarvisk- tarvitsisko lisätehtäviä tästä asiasta
337	LL	[joo ei]
338	LM	[ei]
339	LF2	no EEII pikkasen kuitenkin
340	T	katotaa keskiviikkona ja perjantaina sitte
341	LF1	sais jotain selvää
342	LM6	onks meil koe perjantaina
343	T	on ↑ (.) perjantaina koe ↑
344	LM2	ei kai nää tu kokeeseen
345	T	<b>kyllä</b> ↑
346	T	sitte unohdetaan kielioppi hetkeksi
347	T	kuunnellaan erilaisia käskyjä ja kieltoja sivulta kaksiyksiseitsemän ↑

The teacher and the pupils are about to complete the activity of going through the homework. In Example 22, the teacher first checks whether the pupils have finished copying the correct answers from the transparency (line 333). LF2 answers that she has not finished yet, and thus the teacher gives the pupils more time before moving on to the next task (lines 334-5). The teacher then wants to know whether the pupils need some extra exercises on this particular topic (line 336). She apparently wants to make sure that the pupils have understood the grammar point, because they are going to do an exam on it soon. Though the teacher does not get a very clear answer from the pupils, she informs the learners that they will have extra exercises later on that week by saying *katotaa keskiviikkona ja perjantaina sitte* (let's look at the exercises on Wednesday and Friday) (line 340). After this LM6 requests a confirmation whether the exam will be on Friday (line 342), and the teacher confirms this (line 343). Next, LM2 wants to know if the grammar point they have practised during that episode is included in the exam and the teacher confirms this too (line 344-5). At this point the teacher seems to want to put an end to the discussion about the exam and explicitly informs the pupils that next they are going to do something else by saying *sitte unohdetaan kielioppi hetkeksi* (let's forget the grammar for a while) (line 346). Only after this does the teacher move on to the next episode by saying *kuunnellaan erilaisia käskyjä ja kieltoja sivulta kaksiyksiseitsemän ↑* (let's listen to different imperative forms and negative imperatives from page 217 onwards) (line 347).

### 7.1.3.2 Closing phase at the end of the lesson

As noted above, the structure and the content of the closing phase is affected by the place of the episode within the lesson. If the episode is at the end of the lesson, an important part of its closure concerns the teacher's instructions for the homework. In addition, the closing phase can be initiated both by the teacher or the pupils. In examining the data, I have identified such closing phases as *closing phases initiated by the teacher* and *those initiated by the pupils*.

**Closing phase initiated by the teacher.** As was mentioned above, the place of the closing phase within the lesson has an effect on the structure of the closing phase. When the closing of the episode also marks the closing of the lesson, it comprises the teacher's instructions for the next lesson. In other words, in these cases the main focus of the closing phase is on the teacher's setting the homework. Example 23 illustrates the teacher's short instructions for the next lesson:

EXAMPLE 23 Episode 2. Lesson 1. Old grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 9		
81	T	KOTIIN SUOMENTAA KAPPALE KAKSKYTVIIS JA TEHTÄVÄ KAKSITOISTA
82	LF1	miten tää tehää=
83	LF2	=MITÄ TULI
84	LF1	tää

Just before this example the teacher and the pupils have finished the last exercise of Episode 2. Instead of marking the closing of the episode with particular words, the teacher here simply tells the pupils what they are supposed to do for the next lesson in a loud voice (line 81). LF1 and LF2 still want to confirm the homework, but the teacher does not respond to their inquiries any more. In the end, LF1 helps LF2 to find the correct chapter and exercise (line 84).

**Closing phase initiated by the pupils.** Even though it is usually the teacher who initiates the closing phase in this class, the pupils may also do this by asking about the homework. Consider Example 24, which is from an episode focusing on a new grammar point:

EXAMPLE 24 Episode 5. Lesson 3. New grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 4		
22 lines omitted from the sequence		
71	LM5	mitä sitte
72	LL	(xx)
73	LF2	pitääks nää tehä himas valmiiks
74	T	ja (.) jos kenelt jäi lauseet kesken ei tarv tehä kotona taululla on kotitehtävät
75	LF	hei meil on hissaa

Just before Example 24 the teacher has introduced the pupils to the formation of adverbs and they have started to form sentences including this new grammar

point. At the beginning of Example 24, LM5 indicates that he has written the sentences by saying *mitä sitte* (then what) (line 71). LF2 apparently notices that it is time to end the lesson, because she refers to the homework by asking *pitääks nää tehä himas valmiiks* (should we complete these exercises at home) (line 73). The teacher immediately responds to this by saying *ja (.) jos kenelt jäi lauseet kesken ei tarvi tehä kotona taululla on kotitehtävät* (if somebody didn't finish the sentences it is not necessary to do them at home the homework is on the blackboard) (line 74). Here again the end of the lesson is marked by the instructions for the homework.

In the examples above the pupils seem to comply with the teacher's closure and orient themselves either towards the next task or towards the end of the lesson. However, the pupils may indicate their disagreement, especially on the amount of homework, in which case their comments and further questions may prolong the closing phase, as in Example 25:

EXAMPLE 25 Episode 7. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 7		
75	LF1	KOTITEHTÄVÄ
76	LF	(xx)
77	T	SANAT kaksikutosesta
78	LM1	no huh (.) mitä sitte
79	T	sitte niitä sairauksia sieltä kirjasta ↑ (.) [kaksukuutonen] kappaleesta
80	LF	[ai ykkönen]
81	LF1	täh ei
82	T	joo ↑
83	LM	tä
84	T	ykkönen ↑
85	LM1	ai ykkönen toi (.) aa ja bee
86	T	aa (.) [ja] bee
87	LM1	[no]
88	LF2	>tuleeks toi kakkonen<
89	T	ja kakkonen yhdistät mitä lääkäri sanoo ja mitä se tekee sille asialle
90	LF2	no ku ei sit pysty tekemää mä oon huomannu
91	T	pystyy se on alotettu hassusti (.) eli BEE SARAKKEESSA on että mitä se lääkäri tekee ↑ (.) ja seessä on että mistä vaivasta on kyse ↑ (.) sun pitää yhdistää lääkärin tekeminen ja lääkärin [diagnoosi]
92	LF2	[kumpaa meil on perjantaina]
93	T	ruotsia

In Example 25, the teacher starts to close the episode by starting to tell the pupils about the homework (lines 75-7). LM1 comments immediately on this by saying *no huh (.) mitä sitten* (well huh then what) (line 78). He apparently wants to indicate by his comment that learning the words of Chapter 26 is already enough. However, the teacher continues to give more homework (line 79). LM1 resists this by saying *täh ei* (what no) (line 81), but the teacher argues back by saying *joo* (yes) (line 82) and by mentioning the number of the exercise (lines 84). After this LM1 requests clarification and the teacher confirms the exercises in question (lines 85-6). Simultaneously with the teacher's clarification LM1 says *no* (line 87), thus apparently indicating that there is too much homework. In addition, LF2 checks whether the second exercise is included in the homework by asking

>*tuleeks toi kakkonen*< (how about that second one) (line 88). In response, the teacher confirms that it is required and explains what the pupils are supposed to do in that exercise by saying *ja kakkonen yhdistät mitä lääkäri sanoo ja mitä se tekee sille asialle* (and in the second one you have to connect the doctor's words to his actions) (line 89). However, LF2 remarks that she has noticed that it is impossible to do the second exercise (line 90). The teacher therefore explains more thoroughly how the exercise is supposed to be done (line 91). Before the teacher has managed to finish her explanation, LF2 asks whether they have Swedish or English on Friday, and the teacher answers (lines 92-23).

To sum up, it is evident that the nature of the closing phase is affected by its place within the English lesson. When the closing phase is in the middle of the lesson, it may often consist of just a few words or even only one word to mark a switch from one episode to another. In addition, the teacher may add an evaluation of the activity that has just been finished. The teacher in the classroom situation under study may check whether the pupils have any further questions concerning the previous task before initiating the next episode. Furthermore, the transition to the next activity may be explicitly indicated by the teacher, especially if the previous activity has concerned grammar and the next one will be about vocabulary. The teacher may also indicate the change by switching teaching materials. When the closing phase of the episode is at the end of the lesson, it simultaneously brings the lesson to a close. Accordingly, the main part of the closing phase at the end of the lesson consists of the teacher's instructions for the homework. The learner may also initiate the closing phase or prolong it by resisting the teacher's assignment of homework.

#### 7.1.4 Summary

The aim of this section was to answer the first research question: How are the grammar instructional episodes of the L2 lesson organised in the classroom context? In other words, the purpose was to illuminate the general organisation of the grammar episodes, which together with the vocabulary episodes make up the L2 lessons of the present data. In particular, the focus was on the teacher's talk in organising the grammar instructional episodes, which are nonetheless co-constructed together by the teacher and the learners.

It is evident from the data that, as in the organisation of a lesson described by Mehan (1979), grammar instructional episodes are organised sequentially as they unfold through time from beginning to end. In other words, grammar instructional episodes are framed, and thus separated from the other parts of the lesson by the verbal behaviour of the participants. More specifically, the analysis shows that grammar instructional episodes in this study consist of three parts. These are *the opening phase*, *the grammar instructional phase* and *the closing phase*. Each of these phases has a structure characteristic of the teaching-learning process.

Although the three phases can be identified in all the grammar instructional episodes, both the structure and especially the length of the phases

vary significantly depending on the context in which the episodes occur within the language lesson as a whole. More specifically, the nature of the phases is affected by its place in the lesson, that is, whether the particular grammar instructional episode is at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the lesson. In addition, the main focus of the episode has an effect on its overall organisation: the episodes with new grammar points in focus and those where the teacher and the learners revise grammar points that have been dealt with in the previous lessons have different structures in the present data.

In the opening phase of the grammar episode, the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the next exercise. During the opening phase the teacher may also briefly revise the previous grammar points. If the episode is not opened simultaneously across the whole group, the teacher tries to create a shared intersubjectivity and to orient the pupils towards the next task. Before starting to work on the next task the teacher wants to make sure that the participants have the same definition of the situation. On these occasions there may be competing discussions going on at the same time. Such competition involves the teacher and usually only some of the pupils, who may participate in several discussions of their off-task activities. In order to establish a shared focus for the activity the teacher ignores the pupils' inappropriate remarks and continues the official discussion of the task in hand. The teacher may also ask the pupils to participate in the joint task by directing questions at them and by continuing to introduce the next exercise. However, if the pupils go on with their unofficial discussions despite the teacher's remarks, the teacher may have to put an end to the pupils' talk at some point by explicitly ordering them to focus on the task in hand. In this class, however, the pupils usually start to orient themselves towards the next task when the teacher indicates the start of a new episode by using words like *elikkä* (so) or *sitte* (next). Importantly, the teacher may also show different orientations towards the class. To be precise, she may treat the class as one group as when using the expression *let's start* or she may emphasise that everyone has his or her own homework to do by using the expression *your homework*.

The length of the opening phase is affected by its place within the English lesson. If the opening of the grammar instructional episode also marks the opening of the lesson, it is typically fairly long. In addition, the opening of an episode focusing on new grammar points tends to last longer than that of an episode with old grammar points in focus.

The grammar instructional phase is the core of the grammar episode. During this phase the main task is made the focus of attention and it is also then completed by the participants. Typically, the teacher starts a grammar instructional phase with old grammar points in focus by reading aloud the questions one by one without any specific instructions. In addition, in a grammar instructional phase with old grammar points in focus, the teacher does not usually revise the grammar rules in great detail. However, if a complicated grammar point is in question, the teacher may revise the grammar

rule before checking the pupils' homework. This is done in order to foreground some important elements in the homework.

If the main focus is on new grammar points, the teacher typically revises the already given grammar rules before introducing the learners to the new grammar point in question. The length of the revision, however, varies considerably depending on the complexity of the new grammar point. Instead of revising the grammar rules herself, the teacher may start the grammar instructional phase by referring to the textbook. In other words, the teacher may ask the pupils to read about the grammar point in question in their own textbooks. The teacher may alternatively introduce the pupils to a new grammar point by asking them to read through sample sentences first in English and then translate them into Finnish. By means of these sentences the teacher foregrounds complicated elements of the new grammar point. Though the teacher usually introduces a new grammar point in the instructional phase by using different strategies, she may also start to go through the exercises immediately after the opening of the episode. In addition, for the purpose of focusing the learners' attention on the task in hand the teacher uses humour by commenting their unofficial discussions.

Finally, the grammar instructional episode comes to an end with a closing phase. The structure of this last phase is affected by its place within the lesson. If the closing phase is in the middle of the lesson, the teacher may use only a few words or even just one word to mark a transition from one episode to another. The teacher in this class may also add an evaluative statement about the activity that has just been completed by the participants. In addition, to make sure that the pupils have understood the grammar point they have gone through together she asks whether they have any further questions. She thus encourages the pupils to ask questions if they have problems with the exercises. The change from one episode to another may also be explicitly indicated by the teacher. This is especially the case when there is also a transition between teacher-fronted and individual work. The teacher may also mark the transition by switching teaching materials.

However, if the closing phase is at the end of the lesson, the lesson as a whole is brought to an end with it. The teacher spends a fairly long time telling the pupils about their homework. On these occasions the closing phase may also be prolonged by the pupils if they resist the teacher's instructions, especially concerning the amount of homework. The discussion will now move from the general organisation of the grammar episodes to look at the use of the IRF structure by the teacher and the pupils.

## **7.2 The sequential organisation of classroom discourse**

Grammar instructional episodes are embedded in the broader instructional contexts of a classroom, and they are shaped by the educational practices of that

setting. Consequently, the different instructional patterns of grammar episodes provide a basis for exploring the nature of the scaffolded assistance provided by a teacher. In the present study so far the aim has been to illuminate the three-part pattern of grammar instructional episodes, and thus the opening phase, the grammar instructional phase and the closing phase have been discussed in turn. The purpose of this section is to take a closer look at the sequential organisation of the spoken discourse (Wells 1996, 1999) between the teacher and pupils during the grammar instructional episodes. The focus of the analysis moves to the smaller building blocks of the co-construction of the episodes. More specifically, this section aims to answer the second research question: How is the *Initiation–Response–Follow-up* (IRF) structure exploited within the grammar instructional episodes? The focus will thus be on the internal organisation of the episodes and on the participants' talk, especially that of the teacher, in co-constructing classroom interaction.

As was pointed out in Chapter 6, the expansion of the traditional IRF sequence depends greatly on the nature of the teacher's initiation and even more on the choice of the follow-up. Therefore, when discussing the collaborative nature of the sequential organisation of classroom discourse, this section focuses, in particular, on the third move in the structure. The third move has often been labelled *Evaluate*, thus assuming that its main function is to evaluate the learner response that immediately precedes it (e.g. Cazden 1988, Mehan 1979). However, in examining the three-part exchange and its functions in classroom interaction some researchers have demonstrated that there are different options available to the participants in the third move (e.g. Nassaji and Wells 2000, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, Wells 1999, see also Cullen 2002, Jarvis and Robinson 1997). Based on previous studies of classroom discourse (e.g. Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975), two main roles of the follow-up move, that is, evaluative and discursal, are identified in the analysis of the use of the IRF sequence. In addition, different combinations of exchanges initiated with these follow-ups are examined. Section 7.2.1 examines the primarily evaluative role of the traditional IRF structure when not extended by the participants. Section 7.2.2, in contrast, focuses on extended IRF structures, that is, the discursal role of the follow-up moves. In Section 7.2.3, a short summary on the sequential organisation of classroom discourse is presented.

### **7.2.1 Evaluative role of the follow-up**

This section focuses on the basic IRF structure when not expanded, whose third move has primarily an evaluative role. In much of the discussion of *triadic dialogue* (Lemke 1990) it has been assumed that the typical function of the follow-up move is to evaluate the student response immediately preceding this third move. For example, in Mehan's (1979) study this three-part structure was labelled *Initiate-Response-Evaluate* (IRE). Based on the previous studies of classroom discourse (e.g. Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) this first part of the examination of the use of the IRF sequence focuses on the primarily

evaluative role of the third move, that is, on those exchanges that have not been extended by the participants.

In examining the simple IRF sequence in the data, I have distinguished such follow-ups as *follow-ups with simple acceptance* and *follow-ups with evaluation or emphasised acceptance*, the former type of follow-up indicating implicit evaluation and the latter explicit evaluation. In the former type of follow-up the teacher seems to want only to accept the preceding response and so they are labelled as simple acceptances. In the latter type of follow-up the teacher provides explicit evaluation or emphasised acceptance in the form of repetition of the learner's response.

**Follow-up with simple acceptance.** In the present data consisting of fifteen grammar instructional episodes there are only a few clearly evaluative follow-up moves that have not been expanded by the teacher or learners. In addition, most of these traditional three-part exchanges include only implicit evaluation by the teacher. In other words, in the third move of the structure the teacher simply acknowledges or accepts the learner's preceding response without any emphasis on evaluation. Example 26, from an episode with mainly new grammar points in focus, illustrates this:

EXAMPLE 26 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 10						
79	T	nyt mejän pitäis katsoa kuinka niille tehdään kaikki muut aikamuodot (.) ja se alkaa sillä että kerrataan olla verbin aikamuotojen käyttöä (.)	nuc	I	D	ms
80	T	kuinkas sanot imperfektissä että: <minä olin nuori> (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
81	T	LM3 ↑	prep	R	G	nom
82	LM3	I was young	nuc	R	G	info
83	T	mm (.)	nuc	F	A	acc
84	T	miten sanot (.) <b>sinä</b> olit nuori (.)	dep	I	D	req.info
85	T	LM8	prep	R	G	nom
86	LM8	you were (.) young	dep	R	G	info
87	T	mm (.)	dep	F	A	acc
88	T	kuinkas tulee (.) <b>hän</b> oli nuori ↑ (.)	dep	I	D	req.info
89	T	LF6	prep	R	G	nom
90	LF6	she was young	dep	R	G	info
91	T	mm (.)	dep	F	A	acc
92		(..)				
93	T	kuinkas monikossa me olimme nuoria ↑ (.)	dep	I	D	req.info
94	T	LM4	prep	R	G	nom
95	LM4	we were young	dep	R	G	info
96	T	mm (.)	dep	F	A	acc

(11 lines omitted from the sequence; see Example 112)

Example 26 is part of a longer episode where the learners are presented with a new grammar point. The teacher opens the sequence by introducing the next focus of the lesson, that is, the formation of the tenses other than the present one, of modal auxiliaries. She informs the class that before practising the tenses of modal verbs they are going to revise those of the verb *to be* (line 79). In other



words, before presenting the new grammar point the teacher wants to provide the learners with a firm context based on earlier lessons. In this way she seeks to relate the new grammar point to the previous ones as well as the different sequences of the lesson to each other. After this metastatement the teacher starts to go through the different tenses of the verb *to be* in all the different finite forms. First, she asks questions (lines 80, 84, 88 and 93) and selects the next speakers from those who have raised their hands to bid for a turn (lines 81, 85, 89 and 94). After the learners' responses (lines 82, 86, 90 and 95) she gives her follow-up comments. The learners' responses are correct and the dialogue between the teacher and the learners proceeds fluently without any problems. Thus, the teacher seems to think that there is no need for her to give any separate evaluation of every response. She simply accepts the learners' answers by saying *mm* in a neutral low falling intonation (lines 83, 87, 91 and 96). By her response she means to indicate her acknowledgement and acceptance of the answers.

The structure of the exchanges is the simple IRF without any extensions. Furthermore, on the scale of prospectiveness the exchanges correspond to the basic exchange type D-G-A. Accordingly, each question by the teacher (lines 80, 84, 88 and 93) requires a response (D move), which the learners provide immediately after the questions (G) (lines 82, 86, 90 and 95). The nomination of the next speaker contributes also to a *give* (G) move, since in this particular situation the teacher gives the learners permission to speak only after bidding for a turn. Next, the teacher accepts the responses with her follow-ups (lines 83, 87, 91 and 96). Thus, she makes *acknowledgement* (A) moves, which are the least prospective on the scale and do not require any further turn from any of the interlocutors. In other words, the exchanges can close with the teacher's follow-ups and no further contribution to the exchanges is expected.

It is typical of classroom interaction that more than one pupil gives his or her contribution to the ongoing discourse simultaneously. Also, as was illustrated in Section 7.1, there is often both an official and an unofficial conversation in progress. However, even when it is a question of a simple three-part exchange structure, where the teacher only accepts the previous response without any further extension, the fast-paced nature of classroom discourse is evident. Consider Example 27:

EXAMPLE 27 Episode 15. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 15						
300	T	täytyikö minun nukkua nyt	nuc	I	D	req.info
301	LF5	[did I have to]	nuc	R	G	info
302	LF2	[did I have to]	nuc	R	G	info
303	LM2	LM4 hei				
304	T	mm (.)	nuc	F	A	acc

Example 27 is the last sequence of Episode 15, where the participants have their focus on the revision of the structure *to have to*. After the teacher's question both LF5 and LF2 give their responses simultaneously by saying *did I have to* (lines

301-2). The pupils in this class typically respond to the teacher's elicits without bidding for a turn. Sometimes, but not often, the teacher expects them to raise their hands. In Example 26, the teacher and the pupils revise an old grammar point and the pupils seem to know what is required. Thus, the teacher accepts the pupils' joint responses without further comments. It is possible that the teacher regards the pupils' behaviour as a positive sign of their enthusiasm. The exchange can be described with the simple structures IRF and D-G-A, where the expectations of the previous moves are fulfilled.

Even though the complete IRF structure is typically expected in the classroom context, this does not, however, mean that every exchange always closes with an overt *acknowledgement* (A) move by the teacher. In fact, it often does not in the triadic dialogues of the present study. Instead, the teacher may initiate the next task right after a learner's response to the previous one, as illustrated by the first sequence of Example 28:

EXAMPLE 28 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 5						
50	T	LF6 ↑	nuc/ prep	I	D	req.info nom
51	LF2	(xx)				
52	LF6	eeh I've done all the shopping	nuc	R	G	info
SEQUENCE 6						
53	T	LM1	nuc/ prep	I	D	req.info nom
54	LM1	and <i>run</i> without shopping (.) run	nuc	R	G	info
55	T	mm (.)	nuc	F	A	acc

In this example, where the main focus is on old grammar points, the learners go through their homework with the teacher. The teacher asks the learners to read aloud the sentences one by one. The participants involved are quite familiar with the procedure, which naturally affects the nature of the sequences. Because of this familiarity, the teacher only has to mention the learner's names (lines 50 and 53) and they know that they are expected to read aloud the next sentence (lines 52 and 54). Importantly, the teacher does not need to provide the learners with any overt follow-up after the correct response. Instead, she can go on with the exercise and nominate the next speaker (lines 52-3). In these types of exchange the teacher's nonverbal feedback is enough to fulfil the expectations of the other parties. The learners interpret the lack of the verbal follow-up as an indication of the teacher's acceptance. In other words, the IR structure with no overt question or follow-up comment is effective enough to keep the classroom discourse in progress and no problems in communication arise. On the scale of prospectiveness this is described by the exchange type D-G, where the learner's response is a *give* (G). It expects but does not require a response, that is, the teacher's follow-up move is not necessarily needed.

Although the follow-up move is not always required, it is often provided by the teacher in the classroom context. Apart from simply acknowledging and accepting the learners' responses, with her follow-up moves the teacher can also

direct the learners attention to the matters that require more thought instead of the issues which can be ignored in that particular situation. Consider Example 29, which comes from an episode focusing on the revision of old grammar points:

EXAMPLE 29 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 11						
70	T	LF4 please	nuc/ prep	I	D	req.info nom
71	LF4	eeh and lost his pipe in the <i>hall</i>	nuc	R	G	info
72	LF1	(xx)mä en välttämättä (xx) mitä siel tapahtu				
(Sequences 12-16 omitted from the example)						
SEQUENCE 17						
109	T	and then (.) LM9 ↑	nuc/ prep	I	D	req.info nom
110		(..)				
111	LM9	eeh and so I have <i>thrown</i> it on	nuc	R	G	info
112	T	that's it	nuc	F	A	acc

In Example 29, taken from the same Episode 3 as Example 28, the teacher and the learners work on their homework. The teacher selects the next speaker and indicates that LF4 (line 70) and LM9 (line 109) should read the next sentence. In both sequences the learners' responses include pronunciation errors. LF4 pronounces the noun *hall* incorrectly (line 71) and LM9 the verb *thrown* (line 111). However, in neither sequence does the teacher respond to these pronunciation errors. Sequence 11 comprises the overt structure of IR and Sequence 17 the complete three-part structure IRF. In other words, in the former of these sequences the teacher does not give any verbal response to the learner's response and in the latter she accepts the learner's response with its error (line 112). None of the learners react to these errors either. Thus, the episode proceeds without any extensions to the IRF structures. Example 29 also illustrates how the orientations of the teacher and the learners towards the sequences are the same. The teacher has established a shared focus on the activity, that is, solving grammar problems, and her choice of follow-ups confirms this. Again, on the scale of prospectiveness, the exchanges of this example are described by the exchange types D-G and D-G-A, respectively.

***Follow-up with evaluation or emphasised acceptance.*** The follow-up moves discussed so far have been only slightly evaluative. That is, they have involved the teacher accepting the learners' responses without any overt emphasis on evaluation. However, when examining the sequences of the present data, the follow-up move of the three-part IRF structure was also found to consist of explicit evaluation or emphasised acceptance. Example 30 illustrates explicitly evaluative follow-up moves:

## EXAMPLE 30 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 9						
74	T	entäpä <ärsyttävästi> (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
75	T	LM5	prep	I	D	nom
76		(..)				
77	LM5	mm (.) annoyingly	nuc	R	G	info
78	T	mm (.) hyvä (.)	nuc	F	A	eval.pos
SEQUENCE 10						
79	T	<salaisesti> (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
80	T	LF1	prep	I	D	nom
81	LF1	mm >secretly<	nuc	R	G	info
82	T	hyvä ↑ (.)	nuc	F	A	eval.pos

Example 30 is from an episode during which the teacher and the learners revise the formation of adverbs. At the beginning of both sequences, the teacher elicits responses from the learners by saying the adverbs first in Finnish and then the learners are expected to translate them into English (lines 74 and 79). Next, the teacher nominates the pupils she wants to respond. The pupils in this class sometimes raise their hands to bid for a turn. If, however, no immediate response occurs, which is often the case, or if the teacher wants a particular pupil to respond, she nominates the pupil who is to answer, as in Example 30. Thus, the teacher indicates to the selected learners that their contributions to the ongoing discussions are required. After LM5 and LF1 have given the appropriate answers (lines 77 and 81) the teacher evaluates the responses by saying *hyvä* (good) (lines 78 and 82). In addition, in Sequence 10, the teacher evaluates the answer with a high rising tone to express interest and acceptance, apparently wishing to emphatically praise the learner's response (line 82).

The two sequences in Example 30 have the same structure, that is, the typical IRF structure, with the teacher contributing a *demand* (D) move in the first move and an *acknowledgement* (A) move in the third. None of the participants step up the prospectiveness, and thus no further extensions are needed. Accordingly, immediately after having evaluated the previous response the teacher reads aloud the next adverb in Finnish (line 79).

In addition to simple evaluation, the evaluative follow-ups in the IRF structure can include the teacher's repetition of individual pupils' contributions. Repetition is a time-honoured way of acknowledging a pupil's response, and confirming it as acceptable. With an emphasised acceptance, that is, by repeating or reformulating the learner's response, the teacher may also direct the pupils attention to some particular point in the target structure. Furthermore, by repeating the pupil's answer the teacher can ensure that all the pupils have heard it. Repetition of the learners' responses can be used in a number of ways, and it is also a guidance strategy frequently used by the teacher in the classroom situation under study. Consider Example 31, where the focus is on new grammar points:

EXAMPLE 31 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 6						
55	T	kuinka sanot <b>saan</b> tiskata (..)	nuc	I	D	req.info
56	T	saan tiskata ↑	nuc	I	D	req.info rep
57	T	LF6	prep	R	G	nom
58	LF6	se on (.) I may: (.) [wash up]	nuc	R	G	info
59	T	[wash up] mm	nuc	F	A	acc
SEQUENCE 7						
60	T	mikä on se apuverbi joka tarkoittaa (.) ss <osata voida> tehdä jotakin (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
61	T	LM3	prep	R	G	nom
62	LM3	can	nuc	R	G	info
63	T	se on can verbi	nuc	F	A	acc
SEQUENCE 8						
64	T	mikäs oli se saada olla lupa tehdä jotakin ↑ (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
65	T	LM7	prep	R	G	nom
66	LM7	may	nuc	R	G	info
67	T	se oli may . (.)	nuc	F	A	acc
(Sequence 9 and the beginning of Sequence 10 omitted; see Examples 62 and 112)						
SEQUENCE 10 (the last exchange of the sequence)						
101	T	<mitä> (.) millon käytetään wassia (.)	dep	I	D	req.info
102	T	LF2 ↑	prep	I	D	nom
103	LF2	yksikön ekaa ja kolmosee	dep	R	G	info
104	T	mm	dep	F	A	acc
105	T	eli muistetaan että minä (.) ja hän (.) se oli se was (.)	dep	F	G	clar
106	T	tää oli imperfekti	dep	F	G	clar

This example contains several questions by the teacher concerning verb tenses. The teacher opens the exchanges by asking questions (lines 55, 60, 64 and 101) and selecting the next speakers from among those pupils who have raised their hands (lines 56, 61, 65 and 102). The discussion then proceeds smoothly with the correct responses by the learners (lines 57, 62, 66 and 103). In Sequences 6, 7 and 8, the teacher evaluates the responses positively by simply repeating them. In addition, by repeating the modal verb the teacher picks up an issue that she wants the pupils to pay attention to (lines 63 and 66). Furthermore, in the last exchange of Sequence 10, the teacher clarifies and emphasises the pupil's answer by reformulating it (line 105). She also summarises the whole sequence by repeating the name of the tense in question (line 106). As in the previous examples, the structure of the exchanges corresponds to that of the simple IRF. On the scale of prospectiveness they are also represented by the basic exchange type D-G-A. However, in the last exchange (lines 101-106) the teacher's follow-up move is longer than required. In other words, in addition to simply accepting the previous reply, the teacher emphasises the learner's response by reformulating it and summarising the whole grammar point.

When the teacher evaluates a learner's contribution with her follow-up move she can also, while still only fulfilling the expectations of the preceding move and not initiating a further dependent exchange, elaborate the learner's response. With her slight elaboration of a learner's answer the teacher is able to

correct an aspect that is not the main focus in the exchange and still evaluate positively an individual learner's contribution. Consider Example 32:

EXAMPLE 32 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 2						
28	T	OSAA:N (.) eikäko <b>saan</b> mennä elokuviin (.) perjantaina (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
29	T	LM2	prep	R	G	nom
30	LM2	I may go to the (.) movies Friday night	nuc	R	G	info
31	T	mm (.) <b>on</b> Friday night (.)	nuc	F	A G	acc info

In Example 32, the teacher and LM2 practise the new grammar point that deals with modal verbs in different tenses. After the teacher's initiating question (line 28) and her nomination of the next speaker (line 29) LM2 gives his response (line 30). The preposition *on* is missing but otherwise the translation is correct. However, in this particular context the teacher chooses only to accept the learner's answer with the minimal response *mm*, to repeat the answer and to add the missing preposition herself (line 31). In other words, the teacher does not expect the learner to correct the error himself. With her choice of the third move the teacher can both accept the learner's contribution and correct it without losing the main focus of the episode. Accordingly, the three-part structure of Example 32 is IRF. On the scale of prospectiveness, however, the structure corresponds to the exchange type D-G-G, where the teacher makes a *give* (G) move in the third move of the structure. Nevertheless, her follow-up does not require any further response from the learner and it can be considered to close the sequence.

All the examples so far have involved a learner giving at least a nearly complete answer, and so the teacher's task has been to only accept the answer. In some cases, however, the teacher in this classroom may provide the pupils with the complete response or a crucial part of it including it in her evaluative follow-up move, as illustrated by Example 33:

EXAMPLE 33 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 10						
178	T	<b>Liisan</b> oli täytynyt tiskata (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
179	T	LM3	prep	I	D	nom
180	LM3	Liisa had had (.) tiskata	nuc	R	G	info
181	T	mm (.) to wash up mm (.)	nuc	F	A G	acc info

This example is from an episode where the teacher introduces the pupils to a new grammar point, that is, the other way of saying the auxiliary verb *must*. At the beginning of the sequence, the teacher elicits a response from the learners by reading the sentence aloud in Finnish (line 178) and by nominating the next speaker (line 179). The pupil gives a response that is incomplete. That is, he does not translate the complete sentence into English. Instead, he provides the

main verb in Finnish by saying *Liisa had had (.) tiskata (Liisa had had (.) to wash up)* (line 180). However, in this particular context the teacher does not think the learner's incomplete answer to be an indirect challenge requiring further assistance. Instead of providing any further assisting questions the teacher accepts the beginning of the learner's answer and completes it herself (line 181). The main point of the translation is correct in the learner's answer, and this seems to be enough for the teacher. Thus, the traditional three-part exchange structure IRF is present also in this sequence. First of all, the teacher makes a *demand* (D) move by asking the question and requiring an answer from LM3, who does not raise his hand. Secondly, LM3 makes a *give* (G) move and responds, though incompletely, to the question. Finally, the teacher makes a *give* (G) move where only *acknowledgement* (A) is expected. However, as was also the case in Example 32, a *give* (G) move does not require a further contribution and the sequence closes with the teacher's follow-up.

To summarise, the most typical exchange structure in the classroom has been found to be the three-part IRF structure with teacher initiation, pupil response and teacher follow-up (e.g. Wells 1999). This is also a prevalent structure in the present classroom situation. Furthermore, it has been observed that the follow-up move, when the structure is not expanded by further exchanges, is typically evaluative (e.g. Mehan 1979). On the scale of prospectiveness, this simple structure is described by the basic exchange type D-G-A, where the teacher *demands* (D move) an answer that the learner *gives* (G) and which, in turn, the teacher *acknowledges* (A). However, the nature of the evaluative third move can vary in different contexts. In the classroom situation under study, instead of being explicitly evaluative the teacher's follow-up may indicate only implicit evaluation. In other words, the teacher may provide follow-ups with simple acceptance. When the teacher and the learners go through exercises that the latter seem to master, the teacher's minimal acceptance with *mm* is enough to keep the interaction in progress. The teacher's follow-up indicates both acknowledgement and implicit evaluation. Though the overt IRF structure is usually expected in the classroom, the teacher's follow-up can also be nonverbal or even be completely missing from the structure. Furthermore, the teacher in this class uses repetition to ensure that everybody has heard the previous response and to indicate that the learner's contribution is appropriate. That is, the teacher provides follow-ups with emphasised acceptance. In particular, by repeating one part of the preceding move the teacher emphasises the grammar point that she wants the pupils to pay attention to. In addition, in her follow-up the teacher can reformulate slightly the pupil's response to make it clearer for everyone. While the focus is still on the grammar point the teacher can also slightly extend the pupil's answer by correcting small errors in the follow-up. Sometimes, but seldom, the teacher provides the correct response or part of it herself in the follow-up move. The exchange type is then D-G-G, according to which the teacher gives information in her follow-up. However, a *give* (G) move does not require any expansion, only expects it, and so the exchange can be closed.

## 7.2.2 Discoursal role of the follow-up

This section focuses on IRF structures that have been extended by the teacher or learners (e.g. Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, see also Cullen 2002, Jarvis and Robinson 1997, Nassaji and Wells 2000, Wells 1999). The discoursal role of the follow-up move is qualitatively different from its evaluative role. The purpose is to pick up learners' responses and, as Mercer (1995:26) points out, to incorporate their contributions into the flow of classroom discourse in order to sustain and develop a dialogue between the teacher and the class. Though the teacher often gives implicit feedback by reformulating the learner's response into a more acceptable form, there is seldom explicit correction of the utterance. More importantly, though evaluation is certainly the dominant function of the third move, there is a wide range of expressive possibilities in exploiting the IRF routine with dependent exchanges. In other words, the follow-up move within a sequence in progress can, at any point after the initiating move in an exchange, be extended by the interlocutors by using any of several different strategies. In examining the discoursal role of the follow-up, I have succeeded in identifying such dependent exchanges as *dependent exchanges initiated by the teacher's grammar extension*, *dependent exchanges initiated by the teacher's request for a further explanation*, *dependent exchanges initiated by the teacher after a learner's incomplete answer*, *dependent exchanges initiated by the teacher after the learners' silence*, *dependent exchanges initiated by a learner* and *dependent exchanges closed by a learner's acknowledgement*.

***Dependent exchange initiated by the teacher's grammar extension.*** Due to the nature of the present episodes, that is, grammar instructional episodes, the teacher in the classroom situation under study often extends her preceding follow-up move. Because the teacher's main goal in the present teacher-led grammar lessons is to help the pupils to understand the grammar rules of the English language, she often provides the learners with extended grammar explanations. By these extensions she emphasises the focus of the ongoing lesson, as in Example 34:

EXAMPLE 34 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 16						
272	T	sitten Suomessa ↑ (.) et saa ajaa ennen kuin on (.) ennen kuin on kahdeksantoista vuotta (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
273	T	kuka (.) osais (.)	nuc	I	D	pro
274	T	onko LM7:lla	prep	I	D	nom
275		(..)				
276	LM7	<in Finland you may not drive a car until you are eighteen>	nuc	R	G	info
277	T	mm you may not (..)	nuc	F	A	acc
278	T	tai you are not allowed to	dep	I	G	ext
279	LF1	ai mikä se toinen vaihtoehto oli	dep	R I	D	req.info
280	T	you may not drive a car (.) in Finland (.) you may not (.) or you are not allowed to	dep	R	G	info



This example is from an episode where the teacher and the learners go through homework on the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. The teacher starts on the next sentence for translation by reading it aloud in Finnish (line 272). However, because the mere reading of the sentence followed by a pause does not elicit any responses from the learners, the teacher first prompts the pupils to raise their hands (line 273) and then nominates the next speaker, LM7 (line 274). After a pause LM7 then gives the correct answer (line 276), which the teacher accepts by repeating it (line 277). Interestingly, however, the teacher does not move on to the next sentence, but starts a new dependent exchange by presenting the alternative *you are not allowed to* (line 278). The repetition of the pupil's response and presentation of an alternative serve as a way of contrasting the form with which the pupils are already familiar with the new form. That is, the teacher contrasts the form *you may not drive* with the new form *you are not allowed to drive*. In this context the new form is the preferred one. Thus, she draws the learners' attention more directly to the main focus of the lesson. Furthermore, the teacher's mention of the alternative seems to awaken an interest in these grammatical forms in another pupil, LF1, which leads her to request a repetition of the alternative (line 279). Finally, the teacher's response to LF1 closes the sequence (line 280).

In Example 34 above the basic IRF structure is extended by further dependent exchanges. The teacher's first question starts the nuclear exchange (line 272) and together with her prompt and nomination of the next speaker constitutes a *demand* (D) move. The required *give* (G) move is provided by LM7 (line 276). Next, the teacher gives the expected *acknowledgement* (A) move (line 277). However, after that she steps up the prospectiveness by starting a further dependent exchange and by making a *give* (G) move (line 278), in which she presents the alternative. LF1 responds to the teacher's initiation and at the same time requires a further *give* (G) move (line 279), which the teacher provides (line 280) and with which she concludes the sequence.

The teacher in the present study may also exploit the third part of the IRF structure to involve the learners in an extension of the grammar explanation. In addition, by initiating a further dependent exchange the teacher reminds the pupils of the grammar points learned earlier by presenting comparisons. Example 35, where the teacher and pupils revise the use of adverbs, illustrates this:

EXAMPLE 35 Episode 7. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 1						
1	T	katotaas sitte nää lauseet yhes (.) adverbilauseet nämä kyllä osaatte (.)	nuc	I	D	ms
2	T	kuinkas tulee ensimmäinen kuva ↑ (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
3	T	LM10 (.)	prep	I	D	nom
4	T	mitä laitetaa ensimmäisee kuvaa	nuc	I	D	req.info
5	LF1	emmä tiedä (.) joku purra				
6	LM9	(xx)				
7	LM 10	eeh (.) young people <i>walk</i> quickly	nuc	R	G	info

continues

## EXAMPLE 35 continues

8	T	mm ↑	nuc	F	A	acc
9	LM 10	ja sitte (.) old people <i>walk slowly</i>	nuc	R	G	info
10	T	mm (.) esimerkiksi ↑	nuc	F	A	acc
11	T	tää on nyt monikko ↑ (.) mm tää on monikko tää käy nyt näin (.)	dep	I	G	exp
12	T	<mutta> jos teil ois ollu yksikkö ↑ ni mitä pitää olla siellä ↑ (.)	dep	I	D	req.info
13	T	LF2 ↑	prep	I	D	nom
14	LF2	ässä	dep	R	G	info
15	T	joo ↑ (.)	dep	F	A	acc
16	T	jos teil olis että a young man (.) ja sitte pitää olla <u>walks</u> : (.) ja tääl pitää muistaa olla artikkeli (.) ja sama (.) pätee vanhaa miehee (..)	dep	I	G	ext

Just before this example the pupils have been working individually on exercises concerning adverbs. After this individual work the teacher gains the pupils' attention by saying in the form of an imperative *katotaas sitte nää lauseet yhес (.) adverbilauseet nämä kyllä osaatte (..)* (let's look together at these sentences (.) you can do these sentences involving adverbs) (line 1). After making this attempt to establish a shared focus on the grammar point in question the teacher elicits a response from LM10 by asking a question, using his name and then rephrasing the question by asking *mitä laitetaan ensimmäisee kuvaa* (what do we write under the first picture) (lines 2-4). The translated sentence has two parts and LM10 at first answers only the first part of it by saying *eeh (.) young people walk quickly* (line 7). After the pupil's partial answer the teacher accepts it and simultaneously prompts him to go on with his answer by using a rising intonation (line 8). The pupil responds by continuing his answer with the latter part of the sentence and says *ja sitte (.) old people walk slowly* (and then *old people walk slowly*) (line 9), which, in turn, is accepted by the teacher (line 10). After closing the nuclear exchange the teacher starts a dependent one by explaining that the sentence in question is in the plural form (line 11) and contrasting it with the singular form of the verb (line 12). The teacher engages the pupils in the new exchange by asking a question about the difference (line 12). After the learner's correct response (line 14) and the teacher's acceptance (line 15) the teacher starts a further extension by giving an elucidative example, saying *jos teil olis että a young man (.) ja sitte pitää olla walks: (.) ja tääl pitää muistaa olla artikkeli (.) ja sama (.) pätee vanhaa miehee (..)* (if you had a young man and then you should have *walks* and here you must remember the article and the same goes with *an old man*) (line 16). With the example the teacher also foregrounds the use of articles in the singular. In other words, through the dependent exchanges the teacher provides the learners with a firm context based on their knowledge of grammar.

The nuclear exchange of Example 35 contains the teacher's initiation, the pupil's partial response, the teacher's accepting follow-up, which also acts as a prompt for the pupil's further response, the pupil's second answer and the teacher's final accepting follow-up (lines 1-4 and 7-10). In other words, the

teacher's question requires a *give* (G) move that is provided by LM10 in two separate turns. The teacher's *acknowledgement* (A) move, which is expected, is also provided in two separate turns. By contrast with the nuclear exchange, the teacher starts the dependent exchange by giving (G) an explanation (line 11). However, after this she demands (D) a contribution from the pupils, which LF2 provides (G) and the teacher further accepts (A) (lines 12-15). In addition, at the end of the sequence, the teacher steps up the prospectiveness by making a *give* (G) move, in which she extends the ongoing discussion. In this case, however, the dependent exchange does not close with an overt *acknowledgement* (A) move from the pupils. In fact, it rarely does so in the classroom discourse of the present study.

***Dependent exchange initiated by the teacher's request for a further explanation.*** In addition to the teacher's own explanations and references to the previous lessons, the third move of the triadic dialogue is exploited by the teacher in order to invite the pupils' active participation in the task by requesting explanations from the learners. The teacher wants to incorporate the pupil's remarks into the teaching-learning process. Consider Example 36, taken from an episode focusing on an old grammar point:

EXAMPLE 36 Episode 2. Lesson 1. Old grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 2						
18	T	kakkonen LM2:lle	nuc prep	I	D	req.info nom
19	LM2	my friend Doris Pike usually comes around for coffee doesn't she	nuc	R	G	info
20	T	hyvä ↑ (.)	nuc	F	A	eval.pos
21	T	miks laitoit muuten doesn't	dep	I	D	req.exp
22		(..)				
23	LM2	eehm (.) siin on ässä siin muodos	dep	R	G	exp
24	T	nii ku on hänestä kyse	dep	F	G	clar
25	LF1	((laugh))				
26	T	siit puuttuu tuolt yks sakara mm (.)	dep	I	G	(info)

In this example, the teacher and the learners go through homework on tag questions. At first the teacher elicits a response by nominating the pupil she wants to respond and by mentioning the number of the sentence in question (line 18). After the pupil's correct response (line 19) the teacher evaluates it positively (line 20). Interestingly, however, she does not close the sequence, but elicits a further explanation from LM2 by asking *miks laitoit muuten doesn't* (why did you write *doesn't*) (line 21). After a pause this triggers an appropriate response from LM2 (line 23), which the teacher further clarifies in her follow-up move. At the end of the sequence, the teacher refers to the transparency and corrects a spelling error (line 26).

In order to clarify an important grammar point the teacher initiates a dependent exchange by requesting (D move) an explanation for the singular form (line 21). LM2 fulfils this requirement by giving (G) the correct response (line 23). What is significant in this example is that in the following move the

teacher steps up the prospectiveness by making a *give* (G) move. With this turn she extends the pupil's response by adding a further related explanation of her own (line 24). Similarly, in the end the teacher initiates a further dependent exchange by referring to the transparency and making a *give* (G) move, which is not, however, met with any overt response from the learners. Thus, again here the strategy of expanding the IRF structure is used to help the pupils to understand the problem in question. By providing the learners with a move that requires a response, that is, a strongly prospective move, the teacher makes the pupils participate in the ongoing discussion and clarify the grammar point in hand.

*Dependent exchange initiated by the teacher after a learner's incomplete answer.* As noted above, in the classroom situation in the present study the teacher exploits the third move of the IRF structure to help the pupils to come up with an appropriate grammatical form. A typical such case in this study is a situation when the pupil first gives a partial answer and the teacher continues the sequence in order to help the pupil to provide the correct and complete grammar structure. Consider Example 37, which comes from an episode focusing on an old grammar point:

EXAMPLE 37 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 25						
144	T	mikäs se oli se perfektin apuverbi ↑ mikä tarvitaa aina ennen näitä muotoja ↑	nuc	I	D	req.info
145	T	LM3	prep	R	G	nom
146	LM3	have=	nuc	R	G	info
147	T	=have	nuc	F	A	acc
148	T	tai sitte toinen vaihtoehto vielä (.)	dep	I	D	req.info
149	T	LM8	prep	R	G	nom
150	LM8	had	dep	R	G	info
151	T	had oli se mitä käytettii siellä pluskvamperfektissä se <b>oli tehnyt</b> jotain ↑ (.)	dep	F I	G D	eval.neg exp
152	T	LM8	prep	R	G	nom
153	LM8	has=	dep	R	G	info
154	T	=has	dep	F	A	acc
155	T	>minkä kans käytettii has sanaa< (.)	dep	I	D	req.info
156	T	LF5 ↑	prep	R	G	nom
157	LF5	yksikön kolmannen	dep	R	G	info
158	T	mm (.)	dep	F	A	acc

In Example 37, the teacher and the pupils revise the auxiliary verb of the perfect tense. In response to the teacher's question LM3 gives only one form of the verb in question, that is, *have* (line 146), which the teacher accepts by repeating it (line 147). However, the teacher does not close the sequence but elicits a further response from LM8 by focusing the pupil's attention to the other appropriate structure: *tai sitte toinen vaihtoehto vielä (.)* (or still another alternative) (line 148). Because the pupil's response to the teacher's second question is incorrect (line 150), the teacher explains the use of the other verb LM8 incorrectly suggests. In other words, she revises the auxiliary verb of the past perfect tense: *had oli se mitä*

*käytettii siellä pluskvamperfektissä se oli tehnyt jotain* ↑(.) (*had* was the verb used in the past perfect the structure *had done something*) (line 151). With the same turn the teacher also indicates that she expects LM8 to continue his answer by using a rising questioning intonation (line 151). After the learner's correct response the teacher gives an accepting follow-up by repeating the verb (lines 153-4), apparently wanting to make certain that the learners have understood the use of the auxiliary verb. Thus, she poses a further question about the verb *has* by asking *>minkä kans käytettii has sanaa<* (.) (with which word is the verb *has* used) (line 155). This checking leads to a correct answer from LF5 (line 157) and the teacher's acceptance brings the sequence to its end (line 158).

After the nuclear exchange the teacher starts a dependent exchange by demanding (D move) a response from the pupils to the question about the alternative form (line 148). Next, after the pupil's incorrect contribution (G) the teacher steps up the prospectiveness and instead of simply accepting the answer she gives an explanation (G) and demands (D) a further response (line 151). After accepting the learner's contribution the teacher starts the fourth exchange, which includes *demand* (D), *give* (G) and *acknowledgement* (A) moves (lines 155-58). In this example the teacher exploits the possibilities of the follow-up move in order to clarify the formation of the perfect tense. Instead of closing the sequences with *acknowledgement* (A) moves she provides the learners with strongly prospective moves that require further learner participation.

***Dependent exchange initiated by the teacher after the learners' silence.*** Apart from the teacher's grammar extensions and requests for further explanations from the learners, the teacher may initiate dependent exchanges because the learners do not at first provide any verbal response. In other words, the teacher may rephrase her initial question in order to help the learners to come up with an answer. Furthermore, even though the teacher usually regards the learners' direct statements of not knowing the answer as indirect challenges and continues prompting the same pupil, there are also cases when the teacher continues the triadic dialogue by selecting another pupil. In this class, the teacher, in fact, quite often starts a new dependent exchange by naming another pupil who is to answer. Typically this seems to be due to the pressing schedule. Consider Example 38:

EXAMPLE 38 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 16						
233	T	nytte (.) preesensissä ku tämä oli must ↑ (.) mut mustia ei saakkaa käyttää kysymyslauseissa ↑ (.)	nuc	I	G	info
234	T	ni miten kysyt täytyykö minun tehdä läksyt preesensissä (.) täytyykö minun (..)	nuc	I	D	req.info
235	T	käytetää samaa systeemiä ku tässä aikasemmin (..)	dep	I	G D	clue
236	T	LF5	prep	I	D	nom
237	LF5	no en tiä	dep	R	G	(info)

continues

## EXAMPLE 38 continues

238	T	LF2	prep	I	D	nom (trans)
239	LF2	do I have to	dep	R	G	info
240	T	mm (.)	dep	F	A	acc

Example 38 is from an episode where the teacher introduces the learners to a new grammar point, that is, the other way of saying the auxiliary verb *must*. At first the teacher explains that the auxiliary verb *must* is used in the present tense but cannot be used in interrogative sentences. Then she elicits a response from the learners by reading the sample sentence aloud and by repeating the verb form (D move) (line 234). However, the teacher's initial question followed by a pause does not trigger any overt answer from the learners, who remain silent. Therefore, the teacher starts a new dependent exchange with a further clue, saying *käytetään samaa systeemiä ku tässä aikasemmin (..)* (the same system is used as before) (line 235). Her clue indicates that an answer is still required (D) (line 235). However, with no verbal response from the learners, the teacher calls upon LF5 (line 236), who replies that she does not know the answer (line 237). In this example the teacher does not continue prompting the same pupil to come up with the target structure, but selects another speaker (line 238). Apparently, in this case the teacher does not regard the pupil's frank statement of ignorance as an indirect challenge but as a state of fact. Accordingly, LF2 provides the required response (G) and the teacher makes the expected *acknowledgement* (A) move by accepting the correct grammatical form (line 240). The teacher's final *acknowledgement* (A) move also closes the sequence.

As the examples so far have already illustrated, providing the target response is one thing that it seems the teacher in the present study is at great pains to avoid. However, if nobody seems able to answer, the teacher simply has to tell the class the answer in order to continue the interaction. Yet, even then the teacher attempts to involve the learners in the co-construction of the target structure by using a number of different strategies. Consider Example 39:

## EXAMPLE 39 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 7						
162	T	mut sitte (.) se oli se kolmas asia (.) mut sitte vielä (..) yks kysymys (.)	nuc	I	D	ms
163	T	miks siel on DON'T DOESN'T AREN'T mut sitte toisaalta kuitenkin DOES ja CAN (..)	nuc	I	D	req.exp
164	T	mikä ratkasee tuleeks sinne myönteinen vai kielteinen loppu (..)	dep	I	D	req.exp reph
165	T	tarkastellaas tot ensimmäist vaikka (.)	dep	I	D	req.info
166	T	onks toi päälause myönteinen vai kielteinen (.)	dep	I	D	req.info reph
167	T	LF3	prep	I	D	nom
168	LF3	tää eka lause (.) I usually wake up at about five ↑	emb	I	D	req.clar
169		(..)				
170	T	ehm siis myönteinen (..)	dep	R	G	info
171	T	mm (.)	dep	F	A	ack

continues

## EXAMPLE 39 continues

172	T	ja toi liitekysymys on sillo ↑	dep	I	D	req.info
173	LF3	kielteinen	dep	R	G	info
174	T	mm	dep	F	A	acc
175	T	entäs sitte täällä onki I just can't drink in the morning siel on päälause ↑ (..)	dep	I	D	req.info
176	T	LF2 ↑	prep	I	D	nom
177	LF2	kielteinen=	dep	R	G	info
178	T	=ja silloin kysymys on	dep	I	D	req.info
179	LF2	myönteinen=	dep	R	G	info
180	T	=myönteinen. (.)	dep	F	A	acc
181	T	[eli joko] tai	dep	I	G	clar

In Example 39 above, the teacher introduces the class to a new grammar point, that is, tag questions. After her metastatement the teacher tries to elicit a response from the pupils by asking *miks siel on DON'T DOESN'T AREN'T mut sitte toisaalta kuitenkin DOES ja CAN (..)* (why is there *don't doesn't aren't* but also *does* and *can*) (line 163). Because the learners do not give any verbal response, she makes several further requests for the explanation of the target structure from the whole class (lines 164-6). She first asks *mikä ratkasee tuleeks sinne myönteinen vai kielteinen loppu (..)* (what determines whether there is a affirmative or negative ending) (line 164) and then she refers to the sample sentence by saying *tarkastellaas tot ensimmäist vaikka (.)* (let's look at the first one) (line 165). After this the teacher attempts to make the question even simpler by rephrasing it into a forced-choice question: *onks toi päälause myönteinen vai kielteinen* (is that main clause affirmative or negative) (line 166). However, none of her rephrases or repeated requests for an answer trigger a response from the pupils, who remain silent. Thus, the teacher selects as the next speaker LF3, who, instead of giving an answer, requests a clarification of the task in hand (line 168). In this case the teacher does not give any verbal answer, but provides the learner with more time to come up with an answer (line 169). It is interesting that here the teacher gives the correct answer herself and also acknowledges it with her own follow-up (lines 170-1). Apparently, she does not want to waste any more time on this particular question, but wants to continue to co-construct the problem further. In fact, this technique seems to help, since after the teacher's own answer the pupils promptly answer all her questions (lines 172-180). After several dependent exchanges the teacher sums up the whole problem of how to form tag questions by referring to the sample sentences (line 181), and this brings the sequence to its end.

This example contains several basic IRF structures either with or without a follow-up move. At first the teacher makes an initiating move, as usual, in the form of a direct question (line 162), which requires a *give* (G move) as response. Here, however, no overt *give* move (G) is provided by the learners, and thus the teacher makes several other *demand* moves (D) in order to go on with the sequence (lines 163-6). The teacher finally gives (G) herself the answer and also accepts (A) it, which makes this dependent exchange complete (lines 170-1). From this point onwards the typical IRF structures and the correspondent D-G-A exchange types are repeated several times (lines 172-180) before the teacher's

final clarification (line 181), which does not, as expected, receive any further responses from the learners.

**Dependent exchange initiated by a learner.** The examples discussed so far have illustrated dependent exchanges initiated by the teacher. In the classroom situation under study, however, the learners also initiate dependent exchanges on different occasions. If the pupils are not sure about their answer, they may give their responses in the form of a suggestion, thus initiating a dependent exchange, in which the teacher is expected to confirm the appropriateness of these contributions. The teacher then often provides a further clarification in order to emphasise the correct alternative, as in Example 40:

EXAMPLE 40 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 13						
184	T	katotaas viel yks aikamuoto ↑	nuc	I	D	ms
185	LM1	(xx) saanks mä lainata sun terotinta				
186	LF2	joo				
187	T	mites sanot että (.) minä tulen olemaan nuori futuurissa (.) aina (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
188	T	tulen aina olemaan nuori (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info rep
189	T	LF2	prep	I	D	nom
190	LF2	oisko se I will be young	nuc dep	R I	G D	sug
191	T	mm ↑ (..)	dep	R	G	con
192	T	I will always be young laitetaan tänne nyt vaa will be (.)	dep	F	G	clar

At the beginning of this example, the teacher orients the pupils towards the next task and its content by saying *katsotaas viel yks aikamuoto* (let's look at one more tense) (line 184). She uses the form *let's*, thus referring to a joint task. After the metastatement the teacher elicits a response from the pupils by reading aloud the task in question and by selecting the next speaker who in this case has not volunteered to answer (lines 187-189). What is significant here is that LF2 gives (G move) her answer in the form of a suggestion by saying *oisko se I will be young* (could it be *I will be young*) (line 190). Thus, the learner's response can also be considered the beginning of the following dependent exchange, since it demands (D) a further contribution from the teacher. This demand is fulfilled by the teacher's confirmation (G) (line 191). Finally, the teacher provides a follow-up move with her clarification and closes the sequence (line 192).

In addition to initiating a further dependent exchange with a response in the form of a suggestion, the learners may provide only a partial answer, thus indicating that they need more help. Furthermore, in responding to the learner's request for assistance the teacher may expand the IRF structure to involve not only one pupil but the whole class in the search for the target structure. Thus, the teacher urges the whole class to think about the problem and to share their knowledge. Consider Example 41:



EXAMPLE 41 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 5						
46	T	<kuinkas sanot> eh osaa:n tiskata (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info
47	T	osaan tiskata (.)	nuc	I	D	req.info rep
48	T	LF1	prep	I	D	nom
49	LF1	mm no I can >mut emmä tiää mitä on tiskata<	nuc dep	R I	G D	info req.info
50	T	kuka muistaa tiskata ↑ (.)	dep	I	D	req.info pro
51	T	LM2	prep	I	D	nom
52	LM2	wash the dishes	dep	R	G	info
53	T	mm ↑	dep	F	A	acc
54	T	I can: do the dishes tai I can wash up ↑ (.)	dep	I	G	ext

Example 41 is from an episode where the teacher introduces the pupils to different auxiliary verbs in different tenses. The class starts working on this new topic by going through the teacher's sample sentences. At first the teacher says the sample sentence aloud and after a pause repeats it, because the pupils do not give any verbal answer (lines 46-7). Then she selects the next speaker (line 48) who gives a partial response by saying *mm no I can >mut emmä tiää mitä on tiskata<* (*mm well I can but I don't know what to wash up is in English*) (line 49). In addition to being incomplete, the response contains a direct question about the main verb of the sentence, thus initiating a further dependent exchange (line 49). Instead of providing the answer, the teacher directs the same question at the whole class by asking *kuka muistaa tiskata ↑* (who recalls what *to wash up* is in English) (line 50). What is also significant in the example is that the teacher uses the verb *muistaa* (to recall). In doing this she seems to want to emphasise that the pupils should remember this verb from the previous lessons. As a result, LM2 bids for a turn and gives the correct response (line 52). In the end the teacher accepts the answer and gives alternatives for the structure by saying *I can: do the dishes tai I can wash up ↑* (*I can do the dishes or I can wash up*) (lines 53-4).

In this example the teacher exploits the possibilities of the triadic dialogue in order to clarify the grammar points to the pupils. LF1 starts a dependent exchange by asking a further question about the target verb, and at the same time she makes a *demand* (D move) (line 49). Interestingly, in her next turn, the teacher does not fulfil the requirement of the pupil's demand, that is, she does not provide a *give* (G), but makes another *demand* (D) (line 50). Then, according to the scale of prospectiveness, LM2 gives her response (G) (line 52), which expects an *acknowledgement* (A) in response. In her last follow-up the teacher provides this *acknowledgement* (A) move (line 53). In this case, however, the sequence does not come to an end with the teacher's acceptance. The teacher makes one more initiating move by giving the learners alternative forms for the target structure (G) (line 54). The learners, however, do not react to this with an overt *acknowledgement* (A), indeed they seldom do in this class.

Moreover, the pupils may react to the teacher's question by saying directly that they do not know the answer. However, in most of these cases the teacher regards the learners' frank statements of ignorance as indirect challenges and

continues prompting the same learner to come up with an answer. In other words, the learners' statements are then initiations of further dependent exchanges. Consider Example 42, which comes from an episode focusing on a new grammar point:

EXAMPLE 42 Episode 10. Lesson 8. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 6						
79	T	entäs sitte (.) <kuinkas LF3 sanois> (.)	prep	I	D	nom
80	T	sinulla on ollut <lupa ostaa> >kirjoja<	nuc	I	D	req.info
81	LF3	>emmä tiiä<	nuc dep	R I	G D	(info)
82	T	on ollut lupa (.)	dep	R I	(G) D	req.info
83	T	käytetään perfektiiä	dep	I	G	clue
84	LF1	hä (xx)				
85		(..)				
86	LF3	eeh (.) oisko jotain että you have been (.) <i>allowed</i> to mikä se oli	dep emb	R I	G D	info req.info
87	T	ostaa kirjoja	emb	R	G	info
88	LF3	buy books	dep	R	G	info
89	T	mm (.)	dep	F	A	acc

Just before this example the teacher has introduced the pupils to a new grammar point, that is, the structure *to be allowed to*. She begins by nominating the next speaker and by reading aloud the sentence in question (lines 79-80). However, LF3 is not yet familiar with the form and answers *emmä tiiä* (I don't know) (line 81). Here, instead of selecting a new speaker, the teacher continues working with LF3 by emphasising and repeating the verb form in question by saying *on ollut lupa (.)* (*to have been allowed to*) (line 82). Apparently, the teacher regards the learner's answer as an indirect challenge and feels obliged to prompt her further. In other words, in this case the pupil does not only give (G move) a response to the preceding question but also initiates a further dependent exchange by demanding (D) the teacher's contribution. The teacher complies with this request first by repeating the verb form (GD) and then giving a clue (G) by saying *käytetään perfektiiä* (the perfect tense is used) (lines 82-3). In addition, she gives LF3 time to think about her answer, after which LF3 comes up with a partial answer (G) (line 86). She answers by saying *eeh (.) oisko jotain että you have been (.) allowed to mikä se oli* (*eeh would it be you have been allowed to what was it*) (line 86). After the embedded exchange that contains the learner's problem with the uptake of the move (lines 86-7), LF3 completes (G) her contribution (line 88). Finally, the expected *acknowledgement* (A) is provided by the teacher (line 89).

Although, in this class it is typically the teacher who asks the learners for further explanations, there are also examples of the pupils demanding further clarifications from the teacher, thus initiating further dependent exchanges. Because this shows the pupils' interest in the task in question and, naturally, their need for further information, the teacher usually reacts positively by answering the learners' questions. Consider Example 43 on the revision of the use of tag questions, where the learner initiates the second dependent exchange:

## EXAMPLE 43 Episode 2. Lesson 1. Old grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 8						
69	T	ja kaheksas LF5:lle	nuc prep	I	D	req.info nom
70	LF5	mm that's enough for now aren't it	nuc	R	G	info
71	T	that's (.) that is enough for now	nuc dep	F I	A G D	eval.pos /neg clue
72	LF5	no (.) isn't it	dep	R	G	info
73	T	hyvä	dep	F	A	eval.pos
74	LF2	ei siis voi olla aren't	dep	I	D	req.info
75	T	ei ku siel on is siellä that is=	dep	R	G	info
76	LF2	=mut eiks siihen käy noin aren't it	dep	I	D	req.info
77	T	[ei]	dep	R	G	info
78	LM2	[mites se käy]=	dep	I	D	req.info
79	T	=eihä it sanan kans ikinä käytetä aren't siel on aina [is]	dep	R	G	info
80	LM2	[voi vitsi]	dep	F	A	ack

The teacher opens this sequence by mentioning the number of the exercise in question and by nominating the pupil she wants to answer next (line 69). LF5 gives her answer, which, however, is only partially correct (line 70). The teacher then accepts the first part of the learner's answer and gives a further clue by saying *that's (.) that is enough for now* (line 71). The teacher's clue immediately triggers a correction from LF5, who answers *no (.) isn't it* (lines 71-2). This first dependent exchange is closed with the teacher's follow-up in which she gives her positive evaluation (line 73). What is significant in this example is that LF2 starts a further dependent exchange by requesting a clarification of the use of the verb *to be* in the target structure by asking *miks ei siin voi olla aren't* (why cannot there be *aren't*) (line 74). The teacher explains the grammar structure by answering *siks ku siel on is siellä that is* (because there is the verb *is that is*) (line 75). However, LF2 requests for a further explanation by asking *mut eiks siihen käy noin aren't it* (but isn't *aren't it* correct) (line 75), to which the teacher responds by saying simply *ei* (no) (line 77). Later LM2 joins this dialogue by initiating a request for clarification from the teacher, asking *mites se käy* (how is it) (line 78). The teacher attempts to explain the structure once again by saying *eihä it sanan kans ikinä käytetä aren't siel on aina is* (*aren't* is never used with *it* there is always *is*) (line 79). In fact, together LF2 and LM2 initiate three requests for information (lines 74, 76 and 78), which the teacher immediately provides (lines 75, 77 and 79). It is notable also that on this occasion LM2 gives the last follow-up (line 80). However, it seems that he feels frustrated by the complicated grammar point, and thus this last follow-up could be regarded rather as a pupil's signal that he is listening than as his acceptance of the teacher's previous answer. In fact, he provides this last follow-up within, rather than after, the teacher's response.

Example 43 is a typical example of both the teacher and the learners exploiting the IRF structure. After the nuclear exchange the teacher starts the first dependent exchange by giving LF5 a hint (D move) that her answer is not completely correct. The correct answer is immediately provided by LF5 (G) and

this, in turn, is accepted by the teacher (A). Here, as was mentioned above, LF2 starts a further dependent exchange by making a *demand* (D), which requires a *give* (G) from the teacher in response. In the latter part of the example, similar exchanges are made three times between teacher and pupils. In other words, the exchange type D-G is repeated and exploited by the participants.

As was mentioned in Section 7.1, the teacher's institutional role means that she is usually regarded by the pupils in this class too as the primary source of knowledge, and she is considered to have control over the task in hand. However, dependent exchanges are sometimes initiated by the pupils when they call the teacher's authority into question. Consider Example 44, where the pupils initiate the second dependent exchange:

EXAMPLE 44 Episode 15. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 5						
76	T	<oliko jonkun pitänyt korjata (.) lentokone>	nuc	I	D	req.info
77	LM2	*se on ihan väärin *	emb	I	G	(info)
78	LF2	joo se on iha väärin	emb	R	A	(ack)
79	T	mis had (.) someone had to fix: (.) an aeroplane tai ↑	nuc dep	R I	G D	info req.info
80		(..)				
81	LM2	onkse Aira Samulin ((laugh)) (.) mä vaa kysyin				
82	T	ehkä mieluummin (.) the	dep	R	G	info
83	LF2	no miks siin ei voi olla an (.) hei ↑	dep	I	D	req.exp
84	T	a >mut se on epämääräinen< täs varmaa aatellaa et oliko jonku pitäny korjata se (.) lentokone	dep	R	G	exp
85	LF2	no nii mut ei sit oo mainittu aikasemmin	dep	F I	A D	ack req.info
86	T	nii irrallisesta yhteydestä vois aatella et vois ollakki (.) mut mieluummin näin	dep	R	G	info
87	LF2	nii (.) tosi kiva	dep	F	A	ack

In Example 44, the pupils have written the sentences that had been assigned as homework on the blackboard. During this English lesson the teacher and the pupils go through these sentences together and correct the possible errors. The teacher starts the nuclear exchange by reading the sentence in question in Finnish (line 76). After this LM2 and LF2 exchange an embedded exchange that includes humorous comments on the exercise. When the teacher is looking for the sentence on the blackboard, LM2 comments laughingly that the sentence he has written is completely incorrect: *\*se on ihan väärin\** (it is completely incorrect) (line 77). LF2 replies to this by saying *joo se on iha väärin* (yes it is completely incorrect) (line 78). The teacher does not react to this. Instead, after locating the sentence in hand on the blackboard she reads it aloud (line 79). At the same time she starts a dependent exchange by indicating with the word *tai* (or) that she is looking for a slightly different target structure. Because the pupils do not come up with any verbal response, the teacher answers herself with the words *ehkä mieluummin the* (maybe rather *the*) (line 82), indicating that she prefers the definite article in the target structure. However, immediately after the teacher's response, LF2 initiates a further dependent exchange by requesting an

explanation why the indefinite article is not correct: *no miks siin ei voi olla an* (.) *hei* ↑ (well why can't there be *an*) (line 83). The teacher provides her with an explanation (line 84), but LF2 is still not completely satisfied, and after acknowledging the teacher's explanation she elicits a further explanation from the teacher by saying *no nii mut ei sit oo mainittu aikasemmin* (yes but it hasn't been mentioned before) (line 85). The teacher immediately replies (line 86). Though the locus of control is still with the teacher, it is possible that LF2 extends the exchanges in order to put the teacher's role as sole knower into question. This is further indicated by the learner's final follow-up, in which she describes the nature of the grammar point in question with the words *tosii kiva* (very nice indeed) (line 87).

In Example 44, the teacher starts the first dependent exchange by indicating that she wants the pupils to come up with a different target structure from that on the blackboard (line 79). Because the learners do not give any verbal response, the teacher makes a *give* move (G move) herself (line 82). After this LF2 initiates two different IRF structures, the former without a follow-up and the latter with a follow-up move. Thus, LF2 first makes *demand* moves (D) and the teacher provides the required *give* moves (G) as response. Interestingly, the pupil closes the last exchange with the expected *acknowledgement* move (A), further indicating her frustration.

**Dependent exchange closed by a learner's acknowledgement.** As seen above, in triadic dialogue the dependent exchange that the teacher initiates at the end of the sequence may remain without any response from the learners. Yet, sometimes the pupil may provide a response after the teacher's initiating move, as was the case in the previous example. Consider Example 45, from an episode focusing on the presentation of tag questions:

EXAMPLE 45 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 4						
93	T	mutta sitte meijän pitäis tarkkailla muutamia tapauksia katsotaanpa ensin vaik:ka tätä koko lausetta I just can't drink in the mornings can I ↑	nuc	I	D	ms
94	T	mitä huomaatte tästä verbistä (..)	nuc	I	D	req.info
95	T	löytyykö sitä muualta [(.)]	dep	I	D	req.info reph
96	T	LM5	prep	I	D	nom
97	LF1	[en tiää]	dep	R	G	(info)
98	LM5	no se ei o kieltomuoto	dep	R	G	info
99	T	joo:o	dep	F	A	acc
100	T	eli katsokaas tääl oli kieltomuoto (.) mut tääl ei ollukkaan (.)	dep	I	G	clar
101	LM5	mm	dep	R	A	ack

At first the teacher helps the learners to pay attention to the next task by referring to the sample sentence (line 93). She first elicits response from the learners by asking *mitä huomaatte tästä verbistä* (..) (what do you notice in this verb) (line 94). However, because the learners remain silent, she first gives them

a further clue by asking *löytyykö sitä muualta* (.) (can it be found somewhere else) (line 95). Then the teacher selects the next speaker, LM5 (line 96). Instead of LM5, LF1 gives her frank statement that she does not know, but the teacher does not react to this. Instead, the teacher accepts LF5's contribution in her follow-up (line 99). In addition, the teacher starts yet another dependent exchange by providing the learners with a clarification (line 100). Surprisingly, this time LM5 gives his acknowledgement as a response to the teacher's last turn (line 101). It is possible that in this case LM5 is deeply involved in the dialogue, and, maybe unconsciously, wants to show this also to the teacher.

Again, in this example the nuclear exchange initiated by the teacher (D move) is not closed with the required response from the learners. Consequently, the teacher starts a dependent exchange which also requires (D) a *give* (G) move as a response, and this time the selected pupil gives (G) the correct answer and the teacher makes a further *acknowledgement* (A) move. However, what is most significant here is that the teacher's final initiating move is also closed with an overt *acknowledgement* (A) move from LM5 (line 101).

To sum up, as the examples above illustrate, the IRF routine is frequently extended in this classroom. The teacher and the learners exploit the three-part IRF structure by making use of different strategies. In order to expand the pupils' knowledge of the English language the teacher often continues her own grammar explanations with alternative grammatical or lexical target structures in further dependent exchanges. With dependent exchanges the teacher can also draw connections between the grammar points the pupils are learning at present and those they have learned in previous lessons. The pupils' incorrect responses, in particular, make the teacher continue the sequence with further exchanges. She can continue prompting the same pupil or she can ask the rest of the class to help with the problem. In addition, the learners' answers in the form of a suggestion or their frank statements that they do not know the answer usually lead to further questions from the teacher, and thus the dependent exchange may continue with several exchanges. The pupils may also fail to answer the teacher's question and simply remain silent, and this makes the teacher continue the dialogue with new questions. Furthermore, in order to make sure that the pupils understand the task in question the teacher requests explanations from the learners after their correct responses. Importantly, with this class it is not always the teacher who extends the grammar point in question. The learners can also start further dependent exchanges by asking questions about alternative structures or by requesting explanations. Sometimes these inquiries about explanations even put the teacher's role as a primary knower into question. In addition, the pupils sometimes acknowledge or accept the teacher's previous comments.

The traditional IRF structure is extended in many different ways in the classroom situation under study. Thus, different versions of the basic exchange types D-G-A and D-G are present in the classroom discourse. In fact, the participants frequently step up the prospectiveness of the current move so that

it, in turn, requires or expects a further response, while still minimally fulfilling the expectations of the preceding move.

### 7.2.3 Summary

The aim of this section was to seek answers to the second research question: How is the *Initiation-Response-Follow-up* (IRF) structure exploited within the grammar instructional episodes? In other words, the aim was to examine the sequential organisation of the classroom discourse as defined by Wells (1996, 1999) in whole-class teacher-fronted interactions with grammar exercises in focus. In particular, this section aimed to study the choice of the follow-up move in *triadic dialogue* (Lemke 1990) between the teacher and the learners, since the third part of the structure has a crucial role in the development of the discussion.

The analysis shows the ubiquity of the triadic dialogue (Lemke 1990), also known as the IRF or IRE sequence (Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) in the grammar instructional episodes in the present data. Moreover, it is evident from the data that the traditional IRF structure is exploited in various ways in the classroom setting (e.g. Nassaji and Wells 2000, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, Wells 1999, see also Cullen 2002, Jarvis and Robinson 1997). The teacher in the present study makes use of a number of expressive possibilities in extending the follow-up move in order to help the learners to learn better. However, not only the teacher, but also the pupils in the classroom situation under study extend the third part of the triadic dialogue. Thus, the analysis indicates that the discussion is co-constructed during the episodes. In addition, the analysis shows that follow-up moves in the present study can be characterised as evaluative or as discursal according to their general pedagogical roles.

Firstly, the evaluative follow-ups in the data consist of follow-ups that indicate only implicit evaluation and those with explicit evaluation. Because the teacher seems to use the follow-up of the first type primarily to accept the preceding responses these follow-ups are labelled as simple acceptances. However, in the classroom situation under study the teacher's follow-ups may also involve explicit evaluation. These follow-up moves consist of follow-ups with evaluation and those with emphasised acceptance. The latter type involve the teacher's repetition of the learner's response, which is used to emphasise a particular aspect of the target structure.

The primary function of the evaluative follow-up is to inform the pupil whether his or her previous response was appropriate or not. Thus, in the evaluative follow-up, support for learning is mainly provided in the correction that it offers. However, in the present data few of the evaluative follow-ups are explicitly evaluative. Rather, the teacher seems to want to provide more feedback than just a short evaluation in the form of a couple of words. Furthermore, even fewer of these evaluate the previous response negatively, even if the previous response was partly or completely incorrect.

Most of the evaluative follow-ups include only implicit evaluation by the teacher. The teacher in the classroom situation in the present study typically only acknowledges or accepts the pupil's preceding answer verbally or

nonverbally. However, the follow-up by the teacher can also be completely absent from the IRF structure, especially when the teacher and learners are engaged in routine-like interactional sequences, like checking the pupils' homework. In fact, this is often the case here. On these occasions the pupils know that they are expected to read the next exercise and the teacher's mere naming of the next reader or giving the number of the next sentence is enough to trigger a response from the pupils.

Furthermore, in the follow-up the teacher may repeat the learner's preceding response in order to indicate that his or her contribution is correct, thus providing follow-ups with emphasised acceptance. Repetition of a particular part of the preceding move is a frequently used means by which the teacher foregrounds important elements of the task in question. In addition to mere repetition of the pupil's response, the teacher reformulates the answer in her follow-up without extending the IRF structure. Through the reformulation the teacher elaborates the answer to some degree or corrects the small errors that are not the main focus of the episode. Sometimes the teacher may give the correct answer in her follow-up without explaining it any further in dependent exchanges.

The basic exchange type in the evaluative IRF structures is ordered D>G>A. Accordingly, the teacher initiates an exchange and demands (D) a response which a pupil gives (G), and which in turn is accepted (A) by the teacher's follow-up. In this exchange type the *acknowledgement* (A) move is optional, and exchanges often close without an overt *acknowledgement* (A) move. In addition, when the teacher provides the answer herself, the corresponding exchange type is D-G-G, according to which the teacher gives information in her last move.

In addition to the basic IRF structures, the teacher in the classroom situation under study uses extended follow-up moves to build on pupils' contributions and develop a dialogue with the class. Thus, the second possible role of the follow-up move is identified as discoursal in the analysis. Though slight evaluation is often included in the third part of the IRF structure, the dominant function of discoursal follow-ups is to engage the pupils in the ongoing discourse. Furthermore, in discoursal follow-ups, support for learning consists of primarily the teacher's reformulations and elaborations on the pupils' contributions. More importantly, the discoursal follow-ups are the initiating moves for further dependent exchanges.

The teacher in the classroom situation in the present study employs various strategies in extending the IRF routine. She often elaborates her own follow-ups with dependent exchanges in order to provide the pupils with further information on the problem in question. By initiating dependent exchanges the teacher can also connect the grammar points the pupils learn at that particular time to grammar points they have learned earlier. In other words, she builds the new grammar point on a familiar one.

Pupils' incorrect answers are a particular cause of the teacher's initiation of further dependent exchanges. Instead of giving the correct answer herself,



the teacher typically prompts the same pupil to come up with an appropriate structure. She may also ask the rest of the class to join in the problem-solving activity by addressing her question to the whole class. In addition, the pupils often remain silent, and then the teacher has to continue the dialogue by initiating further dependent exchanges. The teacher may, moreover, request explanations from the learners after their correct responses in order to make sure that the correct structure has been understood.

Not only the teacher but also the pupils in this class initiate dependent exchanges in order to get further explanations of the problems they are faced with. The learners' further inquiries can even put the teacher's role as a primary knower into question. Sometimes, though seldom, the pupils also acknowledge the teacher's previous moves. The learners' responses may also be in the form of a suggestion, and this leads the teacher to ask further questions in dependent exchanges. The learners may alternatively answer directly that they do not know the correct structure, which the teacher may take as an indirect challenge, and accordingly starts to prompt the same learner to come up with an appropriate structure.

The three-part IRF routine is extended in various ways by the teacher and learners. On the scale of prospectiveness, the corresponding D-G-A and D-G exchanges and their several variants are thus present in the classroom discourse. According to the principles of conversation, the participants can, at any point after the initiating move in an exchange, step up the prospectiveness of the current move, thus initiating a new exchange. It follows that the basic IRF structure can develop into a dialogic co-construction of the target grammar structures. The teacher and the pupils jointly negotiate the tasks and their possible solutions. The strategies the teacher employs in providing the learners with scaffolded assistance during the co-construction of the target structures is the focus of the next six sections.

### **7.3 The teacher's strategies in providing scaffolding**

The present study focuses on the scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher in teacher-fronted whole-class interactions. Section 7.1 examined the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes in the present data, and especially the teacher's talk in shaping the episodes. It was demonstrated how grammar episodes are organised in phases characterised by different interactional structures. Section 7.2 took a closer look at the sequential organisation of the classroom discourse between the teacher and the pupils during the grammar instructional episodes. The analysis showed the ubiquity of the triadic dialogue (Lemke 1990), also known as the IRE or IRF structure (Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) in the grammar instructional episodes. Furthermore, it was demonstrated how the IRF sequence was

exploited within the grammar instructional episodes by the teacher and the pupils.

Bearing in mind the three-part pattern and the sequential organisation of the grammar instructional episodes, this section aims to give an answer to the third research question: What kind of strategies does the L2 teacher employ in providing scaffolded assistance? In order to gain insight into how the teacher's strategies scaffold the pupils' solution paths, the specific scaffolding features described by Wood et al. (1976) are applied to the strategies used by the teacher in the present case (see Sections 5.1 and 6.5.1 for a detailed description of the features). Because of the connection between the study by Wood et al. (1976) and Vygotskian sociocultural theory the findings of that study provide the present analysis with a compatible basis in examining the teacher's strategies. As was pointed out in Section 6.5.1, Wood et al. (1976) did not refer to Vygotskian theory but the connection was established by later researchers. In addition, the analysis takes into account stages of the ZPD, regulation and intersubjectivity in describing the scaffolding process. The notions of the ZPD and scaffolding are considered to be closely related (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Lantolf 2000a). The concept of scaffolding, for example, has been made use of in describing a child's speech within the ZPD. The focus of the present analysis will still be on the teacher's talk in providing the pupils with scaffolded assistance. However, the teacher's use of various scaffolding strategies to increase the pupils' language competence always requires and depends upon the pupils' responses. That is, in order to provide effective scaffolded assistance, the teacher has to be sensitive to the learners' needs and build her scaffolding on the learners' previous responses. The scaffolding process is thus always a joint activity that involves both the teacher and the learners.

To look more closely at the ways in which scaffolded assistance is provided by the teacher the next sections describe each scaffolding feature defined by Wood et al. (1976) and the teacher's strategies in providing scaffolding. The features defined by Wood et al. (1976), though generally well-delineated, are nonetheless insufficiently sharply defined to describe the strategies used by the teacher in the present whole-class setting. Accordingly, for the purposes of the present study some additions and revisions are made to the original categories. In sections 7.3.1 to 7.3.6, each of the categories, namely, *recruitment*, *reduction in degrees of freedom*, *direction maintenance*, *marking critical features*, *frustration control* and *demonstration* and the additions made to them are discussed in turn. Each scaffolding feature is illustrated by a number of examples in order to clarify the interpretation on which the analysis was based. In Section 7.3.7, a summary on the teacher's strategies in providing scaffolding is presented.

### **7.3.1 Recruitment**

For Bruner (1978) scaffolding describes a particular kind and quality of the cognitive support that a tutor can provide through dialogue so that a novice can more easily make sense of a difficult task. According to Wood et al. (1976),

recruiting a novice's interest in the task involves the first of the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process. The novice should also be assisted to understand and follow the requirements of the problem-solving activity. The focus of the study by Wood et al. (1976) is on adult-child interaction, and thus they point out that recruitment involves a tutor "luring a novice into the task either by demonstrating it or providing tempting material" (p. 95). However, in the classroom situation in the present study when the teacher starts to help learners to solve a problem, the learners' attention has first to be drawn to the task in hand. Only after that can the teacher start to provide scaffolded assistance. Accordingly, the definition of the first feature of scaffolding is revised so as better to describe the teacher-led full-class interaction of the present study.

This section discusses the teacher's various strategies in drawing the pupil's attention to and enlisting the pupils' interest in the task in hand. This recruitment takes place at the beginning of each sequence of the episode, the general structure of which was described in Section 7.1. When introducing the learners to the next task the teacher uses different strategies that are affected by the place within the grammar episode. Recruitment at the beginning of the episode and that in the middle of the episode are described in Sections 7.3.1.1 and 7.3.1.2, respectively.

### **7.3.1.1 Recruitment at the beginning of the episode**

At the beginning of the grammar instructional episode, the teacher's first task is to draw the pupils' attention to the next task and its requirements. More specifically, after closing the previous episode the teacher introduces the pupils to a new topic to be worked on. Thus, the teacher tries to turn the pupils' attention from the previous activity to the next one. Because of this transition from one grammar topic to another, it typically takes the teacher several exchanges to recruit the pupils into the new grammar exercise at the beginning of the episode. Only after having caught the pupils attention does the teacher attempt to enlist their interest in the task and starts to negotiate the possible solutions.

This section discusses the teacher's strategies in recruiting the learners into the next task at the beginning of the grammar episode. On the basis of the data I have distinguished such strategies as *giving explicit instructions*, *referring to an old grammar point*, *nominating the next speaker* and *enlisting the learner's interest with a challenge*. In the following, each of these strategies is examined in more detail.

***Recruitment by giving explicit instructions.*** At the beginning of the episode, the teacher's first task obviously is to introduce the pupils to the new grammar point to be worked on. The teacher may inform the pupils explicitly what they are going to do next and start to introduce the new grammar point with sample sentences, as in Example 46:

EXAMPLE 46 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 1			
1	T	mm (..) sitten eteenpäin	ms
2	T	sitten siirrytään (.) päivän (.) kielioppiannokseen ↑	ms
(10 lines omitted during which the pupils talk about their personal matters)			
13	T	[<sitten>]	req.info
(4 lines omitted)			
18	T	kuinka sanot	req.info
(4 lines omitted)			
23	T	=kuinka sanot osaan uida	req.info
24	LF2	[I can swim]	info
25	LM8	[I can swim]	info
26	T	mm	acc
27	T	viitataa ↑	

Just before Example 46 the pupils have been working on vocabulary exercises in pairs. At the beginning of the new episode, the teacher marks the transition from one episode to another with the metastatement *mm sitten eteenpäin* (mm next forward) (line 1). After this the teacher informs the pupils explicitly about the next topic by saying *sitten siirrytään (.) päivän (.) kielioppiannokseen ↑* (next we are going to work on grammar) (line 2). The teacher's instruction here is very short and its purpose is to signal a move to a new activity. After giving this short introduction the teacher starts going through sample sentences that involve the new grammar point, that is, the auxiliary verb *can*. The teacher elicits a translation from the learners by reading the first sentence aloud in Finnish: *kuinka sanot osaan uida* (how do you say *I can swim* in English) (lines 23). LF2 and LM8 give the correct translation simultaneously, and the teacher accepts the answers. On this occasion the teacher and the pupils seem to have a shared intersubjectivity, that is, they have a clear definition of the task situation, and thus they can carry out the task without any problems. In addition, the grammar point in question seems to be high in the learners' ZPDs, since they can immediately provide the correct target structure. In other words, the learners seem to be self-regulated in the task. After this, however, the teacher reminds the pupils of one of the ground rules of classroom talk. In other words, though the teacher accepts the pupils' answers, which were given at the same time without bidding for turns, she remarks that the pupils are supposed to raise their hands and wait for permission to speak before answering by saying *viitataa ↑* (please raise you hands) (line 27).

At the beginning of the episode, the teacher and the pupils do not, however, always have a shared perspective on the task, and thus the teacher has to explain the requirements of the next task more thoroughly. As illustrated by Examples 4-6 in Section 7.1, when the grammar episode is also the beginning of the English lesson, the pupils may continue to discuss their personal affairs, and it may take the teacher several turns to get the episode started. In other words, the negotiation of the task and its goals between the teacher and the learners may take quite a long time before they are ready to start to work. Furthermore, the pupils may still be occupied with the exercises of the previous

English lesson, in which case the teacher has to use explicit instructions to recruit them into the next task, as in Example 47:

EXAMPLE 47 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 1			
1	T	[elikkä alotetaan]	ms
2	LL	[(xx)]	
3	T	alotetaan [(..)] [sshh]	ms
4	LF2	[mä en oo ehtiny tehdä sitä] [tehtävää vielä]	(info)
5	LM1	no alotetaan=	ms
6	LM3	=en mäkään	(info)
7	T	kieliopista	ms
8	LL	eeii	ack
9	LF2	[LF4 mitä sä ot pölliny täältä]	
10	T	[voitte jatkaa sit myöhemmin] katotaan et kaikille riittää töitä	ms
11	LF2	tylsää	ack
12	LF3	LF4 missä mun terotin	
13	T	nyt tarkastellaa liitekysymyksiä	ms
14	LM3	<lii:tekysymyksiä>	rep
15	LF1	hei urpo	
16	LF2	mitä	
17	LL	((mumble))	
18	LF1	tehääks me nyt tää	req.con
19	T	joo laitetaan otsikokin tohon ylös	con
20	LM2	mikäs systeemi toi on	req.info
21	LF2	pitääks toi muka omaan vihkoon piirtää	req.con
22	LF1	((laugh))	
23	T	otsikon laitot vaa se riittää (.) tääl on ensin teksti (..) ei tarvi kirjottaa	con
24	LM4	nii pelkkä otsikko vai	req.con
25	LM5	ei tarvi piirtää	ack

The teacher starts this episode by saying *elikkä alotetaan* (so let's start) (line 1). As in Example 4 in Section 7.1, she uses here the form *let's* to emphasise the joint nature of the activity. However, the pupils continue to talk amongst themselves, and so the teacher repeats *alotetaan* (let's start), indicating that the pupils should stop talking by saying *sshh* (line 3). Apparently, some of the pupils think they will continue the exercise they were working on in the previous lesson, because LF2 informs the teacher that she has not finished it, saying *mä en oo ehtiny tehdä sitä tehtävää vielä* (I didn't manage to finish that exercise) (line 4) and LM2 remarks that neither did he (line 5). LM3, in contrast, seems to be indicating that he is ready to start by saying *no alotetaan* (well let's start) (line 6). The teacher continues her turn by saying that grammar will be their next topic (line 7). This triggers comments from the learners. They point out that they would not like to work on grammar exercises by saying together *eeii* (no) (line 8). In response the teacher then continues her recruitment by saying *voitte jatkaa sit myöhemmin katotaan et kaikille riittää töitä* (you can continue it later let's make sure that everyone has work) (line 10) in order to create a shared orientation. In other words, the teacher uses an explicit instruction in order to create intersubjectivity between herself and the pupils and to help the pupils to comply with the task requirements. However, LF2 comments overtly on the topic of the next task by saying *tylsää* (boring) (line 11). The teacher does

not react to LF2's comment but continues her introduction by saying *nyt tarkastellaan liitekysymyksiä* (now let's look at tag questions) (line 13). Again LM3 seems to follow the teacher's orientation by repeating *<liitekysymyksiä>* (tag questions) (line 14).

The other pupils too finally start to concentrate on the task and LF1 requests confirmation from the teacher by asking *tehääks me nyt tää* (are we going to do this now) (line 18) referring to the transparency that the teacher shows to the pupils. The teacher confirms this (line 19). In addition, LM2 and LF2 request information about the task in hand by asking *mikä systeemi toi on* (what is that system) (line 20) and *pitääks toi muka omaan vihkoon piirtää* (should we draw that in the notebooks) (line 21). As a result, the teacher gives the learners further advice on the task by saying *otsikon laitot vaa se riittää* (.) *tääl on ensin teksti* (..) *ei tarvi kirjottaa* (the heading is enough we have first the text here you don't need to write) (line 23). Then LM4 and LM5 also start to work on the task and acknowledge the instructions by saying *nii pelkkä otsikko riittää* (well the heading is enough) (line 24) and *ei tarvi piirtää* (it isn't necessary to draw) (line 25).

As well as giving instructions in introducing the next topic, the teacher tries to recruit the pupils' attention to the next task by explicitly calling for order. On these occasions the teacher regards the pupils' off-task exchanges as inappropriate and disturbing. Consider Example 48:

EXAMPLE 48 Episode 10. Lesson 8. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 1			
1	T	sitte näytätte olevan sen verran pitkällä et katotaas (.) toinen asia	ms
2	LL	[(xx)]	
3	T	[mikäs] oli se apuverbi saada olla lupa tehdä jotakin ↑	req.info
4	LM2	hei älä nyt ku mä merkitsen tän	ms
5	T	nyt pitää (.) kuunnella sitte taas hetki ni osaa ↑ (.)	ms
6	T	mikä oli se saada (.) olla lupa tehdä jotain (.)	req.info
7	T	mikä verbi (.)	req.info reph
8	T	LM8	nom
9	LM8	>may<	info
10	T	se oli may (.)	acc

In Example 48, the teacher starts a grammar instructional episode by focusing on the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may* and the associated structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. In contrast to the previous episode, where the pupils worked individually, this episode involves teacher-fronted learning. At first the teacher uses a metastatement in order to help the pupils to see the structure being taught and to understand the purpose of the subsequent exchanges. She tries to recruit the pupils into the next task by saying *sitte näytätte olevan sen verran pitkällä et katotaas* (.) *toinen asia* (then you seem to have done quite a lot of exercises so let's look at something else) (line 1). After this the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the new topic by asking *mikäs oli se apuverbi saada olla lupa tehdä jotakin* ↑ (what was the auxiliary verb that means *to be allowed to do something*) (line 2). However, LM2 is still engaged in his previous tasks and he

indicates that he needs more time to finish the last task by saying *hei älä nyt ku mä merkitsen tän* (please don't I'm writing this down) (line 3). In response to LM2's statement the teacher indicates that now it is time to concentrate on the new grammar point and she puts an end to the pupils' previous activities, declaring *nyt pitää (.) kuunnella sitte taas hetki ni osaa* ↑ (now you should listen for a while so you'll be able to do it) (line 5). Evidently, apart from recruiting the pupils into the next task, the teacher also wants to encourage them to start to work on the new grammar point, because she points out that if they listen to the instructions they will also learn. The teacher thus seems to attempt to get the learners motivated and enlist their interest in the task by emphasising the importance of listening to the instructions. After calling for order the teacher repeats her question and provides the learners with time to come up with an answer (line 6). However, before LM8 answers correctly (line 9) the teacher still has to rephrase her question (line 7). In the end the teacher accepts the answer and this brings the sequence to an end (line 10).

**Recruitment by referring to an old grammar point.** The strategies the teacher uses in recruiting the pupils into the next task involves referring to the focus of the previous lessons. In other words, the teacher builds her introduction of the new task on what the pupils already know. In fact, building bridges between a pupil's existing skills and those needed to complete new tasks is one of the features of effective scaffolding within the ZPD (e.g. Rogoff 1990, Rogoff and Gardner 1984). Accordingly, before going through the grammar exercises the teacher first makes sure that the pupils understand the grammar rule in question, as in Example 49:

EXAMPLE 49 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 1			
1	T	VIIMEEKS PUHUTTI adverbeista (.) pääsitte (.) näin pitkälle=	ms
2	LM1	=MÄ EN OLLU KOULUSSA	
3	LF2	en mäkää	
4	T	mm nyt sä näet sitte (.)	
5	T	oli ensin meil adjektiiveja (.) jotka piti kirjottaa ylös ↑ (.) niinku tääl on ↑ (.) sen jälkee oli tehtävä et ne piti muuttaa adverbeiks (.)	ms
6	T	kuis se tapahtu	req.info
7	LF2	mist mä tiän	(info)
8	LF1	äl yy perää	info
9	T	äl yy laitetaa perää (.) adjektiivin perää (.)	acc
10	T	katotaas kuin ne menee sitte (.) vihkosta pitäs löytyä ↑ (.)	ms

Just before this example the teacher and the pupils have gone through homework on vocabulary. At the beginning of Example 49, the teacher directs the pupils' attention to their homework on grammar by saying *VIIMEEKS PUHUTTI adverbeista (.) pääsitte (.) näin pitkälle* (last time we talked about adverbs you managed to get this far) (line 1). After this LM1 and LF2 remark that they were not present in the previous lesson (lines 2-3), and the teacher reacts to their turns by saying *mm nyt sä näet sitte (.)* (mm now you will see) (line 4). In other words, the teacher assures the pupils that they will get all the

information now. From line 5 onwards the teacher continues her introduction by revising the exercise they had had last time. In this way the teacher provides the learners with grounding for the task in focus in the episode. She also apparently seeks to enlist the learners' interest in the new grammar point by emphasising the grammar points the pupils have learned in the previous lesson. Importantly, however, this grounding does not take the form of a soliloquy by the teacher. Instead, the teacher invites the pupils to take part in creating the basis for the task in hand. In fact, this dialogic nature of the discourse in which target structures are co-constructed is essential in the scaffolding process (Wells 1999:119, 127). Thus, the teacher does not explain the formation of adverbs herself. She triggers an answer from the learners by asking *kuis se tapahtu* (how did it happen) (line 6). LF2 reacts to the teacher's elicitation by saying *mist mä tiiän* (how should I know) (line 7), thus reminding the teacher that she was absent from the previous lesson. LF1, on the other hand, gives the correct answer, which the teacher accepts (lines 8-9). It can be claimed that LF2 and LF1 have different ZPDs for the same target language form and will therefore require different levels of help. The formation of adverbs seems to be low in LF2's ZPD and it is likely that she will continue to need fairly explicit help before she becomes self-regulated in the grammar point. In the case of LF1, however, the same feature seems to be high in the ZPD. She seems to be able to control the feature by herself since she can provide the correct answer without any help from the teacher, and is thus self-regulated in this particular grammar point. After revising the ending of adverbs the teacher continues to recruit the pupils into the task in hand by saying *katotaas kuin ne menee sitte* (.) *vihkosta pitäis löytyä* (.) (let's see how it goes (.) they should be in your notebooks) (line 10) and they then get down to work.

**Recruitment by nominating the next speaker.** As well as by giving explicit instructions and by making references to previously encountered grammar points, the teacher also gains the pupils' attention by means of recruitment questions. If the teacher's introduction and invitation to bid for turns do not trigger any response from the learners, the teacher uses the strategy of individual nomination to invite learner participation in the activity. Consider Example 50:

EXAMPLE 50 Episode 2. Lesson 1. Old grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 1			
1	T	SITTE KATOTAAS YHDESSÄ SE TEHTÄVÄ KAHDEKSAN	ms
2	LM3	(.)	
3	T	osaisko LM3 alottaa	nom
4	LM3	täh	req.rep
5	T	tehtävä kahdeksan	rep
6	LL	((yawn))	
7	T	kuinkas tulee ensimmäinen	reph
8	LM3	>ai minä<	req.con
9	T	nii	con

continues



## EXAMPLE 50 continues

10	LM3	eeh Mondays are very <i>busy</i> days	info
11	LF2	<i>busy</i>	rep
12	LF1	* <i>busy</i> *	rep
13	T	busy ↑ =	req.rep
14	LM3	=* <i>busy</i> * [(.)] mitä (.) no okei (.) aren't they	rep info
15	LF1	[(laugh)]	
16	T	joo:o hyvä (.) iha oikein [(.)]	eval.pos
17	LF1	[ <i>busy</i> ]	rep

After working individually the pupils are oriented towards the homework on grammar by the teacher's metastatement *SITTE KATOTAAS YHDESSÄ SE TEHTÄVÄ KAHDEKSAN* (then let's check together that exercise eight) (line 1). Again here the teacher uses the form *let's*, thus treating the class as one group including herself. The pupils have been involved in individual work, and so the teacher tries to gain their attention by raising her voice in order to recruit them into the teacher-led activity. In addition, she provides the pupils with time to allow them to orient themselves towards the task in hand. However, because the pupils do not come up with any answers, the teacher nominates LM3 who is to read the first sentence by asking *osaisko LM3 alottaa* (could LM3 know how to begin) (line 3). The teacher's recruitment question seems to take the learner by surprise and he overtly indicates that he has not been listening by asking *täh* (what) (line 4). The teacher further tries to recruit LM3 into the task and to achieve intersubjectivity between the learner and herself by repeating the number of the sentence and by asking *kuinkas tulee ensimmäinen* (how do you do the first one) (line 5 and 7). However, LM3 is not able to make use of the teacher's elicitations, and he still requests confirmation that the teacher wants him to answer (line 8). After the teacher's confirmation he finally says the first part of the target structure (line 10). Thus, in spite of his hesitation LM3 seems to be near self-regulation in this particular grammar point, the grammar point being fairly high in his ZPD. His answer, however, contains a pronunciation error, which is repeated by other pupils (lines 11-12). Apparently for this reason, the teacher repeats the word with the correct pronunciation and indicates that LM3 should repeat it (line 13). LM3 complies and produces the last part of the target structure (line 14). Finally, the teacher evaluates the answer positively (line 16), and this brings the sequence to a close.

**Recruitment by enlisting the learner's interest with a challenge.** According to Wood et al. (1976), the tutor's first task is to recruit the novice's interest in the next activity. As illustrated by the previous Examples 46-50, the teacher in the present study often has to start a new activity by first drawing the learners' attention to the task. However, the strategy of arousing the pupils' interest in the task is important right from the beginning of the episode. In order to get the learners interested in the next activity, the teacher may challenge them by pointing out that the learners know the grammar point in question, as in Example 51:

## EXAMPLE 51 Episode 7. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 1			
1	T	katotaas sitte nää lauseet yhes (.) adverbilauseet nämä kyllä osaatte (..)	ms
2	T	kuinkas tulee ensimmäinen kuva ↑ (..)	req.info
3	T	LM10 (.)	nom
4	T	mitä laitetaan ensimmäiseen kuvaa	req.info
5	LF1	emmä tiedä (.) joku purra	
6	LM9	(xx)	
7	LM10	eeh (.) young people <i>walk</i> quickly	info
8	T	mm ↑	acc
9	LM10	ja sitte (.) old people <i>walk slowly</i>	info
10	T	mm (.) esimerkiksi ↑	acc
11	T	tää on nyt monikko ↑ (.) mm tää on monikko tää käy nyt näin (.)	exp
12	T	<mutta> jos teil ois ollu yksikkö ↑ ni mitä pitää olla siellä ↑ (.)	req.info
13	T	LF2 ↑	nom
14	LF2	ässä	info
15	T	joo ↑ (.)	acc
16	T	jos teil olis että a young man (.) ja sitte pitää olla <u>walks</u> : (.) ja tääl pitää muistaa olla artikkeli (.) ja sama (.) pätee vanhaa miehee (..)	ext

After the individual work the teacher attempts to enlist the pupils' interest in the next task by saying in the form of an imperative *katotaas sitte nää lauseet yhes (.) adverbilauseet nämä kyllä osaatte (..)* (let's look together at these sentences (.) you can do these sentences involving adverbs) (line 1). At the beginning of this example the pupils' attention is already directed to the formation of adverbs, because they have just been working individually on the sentences for translation involving adverbs, which the teacher now wants to check. Interestingly, when recruiting the learners interest in the next task, the teacher challenges the pupils to read aloud the sentences by saying *nämä kyllä osaatte* (these sentences you can do) (line 1). She seems to try to increase their motivation by indicating that she knows that they have done the sentences. In fact, during the individual work the teacher has walked around the classroom and helped the learners with their problems, and so she knows that the pupils have written down at least some of the sentences. After challenging the learners to participate in the task the teacher elicits a response from LM10 by asking a question, mentioning his name and then rephrasing the question by asking *mitä laitetaan ensimmäiseen kuvaa* (what is written in the first picture) (lines 2-4). The sentence to be translated has two parts and LM10 first answers only the first part by saying *eeh (.) young people walk quickly* (line 7). After the pupil's partial answer the teacher accepts it and simultaneously prompts him to go on with his answer by using a rising intonation (line 8). The pupil responds by continuing his answer with the latter part of the sentence, saying *ja sitte (.) old people walk slowly* (and then *old people walk slowly*) (line 9), which, in turn, is accepted by the teacher (line 10). LM10 seems to be near self-regulation in the task, showing the grammar point to be high in his ZPD.

After going through the sentence in hand the teacher seems to want to explain its structure in more detail. She points out that the sentence is in the

plural form (line 11) and contrasts it with the singular form of the verb (line 12). The teacher engages the pupils in the discussion by asking a question about the difference (line 12). After LF2's correct response (line 14) and the teacher's acceptance (line 15) the teacher starts a further explanation by giving an elucidative example, saying *jos teil olis että a young man (.) ja sitte pitää olla walks: (.) ja tääl pitää muistaa olla artikkeli (.) ja sama (.) pätee vanhaa miehee (.)* (if you had a young man and then you should have walks and here you must remember an article and the same goes with an old man) (line 16). With the example the teacher also foregrounds the use of articles in the singular, thus providing the learners with a firm context based on their knowledge of grammar.

To sum up, recruitment is the first of the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process described by Wood et al. (1976). These scaffolding features concern the way an adult or teacher can assist a child or learner. According to the original account by Wood et al. (1976), at the beginning of the process the teacher's first and obvious task is to enlist the learner's interest in the requirements of the task. In the present study, however, the analysis of this first category was revised to include also drawing the learners' attention to the next task. In the present study the teacher's task at the beginning of the grammar episode is to direct the learners' attention to a new grammar point. In order to achieve this the teacher in the classroom situation under study may first inform the pupils explicitly that they will change the topic. However, the teacher and the pupils do not always have symmetrical definitions of the task situation, and thus the teacher has to explain more thoroughly to the learners the requirements of the task. In addition, the teacher may explicitly call for order so as to direct the pupils' attention to the new task. Another strategy used by the teacher is to refer to the tasks of previous lessons to call the pupils' attention to the task in question. In other words, the teacher may try to build bridges between a pupil's existing skills and those needed to carry out a new task. The teacher may include the name of the pupil she wants to answer next in her recruitment question in order to orient the pupils towards the task in hand. Finally, if the learners' attention is already directed to the grammar point in question, for example, when the learners have been working individually on the same grammar point, the teacher's task is then to recruit their interest in the joint activity. The teacher may attempt to do this by challenging them to participate in the next task.

### 7.3.1.2 Recruitment in the middle of the episode

As was mentioned in Section 7.3.1.1, at the beginning of the grammar instructional episode, the teacher's first task is to help the pupils to orient themselves towards the next topic. This transition from one topic to another often takes several exchanges, because at the beginning of the episode the pupils may be still occupied with previous tasks. In contrast, in the middle of the grammar instructional episode moving from one sequence to another does not involve any change of topic, which remains the same throughout the episode. The transition from one sequence to another within an episode

involves only moving on from one grammar task to another and so the teacher often manages to recruit the learners' attention to the new task fairly quickly. In the present study recruitment is taken to involve also enlisting the learners' interest in the task. Although the teacher often attempts both to draw the learners' attention to and recruit their interest in the task, it is especially important for her to attract the learners' attention to the task at the beginning of a sequence. Only after the learners have listened to her instructions can the teacher start to provide them with scaffolded assistance and attempt to arouse their interest in the task. Thus, as pointed out above, for the purposes of the present study the original category of recruitment as proposed by Wood et al. (1976) is revised.

This section discusses the teacher's various strategies in recruiting the learners into the next task in the middle of the episode. Although both recruitment and direction maintenance involve gaining the learners' attention and interest, the focus of these features is different. When recruitment is examined, the focus is primarily on the beginnings of the sequences, whereas the examination of direction maintenance takes into account the complete sequence and the teacher's attempts to sustain the learners' attention to the task goal. The strategies of recruitment include *asking questions and reading aloud sentences to be translated, emphatic nomination of the next speaker, emphasising that errors are allowed, arousing the learner's interest with an interesting example and using English*. In the following, each of these strategies is described and illustrated by a few examples.

***Recruitment by asking questions and reading aloud sentences to be translated.***

One way of involving the pupils in the next task is for the teacher to elicit responses by asking questions. These questions are either read aloud directly from the English textbook or they are questions formed by the teacher. Example 52 focusing on new grammar points illustrates the teacher's recruitment questions:

EXAMPLE 52 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar points: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 8			
64	T	mikä oli se saada olla lupa tehdä jotakin ↑ (.)	req.info
65	T	LM7	nom
66	LM7	may	info
67	T	se oli may . (.)	acc

In this example, the teacher introduces the pupils to the other way of saying the auxiliary verb *may*. She recruits the learners into the next task by asking *mikä oli se saada olla lupa tehdä jotakin ↑* (what was that *to be allowed to do something* in English) (line 64). After posing the question she nominates LM7 whom she wants to respond (line 65). LM7 gives the correct answer, and at the end of the sequence the teacher accepts the answer (lines 66-7). In other words, on this occasion LM7 is capable of exerting control over the task in hand and the new

item seems to be high in his ZPD. LM7 seems to be near self-regulation in this particular task.

A second way of recruiting the pupils into the task in hand is for the teacher to read aloud sentences that are to be translated. Due to the nature of the grammar exercises in the data, this is a typical strategy the teacher uses in the classroom situation under study. That is, most of the grammar exercises in the data involve sentences in Finnish that call for translations into English as answers, and thus the teacher elicits answers from the pupils by first reading the sentences in Finnish. This recruitment strategy is illustrated by Example 53, where the teacher and the pupil have a shared definition of the task situation:

EXAMPLE 53 Episode 14. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 7			
151	T	<b>täytyikö</b> sinun mennä pyörällä	req.info
152	T	LM7	nom
153	LM7	mm eeh did you have to go by bike	info
154	T	mm (.)	acc

In Episode 14, from which this example is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on the structure *to have to*. The teacher starts Sequence 7 by reading aloud the sentence to be translated *täytyikö sinun mennä pyörällä* (*did you have to go by bike*) (line 151). Importantly, the teacher also emphasises the tense of the auxiliary verb in order to foreground an important element of the sentence. In other words, the purpose of this recruitment seems to be to draw the pupils' attention to certain forms in the sentence. After the teacher says his name LM7 gives the correct translation and the teacher accepts the answer (lines 153-4). Again here, the pupil seems to be near self-regulation in the task in hand and the grammar point is evidently high in his ZPD.

Repetition is a third means of recruitment used to direct the learners' attention to the task in hand. This strategy typically also involves providing the pupils with pauses. By giving the pupils time to come up with the target structure in this way the teacher tries to create intersubjectivity between the learners and herself. Example 54 below comes from an episode with new grammar points in focus. The teacher introduces the pupils to the structure *to have to* by going through sentences that involve this new structure. The sentences have been formed by the teacher herself and the pupils are expected to translate them into English:

EXAMPLE 54 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar points: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 3			
76	T	<minun täytyi> (.) ostaa kirjoja (.)	req.info
77	T	<minun täytyi ostaa kirjoja> (.)	rep
78	T	LF2	nom
79	LF2	I had to buy books	info
80	T	minun täy[tyi ostaa (.)]	acc
81	LF2	[onks se buy vai <i>bought</i> ]	req.rep
82	T	buy	info
83	LM8	miks	reg.exp

In order to orient the pupils towards the next sentence to be translated the teacher reads the sentence aloud in Finnish (line 76). She emphasises the tense of the verb by reading it in a slow tempo. In addition, she provides the learners with a pause to come up with the appropriate structure (line 76). Because the pupils do not answer at all, the teacher repeats the complete sentence in a slow tempo and provides them with a little more time (line 77). The teacher apparently tries not only to recruit the pupils into the task but also to gauge the pupils' ZPDs in terms of the structure *to have to* in order to provide them with the right amount of assistance. This, in fact, is one of the features of effective assistance (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994). The teacher then selects LM2 to answer and he gives the correct translation (lines 78-9). After this LF2 requests a repetition of the verb form by asking *onks se buy vai bought* (is it *buy* or *bought*) (line 81). The teacher confirms that the correct form is *buy* (line 82). Thus, LF2 does not seem to be completely self-regulated in the grammar point in question, because she wants the teacher to confirm the form. LM8 still seems to be uncertain of the correct form, because he asks *miks* (why) (line 83). This time, however, his question is left unanswered, and the sequence comes to an end.

A fourth approach in addition to the strategies involving questions, reading sentences aloud or repeating the sentences, is for the teacher to read out only the number of the sentence in hand or a part of the sentence in recruiting the pupils into the next task. This occurs when the exercise consists of several sentences involving the grammar point that is the main focus of the episode. The teacher's repetition of the verb form is thus enough to trigger a response from the learners, as in Example 55, where the teacher and the pupils go through sentences involving the structure *to have to* in different tenses:

EXAMPLE 55 Episode 14. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 3			
123	T	on täytynyt	req.info
124	T	LF6	nom
125	LF6	I have had to go to school ever- every day	info
126	T	mm ↑	acc

In Episode 14, from which Example 55 is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through sentences that involve the structure *to have to*. The teacher starts to recruit the pupils into the task by saying aloud only the verb form *on täytynyt* (*have had to*) (line 123). The pupils seem to know that they are expected to read aloud the translated sentences in numerical order, since the mere mentioning of the verb form and nominating of the next speaker are enough to trigger a response. The grammar point in question also seems to be high in LF6's ZPD and she provides the correct target sentence, which the teacher accepts (lines 125-6), thus bringing the sequence to an end. LF6 seems to be self-regulated in the task, not needing any help from the teacher to complete the translation of the sentence.

*Recruitment involving emphatic nomination of the next speaker.* A fifth strategy the teacher in the present study employs in order to recruit the pupils into the task in hand involves naming the pupils she wants to respond right at the beginning of the sequence. Typically, the teacher first elicits a response and only after that does she select the next speaker. However, the teacher may also start the sequence by nominating the pupil she wants to translate the next sentence. This is the case especially when the teacher and the pupils go through several sentences in numerical order, and the pupils know what they are expected to do, as in Example 56:

EXAMPLE 56 Episode 14. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 2			
118	T	LF2 seuraava (.)	nom req.info
119	LF2	<I had (.) [to go to school at eight o'clock yesterday]>	info
120	LM2	[siel on yks moniste]	
121	T	mm (.)	acc

The second sequence of Episode 14 is illustrated by Example 56, in which the teacher and the pupils go through homework on the structure *to have to*. Just before this example the teacher has introduced the pupils to the main focus of the instructional episode, and the teacher and the pupils have gone through a fairly long opening phase discussing the requirements of the homework. At the beginning of Example 56, the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the sentence in hand simply by saying *LF2 seuraava* (LF2 next please) (line 118). LF2 seems to know that she is expected to say the next sentence aloud, although this is not explicitly stated. Her response is correct and the teacher accepts it at the end of the sequence (lines 119 and 121). In other words, this particular grammar point seems to be high in LF2's ZPD, and LF2 seems to be self-regulated in the task. Furthermore, the teacher and LF2 have symmetrical definitions of the task situation, and consequently they are able to work on the task without any problems.

The teacher in this study may also try to recruit the pupils into the next task by emphatically stating that the learners know how to complete the exercise in hand. The teacher uses this strategy when she has already introduced the pupils to the new grammar point in question or when she and the pupils go through the homework. The latter of these situations is illustrated in Example 57:

Example 57 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar points: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 4			
37	T	köyhästi (..)	req.info
38	T	LM4 osaa tän (.)	nom pro
39	T	lisätää köyhää äl yy pääte	clue
40	LM4	no (.) poorly	info
41	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc

In Example 57, the teacher and the pupils go through adverbs that the pupils are supposed to have formed at home. At first the teacher says aloud the adverb in Finnish (line 37). In addition, she provides the learners with time to help them to orient themselves towards the target structure (line 37). However, the teacher's first initiating move and a pause do not elicit any response from the learners, and thus she nominates LM4 who is to respond by saying *LM4 osaa tän* (.) (LM4 knows how to do this) (line 38). It is notable here that the teacher says this in the form of a statement instead of just mentioning the learner's name. It implies that the teacher wants to encourage and motivate LM4 to participate in the activity. Thus, in addition to directing the learner's attention to the next task, the teacher seems to want to arouse his interest in the activity of checking the homework after first providing him time to come up with an answer. Furthermore, she apparently wants to indicate that they have gone through this particular grammar rule and that she expects LM4 to apply it. However, it seems that LM4 is not able to respond to the teacher's prompting, and thus the teacher gives him an explicit clue by saying *lisätään köyhää älä yy päätte* ↑ (you add the ending *ly* to the word *poor*) (line 39). This finally triggers a response from LM4 and he answers *no poorly* (well *poorly*) (line 40). In terms of scaffolding the learner still seems to be at the level where explicit assistance provided by a teacher is needed and the grammar point still seems to be rather low in his ZPD. LM4 is thus still other-regulated in the task. Finally, the teacher accepts the learner's correct answer (line 41).

As well as by mentioning emphatically a pupil's name and commenting on a pupil's ability to answer, the teacher can recruit the pupils into the next task with questions involving nomination. In other words, if the teacher's initial elicitation does not trigger any response from the learners, the teacher selects the next speaker herself and asks the pupil directly whether he or she can answer the question. Consider Example 58:

EXAMPLE 58 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 6			
50	T	<entäpä kamalasti> (.)	req.info
51	T	<miten LM7 tekis>	nom
52	LM7	mm (.) mul on vähä eri sanoil mutta (.) <terribly>	info
53	T	mm ↑ terribly horribly (.)	acc
54	T	eli ee häviää sieltä tulee yy sen tilalle (.)	clar

In Example 58, taken from Episode 6, the teacher and the pupils check the adverbs the pupils had as the subject of their homework. At first the teacher tries to elicit an answer from the learners by saying in a slow tempo <entäpä kamalasti> (how about *terribly*) and by giving the learners time (line 50). However, this does not help the pupils to come up with an answer, and the teacher therefore nominates the pupil she wants to give an answer by asking <miten LM7 tekis> (how would LM7 do it) (line 51). It is interesting that when nominating the next speaker the teacher uses the form of a question rather than a statement. Furthermore, the question is in the conditional tense. It is possible that the



teacher is not sure whether LM7 can provide an answer, and thus she attempts to interpret the location of this particular feature in LM7's ZPD. In addition, in recruiting LM7 into the task the teacher wants to encourage his participation in the activity. She also seems to want to engage the learner's interest in the homework. As a result, LM7 answers by saying *mm* (.) *mul on vähä eri sanoil mutta* (.) <terribly> (mm I do have slightly different words but *terribly*) (line 52). The learner's uncertainty can be seen in his answer, that is, in his use of the hesitation mark *mm* and in his saying that he has formed the adverb with different words. Thus, LM7 does not seem to be completely self-regulated in the task, because he wants the teacher to confirm his answer. The teacher, however, accepts the answer by repeating the word and by mentioning an alternative for the adverb (line 53). Finally, the teacher clarifies the formation of the adverb by saying *eli ee häviää sieltä tulee yy sen tilalle* (.) (e disappears from there y replaces it) (line 54).

**Recruitment by emphasising that errors are allowed.** In addition to asking questions, reading aloud sentences for translation and emphatically naming the next speaker, the teacher can emphasise the importance of attempting the task even if the correctness of the answer is not certain when recruiting the pupils into the new task. The teacher wants the pupils to participate in the teaching-learning process and it is important that she wants the learners to understand that they can carry out the task through dialogue with other members in the class. This is, actually, one of the features of effective scaffolding (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994). Consider Example 59:

EXAMPLE 59 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 3			
35	T	<lääkäri ei ollut voinut tulla heti> (.) mikäs aikamuoto tämä olis (..)	req.info
36	T	mitä veikkaatte (.)	pro
37	T	LF6	nom
38	LF6	no onkse pluskvamperfekti	sug
39	T	on (.) kyllä on (.)	con
40	T	kuinkas tulis LM4 pluskvamperfektissä	req.info nom
41	LM4	eeh (.) the doctor: hadn't able to (.) come	info
42	T	mm ↑ (.) immediately heti ↑ mm ↑ (.) <hadn't been able to ↑>	eval.pos /neg info
43	LF2	hm (.) mikä se oli has hän toikin on nyt sitte had	ack
44	T	pluskvamperfektissä on [aina hadn't ↑] sen jälkee pitää olla verbi oikeessa muodossa ja sen jälkee <able to come> (.) ihan tavallisesti	clar
45	LF2	[onks toi has]	req.info
46	LF3	käyks right away	req.info
47	T	right away käy (.)	acc
48	T	oliko muita heti sanoja ↑ (.)	che
49	T	ei:	ack

In Example 59, which is from an episode focusing on the other ways of saying the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may*, the teacher and the pupils go through the homework. The pupils are supposed to have translated sentences involving the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to* into English and written them down in

their notebooks. At the beginning of the example, the teacher recruits the pupils into the activity by reading aloud the sentence in Finnish and asking first about the tense of the verb phrase (line 35). In addition, she provides the learners with a long pause to come up with an appropriate answer (line 35). However, the pupils are not able to respond to the teacher's first initiating move followed by a pause. Therefore, the teacher tries again to recruit the learners into the task by asking *mitä veikkaatte* (what do you guess) (line 36). It is evident that she wants to indicate to the pupils that by participating in the dialogue they will learn and that making errors is allowed. In addition, in asking the pupils to guess the correct answer the teacher seems to want to enlist the learners' interest in the task. In this way the learners are given more freedom in participating in the task and they are allowed to suggest different possible alternatives. However, not until she nominates the next speaker does the teacher get an answer (line 37). LF6 gives her answer in the form of a suggestion by saying *no onkse pluskvamperfekti* (well is it the past perfect tense) (line 38). By answering in the form of a suggestion LF6 indicates that she is still uncertain about the tense of the target structure. LF6's suggestion is correct, and the teacher confirms it by saying *on (.) kyllä on (.)* (yes it is) (line 39).

After accepting the answer to her first question the teacher directs her second question to another pupil. She asks LM4 to translate the sentence by saying *kuinkas tulis LM4 pluskvamperfektissä* (how would you say in the past perfect tense) (line 40). Again the selected speaker is uncertain about the target structure, which is indicated by the hesitation marks and pauses in his answer *eeh (.) the doctor: hadn't able to (.) come* (line 41). LM4's answer is not correct. Yet, the teacher does not ask any further questions, but provides the pupils with the correct structure by saying *mm ↑immediately heti ↑mm ↑(.) <hadn't been able to ↑>* (line 42). Furthermore, LF2's comment *hm (.) mikä se oli has häh toikin on nyt sitte had ↑* (hm what was *has* what that is also *had*) (line 43) indicates that LF2 is also unsure about the use of the verb form in question. On account of these several hesitant responses the teacher clarifies the use of the structure *to be able to* in the past perfect tense (line 44). The teacher obviously notices that the grammar point is rather low in LM4 and LF2's ZPDs. The learners seem still to be other-regulated in the task. After the teacher's explanation LF3 inquires whether the form *right away* can be used in the sentence (line 46). The teacher confirms this and checks whether the pupils have any other alternatives for the word *immediately* (lines 47-8). The pupils do not give any response, which the teacher acknowledges by saying *ei* (no) herself (line 49).

Instead of asking the whole class to guess what the target structure is, the teacher can direct her emphatic request for an attempted answer to only one pupil at a time. By using this strategy in recruiting a pupil into the task the teacher indicates that she expects the pupil to give at least some kind of response. In other words, the pupil cannot ignore the teacher's expectation of an answer. Consider Example 60:

EXAMPLE 60 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structure *be able to*.

SEQUENCE 3			
87	T	katotaa kuinka [oot onnistunu]	pro
88	LF2	[kaikki varmaan muistaa noi jutut] hyvä et joku muistaa	ack
89	T	osata tai voida oikeissa muodoissa (.)	ms
90	T	ensimmäinen lause (..)	req.info
91	T	Tom osaa lukea hyvin (..)	req.info reph
92	T	alotetaa (.) LM6:sta LM6 yrittää	nom pro
93		(..)	
94	LM6	ääh (..) Tom (.) can read well	info
95	LL	(xx)	
96	T	kyllä ↑ (.)	acc

Just before this example the teacher and the pupils have revised the formation of the structure *to be able to* and here the teacher starts to check the pupils' homework. At first the teacher prompts the whole class by saying *katotaa kuinka oot onnistunu* (let's see how you got on) (line 87). She uses the form *let's*, thus treating the class as one group including herself (see Example 4 in Section 7.1.1). However, in the same sentence she also uses the pronoun *you* when referring to the homework. It is possible that she wants to emphasise that everyone has done his or her translation sentences individually without any help from other pupils in the class. After the teacher's prompting LF2 shows her frustration by saying *kaikki varmaan muistaa noi jutut hyvä et joku muistaa* (surely everyone can remember those things perfectly well great if anybody can) (line 88) (see Section 7.3.5 for a discussion of frustration control). In response to LF2's frustration, the teacher further directs the learners' attention to the main point of the exercise by saying *osata tai voida oikeissa muodoissa (.)* (*to be able to do something* in the correct tenses) (line 89). However, the learners do not make any response. Consequently, the teacher tries to recruit the class into the task first by repeating the number of the sentence *ensimmäinen lause* (the first sentence) (line 90) and then by reading out the complete sentence in Finnish *Tom osaa lukea hyvin* (*Tom can read well*) (line 91). At this point the teacher nominates LM6 who is to answer, saying *alotetaa (.) LM6:sta LM6 yrittää* (let's start with LM6 LM6 can try) (line 92). She apparently uses the verb *yrittää* (try) to indicate that the pupils are allowed to make errors, and that they will correct the possible errors together. Furthermore, by selecting the next speaker and by indicating that LM6 is expected to at least try to answer, the teacher signals that LM6 cannot ignore her prompting. Consequently, after a long pause and a hesitation *ääh* LM6 comes up with an answer (line 94). The answer is correct, and thus in spite of his hesitation the grammar point seems to be rather high in LM6's ZPD. The teacher accepts the answer, thus closing the sequence (line 96).

**Recruitment by arousing the learner's interest with an interesting example.** As was pointed out above, recruitment in the present study involves both the teacher's drawing the learners' attention to and arousing their interest in the

task. The teacher in the present study often has to start the next sequence by first drawing the learners' attention to the task. Getting the pupils interested in the task is, however, also important right from the beginning of the sequence. In order to get the learners interested in the next activity, the teacher may refer to things that teenage pupils find interesting. Consider Example 61, where the teacher's sample sentence deals with smoking:

EXAMPLE 61 Episode 10. Lesson 8. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 3			
24	T	nyt jos mä sanosin=	req.info
25	LF1	=mä nyt en tiä et mis me nyt ollaa oikee (.) ollaaks me näis lauseis viel	req.info
26	T	puhutaan maystä (.) saada olla lupa tehdä jotain	info
27	LM6	lopeta (.) kato kirjast	info
28	LF1	maystä ↑	req.rep
29	T	may verbistä (.) ja se kierrettiin rakenteella be allowed to (.)	rep
30	T	nyt jos mä sanosin suomeks <että> (..) minä (.) sain (.) tupakoida kotona (.) kotona ↑ (.) ni kuinkas sanosit (..)	req.info
31	T	<sain tupakoida kotona> [(.)]	rep
32	LF6	[nii]	
33	T	LF6	nom
34	LF6	I was allowed to (.) smoke at home	info
35	LF1	[LF6:lla on kivat porukat]	
36	T	[mm (.)]	acc
37	LF1	[* kotona *]	

(11 lines omitted from the end of the sequence)

In Episode 10, from which this example is taken, the teacher introduces the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to* to the learners. At the beginning of Example 61, the teacher starts to ask the next question, but she is interrupted by LF1 who has not listened to her instructions and she therefore has to repeat the new grammar point to her (lines 26 and 29). LM6 also tells LF1 to concentrate on the task by saying *lopeta (.) kato kirjast* (stop it look it up in the book) (line 27). After LF1 has found the correct page in the book, the teacher says the next sentence in Finnish and asks the pupils to translate it into English by saying *nyt jos mä sanosin suomeks <että> (..) minä (.) sain (.) tupakoida kotona (.) kotona ↑ (.) ni kuinkas sanosit (.)* (if I said in Finnish *I was allowed to smoke at home* how would you say) (line 30). The teacher has not written the sentences down. Instead, she forms new sentences to be translated right away in the classroom. She seems to want to stimulate the learners' interest in the activity by referring to smoking, which has obviously been a topic of conversation both at school and at home. However, the pupils do not immediately react to the task. Thus, after a pause the teacher repeats the sentence for translation in Finnish (lines 31). LF6 signals that she is listening to the teacher by saying *nii* (yes) (line 32), and so the teacher selects her to translate the sentence (line 33). LF6's answer is correct and the teacher accepts it (lines 34 and 36). LF6 seems to be near self-regulation in the task and the grammar point in hand rather high in her ZPD. At this point LF1 makes an off-task comment by saying *LF6:lla on kivat porukat* (LF6 has a nice family) (line 35) and a little later she adds jokingly *kotona* (at home) (line 37),

thus indicating that the teacher's sentence for translation has provoked her interest. In other words, she connects the content of the sentence for translation to a real life situation, meaning that since LF6 is allowed to smoke at home her family are very nice.

**Recruitment in English.** All the examples of the teacher's recruitment strategies so far have involved the teacher recruiting the pupils into the task by using Finnish. This is not, however, always what happens as the following example shows:

EXAMPLE 62 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 2			
37	T	LM[9] the first part please	req.info nom
38	LM9	[aha]	
39	LM9	I have spoken to Don	info
40	T	LM1 (..)	
41	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc
(Sequence 3 omitted)			
SEQUENCE 4			
47	T	LF2 next one please	req.info nom
48	LF2	mm <I: am I bought all the food fo:r our tea>	info
49	T	mm [(.)]	acc
(Sequences 5-19 omitted)			
SEQUENCE 20			
118	T	then a few more to go (.)	ms
119	T	LF6 ↑	nom
120	LF6	I've met uncle Pat	info
SEQUENCE 21			
121	T	and LM1 next one please	req.info nom
122	LM1	and I've let out <i>the</i> cat	info
123	T	mm	acc

In Episode 3, the teacher and the pupils go through an exercise focusing on the perfect tense of verbs. The pupils are supposed to have filled in the missing verbs in their textbooks at home. What is exceptional here is that the teacher recruits the pupils into the tasks using English throughout Episode 3. At the beginning of Example 62, the teacher recruits LM9 into the next task by saying *LM9 the first part please* (line 37). The teacher's use of the pupil's name and the number of the exercise is enough to trigger a response from LM9 (line 39). At the end of the sequence, the teacher accepts LM9's correct answer with a minimal response *mm ↑* (line 41). Similarly, at the beginning of Sequence 4, the teacher recruits the pupil by saying in English *LF2 next one please* (line 47). LF2 then gives the correct answer, which the teacher accepts (lines 48-9). A little later, at the beginning of Sequence 20, the teacher uses a metastatement to help the pupils to see the future structure of the lesson (line 118). In other words, she recruits LF6 into the task by saying *then a few more to go* and addressing her by name (lines 118-9). LF6 then provides the correct target structure. However, this

time the teacher does not give any overt acceptance, but moves on to the next sentence, saying *and LM1 next one please* (line 121). LM1 gives the correct answer and the teacher accepts it with a minimal response *mm* (lines 122-3). In this example, the learners provide the correct responses without any further help from the teacher. In other words, the learners seem to be self-regulated in the tasks, the target structures being rather high in the learners' ZPDs.

To summarise, according to the original account by Wood et al. (1976), which is the basis for the present analysis, the teacher's first and most obvious task is to arouse the learner's interest in the requirements of the task in hand. For the purposes of the present study, however, the original concept of recruitment was revised to take separate account of the teacher's arousal of the learners' interest in the next task and the drawing of their attention to it. In the present case the teacher first has to direct the learners' attention to a new grammar point and then after having secured their attention to the task, she may attempt to stimulate further their interest in the task. In contrast to the case of recruiting pupils at the beginning of the episode, in the middle of the episode the main topic of the tasks remains the same. Thus, here recruitment involves directing the pupils' attention to the next task concerned with the same grammar point as the previous ones. The teacher in this study uses several strategies in order to draw the pupils' attention to the next task and its requirements. Firstly, she may recruit the pupils by asking questions and reading sentences aloud in Finnish. When she does so she may emphasise important elements when reading the sentences to be translated. If no immediate response occurs, she may also repeat her initial elicitation or a part of it. Secondly, the teacher may employ emphatic nomination of the next speaker in her recruitment. She may name the pupil who is to answer by saying in the form of a statement that that particular pupil knows the target structure or she may alternatively recruit the pupil into the task by asking how he or she would carry out the task in hand. A third strategy the teacher uses in recruiting the pupils into the next exercise involves emphasising that errors are allowed and that participation in the teaching-learning process is more important than avoiding incomplete answers. Fourthly, the teacher may also explicitly attempt to stimulate the learner's interest in the task by means of an interesting example. Finally, as well as employing the above-mentioned strategies using Finnish, the teacher sometimes directs the pupils' attention to the task in hand by using English.

### **7.3.2 Reduction in degrees of freedom**

According to Wood et al. (1976), scaffolding is the process by which an expert assists a novice to achieve a goal or solve a problem the novice cannot achieve or solve alone. The expert's first task in assisting a novice is, as described in Section 7.3.1, to draw his or her attention to and to enlist his or her interest in the task. After that the expert may simplify the task if needed so that the novice is able to understand the requirements of the task. According to Wood et al. (1976), simplifying or limiting the demands of the task involves the second of

the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process. Importantly, it means simplifying the task so that it is possible for the novice to reach a solution under the teacher's guidance. Furthermore, as Greenfield (1984:119) points out, the idea is in fact to simplify the novice's role in the task through gradual assistance.

This section discusses the teacher's various strategies in reducing the degree of freedom in completing the task in order to help a learner to carry out the activity in the classroom situation under study. These strategies include *asking a more specific question, giving specific clues, asking forced-choice questions, focusing on a subtask and focusing on the meaning of words*. In the following, each of these strategies is described and illustrated by some examples.

**Reduction in degrees of freedom by asking a more specific question.** The teacher's second task is to simplify the demands of the task, in particular when the learner fails to control the task. If the teacher's initial elicitation does not trigger any response from the learners, the teacher may rephrase her question in order to help the learners to carry out the task. In other words, she tries to make the question simpler for the learners to answer, as in Example 63:

EXAMPLE 63 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 6			
146	T	mikäs sitte viel jää yks tapaus näitten ulkopuolelle näitten kahen apuverbit ja sitte noi don't ja doesn't=	req.info
147	LF1	=pitääks noi kirjottaa	
148	T	kirjota kohta	
149	T	katotaan viel tää viiminen (..)	ms
150	T	yks tapaus mitä ei löydy täältä vielä (..)	req.info reph
151	T	LM4	nom
152	LM4	no onko be verbi	sug
153	T	on se on olla verbi	con
154	T	mitä huomaatte (..)	req.info
155	T	onks täällä päälauseessa olla verbi ↑ (..)	req.info reph
156	T	täällä I'm at home most of the day ↑ (.)	req.info reph
157	T	LM7	nom
158	LM7	no on	info
159	T	mitä sille on sitte tapahtunut täällä (.) >liitekysymyksessä.<	req.info
160	LM7	no (.) se pitää olla siin toises muodossa (xx)	info
161	T	joo	acc
162	T	eli nytte tääl onki AREN'T tää on poikkeus muuten käytetää ihan samaa muotoa jos tääl on AM nii tääl onkii AREN'T jos tääl on IS tääl on (.) IS jos tääl on ARE ni tääl on ARE (..) mut sitte (.) se oli se kolmas asia	ext

In this example, which is from an episode focusing on a new grammar point, the teacher introduces the learners to the formation of tag questions. At the beginning of Example 63, the teacher recruits the pupils into the next task by asking *mikäs sitte viel jää yks tapaus näitten ulkopuolelle näitten kahen apuverbit ja sitte noi don't ja doesn't* (in addition to these auxiliary verbs and those *don't* and

*doesn't* there is still one more case what is it) (line 146). After informing LF1 that she can copy the information from the transparency into her notebook a little later (line 148) the teacher repeats that there is still one thing they have to look at (line 149). However, this does not trigger any response from the learners, and thus the teacher rephrases the elicitation more explicitly, saying *yks tapaus mitä ei löydy täältä vielä* (one case that cannot be found here yet) (line 150), and refers to the transparency. In addition, the teacher provides the learners with a long pause (line 150). The teacher's assistance seems to help LM4 to become more involved in the task, that is, to achieve intersubjectivity, since after the teacher nominates him LM4 makes a response (line 152). He offers his answer in the form of a suggestion, saying *no onko be verbi* (well is it the verb *to be*) (line 152), thus indicating his uncertainty about the answer. LM4 still seems to be other-regulated in the task, the grammar point being rather low in his ZPD. However, the answer is correct, and the teacher accepts it (line 153). After this the teacher continues to introduce the grammar point to the learners by asking an implicit question *mitä huomaatte* (..) (what do you notice) (line 154). However, this question seems to be too implicit to help the pupils to recognise the new grammar point. Thus, again the teacher rephrases her question. First she makes the question more explicit by asking *onks täällä päälauseessa olla verbi ↑* (is there the verb *to be* in the main clause) (line 155), thus referring to the main clause. In other words, the teacher rephrases the question in a form that has to be answered with the words *yes* or *no*, thus making it easier to answer. Because even this question seems to be too complicated, she rephrases it by explicitly pointing out the main clause *täällä I'm at home most of the day ↑* (.) (here *I'm at home most of the day*) (line 156). The teacher's assisting questions help LM7 to participate in co-constructing the target structure, and after she says his name he gives the correct answer *no on* (well yes) (line 158). In addition, when the teacher asks a further question: *mitä sille on sitte tapahtunut täällä* (.) >liitekysymyksessä.< (what has happened to it here in the tag question) (line 159), LM7 comes up with the correct answer: *no* (.) *se pitää olla siin toises muodossa* (well it must be in the other form) (line 160). Finally, the teacher extends LM4 and LM7's answers by explaining the use of the verb in tag questions (line 162).

As well as rephrasing her questions as a result of the pupils' silence, the teacher can make her questions more explicit at the overt request of the learners. In other words, if the learners do not understand the teacher's initial question, they may explicitly indicate their lack of understanding. The lack of coherence between the teacher's and the pupils' perspectives on the task may be due to one word, which the teacher needs to explain by using other words, as in Example 64:

EXAMPLE 64 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structure *be able to*.

SEQUENCE 2			
61	T	kuinka (.) mikä oli se rakenne millä se can ver:bi kierrettiin	req.info
62	LF5	be allowed ((whisper))	info
63	LF1	kierrettiin ↑	req.con

continues



## EXAMPLE 64 continues

64	T	nii ↑	con
65	LM5	kierret[tii]	req.con
66	T	[muis]sa aikamuodoissa (.)	con reph
67	T	LM4	nom
68	LM4	be able to	info
69	T	mitäs sen ben paikalle laitettiin	req.info
70	LM2	mm sepä se ↑	ack
71	T	mikä verbi se on ↑	reph
72	LM3	may	info
73	LF2	no be verbi (.) apuverbi	info
74	T	LF2 (.)	nom
75	T	mikä verbi	rep
76	LF2	olla	info
77	T	olla verbi ↑	acc
(9 lines omitted from the sequence)			

In Example 64, the teacher starts to revise the other way of saying the auxiliary verb *can*. However, already in her first question there is the verb *kierrettiin* (to say it in another way) (line 61), which causes confusion among the pupils. First, LF4 whispers her incorrect answer (line 62), to which the teacher does not react. After this LF1 reveals her lack of understanding by repeating the verb *kierrettiin* (to say it in another way) (line 63). She repeats the verb in a rising intonation, thus requesting further clarification. The teacher seems to interpret LF1's repetition as a request for confirmation, and she does not give any further explanation. Instead, she simply confirms that the pupils have heard the verb correctly (line 64). She also uses a rising intonation, which indicates that she wants to prompt the learners to go on with the task. This exchange shows how careful the teacher is not to give the learners too much assistance in the form of unnecessarily explicit clues. However, the pupils are not able to pick up the teacher's prompting, and LM5 repeats the verb once again (line 65). After this second repetition of the verb by the pupils the teacher seems to decide that the learners need more assistance in order to carry out the task, and so she makes her question more explicit by adding *muissa aikamuodoissa* (in other tenses) (line 66). In addition to rephrasing her question, the teacher gives the pupils time to think about the problem before she selects the next speaker (line 67). In other words, in this first part of Sequence 2, the structure *to be able to* seems to be low in LF5, LF1 and LM5's ZPDs and they are strongly other-regulated. After the teacher names him LM4 finally recognises the correct structure *to be able to* (line 68).

After LM4 recognises the appropriate infinitive form the teacher goes on to introduce other tenses by asking *mitäs sen ben paikalle laitettiin* (what do we put instead of the verb *to be*) (line 69). In response, LM2 acknowledges the teacher's question and indicates his lack of control over the task by saying *mm sepä se ↑* (mm that's it) (line 70). Again here the teacher makes the question more explicit by saying *mikä verbi se on ↑* (what is the verb) (line 71). First LM3 answers *may* (line 72) and then L2 *no be verbi (.) apuverbi* (well the verb *to be* (.) the auxiliary verb) (line 73). However, before accepting any of the responses that the learners have provided without bidding for turns the teacher

nominates LF2 who is to answer next and repeats her question (lines 74-5). The teacher apparently wants to remind the learners about the rule of asking for permission before answering. After getting permission to answer LF2 gives the correct answer and the teacher accepts it (lines 76-7). In terms of scaffolding LM2 and LM3 still seem to be at the level where other-assistance is needed, whereas LF2 seems to be near self-regulation.

As was mentioned above, the teacher makes her questions more explicit in order to help the learners to reach the solution to the task. However, the grammar point in question may be so complicated that the pupils are not able to make use of the teacher's explicit questions. In other words, the grammar point is still low in the learners' ZPDs and the learners are strongly object- or other-regulated. As a result, the teacher may give the correct answers in order to help the learners to achieve intersubjectivity. In doing this the teacher also builds a basis for future activities. Consider Example 65:

EXAMPLE 65 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 9			
68	T	nyt näissä (.) nää on nimeltää vaillinaisia apuverbejä	ms exp
69	T	minkäköhän takii ne olis vaillinaisia (..)	req.info
70	T	kuinkas sanotte imperfektissä minulla oli lupa tiskata	reph
71	LL	(xx)	
72	LM1	emmä tajuu (xx)	(info)
73	T	elikkä vaillinainen apuverbi tarkotti sitä että (.) niil ei oo [kaikkii aika]muotoja	exp
74	LM	[(xx)]	
75	T	kuuliko LM1:kin	ms
76	LM1	[joo]	con
77	LF3	[minne mä jätin mun kumin]	
78	T	eli (.) niil ei oo ku ne preesens muodot	exp

Just before this example the teacher and the pupils have gone through sentences for translation involving the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may*. The teacher starts Example 65 by referring to those sentences, saying *nyt näissä nää on nimeltää vaillinaisia apuverbejä* (now in these these are called modal auxiliary verbs) (line 68). Next, the teacher elicits a question by asking *minkäköhän takii ne olis vaillinaisia* (why would they be "incomplete") (line 69). However, the teacher's question seems to be too implicit for the pupils, since the teacher's first question followed by a long pause does not trigger any response from the learners. Accordingly, she tries to make her question easier for the pupils to answer by referring to an example: *kuinkas sanotte imperfektissä minulla oli lupa tiskata* (how do you say in the past tense *I was allowed to wash up*) (line 70). However, the pupils still fail to pick up the teacher's assisting questions, and no appropriate response occurs. Instead, LM1 overtly indicates his lack of understanding by saying *emmä tajuu* (I do not understand) (line 72). Because of the pupils' inability to make use of the teacher's assisting question, she decides to provide the correct answer (line 73). She explains the grammar point in question by saying *elikkä vaillinainen apuverbi tarkotti sitä että (.) niil ei oo kaikkii aikamuotoja* (so

modal auxiliary verb meant that they don't have all the tenses) (line 73). In order to make sure that everyone listens to her explanation and to emphasise the importance of the new grammar point the teacher asks *kuuliko LM1:kin* (did you also hear LM1) (line 75) (see Section 7.3.3 for a discussion of direction maintenance). After LM1 has confirmed his participation in the activity (line 76), the teacher continues with her grammar explanation, saying *eli niil ei oo ku ne preesens muodot* (they have only the forms in the present tense) (line 78). In other words, it seems that the teacher wants to make sure that the class is introduced to the meaning of the modal verbs before moving on to the exercises. Furthermore, because the pupils fail to come up with the explanation, the teacher provides it herself for the benefit of class comprehension.

As was mentioned above, the grammar point in question may be so low in the pupils' ZPDs that the teacher's various explicit questions do not help the pupils to come up with any appropriate responses. The teacher's persistence in trying to elicit appropriate answers from the learners is further illustrated by Example 66:

EXAMPLE 66 Episode 7. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 6			
58	T	sitte vielä yksi (.) ehitään (.) lukemisesta	ms req.info
59	T	LM1	nom
60	LM1	the (.) bookworms study very hardly and some study very lazily	info
61	T	mm ↑ laiskasti lazily	acc clar
62	T	mikä ongelma meillä oli hard sanan kanssa (..)	req.info
63	T	hard voiko käyttää älä y päätettä	reph
64	T	hardly tarkoittaa mitä (.)	reph
65	T	se oli se tuskin (.)	info
66	T	hard on kovasti itsestään (.)	exp
67	T	laitetaas vaikka luku- (.) studies hard kovasti	clar
68		(..)	
69	LF3	(xx)	
70	T	jotkut opiskelevat laiskasti	clar
71	LF	(xx)	
72	LF	mikä on bookworm	req.info
73	T	yk- (.) (xx) oppilas	info
74	LF1	tämmönen (.) tämmönen se opiskelee tosi laiskasti ((laugh))	exe

In Episode 7, from which this example is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on adverbs. At the beginning of Example 66, the teacher helps the pupils to see the structure of the lesson by saying *sitte vielä yksi (.) ehitään (.) lukemisesta* (then we have time for one more about reading) (line 58). The teacher then tells LM1 to translate the sentence in hand (line 59). LM1 reads aloud his sentence (line 60), which is only partially correct. However, the teacher does not explicitly indicate the error in LM1's sentence. Instead, she first accepts the correct adverb by saying *mm ↑ laiskasti lazily* (mm lazily) (line 61) and then starts to work on the adverb *hard*, which is incorrect in LM1's sentence. The teacher avoids providing the correct answer. Instead, she invites the pupils' active participation in co-constructing the target structure. First she

indicates that there is something wrong with the other adverb by saying *mikä ongelma meillä oli hard sanan kanssa* (what problem did we have with the word *hard*) (line 62). Apparently, in using the past tense she means to refer to the previous lesson, when she introduced the adverb *hard* to the learners. However, the teacher's implicit question followed by a long pause does not trigger any response from the pupils, and thus the teacher asks the more explicit question *hard voiko käyttää älä yy päätettä* (can we add the ending *ly* to the adverb *hard*) (line 63). In other words, in order to make the question easier for the pupils to answer the teacher rephrases it in a form that requires *yes* or *no* answer. Even this is not enough to help the pupils to come up with a response, and thus the teacher asks a further explicit question: *hardly tarkoittaa mitä* (what does *hardly* mean) (line 64). However, because the pupils are not able to make use of even her explicit questions, the teacher decides to provide the correct answer. She first gives the meaning of the adverb by saying *se oli se tuskin* (.) (it was hardly) (line 65) and then she continues her explanation, saying *hard on kovasti itsestään* (.) (*hard* is an adverb itself) (line 66). In addition, the teacher refers to a sample sentence, saying *laitetaas vaikka luku-* (.) *studies hard kovasti* (let's put for example *studies hard*) (line 67). This particular grammar point seems to be rather low in the pupils' ZPDs, the pupils still being other-regulated in the task. After explaining the adverb *hard* the teacher still translates the rest of the sentence (line 70). At the end of the sequence, LF2 asks about the meaning of the word *bookworm* (line 72) and the teacher explains it. LF1 also joins the discussion by making a joke about the sentence: *tämmönen tämmönen se opiskelee tosi laiskasti* (this kind this kind it studies very lazily) (line 74).

**Reduction in degrees of freedom by giving specific clues.** In simplifying the task in hand the teacher can employ the strategy involving cued elicitation. According to Edwards and Mercer (1987), cued elicitation is a strategy that involves the teacher providing visual clues and verbal hints as to what answer is expected. When avoiding giving the correct answer the teacher in this class can employ this strategy. Furthermore, by giving explicit clues the teacher helps the pupils to remember the grammar rules they have learned in previous lessons, thus both assisting and assessing the pupils' comprehension. Consider Example 67:

EXAMPLE 67 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 4			
37	T	köyhästi (..)	req.info
38	T	LM4 osaa tän (.)	nom pro
39	T	lisätää köyhää älä yy pääte	clue
40	LM4	no (.) poorly	info
41	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc

In Episode 6, from which this example is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on adverbs. After recruiting the pupils into the task in hand by saying aloud the adverb in Finnish (line 37) the teacher continues her

recruitment by emphatically mentioning that *LM4 osaa tän* (.) (LM4 is able to do this) (line 38). However, LM4 is not able to pick up the teacher's prompting, and thus the teacher provides him with a more specific clue. The teacher reminds LM4 about the grammar rule on the formation of adverbs by saying *lisätää köyhää älä yy päätte* (let's add the ending *ly* to the word *poor*) (line 39). The teacher's clue seems to help LM4, and he gives the correct answer *no* (.) *poorly* (well *poorly*) (line 40). In other words, LM4 still seems to be at the level of scaffolding where the teacher's explicit help is needed, that is, he seems to be other-regulated in the task. The grammar point in question thus seems to be rather low in LM4's ZPD. In the end the teacher accepts the correct answer (line 41).

It seems that the teacher goes to great lengths to avoid providing the correct answer to the pupils in this class. The teacher is careful not to give too much assistance when trying to interpret the level of assistance the pupil needs to carry out the task. Even when the pupil admits to not knowing, the teacher continues to provide specific clues to help him or her to achieve the goal of the activity, as in Example 68:

EXAMPLE 68 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 7			
55	T	entäpä <houkuttelevasti> (..)	req.info
56	T	mennäänkö liian nopeesti ↑ (.)	che
57	T	houkuttelevasti	rep
58	T	LM1 osaa sanoa ↑	nom
59	LM1	emmä osaa	(info)
60	T	osaat (..)	pro
61	T	kato ku tääl on <tempting> houkutteleva ni kuinka houkut- houkuttelevasti	clar
62	LM1	no temtly	info
63	T	temp:-	pro clue
64	LM1	no emminä tiiä ↑ =	(info)
65	T	=ton sanan perää vaa älä yy	clue
66	LM1	mitä	req.rep
67	T	tänne vaa älä yy ni [tulee]	clue
68	LM1	[TEMP]tingly	info
69	T	mm temptingly (.)	acc

In Example 68, the teacher and the pupils go through an exercise on adverbs. At the beginning of the example, the teacher recruits the pupils into the task by saying *entäpä <houkuttelevasti>* (how about *temptingly*) (line 55) and providing the learners with time to come up with the correct adverb. However, the pupils do not answer at all, and thus the teacher checks whether she gives them enough time to think about the adverbs by asking *mennäänkö liian nopeesti* (are we going too fast) (line 56). By asking this the teacher seems to be checking whether they have understood the previous questions and whether they want to ask anything. Furthermore, she apparently wants to invite the learners' active participation in the task. However, the pupils do not respond in any way, and thus the teacher repeats the adverb in Finnish (line 57). Because there is still no answer, the teacher nominates LM1 who is to answer, saying *LM1 osaa sanoa* ↑

(LM1 is able to answer) (line 58). It seems that in emphatically stating that LM1 is able to answer the teacher seeks to encourage him to take over the task. Moreover, when LM1 answers *emmä osaa* (I can't) (line 59), the teacher challenges him by saying *osaat* (you can) (line 60). With this further prompt the teacher appears to seek to strengthen LM1's self-assurance and encourage him to make an attempt to complete the task.

However, because the encouragement and a pause (lines 58 and 60) do not help LM1 to come up with any appropriate answer the teacher decides to provide LM1 with a clue by saying *kato ku tääl on <tempting> houkutteleva ni kuinka houkut- houkuttelevasti* (look here we have *tempting* so how would you say *temptingly*) (line 61). That is to say, the teacher here refers to the adjective *tempting* and attempts to help the learner to remember the ending of an adverb. This explicit clue finally helps LM1 to begin his answer (line 62). However, the start of the adverb is not correct, and so the teacher further helps him to complete the target structure by giving him the first syllable of the adverb (line 63). LM1 is still confused and answers *no emminä tiä* (I don't know) (line 64). In terms of scaffolding the learner still seems to be at the level where assistance provided by a more capable other is needed. In other words, LM1 is still strongly other-regulated and the grammar point seems to be rather low in his ZPD. Consequently, the teacher decides to narrow down the problem further by referring to the ending of the adverb by saying *ton sanan perää vaa äi yy* (to the end of that word the ending *ly*) (line 65) and a little later *tänne vaa äi yy ni tulee* (here only the ending *ly*) (line 67). Finally, due to the teacher's explicit clues LM1 is able to form the correct adverb, which the teacher accepts (lines 68-9).

**Reduction in degrees of freedom by asking forced-choice questions.** A further strategy the teacher in the present study uses in simplifying the task in hand involves asking the learners forced-choice questions. As was noted above, the teacher attempts to engage the learners in the teaching-learning process right from the beginning of each task. When the pupils cannot answer her initial question, she changes or modifies her questions until the pupils can more actively participate in the process. In order to complete the task the teacher may need to ask several forced-choice questions, as in Example 69:

EXAMPLE 69 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 7			
162	T	mut sitte (.) se oli se kolmas asia (.) mut sitte vielä (..) yks kysymys (.)	ms
163	T	miks siel on DON'T DOESN'T AREN'T mut sitte toisaalta kuitenkin DOES ja CAN (..)	req.exp
164	T	mikä ratkasee tuleeks sinne myönteinen vai kielteinen loppu (..)	req.exp reph
165	T	tarkastellaas tot ensimmäist vaikka (.)	req.info
166	T	onks toi päälause myönteinen vai kielteinen (.)	req.info reph
167	T	LF3	nom
168	LF3	tää eka lause (.) I usually wake up at about five ↑	req.clar
169		(..)	

continues

## EXAMPLE 69 continues

170	T	ehm siis myönteinen (..)	info
171	T	mm (.)	ack
172	T	ja toi liitekysymys on sillo ↑	req.info
173	LF3	kielteinen	info
174	T	mm	acc
175	T	entäs sitte täällä onki I just can't drink in the morning siel on päälause ↑ (..)	req.info
176	T	LF2 ↑	nom
177	LF2	kielteinen=	info
178	T	=ja silloin kysymys on	req.info
179	LF2	myönteinen=	info
180	T	=myönteinen. (..)	acc
181	T	[eli joko] tai	clar

In Episode 1, the teacher introduces the class to a new grammar point, that is, tag questions. In the example above, she starts to go through the grammar rule on main and subordinate clauses in tag questions. At first the teacher explains to the learners what they are going to do next by saying *mut sitte vielä (..) yks kysymys koskien liitekysymyksiä (.)* (but then one more question about tag questions) (line 162). After this the teacher recruits the learners into the task in hand by asking *miks siel on DON'T DOESN'T AREN'T mut sitte toisaalta kuitenkin DOES ja CAN (..)* (why is there *don't doesn't aren't* but on the other hand *does* and *can*) (line 163). However, her initial request for an explanation followed by a long pause does not trigger any response from the pupils, and thus she rephrases her question by asking *mikä ratkasee tuleeks sinne myönteinen vai kielteinen loppu (..)* (what decides whether there is an affirmative or negative end) (line 164). In spite of this rephrasing, the pupils still fail to give any appropriate answer.

From then on the teacher starts to simplify the task by limiting the scope of the question, thus coaxing the pupils to provide an accurate answer. First the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the sample sentence that she has written on the transparency by saying *tarkastellaas tot ensimmäist vaikka (.)* (let's look at the first one) (line 165). Again she uses the form *let's*, thus referring to a joint activity (see Example 4 in Section 7.1.1 and Example 60 in Section 7.3.1.2). Next she elicits a response from the pupils by asking a forced-choice question *onks toi päälause myönteinen vai kielteinen (.)* (is that main clause affirmative or negative) (line 166) and by selecting the next speaker (line 167). LM3 seems to be uncertain which is the main clause and she requests clarification by asking *tää eka lause (.) I usually wake up at about five ↑* (this first clause *I usually wake up at about five*) (line 168). However, the teacher does not give any verbal confirmation. Instead, she provides LF3 with time to come up with an appropriate answer (line 169). When LF3 is still not able to make use of the time provided, the teacher gives the correct answer, saying *ehm siis myönteinen* (ehm affirmative) (line 170). After this the teacher continues to break down the task by asking *ja toi liitekysymys on sillo ↑* (and the tag question is then) (line 172), to which LF3 responds by giving the correct answer, *kielteinen* (negative) (line 173). LF3 still seems to be other-regulated in the task, the grammar point being

rather low in her ZPD. The teacher accepts this and continues to simplify the task by referring to another sample sentence. She elicits a response from the pupils by asking *entäs sitte täällä onki I just can't drink in the morning siel on päälause* ↑(..) (how about here we have *I just can't drink in the morning* there is a main clause) (line 175) and transfers the question to LF2. After the teacher says her name LF2 answers correctly (line 177). The teacher asks LF2 a further question *ja sillon kysymys on* (and then the question is) (line 178), which LF2 also answers correctly (line 179). Unlike LF3, LF2 seems to be near self-regulation in the task. After accepting LF2's last answer the teacher clarifies the task by saying *either or* (line 181). This example illustrates how the teacher simplifies the task by moving from an open-ended question to forced-choice questions, which limit the task and allow the pupils to answer the question correctly. Importantly, the task is accomplished jointly by the teacher and LF3 and LF2. In addition, the whole class benefits from this process by listening to the dialogue.

Moreover, the teacher asks the pupils forced-choice questions although they explicitly inform her that they do not know the target structure. The teacher tries to facilitate the pupils' comprehension of the task by making her questions easier for them to answer. In other words, she rephrases her questions into forced-choice ones, thus narrowing down the possible correct answers, as in Example 70:

EXAMPLE 70 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structure *be able to*.

SEQUENCE 7			
152	T	<mutta olemme voineet katsoa> sitä teeveestä (.) tai sen teeveestä	req.info
153	T	LF1	nom
154	LF1	no (.) emmä sit oikee tiää	(info)
155	T	perfekti (.)	clue
156	T	käytetääks me sanan kanssa have vai has ↑	req.info reph
157	LF1	mitä ↑	req.rep
158	T	me sana (.) we (.) käytetääkö have vai has	rep
159	LF1	no have	info
160	T	<b>have</b> (.)	acc
161	T	sitte olla verbi kolmannes muodossa (.)	req.info
162	T	be was were -	clue
163	LF1	been	info
164	T	been	acc
165	LF1	onkse se able to	sug
166	T	mm	acc

The focus of Episode 11, from which this example is taken, is an old grammar point, the structure *to be able to*. In the example, the teacher and LF1 continue to work on this structure. The learner is still at the level where the teacher's explicit scaffolded assistance is needed. In other words, she is still other-regulated regarding the structure *to be able to*, this grammar point being rather low in her ZPD. At the beginning of the example, the teacher elicits an answer from the learners by reading aloud the sentence to be translated and by selecting the next speaker (lines 152-3). However, before even trying to answer,



LF1 indicates her uncertainty about the answer by saying *no (.) emmä sit oikee tiiä* (well I don't know) (line 154). The teacher seems to take this as an indirect challenge. Instead of transferring the question to another learner, the teacher gives LF1 a clue as to the tense of the verb form in order to help her to come up with the target structure (line 155). However, LF1 fails to make use of the teacher's clue, and thus the teacher modifies her question into a forced-choice one by asking *käytetään me sanan kanssa have vai has ↑* (do we use *have* or *has* with the word *we*) (line 156). In other words, the teacher starts to break down the target question by focusing first on the auxiliary verb. After LF1's request the teacher foregrounds the subject of the sentence, that is, the pronoun *we*, and repeats her forced-choice question, to which LF1 gives the correct answer (lines 158-9). The teacher accepts the learner's answer and asks a further question: *sitte olla verbi kolmannes muodossa (.)* (then the past participle of the verb *to be*) (line 161). This does not trigger any immediate response from LF1 and the teacher continues her question by adding *be was were* – (line 162). Apparently, the teacher's mentioning of different forms of the verb *to be* helps the learner to remember the correct form, and before the teacher says the last form aloud LF1 says *been* (line 163). The teacher accepts the answer by repeating it (line 164). In the end LF1 repeats the target structure, which the teacher accepts (lines 165-6).

Examples 69 and 70 with forced-choice questions showed the teacher guiding the learner through the task until the target structure was said aloud. This is not, however, always the case. The teacher may start to scaffold the learner's efforts with clues and forced-choice questions, but let the learner carry out the final part of the task without any assistance. As Wood et al. (1976) point out, the scaffolding tutor may fill in those stages that are too complicated for the learner but let the learner complete the component sub-routines that he or she can manage. Consider Example 71:

EXAMPLE 71 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 11			
153	T	<b>miksi</b> et saanut katsoa sitä (..)	req.info
154	T	LM10 (.)	nom
155	T	mikä on miksi=	req.info reph
156	LM 10	=why	info
157	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc
158	T	mikäs on se <olla verbi> mitä käytetään sinän kanssa imperfektissä	req.info
159	T	ei was vaan -	clue
160	LM 10	eeh	ack
161		(..)	
162	T	se toinen	clue
163	LM 10	were	info
164	T	were ↑	acc
165	T	ja sitte se kielteisenä on ↑	req.info
166	LM 10	weren't	info

continues

## EXAMPLE 71 continues

167	T	mm ↑	acc
168	T	ja osaatko jatkaa loppuun why weren't	req.info
169		(..)	
170	LM 10	eeh get (.) >on teevee<	info
171	T	mm ↑ <nyt> ei tarvita gettiä ku sul oli siellä se (.) piti käyttää sitä al- allow juttua why weren't you (.)	eval.neg clue
172	T	kuinka jatkuu ↑	pro
173	LM 10	eeh <i>allowed</i> to mitä	info req.rep
174		(..)	
175	T	katsoa	rep
176	LM 10	eiku <i>watch it</i>	info
177	T	mm hyvä ↑ (.) why weren't you allowed (.)	eval.pos

Example 71 is taken from Episode 12, which focuses on the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*, assigned as the pupils' homework. At the beginning of the example, the teacher elicits responses from the pupils by reading aloud the sentence to be translated *miksi et saanut katsoa sitä (..)* (*why weren't you allowed to watch it*) (line 153). Because there is no immediate response the teacher selects LM10 to answer (line 154). However, LM10 is not able to provide an answer, so the teacher helps him to begin the sentence by asking first *mikä on miksi* (what is *why*) (line 155). LM10 replies immediately *why* (line 156) and the teacher accepts the correct answer (line 157). After this the teacher continues working on the translation and asks LM10 *mikäs on se <olla verbi> mitä käytetään sinän kanssa imperfektissä* (what is the form of the verb *to be* that we use with the word *you* in the past tense) (line 158). Here LM10 fails to respond to the teacher's question, and the teacher starts to form a forced-choice question. First the teacher asks *ei was vaan – (not was but)* (line 159). LM10 starts to respond, but he is still uncertain about the answer and fails to give the correct verb form (line 160). After a long pause the teacher continues her forced-choice question by adding *se toinen* (that other) (line 162). Though the teacher does not explicitly give alternative, the teacher's forced-choice question seems to help LM10 to come up with the verb and he answers *were* (line 163). The teacher asks a further question *ja sitte se kielteisenä on ↑* (and that in the negative form is) (line 165), to which LM10 gives the correct answer (line 166) and the teacher accepts it (line 167). Here the teacher simplifies the task by asking first the affirmative form of the verb and only after that the negative one. This strategy seems to help LM10, who manages to translate the beginning of the sentence with the teacher's help.

After going through the verb form together with LM10 the teacher prompts LM10 to translate the rest of the sentence by asking *ja osaatko jatkaa loppuun why weren't* (and can you continue the rest *why weren't*) (line 168). After a long pause LM10 continues the sentence by saying *eeh get (.) >on teevee<* (*eeh get on TV*) (line 170). However, his answer is not correct, and thus the teacher gives him a further clue by saying *mm ↑ <nyt> ei tarvita gettiä ku sul oli siellä se (.) piti käyttää sitä al- allow juttua why weren't you (.)* (*mm now we don't need the*

verb *get* you had to use that verb *allow why weren't you*) (line 171). The teacher gives LM10 a further prompt and LM10 starts to answer by saying *eeh allowed to mitä* (*eeh allowed to what*) (line 173). After a long pause and the teacher's repetition of the verb LM10 adds *eiku watch it* (*no watch it*) (line 176). Interestingly, the teacher does not correct LM10's incorrect pronunciation but evaluates it positively and repeats the correct verb form (line 177). This implies that the teacher wants to encourage LM10's participation in the activity. Apparently, the teacher realises that this particular grammar structure is low in the pupil's ZPD and LM10 is still strongly other-regulated. She seems to think that at this point LM10 benefits more from listening to the teacher's assistance than from trying to come up with all the details on his own.

**Reduction in degrees of freedom by focusing on a subtask.** Apart from asking specific questions, giving specific clues and asking forced-choice questions the teacher can use a strategy that involves overtly directing the focus first on a subpart of the task. Questions about a subpart help to lead the pupil to an overall understanding of the task. Once the pupils can achieve the subtask created by the teacher's questions addressing one part at a time, they can use the subtasks to help them to provide the target structure. Consider Example 72:

EXAMPLE 72 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structure *be able to*.

SEQUENCE 4			
97	T	hän osasi lukea kun hän oli kuusi (.)	req.info
98	T	LM5	nom
99	LM5	>emmä tiää<	(info)
100		(..)	
101	T	imperfektiin (.)	clue
102	T	mikä on olla verbi imperfektissä ↑ (.)	reph
103	T	miten sanot minä olin	reph clue
104		(..)	
105	LM5	I was	info
106	T	mm ↑	acc
107	T	ja wassin perää (.) lis- lisäät tämän täältä	clue
108	LM2	no ei tohon mahu kirjottaa	
109	LM5	elikkä se on että he was able to read when he was six	info
110	T	hyvä ↑ (.)	eval.pos
111	T	tai jos haluaa ni voi vaihtoehtoisesti could (.)	ext

In Example 72, the teacher and the learners go through homework on the structure *to be able to*. At first the teacher reads aloud the sentence to be translated *hän osasi lukea kun hän oli kuusi (.)* (*he was able to read when he was six*) (line 97) and selects the next speaker (line 98). However, LM5 fails to take over the task and indicates overtly his uncertainty by saying *>emmä tiää<* (*I don't know*) (line 99). The teacher seems to take the learner's statement of ignorance as an indirect challenge, because after a long pause she starts to break down the translation sentence into subparts in order to make it easier for LM5 to control. She first focuses on the tense of the sentence by giving LM5 a clue that the correct tense is the past tense (line 101). However, LM5 is not able to make use

of the teacher's clue, and thus the teacher asks a further question concerning the tense by asking *mikä on olla verbi imperfektissä* ↑(.) (how do you say the verb *to be* in the past tense) (line 102). Furthermore, because LM5 does not respond, the teacher refers to a sample sentence and asks *miten sanot minä olin* (how do you say *I was* in English) (line 103). This finally helps LM5 to participate in the activity, and after a pause he gives the correct response, *I was* (line 105), which the teacher accepts (line 106). After this the teacher focuses on the rest of the target structure, saying *ja wassin perää* (.) *lis- lisäät tämän täältä* (and after the verb *was* you add this one here) (line 107). As a result of the teacher's breaking down the sentence into subparts, LM5 finally says the whole translated sentence aloud (line 109). Finally, the teacher accepts the pupil's answer and extends it a little by saying *tai jos haluaa ni voi vaihtoehtoisesti could* (.) (or if you like so the verb *could* instead) (line 111). In this example, LM5 still needs explicit help from the teacher, that is, he is still other-regulated in the task, and the grammar point in hand seems to be rather low in his ZPD.

By breaking down the task into subtasks the teacher helps the learner to achieve the task one step at a time. This encourages the learner to participate in the problem-solving activity and to solve problems in co-operation with the teacher and the other learners. Although the teacher attempts to avoid giving correct answers, the teacher may answer some subquestions herself in order to help the pupils to move on with the task and to learn the correct structure. Consider Example 73:

EXAMPLE 73 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structure *be able to*.

SEQUENCE 6			
126	T	neljä (.) me emme voineet (.) <saada lippuja> popkonserttiin (.)	req.info
127	T	LF7	nom
128	LF7	mistä mä tiedän	(info)
129	T	imperfekti (..)	clue
130	T	mikäs on olla verbi imperfektissä	req.info
131	LF7	was	info
132	T	tai ↑	pro
133	LF7	were	info
134	T	were ↑	acc
135	T	nyt käytetään tässä persoonassa sitä were (.)	exp
136	T	kuinkas tulis (.)	pro
137	LF7	no emmä tiedä onkse toi se were able to	sug
138	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc
139	T	ja sitte lisää vielä kieltosana were sanan jälkeen . (..)	clue
140	T	mikä on se kieltosana	req.info
141	LF7	>nii mikä<	ack
142	T	LM2	nom
143	LM2	weren't	info
144	T	mm (.) we were not=	acc
145	LF7	=mä meinasin just [sanoo]	ack
146	T	[hyvä ↑] (.) hyvä (.) we were not able to (.)	eval.pos
147	T	<b>tai</b> we couldn't <get the tickets> to the popconcert	ext
148	LF7	onkse ihan sama kumpi siin periaattees on niinku jossain kokeessakii	req.info
149	T	on periaattees (.)	info

continues

## EXAMPLE 73 continues

150	T	couldissa on vaan se että (.) sil on se sivumerkitys <b>voisi</b> (.) ni voit mieluummiin käyttää tätä tää on ainaki aina oikein	exp
151	LF2	no emminä jaksan noin pitkää kirjottaa ei tommost muista	

Like Example 72, Example 73 represents interaction where the learner is not at first able to take control over the task in hand. First of all the teacher reads the sentence aloud which calls for a translation as a response (line 126). However, the structure *to be able to* seems to be low in LF7's ZPD, and she explicitly states that she does not know the answer, saying *mist mä tiedän* (how should I know) (line 128). LF7 seems to be other-regulated in the task. In addition, the teacher seems to take the learner's statement as an indirect challenge, because she continues prompting LF7 and does not transfer the question to another learner. As in the previous example, the teacher starts to break down the task by concentrating first on the tense of the verb. However, being strongly teacher-regulated LF7 cannot continue alone when the teacher provides her with an implicit clue about the tense of the verb by saying *imperfekti* (..) (the past tense) (line 129). After the failure of the implicit help the teacher starts to break down the task even further by giving the learner more explicit clues (line 130 onwards). The teacher focuses on the verb *to be* by asking *mikä on olla verbi imperfektissä* (what is the verb *to be* in the past tense) (line 130). After the learner's partial answer the teacher prompts her to continue with the answer, and LF7 provides both forms of the verb *to be* in the past tense (lines 131 and 133). In addition, the teacher explains the use of the verb in this particular sentence by saying *nyt käytetään tässä persoonassa sitä were* (..) (now we use the verb *were* in this person) (line 135).

As a result, the learner starts to put the teacher's help to use by answering *no emmä tiedä onkse toi se were able to* (well I don't know is it *were able to*) (line 137). LF7 still needs other-assistance, which is indicated in her answer in the form of a suggestion instead of a statement. Furthermore, her words *no emmä tiedä* (well I don't know) (line 137) before she gives her actual answer could be an indication of *private speech*, which is a sign of uncertainty. Importantly, her use of private speech, however, can also be claimed to be a sign of an emerging control over the structure. The teacher accepts the learner's answer and continues breaking down the task further by concentrating next on the negative form of the verb. She gives LF7 a clue by saying *ja sitte lisätää viel kieltosana were sanan jälkeen* (..) (and then we add a negation after the word *were*) (line 139). LF7, however, does not give any response, and thus the teacher asks a further question *mikä on se kieltosana* (what is that negative) (line 140). Again here LF7 indicates by her response *>nii mikä<* (what) (line 141) that she is still strongly dependent on the teacher's assistance. This time the teacher transfers the question to LM2, who immediately gives the correct answer (line 143). However, a little later LF7 also shows interest in the task by saying *mä meinasin just sanoo* (I was about to say) (line 145). The teacher recognises LF7's response with her positive evaluation (line 146). In addition, she provides the rest of the sentence and suggests another alternative (lines 146-7). The teacher apparently

wants to concentrate on the structure *to be able to* and move on to the next task. However, LF7 still shows her interest in the task by checking the possibility of using the alternatives (line 148). In the end the teacher gives LF7 an explanation.

Instead of providing the last part of the sentence, as in the previous example, the teacher may also offer the learners scaffolded assistance until they have completed the sentence on their own. In other words, the teacher may break the sentence down into smaller units, including vocabulary items. She may also start breaking down the sentence immediately in her first elicitation, as in Example 74:

EXAMPLE 74 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 5			
60	T	vielä kaksi jäljellä	ms
61	T	viisi (.) toivon että voit tulla elokuviin ensi lauantaina mikä aikamuoto ↑ (.)	req.info
62	T	LM4	nom
63	LM4	futuuri	info
64	T	se on futuuri (.)	acc
65	T	kuinka LM3 tekis futuurin ↑	req.info nom
66		(..)	
67	LM3	eeh (.) I hope (.) eeh eiku=	info
68	T	=joo ↑ hyvä (..)	eval.pos
69	T	I hope <that you:>	clue pro
70	LM3	you will (.) come	info
71	T	mm (.) you will (.) on iha oikein ↑ (.) mut sitte pitää lisätä se olla verbi ↑	eval.pos /neg clue
72	LM3	you will -	info
73	T	mikäs on olla verbin perus[muoto]	req.info
74	LM3	[be]	info
75	T	be ↑	info
76	T	ja sitte ↑=	pro
77	LM3	=able to (.) come	info
78	T	elokuviin	req.info
79	LM3	to the movies	info
80	T	ensi lauantaina	req.info
81		(..)	
82	LM3	se on (.) ne:	(info)
83	T	next: ↑=	info pro
84	LM3	=next (.) >Saturday<	info
85	T	kyllä ↑ (.)	acc
86	T	huomatkaa viikonpäivät englannissa isolla ↑ (.) iso äs se Saturday ↑	ext

(6 lines from the sequence omitted)

In Example 74, the teacher and the learners go through homework on the structure *to be able to*. The teacher starts this example with the metastatement *vielä kaksi jäljellä* (still two sentences left) (line 60). With this statement she seems to want to help the learners to see where they are heading. It is also possible that she wants to encourage the pupils to maintain their focus on the task (see Section 7.3.3 for a discussion of direction maintenance). At the beginning of the example,

the teacher elicits responses from the pupils by saying aloud the sentence to be translated and asking about the verb tense: *viisi (.) toivon että voit tulla elokuviin ensi lauantaina mikä aikamuoto*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  (*five I wish that you will be able to come to the movies what tense is it*) (line 61). In other words, the teacher immediately starts to break down the sentence, focusing first on the verb tense. After the teacher nominates LM4's he immediately gives the correct answer (lines 62-3). At this point the teacher transfers the next question to another pupil by asking *kuinkas LM3 tekis futuurin*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  (*how would LM3 form the future tense*) (line 65). After a long pause LM3 indicates with his hesitation *eeh* (line 67) that he is uncertain about the task. Furthermore, he shows that he begins to suspect that his previous words were not correct by saying *I hope (.) eeh eiku* (*I hope eeh no*) (line 67). When the teacher notices the learner's doubts, she quickly gives LM3 positive feedback, seemingly to encourage LM3 to continue (line 68). In addition, in her next turn the teacher repeats the learner's words and adds the next two words of the target sentence, saying *I hope<that you:>* (line 69). This triggers a response from LM3, but his answer is only partially correct (line 70). The teacher responds to it by giving partly positive and partly negative feedback by saying *mm (.) you will (.) on iha oikein*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  (*mm you will is correct but then we must add the verb to be*) (line 71). In response to the teacher's evaluation, LM3 tries to continue his answer, but fails to complete the sentence (line 72).

At this point the teacher starts to break down the structure in question even further by asking *mikäs on olla verbin perusmuoto* (*what is the base form of the verb to be*) (line 73). LM3 gives the correct answer immediately (line 74), and the teacher prompts him further by saying *ja sitte*  $\hat{\uparrow}$  (*and then*) (line 76). The teacher's breaking down of the sentence seems to help LM3, because now he is able to provide the rest of the target structure *able to (.) come* (line 77). After this the teacher continues to assist LM3, and they jointly complete the sentence word by word. She first asks LM3 to translate the element *elokuviin* (*to the movies*) (line 78), which LM3 translates without any difficulty (line 79). When LM3 produces only the first syllable of the word *next*, the teacher provides the complete word (line 83), and the pupil continues alone producing the rest of the structure *next Saturday* (line 84). The teacher and LM3 collaborate in searching for the correct answer, thus working in a joint activity. The target structure seems to be rather low in LM3's ZPD, and thus he needs explicit help from the teacher, being strongly other-regulated in the task. In the end the teacher confirms the success of the search and gives a further explanation by referring to a grammar rule (lines 85-6).

***Reduction in degrees of freedom by focusing on the meaning of words.*** In addition to reducing the degree of freedom by asking different types of question, giving clues or breaking down the task, the teacher may concentrate on the meaning of words in order to scaffold the learners' understanding of the task in hand. If the pupils cannot understand the task at the sentence level, the teacher may simplify the task of comprehension by asking the pupils to define

vocabulary items before returning to a larger grammar structure. Consider Example 75:

EXAMPLE 75 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 2			
(17 lines omitted from the beginning of the sequence)			
43	T	entäpä toinen	req.info
44		(..)	
45	T	mikä on a worm	req.info
46	LF1	[mato]=	info
47	LF2	[mato]=	info
48	T	=mato	acc
49	LF1	mikäs toi B on ((laugh))	req.info
50	T	no se on se (.) her- silakka B (.)	info
51	T	LF1	nom
52	LF1	no sit se B silakka B eeh tuo minulle eeh madon tai ka:ksi eikö niin tai eikö tuo	info
53	T	joo:o (.)	acc
(28 lines omitted from the sequence)			

In Example 75, the teacher introduces the pupils to tag questions. The learners are asked to translate the sample sentences involving tag questions into Finnish, before the teacher starts to explain the grammar point more thoroughly. At the beginning of the example, the teacher starts to work on the second sentence, saying *entäpä toinen* (how about the second one) (line 43). However, the pupils fail to respond, and thus the teacher starts to focus on the meaning of the word *worm* by asking *mikä on a worm* (what does the word *a worm* mean) (line 45). LF1 and LF2 answer simultaneously (lines 46-7), and the teacher confirms the answer by repeating the translation (line 48). At this point LF1 asks the meaning of the letter B in the sentence (line 49). After giving the explanation the teacher has LF1 translate the sentence into Finnish (line 51). The translations of the separate words help LF1 to come up with the correct answer, which the teacher also accepts (lines 52-3).

Finally, as illustrated by the examples on more specific questions, the learners may also indicate to the teacher that the task should be simplified in order to help them to complete it. In other words, before the teacher starts to rephrase her initial elicitation, the learners may ask about specific vocabulary items in the sentence, as in Example 76:

EXAMPLE 76 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 17			
257	T	kuinkas sanot että (.) sinä (.) tulet (.) <sinä osaat> (.) kirjoittaa englantia hyvin tulevaisuudessa (.)	req.info
258	LM9	mikä on sujuvasti	reg.info
259	T	tai hyvin ↑ (.) sinä osaat kirjoittaa englantia hyvin tulevaisuudessa (.)	info req.info reph
260	T	LM9 (.) yritäppä (.)	nom pro
261	T	käytät tätä	clue

continues



## EXAMPLE 76 continues

262	LM9	you will be	info
263	T	mm you will be ↑	acc pro
264	LM9	to write	info
265	T	mikä se oli se kiertoilmaus	eval.neg req.info clue
266	T	mm mitkä sanat jäi vaa välist pois (.)	clue
267	T	LM9	nom
268	LM9	you will be able to	info
269	T	mm (.)	acc
270	T	eli aina ku sä haluat sanoa nyt imperfektissä ↑ esimerkiksi ↑ (.) että joku osaa osasi tehdä jotakin ↑ sä lisäät tänne (.) olla verbin perää vaa able to (.) jos sä haluat sanoo saman perfektissä ↑ [(.)]	exp
271	LM1	[tä (.) (xx)]	
272	T	kannattas kuunnella LM1:kin (.)	ms
273	T	lisäät tännekin vaa able to . (.) hän on osannut tehdä jotain (.) jos haluat tehdä saman pluskvamperfektissä ↑ (.) lisäät tänne saman asian (.) jos haluat futuurissa ↑ (.) joku tulee tulevaisuudessa (.) osaamaan tehdä jotain ni se taphtuu olla verbi futuurii ja lisäät perää vaa able to	exp
274	LF2	sori mut mä en tajuu	(info)
275	T	etkö	req.com
276	LF2	no en to[dellakaa]	con
277	T	[no sä koht] ymmärrät	pro
278	LF2	no [ihan varmast]	ack
279	T	[nyt keksitää] pareittain lauseita	ms

In Episode 9, from which this example is taken, the teacher introduces the pupils to the other ways of saying the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may*. At first the teacher says aloud the sentence to be translated (line 257). Before working on the grammar structure LM9 focuses the teacher's attention on a word in the sentence to be translated by asking *mikä on sujuvasti* (what is *fluently* in English) (line 258). Apparently, the teacher notices that this particular word may cause problems to the pupils and she simplifies the vocabulary slightly by saying *tai hyvin* ↑(.) *sinä osaat kirjoittaa englantia hyvin tulevaisuudessa* (.) (or *well* (.) *you will be able to write English well in the future*) (line 259). Because no immediate response is forthcoming, the teacher calls on LM9 to translate the sentence (line 260). However, LM9 still seems to have problems with the sentence, and thus the teacher gives him a clue by referring to the transparency *käytät tätä* (please use this) (line 261). With the help of the teacher's clue LM9 starts the target structure, which seems to be rather low in his ZPD (line 262). However, he still seems to have difficulties in finishing the sentence, thus being strongly other-regulated in the task. The teacher therefore prompts him further by repeating in a rising intonation *mm you will be* ↑ (line 263). LM9's next response is not correct (line 264), and the teacher continues simplifying the task by reminding him about the other way of saying the auxiliary verb: *mikä se oli se kiertoilmaus* (what was the other way of saying it) (line 265). Because LM9 is unable to pick up the teacher's assistance, she makes her question more explicit by remarking *mm mitkä sanat jäi vaa välist pois* (mm what words are missing) (line 266). This time

LM9 is able to provide the complete grammar structure *you will be able to*, which the teacher accepts (lines 268-9). After going through the verb form the teacher explains further the formation of the structure. The teacher apparently wants to make sure that all the pupils concentrate on the grammar point in question, and thus she directs the attention of LM1, who has been talking with a friend, to the task by saying *kannattas kuunnella LMI:kin* (it's worth LM1's while to listen too) (line 272) (see Section 7.3.3 for a discussion of direction maintenance). After this she finishes her explanation for the structure *to be able to* (line 273). LF2 still says that she does not understand the grammar structure (lines 274 and 276), but the teacher encourages her by saying *no sä koht ymmärrät* (well you will understand soon) (line 277), thus referring to the tasks on the structure *to be able to* that they will work on during the next sequence.

To summarise, reduction in degrees of freedom involves simplifying the task in hand into subtasks that still allow the pupil to complete the task. The teacher's decision to reduce the degree of freedom is based on her observations on the learner's progress in the task, or lack of it, in particular. When the pupils are not able to respond to the teacher's initial elicitation, the teacher changes or modifies her elicitation until the learners can more actively participate in the teaching-learning process. The teacher in this study uses several strategies in simplifying the tasks in order to help the pupils to take control. Firstly, the teacher can reduce the degree of freedom by asking more specific questions after the pupils have failed to respond to her initial question. Although typically the teacher starts to make her questions more specific after the pupils answer incorrectly or fail to respond immediately, the pupils may also ask for clarification before even starting to answer. Furthermore, there are also cases when even the teacher's more specific questions do not trigger any response from the pupils, and thus the teacher provides the correct answer so as to help them to achieve overall understanding of the task. Secondly, the teacher can simplify the task by giving specific clues that help the pupils to reach a solution. Thirdly, the teacher can simplify the task by limiting the scope of her initial questions, thus guiding the pupils towards the correct answer. That is, the teacher moves from an open-ended question to a forced-choice question, which limits the task and makes it possible for the pupils to answer the question correctly. Fourthly, in order to facilitate the learners' comprehension the teacher can focus first on a subpart of the task. The pupils may also start to break down the task into subtasks by asking their own questions. Lastly, when simplifying the task for the pupils the teacher may focus first on the meanings of the words in the grammar exercise. The learners may also indicate their uncertainty by asking the teacher to clarify certain words before working on the grammar point.

### 7.3.3 Direction maintenance

The goal of scaffolding, as Wood et al. (1976) point out, is to help a pupil to become so competent at the task in hand that he or she can carry out a similar task alone in the future. As was shown in the previous sections, in assisting a pupil the teacher first orients him or her towards the task in hand and then

simplifies the task so that the learner is able to understand the demands of the task. After this the pupil's orientation towards task-relevant goals has to be maintained. According to Wood et al. (1976), keeping the pupils motivated and in pursuit of the task goals involves the third of the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process. In the course of the teaching-learning process the learners may temporarily lose interest and not use all their capacities in carrying out the task. Therefore, when providing the pupils with scaffolded assistance the teacher's role is to try to keep them interested in the task and keep their attention on the goal.

The teacher's various strategies in keeping the learners' attention on the task are discussed in this section. Although both direction maintenance and recruitment involve arousing the learners' interest, the foci of these features are different. The examination of direction maintenance takes into account the complete sequence and the teacher's attempts to keep the learners' attention on the task goal, whereas the focus of recruitment is primarily on the beginning of the sequence. When examining the data, each of the teacher's strategies for concentrating the learners' attention on the task is investigated within the context of its deployment and as a result some additions are made to the original category by Wood et al. (1976). Although the categorisation proposed by Wood et al. (1976) has proved to be suitable for examining teacher-led full-class interaction, the third category, that of direction maintenance, was found to be too imprecise for the purposes of the present study. Accordingly, in order to examine the teacher's strategies in keeping the learners motivated and in pursuit of the task goal in greater detail, I have identified three different subcategories for the teacher's scaffolding strategies. Based on the present data and some previous studies (see Edwards and Mercer 1987, McCormick and Donato 2000) the subcategories of encouragement, comprehension and clarification are distinguished. Each of these subcategories relates to the teacher's goal of helping the pupils to maintain their orientation towards the overall task goal. Firstly, Section 7.3.3.1 discusses strategies involving the teacher's encouraging the pupils to continue to carry out the task in hand. Secondly, the teacher's strategies in ensuring the pupils' comprehension of the grammar points are examined in Section 7.3.3.2. Finally, Section 7.3.3.3 discusses strategies involving the teacher's requesting or providing a clarification in order to keep the pupils' attention on the task. In the following, each of these strategies is described and illustrated by examples.

### **7.3.3.1 Encouragement**

This section focuses on the strategies with which the teacher attempts to keep the pupils' attention on the task by explicitly encouraging them to continue the work. During the teacher-fronted activities, the teacher is responsible for orchestrating the classroom discourse. The teacher in the present case typically encourages the pupils to participate in the teaching-learning process if they seem to lose their motivation and interest in the task in hand. These encouraging strategies include *prompting the pupils to continue their work, using*

metastatements, calling the pupils' attention to the task goal and checking whether the pupils have any problems with the task. In the following, each of these strategies is described in more detail.

**Direction maintenance by prompting the pupils to continue their work.** In providing the pupils with scaffolded assistance the teacher's task is to maintain their orientation towards the goal and to help them to complete the task in hand. In other words, she wants to make sure that the pupil has understood the requirements of the task and that he or she is able to achieve the target structure, as in Example 77:

EXAMPLE 77 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 16			
247	T	kuinkas sanosit että <hän (.) on osannut> aina juosta ↑	req.info
248	LM1	(xx)	
249	T	hän on osannut aina juosta (.)	req.info rep
250	T	LM2	nom
251	LM2	jou	ack
252	T	hän on osannut aina juosta	req.info rep
253	LM2	he: (.) he has been	info
254	T	mm he has been ↑	acc pro
255	LM2	able to run	info
256	T	mm (.)	acc

In Example 77, the teacher and learners go through the structure *to be able to*. At the beginning of the example, the teacher elicits information from the learners by saying aloud the sentence for translation (line 247). Because there is no immediate response, the teacher repeats her elicitation and nominates LM2 who is to answer (lines 249-250). LM2 acknowledges the teacher's request for information with his response *jou* (line 251). However, because he does not start to translate the sentence, the teacher repeats the sentence (line 252). At this point LM2 begins his translation by saying *he: (.) he has been* (line 253) but does not complete it. The teacher apparently notices that LM2 has problems with the structure *to be able to* and prompts him to translate the rest of the sentence by repeating his answer with a rising intonation (line 254). The teacher thus encourages LM2 to complete his answer by evaluating his partial answer positively and at the same time prompting him with a rising intonation. As a result, LM2 provides the rest of the target structure *able to run* (line 255), which the teacher accepts (line 256). In this example, the grammar point in hand seems to be fairly high in LM2's ZPD and the pupil seems to be near self-regulation, because the teacher's simple encouragement and prompting helps him to come up with the target verb form.

As illustrated by Examples 4-6 in Section 7.1, there may be competing activities simultaneously in progress during the teacher-led grammar instructional episodes. In these cases the teacher has to be persistent in keeping

the learners' attention on the task in hand. The teacher's continuous encouragement in helping the learners to achieve the target structure is further illustrated by Example 78:

EXAMPLE 78 Episode 10. Lesson 8. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 7			
90	T	ja sitte jos ois esimerkki LM2 halua vastata selvästi	nom
91	LM2	yes:	ack
92	T	että <hänellä oli ollut (.) lupa (.) leikata (.) nurmikko>	req.info
93	LM1	hyi vit- <LM2>	
94	LM2	joo	
95	T	ss ss (.)	
96	T	hänellä oli ollut lupa leikata nurmikko↑	req.info rep
97	LM2	he have had	info
98	LF1	he (.) had had	info
99	LM2	no aivan sama	ack
100	LF1	ihan miten vaa	ack
101	T	no ↑	pro
102	LM2	no varmaan had (.) emmä tiiä	info
103	T	he ↑	pro
104		(.)	
105	LM2	had	info
106	T	nii (..)	acc
107	T	>mikä sitte ↑<	pro
108	LM1	[ike popkii meni] ((laugh))	
109	LM2	[emmä tiiä]	(info)
110	T	mikä tääl on ↑	clue
111	LM2	[been]	info
112	LM1	[((laugh))]	
113	LF1	mikä se on se ike pop	
114	T	ja sitte .	pro
115	LM2	[allowed to]	info
116	LF1	[mikä se on se ike pop]	
117	T	mm	acc
118	LM1	eiku sä et nyt oikee snajjaa	

In Episode 10, from which this example is taken, the focus is on new grammar points. The teacher introduces the learners to the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. At the beginning of Example 78, the teacher first nominates LM2 who is to answer, emphatically saying his name *ja sitte jos ois esimerkki LM2 halua vastata selvästi* (then if there was an example LM2 wants to answer) (line 90), which LM2 acknowledges by saying *yes* (line 91). After this the teacher asks for an English translation from LM2 by saying the sentence in Finnish: <hänellä oli ollut (.) lupa (.) leikata (.) nurmikko> (*he had been allowed to mow the lawn*) (line 92). However, at this point LM2 directs his attention to a discussion with LM1, and thus the teacher repeats the sentence in Finnish so as to direct his attention to the task in hand once again (line 96). The teacher's repetition triggers a response from both LF1 and LM2, who simultaneously provide their answers (lines 97-8). LF1's answer is correct and LM2's incorrect. The pupils' answers are thus different, and apparently because of this they both acknowledge the situation by providing understating acceptances *no aivan sama* (it is the same) and *ihan*

*miten vaa* (whatever) (lines 99-100). It seems that they are not quite sure about the correct target structure, and so each is willing to accept the other pupil's answer. After the pupils' exchange the teacher once again directs LM2 back to the task by saying *no* ↑ (well) (line 101). LM2 gives his hesitant response by saying *no varmaan had* (.) *emmä tiiä* (well I think *had* I don't know) (line 102). What is significant here is that though LM2's answer is correct the teacher wants to make sure that LM2 has understood the structure and that he is not just copying LF1's previous response (see Section 7.3.3.2 for a discussion of comprehension). Thus, she prompts him to repeat his answer by saying *he* ↑ with a rising intonation (line 103). In addition, the teacher provides LM2 with time to think about the correct alternative (line 104). As a result, LM2 gives the correct verb form *had*, which the teacher accepts (lines 105-6). Again after a long pause, the teacher maintains LM2's orientation towards the task by prompting >*mikä sitte* ↑< (what's next) (line 107). At this point LM2 overtly indicates that he does not know by saying *emmä tiiä* (I don't know) (line 109). However, the teacher continues working with LM2 and gives him a clue by saying *mikä tääl on* ↑ (what's here) (line 110), thus referring to the transparency. In response, LM2 gives the correct answer (line 111). After the teacher's further prompt *ja sitte* (and next) (line 114) LM2 finally provides the rest of the target verb form, which the teacher accepts (lines 115 and 117). In other words, LM2 manages to provide the target structure with the teacher's assistance. However, it is evident that this particular grammar point is low in LM2's ZPD, and thus he still needs fairly explicit help while being strongly other-regulated in the task.

In addition to being persistent in prompting the pupils to go on with their work, the teacher may explicitly encourage the pupils by incorporating their remarks into the problem-solving process and by avoiding giving negative evaluation. In doing this the teacher seeks to maintain the pupils' participation in the task goals. Furthermore, she wants to scaffold participation by creating opportunities for several pupils to respond, as in Example 79:

EXAMPLE 79 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 5			
90	T	mikäs sitten oli sama (.) perfektissä (..)	req.info
91	T	minun on täytynyt	req.info
92	LF2	nyt nää vaa tällee ja sit ne tulee kokeeseen	
93	LF5	nii	
94	T	LM8	nom
95	LM8	I: had had to (.) eiku	info
96	T	vähän sinnepäin olit oikeilla jäljillä ↑ (.)	pro
97	T	vähän <muutetaan>	pro
98	LF6	[have] had to	info
99	LM8	[have]	info
100	T	I (.) have (.) had	acc
101	LM8	niihän mä sanoin et sä kuullu	con
102	T	mm (.)	acc
103	T	entäs sitte (.) kuinka sanot minun on täytynyt (.) tulla kotiin kahdeksalta ↑ (.)	req.info
104	T	LF3	nom

continues

## EXAMPLE 79 continues

105	LF3	I had had	info
106	T	minun <b>on</b> täyty[nyt]	eval.neg rep
107	T	täältä vaa	clue
108	LF3	[aha]	ack
109	T	mm ↑	acc
110	LF3	mä en sano mitää	ack
111	T	selvä ↑ (.)	ack
112	T	LM2	nom (trans)
113	LM2	I have had to come home mitä sitte	info req.rep
114	T	kahdeksalta ↑	rep
115	LM2	at eight	info
116	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc

In Episode 13, the teacher introduces the pupils to the other way of saying the auxiliary verb *must*, that is, the structure *to have to*. The teacher starts Example 79 by asking the pupils what the structure is in the perfect tense (line 90). After a long pause she repeats the structure in Finnish: *minun on täytynyt* (*I have had to*) (line 91) and selects LM8 to translate the structure into English (line 94). However, LM8 is not sure about the target structure, which is indicated by his hesitant answer *I: had had to (.) eiku* (*I had had to no*) (line 95). Furthermore, his word *eiku* (*no*) after his answer could be interpreted as *private speech*, which is a sign of uncertainty. However, his use of private speech could also be interpreted as a sign of emerging control over the construction. In other words, LM8 recognises that there is something wrong with his answer. The teacher seems to notice that LM8 is still other-regulated and not yet able to take control over the structure, and thus she wants to maintain his motivation in the task by encouraging him to go on. She points out that LM8 is heading in the right direction by saying *vähän sinnepäin olit oikeilla jäljillä ↑* (*you were heading in the right direction*) (line 96). Because LM8 does not provide any response, the teacher continues her prompting by saying *vähän <muutetaan>* (*change a little*) (line 97). After this LM8 and LM6 simultaneously provide the correct verb form (lines 98-9), which the teacher in turn repeats (line 100). At this point LM8 seems slightly to undermine the teacher's position as the authoritative source of knowledge by responding to her repetition *niihän mä sanoin et sä kuullu* (*I said so didn't you hear*) (line 101).

Next, the teacher says aloud the complete Finnish sentence to be translated and transfers the request for an answer to LF3 (lines 103-4). Though LF3's response is not correct the teacher does not reject it completely but repeats the sentence, emphasising the critical feature of the verb form: *minun on täytynyt* (*I have had to*) (line 106) (see Section 7.3.4 for a discussion of marking critical features). However, no immediate response occurs, and thus the teacher provides LF3 with a further prompt by referring to the transparency (line 107). LF3 acknowledges the teacher's prompt (line 108), but apparently she is not able to pick up the teacher's assistance and take control over the task. Instead,

she indicates her frustration by saying *mä en sano mitään* (I won't say anything) (line 110) (see Section 7.3.5 for a discussion of frustration control). This time the teacher only acknowledges LF3's response (line 111) and selects another pupil to answer (line 112). LM2 starts to translate the sentence by saying *I have had to come home mitä sitte* (*I have had to come home* what next) (line 113). LM2 seems to be able to take control over the target structure but fails to remember the last words of the sentence. Thus, LM2 seems to be self-regulated in the grammar point in hand. The teacher prompts him further by saying with a rising intonation *kahdeksalta ↑* (*at eight*) (line 114). LM2 finishes his translation and in the end the teacher accepts his answer (lines 115-6). In this example the teacher creates opportunities for three pupils, LM8, LF3 and LM2, to participate in the co-construction of the target structure *to have to* in the perfect tense. Each of these pupils needs scaffolded help at a different level, which indicates that this particular grammar feature represents three different ZPDs for the three learners. At the same time the other pupils in the class may potentially benefit from the dialogue by listening to the teaching-learning process.

As noted above, in keeping the pupils' attention on the task in hand the teacher needs to be persistent in eliciting responses from them. Accordingly, the teacher is often not satisfied with the learner's first answer that he or she does not understand the task. Instead, she persistently prompts the pupil to come up with the target structure, as in Example 80:

EXAMPLE 80 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 12			
132	T	mut sitte meil on viel jälellä pluskvamperfekti (.)	ms
133	T	kuinkas sanot minä <b>olin</b> ollut nuori (.)	req.info
134	T	LF3	nom
135	LF3	emmä tiiä	(info)
136	T	etkä muista ↑	pro
137	LF3	en	(info)
138	T	LM5 muistaa ↑	pro nom (trans)
139	LM5	mikä ↑	req.rep
140	T	olin ollut nuori ↑ [(.)]	rep
141	LM5	[ai]	ack
142	T	mikä laitetaan (.) haven ja hasin paikalle vaa	clue
143	LM5	mikä	req.rep
144		(..)	
145	T	LM8	nom (trans)
146	LM8	I had	info
147	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc

In the example above, the teacher and pupils start to revise the verb *to be* in the past perfect tense. The teacher begins the sequence by helping the pupils to see the structure of the lesson with her metastatement *mut sitte meil on viel jälellä pluskvamperfekti (.)* (but then we still have the past perfect tense) (line 132). After this the teacher elicits a response from LF3 by first saying aloud the sentence to be translated and then naming LF3 (lines 133-4). However, LF3 fails to provide



a suitable answer. Instead, she says directly that she does not know the answer (line 135). In spite of LF3's frank statement that she does not know the correct answer, the teacher prompts LF3 to come up with the target structure, saying *etkä muista* ↑ (and you don't recall) (line 136). What is significant here is that the teacher emphasises the word *muista* (recall) instead of using the word *know*, which LF3 uses in her own turn. In doing this the teacher apparently seeks to indicate that they have already gone through this structure in the previous lessons. In other words, in order to keep LF3 motivated the teacher tries to provide bridges between the learner's existing knowledge and that needed to solve the new problem. The teacher's prompt thus seems to be an emphatic encouragement to continue to carry out the task. At the same time the teacher also seems to avoid putting LF3 in an embarrassing situation and wants to indicate that LF3 probably knows the target structure but has just forgotten it. However, LF3 fails to pick up the teacher's prompt and answers *en* (I don't) (line 137).

At this point the teacher transfers the task to LM5 by saying *LM5 muistaa* ↑ (LM5 recalls) (line 138). Again here the teacher refers to the pupil's existing knowledge by using the verb *muistaa* (recall). However, LM5 seems to have lost interest in the task and asks the teacher to repeat the sentence, saying *mikä* ↑ (what) (line 139). LM5 acknowledges the teacher's repetition by saying *ai* (oh) but fails to provide any translation (line 141). Therefore, the teacher provides LM5 with a further clue by asking *mikä laitetaan* (.) *haven ja hasin paikalle vaa* (what must be written instead of the verbs *have* and *has*) (line 142). Again here LM5 asks *mikä* (what) (line 143) but fails to give any further response. After a long pause the teacher once again transfers the task to another learner, LM8, who immediately gives the correct answer, and finally the teacher accepts it (lines 145-7). In this example, the past perfect tense of the verb *to be* seems to be low in both LF3 and LM5's ZPDs, whereas LM8 seems to be nearer to self-regulation as regards this particular grammatical feature.

**Direction maintenance by using metastatements.** When the teacher seeks to keep the pupils' attention on the task she may use metastatements before initiating the next sequence. As was mentioned in Section 6.5.1, the teacher uses metastatements in order to help the pupils to see the structure of the lesson and to help them to understand the aim of the subsequent exchanges. The teacher in this study typically uses metastatements to motivate the pupils to work towards the overall task goal. She uses metastatements especially in cases where they go through several grammar tasks on the same grammar point, as illustrated by Example 81:

EXAMPLE 81 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 14			
240	T	sitte on vielä viis jälellä (.)	ms
241	T	isä ei saanut polttaa koskaan kun hän oli nuori (.)	req.info
242	T	kuinka pistetään LM8	nom
continues			

## EXAMPLE 81 continues

243		(..)	
244	LF2	oi (xx)	
245	LM8	<i>father</i> (.) <i>father was wasn't eeh wasn't able to eiku allowed to</i> (.) <i>smoke ei näit osaa</i>	info
246	T	mm ↑	acc
247	T	kotona (..) ei ollukkaa kotona kun hän oli nuori	req.info pro
248	LM8	when he was young	info
249	T	mm ↑	acc
250	LF5	se oli hyvä (xx)	
251	T	ja wasn't ever voidaan vaihtaa (.) was never (.) <allowed to smoke when he was young> (.) never kun käytetään ni muistatte et ei saa olla toista kieltosanaa ↑ (.) sillo ei saa olla wasn't (.) englannissa ei oo tuplakieltoa (.)	ext

In Episode 12, from which the example above is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. The episode involves translating 15 different sentences, of which the seventh is dealt with in Example 81. The teacher starts the sequence with her metastatement. She helps the pupils to keep up their motivation by saying *sitte on vielä viis jälellä* (.) (then we still have five left) (line 240). In other words, the teacher attempts to help the pupils to maintain their orientation towards the task in hand by pointing out that they only have five more sentences to check. Only after this does she read aloud the sentence to be translated into English (line 241). Because no immediate response occurs, the teacher nominates LM8 who is to translate the sentence (line 242). In response, LM8 starts to translate the sentence by saying *father* (.) *father was wasn't eeh wasn't able to eiku allowed to* (.) *smoke ei näit osaa* (*father father wasn't eeh wasn't able to no allowed to smoke I can't do these*) (line 245). Although LM8's uncertainty about the target structure can be seen in his hesitation *eeh*, he seems to struggle to gain control over the grammar point through the use of *private speech*. More specifically, LM8 indicates with his words *ei näit osaa* (I can't do these) (line 245) that though he has not full control over the task, he attempts to make sense of it. LM8 seems to be at the stage of the ZPD where explicit assistance is no longer needed and LM8 seems to be near self-regulation in the task. At this point the teacher seems to notice that although the learner is uncertain, he is trying to come up with an appropriate answer. Thus, the teacher accepts LM8's partial answer although there are pronunciation errors and prompts him further by reading aloud the rest of the sentence to be translated (lines 246-7). LM8 finishes the translation and the teacher accepts the answer (lines 248-9). In the end the teacher extends the grammar point in question by referring to the use of the words *ever* and *never* (line 251).

In addition to using metastatements in the middle of checking several different sentences, the teacher in this study may attempt to keep the pupils oriented towards the task by informing them what the next grammar tasks are concerned with, as in Example 82:

EXAMPLE 82 Episode 14. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 6			
141	T	sitten (.) tehdään kysymyslauseita ↑ (.)	ms
142	T	LF1:lle ensimmäinen	nom
143	T	kuinka kysyt täytyykö minun mennä bussilla	req.info
144	LL	[(xx)]	
145	LF1	[do you have to go] by bus	info
146	T	mm (.)	acc
147	T	tai ↑ (.) viivat non (.) teidän kirjassa näköjään sillä lailla et vois näköjään laittaa että must you go by bus	exp
148	LF1	viivat ↑	req.exp
149	T	mm ku siin oli you go by bus	exp
150	LF1	täs	ack

In Episode 14, from which Example 82 is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through sentences containing the structure *to have to*. Just before this example the teacher and the pupils have gone through sentences in the form of a statement. From Sequence 6 onwards, the interrogative sentences are in question. Accordingly, at the beginning of Example 82, the teacher calls the pupils' attention to the task goal by saying *sitten (.) tehdään kysymyslauseita* (next let's write interrogative sentences) (line 141). With this metastatement she apparently seeks to keep the pupils motivated and to maintain their participation in the ongoing activity. After the metastatement the teacher selects the next speaker and says aloud the first interrogative sentence for translation (lines 142-3). This particular structure seems to be high in LF1's ZPD, and being self-regulated in the task, she provides a correct translation, which the teacher accepts (lines 145-6). After this the teacher still refers to the textbook and gives an alternative more appropriate to the exercise in the book (line 147).

**Direction maintenance by calling attention to the task goal.** In addition to using prompts and metastatements in order maintain direction towards the task in hand, the teacher may explicitly call the pupils' attention to the overall task goal. As Wood et al. (1976:98) remark, "action tends to follow the line of previous success". In other words, as they further point out, it is possible that past success serves to distract from the overall goal, because the pupils do not want to move on to more complex tasks. The teacher therefore attempts to increase the pupils' risk-taking and create opportunities to participate in the teaching-learning process by reminding them about the aim of the task in hand. Consider Example 83, before which the learners have successfully revised the verb *to be* in different tenses:

EXAMPLE 83 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 14			
209	T	nyt tää liittyy siihen asiaan että (.) siellä can ja may verbillä oli sellanen (.) kiertoilmaus ↑ (.)	ext
210	T	mikäs se on se can verbin kiertoilmaus	req.info
211	T	löytyy sielt kirjasta ↑	clue
212	LF2	(xx) mul tulee vettä silmästä	

continues

## EXAMPLE 83 continues

213	LM1	(xx)	
214	T	mm ↑ (.)	
215	T	LF1:kin ettii (.)	pro
216	T	mikä oli can verbin kiertoilmasu ↑ (.)	req.info rep
217	T	lukee siel työkirjas [ku käännät vähän sivua]	clue
218	LF1	[ei tääl oo]	(info)
219	LM	(xx)	
220	T	löytyykö LF3 kiertoilmaus ↑	nom pro
221	LM3	hä ↑	req.rep
222		(..)	
223	T	sivu on (.) kakssataa neljätoista (.)	ms
224	LF2	no ei siin lue (.) be [allowed]	info
225	T	[LM7] (.)	nom
226	T	mikä on (.) mitä (.) sanontaa voi käyttää can verbin sijasta ↑	req.info reph
227	LM7	could=	info
228	T	=tai sitte on vielä yks	pro
229	LM7	mm be able to	info
230	T	mm (.)	acc

Just before this example the teacher and pupils have revised the verb *to be* in different tenses and the pupils have succeeded in completing the exercises. In revising the old grammar point the teacher aims to prepare the pupils to encounter the new grammar point, that is, the other ways of saying the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may*, which are the main focus of Episode 9. The teacher starts Example 83 by creating bridges between the revision of the old grammar point and the main goal of the episode by saying *nyt tää liittyy siihen asiaan että (.) siellä can ja may verbillä oli sellanen (.) kiertoilmaus ↑ (.)* (this is related to the other ways of saying the verbs *can* and *may*) (line 209). In other words, at this point the teacher wants to maintain direction by calling the pupils' attention to the overall task goal. However, her first elicitation does not trigger any response from the learners, and she thus gives them a further clue by referring to the textbook: *löytyy sielt kirjasta ↑* (you can find it in the book) (line 211). The teacher seems to notice that the new grammar point causes problems to some of the pupils and it is difficult for them to keep their attention on the task in hand. Accordingly, the teacher invites LF1 to participate in the task by saying *LF1:kin ettii (.)* (please LF1 try to find it) (line 215). No immediate response occurs, and thus the teacher first repeats her request for an answer and then repeats her clue (lines 216-7). However, LF1 is not able to take control over the task but answers *ei tääl oo* (it isn't here) (line 218). Next the teacher transfers the question to LF3 by asking *löytyykö LF3 ↑* (can you find it LF3) (line 220). LF3, however, seems to have lost interest in the task, which is indicated in her request for repetition *hä ↑* (what) (line 221). The teacher does not repeat the question, but provides the learners with more time and says aloud the page number where the answer can be found (lines 222-3). LF2 reacts to this by saying *no ei siin lue (.) be allowed* (there isn't (.) *be allowed*) (line 224). The teacher ignores LF2's incorrect answer. Instead, she asks LM7 to answer (line 225) and rephrases the question once again by asking *mikä on*

(.) *mitä* (.) *sanontaa voi käyttää can verbin sijasta* ↑ (what is (.) what structure can be used instead of the verb *can*) (line 226). LM7 finally gives an appropriate answer and after the teacher's further prompt he provides the correct verb form, which the teacher accepts (lines 227-230). In this example, the teacher attempts to create intersubjectivity between herself and LF1 and LF3, but there seems to be such a degree of asymmetry between the definitions of the task situations that they fail to achieve the goal. Furthermore, the new grammar point in hand seems to be low in both LF1 and LF3's ZPDs and they still seem to be object-regulated.

***Direction maintenance by checking whether the pupils have any problems.*** Finally, the pupils find it difficult to keep their attention on the task in hand if they find it too difficult for them to control. The teacher has to understand which elements in the task cause problems in order to be able to provide the learners with effective scaffolded assistance. Thus, the teacher may check whether the pupils have any further problems with the grammar points dealt with so far before she moves on to the next task, as in Example 84:

EXAMPLE 84 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 23			
128	T	and LM2 the last one=	req.info nom
129	LM2	=and I have <i>drunk</i> my tea <i>there</i> and now I'm quite alright	info
130	T	well done .	eval.pos
131	T	any questions ↑ (..)	check

In Episode 3, from which this example is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on the perfect tense of verbs. At the beginning of Example 84, the teacher asks LM2 for a translation of the last sentence of the exercise (line 128). In response, LM2, who seems to be near self-regulation as regards this particular grammar point, reads his translation, which the teacher evaluates positively (lines 129-30). At the end of the sequence, the teacher still checks whether the pupils have any further questions concerning the perfect tense of verbs before moving on to the next sequence (line 131). In doing this the teacher can decide whether to intervene selectively or whether to continue towards the overall task goal.

To summarise, direction maintenance is the third of the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process as described by Wood et al. (1976). According to the original analysis by Wood et al. (1976), the teacher's task is to maintain learners motivated and in pursuit of the task goal. For the purposes of the present study, however, the category of direction maintenance has been revised to involve three subcategories. One of these subcategories consists of strategies involving the teacher's encouragement of the learners to maintain direction towards the task goal (see Edwards and Mercer 1987, McCormick and Donato 2000). In examining the data in greater detail it is possible to identify those strategies with which the teacher attempts to keep the pupils' attention on the task by especially encouraging them to continue their work. The teacher in

this study typically encourages active participation in the task whenever the pupils seem to lose their motivation. In the first place, the teacher can prompt the pupils to come up with an appropriate answer. She often avoids giving negative evaluation. Instead, she can try to incorporate even the pupils' partially correct answers into her prompts. Furthermore, she can encourage the learners with positive statements as to their knowledge. Secondly, the teacher can encourage the pupils with metastatements, with which she helps the learners to understand the purpose of the subsequent sequences. The third strategy the teacher uses in maintaining direction involves calling the pupils' attention to the task goal. Lastly, she can encourage the pupils by checking whether they have any problems as regards the task in hand.

### 7.3.3.2 Comprehension of grammar points

In examining the teacher's strategies in providing scaffolded assistance in the present case, it is possible to identify the strategies with which she especially attempts to maintain the learners' direction towards the task by ensuring their comprehension of the grammar points in hand. This section focuses on the strategies with which the teacher checks and ascertains the pupils' comprehension during the process of carrying out grammar exercises. By employing these strategies the teacher monitors and facilitates the pupils' comprehension of the grammar points in order to maintain the learners' involvement in the task. In other words, the teacher uses these strategies to establish the pupils' comprehension of the new grammar points they are expected to learn during the activity. These strategies include *asking the pupils for an explanation, providing an explanation and referring to an old grammar point*. In the following, each of these strategies is described and illustrated by examples.

*Direction maintenance by asking the pupils for an explanation.* The teacher in the classroom situation under study typically ascertains the pupil's "online" comprehension by asking for an explanation of his or her answer before moving on. In doing this the teacher seeks to maintain direction towards the overall task goal, that is, the learning of the particular grammar point, and also to make sure that the pupil understands the task demands. Consider Example 85:

EXAMPLE 85 Episode 2. Lesson 1. Old grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 2			
18	T	kakkonen LM2:lle	req.info nom
19	LM2	my friend Doris Pike usually comes around for coffee doesn't she	info
20	T	hyvä ↑ (.)	eval.pos
21	T	miks laitoit muuten doesn't	req.exp
22		(..)	
23	LM2	eehm (.) siin on ässä siin muodos	exp
24	T	nii ku on hänestä kyse	clar
25	LF1	((laugh))	
26	T	siit puuttuu tuolt yks sakara mm (.)	(info)

In Episode 2, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on tag questions. The teacher starts the example above by saying the number of the next exercise and selecting the next speaker (line 18). In response, LM2 provides the correct target sentence, which the teacher evaluates positively (lines 19-20). In terms of the ZPD, this particular grammar point seems to represent the level where LM2 no longer needs explicit help and LM2 seems to be self-regulated in the task. However, at this point the teacher seems to want to make sure that LM2 understands the grammar point, that is, tag questions, and she thus requests an explanation from him by asking *miks laitoit muuten doesn't* (why did you put *doesn't*) (line 21). After a long pause LM2 provides his explanation by saying *eehm (.) siin on ässä siin muodos* (eehm there is the letter s in that form) (line 23). In her next turn the teacher clarifies LM2's explanation a little further by saying *nii ku on hänestä kyse* (because it is a question about the word *she*) (line 24). In other words, the teacher and LM2 co-construct the explanation. By requesting this explanation from LM2 the teacher not only ascertain the pupil's comprehension of the grammar point in question but also maintains his orientation towards the task requirement of understanding the formation of tag questions.

As noted above, the teacher in this study typically ascertains whether the pupils understand a particular grammar point by asking them to explain their answers. Apart from maintaining direction, this strategy helps the teacher to create opportunities for the pupils to engage in co-constructing the grammar structure. In fact, she continuously checks the pupils' comprehension in the course of the teaching-learning process, in which the pupils also assist each other under the teacher's guidance, as in Example 86:

EXAMPLE 86 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 6			
117	T	kuinkas sanot <b>hänen</b> on täytynyt tulla kotiin ↑ (.)	req.info
118	T	LM9	nom
119	LM9	eeh (.) he have had to	info
120	T	he ↑	pro
121	LF2	has had	info
122	LM9	has had to (.) no emmä sitä tiää	info
123	T	mm exactly	acc
124	LF3	[((laugh))]	
125	LF7	[((laugh))]	
126	T	[minkä takia] (.) <minkä takii> (.) pitääkin olla ässä [(.)]	req.exp
127	LF2	[se on yksikön kolmas]	exp
128	T	LF2	nom
129	LF2	>se on yksikön kolmas<	exp
130	T	niin on (.)	acc

In Example 86, the teacher and the learners revise the structure *to have to*. The teacher starts the sequence by saying aloud the sentence to be translated (line 117). When the teacher nominates LM9, he gives an incorrect answer (lines 118-9). However, the teacher seems not to want to reject the answer explicitly. Instead, she maintains the learner's orientation towards the task by prompting

him to correct the structure on his own. She does not explicitly say that there is an error in the answer but repeats the first word *he* of the translation sentence with a rising intonation (line 120). At this point another pupil, LF2, picks up the teacher's prompting first and gives the correct answer *has had* (line 121). After this LM9 also provides the correct answer, although hesitantly, by saying *has had to* (.) *no emmä sitä tiiä* (*has had to well I don't know it*) (line 122), which the teacher evaluates positively (line 123). LM9's words *emmä tiiä* (I don't know) (line 122) after the actual answer can also be interpreted as *private speech* with which the pupil tries to take control over the task. Apparently, because the learner is not sure about the correctness of his answer, the teacher seeks to ascertain that LM9 understands the grammar point. Thus, she requests explanation from the learners by asking *minkä takia* (.) <*minkä takii*> (.) *pitääkin olla ässä* (.) (why has there to be the letter s) (line 126). Before the teacher manages to finish her request, LF2, who seems to be near self-regulation as regards this particular grammar point, provides the correct explanation (line 127). However, the teacher still wants to make sure that the other pupils have also heard the answer, and thus she has LF2 repeat her answer once more (line 128). Finally, the teacher accepts LF2's correct answer (line 130). In other words, the teacher-pupil interaction leads to a clear explanation of the target structure. Scaffolding a clear explanation may also benefit the classmates' comprehension of the grammar point. In this case the structure *to have to* seems to be low in LM9's ZPD. LM9 still seems to be other-regulated in the task and thus he can benefit from LF2's capability to take control over the task.

Apart from requesting the learners to explain their answers as a way of maintaining their orientation towards the overall task goal, the teacher may ask them to explain an answer that the teacher has provided herself. In doing this the teacher attempts to assess whether she has to scaffold the pupils' comprehension more explicitly because a breakdown in comprehension has occurred or whether she can continue towards the overall task goal. Furthermore, as was mentioned above, the teacher wants to make sure that all the pupils share the scaffolded assistance. Consider Example 87, which comes from an episode focusing on an old grammar point, that is, adverbs:

EXAMPLE 87 Episode 7. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 5			
44	T	sitten on pukeutumislauseita (.)	ms
45	T	onks LF2:lla ↑	nom
46	LF2	joo (.) someone dress elegantly (.) somebody's dress BUT somebody's dress eeh emmä tiiä miten toi lausutaa	info
47	T	taste-	pro clue
48	LF2	no jotenki kuiteskii=	ack
49	T	=tastelessly=	info
50	LF2	=no just sillee	ack
51	T	mm ↑ (.)	ack
52	T	mitä tarkoittaa tastelessly (.)	req.info
53	T	LF1	nom

continues



## EXAMPLE 87 continues

54	LF1	no emmä tiedä	(info)
55	T	LM5	nom (trans)
56	LM5	mauttomasti=	info
57	T	=mauttomasti (.) kyllä	acc

The teacher starts this example with a metastatement about the nature of the sentences that follow (line 44). First she elicits a response from LF2 by asking *onks LF2:lla* (does LF2 have) (line 45). After this LF2 starts to translate the target structure, saying *joo someone dress elegantly (.) somebody's dress BUT somebody dress eeh emmä tiiä miten toi lausutaa* (yes someone dress elegantly somebody's dress but somebody dress eeh I don't know how to pronounce it) (line 46). At this point the teacher prompts LF2 to continue her response by giving her the beginning of the adverb in question (line 47). However, LF2 is not able to pick up the teacher's prompting and answers *no jotenki kuiteskii* (well somehow) (line 48). The teacher seems to realise that LF2 is not able to take control over the task in hand, and thus she immediately demonstrates the right answer by saying *tastelessly* (line 49) (see Section 7.3.6 for a discussion of demonstration). Here the pupil refuses to repeat the correct pronunciation. Instead, she only acknowledges the correct adverb by saying *no just sillee* (well exactly like that) (line 50). In a way she takes the role of the teacher, who typically acknowledges and accepts the learners' answers and not vice versa. The teacher reacts to this only by accepting the situation with her minimal response *mm* (line 51). However, she does not completely ignore the learner's incomplete answer. Instead, she maintains the learners' orientation towards the task by requesting an explanation from LF1, asking *mitä tarkottaa tastelessly (.)* (what does *tastelessly* mean) (lines 52-3). After LF1's frank declaration that she does not know the meaning of the adverb: *no emmä tiiä* (well I don't know) (line 54), the teacher transfers the question to LM5, who immediately provides the correct answer (lines 55-6). In other words, LM5 seems to be self-regulated in the task and this particular grammar point seems to be high in his ZPD. In this example, the teacher's request for explanation guides the learners through the completion of grammar tasks, thus benefiting all the pupils.

***Direction maintenance by providing an explanation.*** Instead of asking the learners for an explanation of the correct answer, the teacher may provide the explanation herself. By explaining a particular grammar point the teacher seeks to maintain direction and to call attention to the task requirements. Consider Example 88, in which the teacher provides an explanation of the verb phrase at the learner's request:

EXAMPLE 88 Episode 11. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structure *be able to*.

SEQUENCE 5			
112	T	[entäpä kolmonen]	req.info
113	LF2	[höh no mä pyyhin ton ihan] turhaa taas	
114	T	<minun pikkusisareni on osannut> lukea ja kirjoittaa siitä asti kun hän oli viisi (.)	req.info
115	T	LM8	nom
116	LM8	eeh my little sister (.) been able (.) >emmä tiää<=	info
117	T	=mm been able to on ihan oikein yks sana viel lisätään eteen ↑	eval.pos /neg pro
118	LM8	eeh (.) have	info
119	T	ja nyt ku on (.) sisko ni laitetaa mielummin .	eval.neg clue
120	LM8	has	info
121	T	has . hyvä ↑	eval.pos
122	LF1	eiks siihen käy mikää muu	req.info
123	T	ei (.) able to tulee aina ↑ (.)	info
124	T	eiks joo ↑ (.)	che
125	T	has been on olla verbin perfektii . (.) siinä se on has been able to (.)	exp

In Episode 11, from which this example is taken, the teacher and the learners go through homework on the structure *to have to*. The teacher starts Sequence 5 by saying the number of the sentence to be translated, reading aloud the sentence and telling LM8 to read his translation (lines 112-115). LM8 starts his answer by saying *eeh my little sister (.) been able (.) >emmä tiää<* (*eeh my little sister been able I don't know*) (line 116). The teacher apparently does not want to reject the pupil's answer. Instead, she incorporates LM8's answer into her own comment and prompts him further to continue his answer by saying *mm been able to on ihan oikein yks sana viel lisätään eteen ↑* (*mm been able to is correct one word must be added to the front of it*) (line 117). LM8 picks up the teacher's prompting but his response is incorrect (line 118). Here the teacher evaluates the answer by indirectly indicating that it is not correct. She prompts LM8 to correct the answer himself by giving him a clue *ja nyt ku on (.) sisko ni laitetaa mielummin* (and now there is a sister let's rather write) (line 119). This time LM8 is able to provide the correct verb form (line 120). In terms of scaffolding, LM8 still seems to be at the level where help provided by a more capable other is needed. In other words, LM8 still seems to be other-regulated, and the grammar point in question seems to be rather low in his ZPD. At this point another student, LF1, requests further information by asking *eiks siihen käy mikää muu* (can't there be any other form) (line 122). In response, the teacher first gives her answer (line 123) and then checks the pupils' comprehension by asking with a rising intonation *eiks joo ↑* (right) (line 124). It seems that the teacher wants to ascertain that the pupils understand the grammar point and help them to work towards the overall task goal. Finally, the teacher still goes on further with her explanation by saying *has been on olla verbin perfektii . (.) siinä se on has been able to (.)* (*has been* is the perfect tense of the verb *to be* there it is *has been able to*) (line 125).

In maintaining the learners' orientation towards the overall task goal the teacher continuously checks their "online" comprehension. Especially, if

breakdowns in comprehension occur, the teacher explains the grammar point in order to invite the learners' participation in the co-construction of the task and to prevent their losing interest in the activity. Consider Example 89:

EXAMPLE 89 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 14			
86	T	and LF7	nom
87	LF7	eeh (..) heaven (.) heaven knows (.) wh- what (.) it's paid (.) for <i>the call</i>	req.info
88	T	mm ↑ (.) nyt paid on se että sä maksat rahalla ↑ mut tässä ajetaa takaa maksaa olla hintana (..)	eval.neg exp pro
89	T	LF7	nom
90	LF7	cost	info
91	T	mm (.)	acc
92	T	cost on seisoa jonkun hinta (.)	exp
93	T	you're are late boys (.)	
94	T	ja (.) pay on se kun sä maksat rahalla (.)	exp

The example above is taken from an episode in which the teacher and the learners revise the perfect tense of verbs. The teacher starts Example 89 by calling on LF7 to translate the next sentence (line 86). In response, LF7 reads aloud her translation (line 87). However, the sentence is not completely correct, and thus the teacher explains the error by saying *mm ↑ (.) nyt paid on se että sä maksat rahalla ↑ mut tässä ajetaa takaa maksaa olla hintana (..)* (now *paid* means to *pay with money* but we mean here to *have a price*) (line 88). With her explanation the teacher also tries to get LF7 to continue to work towards the goal, that is, the target structure. LF7 is able to pick up the teacher's prompting, and after a long pause she gives the target verb *cost*, which the teacher accepts (lines 90-1). In the end the teacher continues her explanation (lines 92 and 94).

**Direction maintenance by referring to an old grammar point.** As noted above, the teacher continuously checks the pupils' "online" comprehension as she and the pupils co-construct the tasks. This is especially the case when the teacher introduces new grammar points. In these cases the teacher builds a scaffolding for the pupils from the ground up, starting with references to previously studied grammar points. With this strategy the teacher helps the learners to keep motivated and not to get frustrated by tasks that are too complicated right from the beginning. Consider Example 90:

EXAMPLE 90 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 1			
(35 lines omitted from the beginning of the sequence)			
36	T	ELIKKÄ (.) viimeks oli puhetta apuverbeistä ↑ oli puhetta siitä canistä ja maysta [(.) ni nyt on vielä yks apuverbi] se on <b>täytyä</b> (.)	ms
37	LL	[xx]	
38	T	sit pitää malttaa kuunnella ↑	
39	T	mikä on täytyä englanniksi	req.info
40	T	ja [viitataan]	

continues

## EXAMPLE 90 continues

41	LM2	[must]	info
42	T	LM2	nom
43	LM2	must	info
44	T	se on must . (.)	acc
45	T	mitenköhän se kierrettäs (.)	req.info
46	T	millä sanonnalla (.)	reph
47	T	LM8	nom
48	LM8	have to	info
49	T	se on have to	acc
50	LM4	<hikari: ↑>	
51	LM8	mä tein vahingos tän tehtävän silloin ku (.) tehtiä tää	
52	T	nyttän (.) tät käytetään	exp
53	T	LM4 kääntyy ympäri ei höpise muuta [ja LM1 ei]	
54	LM4	[oikei mä käännyn ympäri]	
55	LF2	LM4 vähän sä oot hauska	
56	LM4	* no mitä (.) ihan oikein päin * =	
57	T	=elikkä (.) have to rakenteen käyttäminen (.) on (.) ehkä vähän helpompaa ku sen toisen rakenteen (.) ainut mitä sun pitää tehdä jos sä haluut tehdä imperfektin (.) ni muutatkii vaa have verbin imper[fektiin]	ext
58	LM	[had]	info
59	T	ni mitäs: se on	req.info
60	LF2	had	info
61	T	eikä huudeta [vaa viitataa]	
62	LM2	[had]	info
63	T	LF6	nom
64	LF6	onkse had	sug
65	T	se on had (.)	acc

Example 90 is taken from the beginning of an episode focusing on the new grammar point *to have to*. Just before this example the teacher has recruited the learners to the new task. At the beginning of Example 90, the teacher helps the pupils to understand the structure of the sequence by explaining that they still have one more auxiliary verb to deal with (line 36). First she asks the pupils whether they remember this auxiliary verb (line 39). After LM2's correct answer the teacher continues with the introduction of the other way of saying the auxiliary verb *must* by asking *mitenköhän se kierrettäs (.)* (how would you say the auxiliary verb in another way) (line 45). No immediate response occurs, and the teacher thus rephrases her request by saying *millä sanonnalla* (with which phrase) (line 46) and nominates LM2 who is to answer (line 47). LM2's answer is correct (line 48) and the teacher accepts it by repeating *se on have to* (it is *have to*) (line 49) and explaining *nyttän (.) tät käytetään* (now we use this) (line 52). At this point the teacher starts to extend the grammar point the pupils have already been taught in the preceding lessons by explaining the use of the structure *to have to*. Importantly, she invites the learners' participation in the co-construction of the new grammar point by saying *...ainut mitä sun pitää tehdä jos sä haluut tehdä imperfektin (.) ni muutatkii vaa have verbin imperfektiin ni mitäs se on* (the only thing you have to do if you want to form the past tense (.) you change the verb *to have* into the past tense what is it) (lines 57 and 59). In addition, in doing this the teacher checks whether the pupils remember the grammar point which the new grammar point will be based on or whether she has to give them

further explicit help. Furthermore, she seems to help to keep them motivated by creating opportunities to participate in the teaching-learning process. Both LM2 and LF2 provide correct answers (lines 60 and 62), but the teacher apparently wants to remind the pupils of the ground rules for classroom talk, that is, the pupils are supposed to bid for turns before answering: *eikä huudeta vaa viitataa* (do not shout please put up your hand) (line 61). Accordingly, a little later the teacher calls on LF6 to answer (line 63). LF6's answer, which she gives in the form of a suggestion, is correct, and in the end the teacher accepts it (lines 64-5).

To summarise, during teacher-led episodes the teacher is responsible for orchestrating the teaching-learning process. According to the original category of direction maintenance by Wood et al. (1976), the teacher's task is to keep the learners motivated and in pursuit of the task goal. For the purposes of the present study, however, it has proved more satisfactory to analyse the phenomenon of direction maintenance in terms of three subcategories, one of which consists of strategies involving the teacher ensuring the pupils' comprehension of the grammar points in question during the process of scaffolding (see Edwards and Mercer 1987, McCormick and Donato 2000). In maintaining the pupils' orientation towards the task the teacher uses a number of strategies with which she monitors and facilitates the learners' comprehension of the grammar points. Firstly, the teacher maintains direction by asking the learners for an explanation of their answers. The teacher is concerned to check the pupils' "online" comprehension and assess whether more explicit help is needed before moving on to the next task. She is also concerned to create opportunities for the learners to participate in the task. Secondly, the teacher may provide a grammar explanation herself in order to call attention to the overall task goal. A breakdown in comprehension may occur, so an explanation from the teacher is called for or the pupils themselves may ask for an explanation. Thirdly, in order to help the learners to keep motivated the teacher may refer to grammar points that the pupils have already gone through in previous lessons. In this way she tries to make the new grammar points less complicated for the pupils to comprehend.

### **7.3.3.3 Clarification of the structures provided by the participants**

In addition to strategies involving encouragement and comprehension, the teacher in the present study also attempts to keep the pupils directed towards the task goal by ensuring the clarity of the learners' as well as her own responses. This section focuses on the teacher's strategies to promote greater comprehensibility of language production during the process of carrying out grammar exercises by clarifying the structures provided by the participants. With these strategies the teacher helps the learners to keep motivated by encouraging them to repeat, clarify or expand their answers. In other words, the teacher scaffolds the pupils' language production by prompting them to clarify and rethink their replies. The teacher's requests for clarifications also create more opportunities for the learners to participate, and thus promote their involvement in the task. Above all, the teacher wants to invite the pupils to

express their responses clearly. The strategies in question include *requesting a clarification*, *providing a clarification of the target structure* and *clarifying a request for information*. In the following, each of these strategies is described and illustrated by a few examples.

**Direction maintenance by requesting a clarification.** The teacher in this study may scaffold the pupils' understanding of grammar points by requesting them to repeat and clarify their answers. When the teacher and the learner have co-constructed the target grammar structure, the teacher may want to make sure that the learner understands the grammar point in question. For this reason the teacher requests the learner to repeat the complete target sentence, as in Example 91:

EXAMPLE 91 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 15			
231	T	eli nyt jos sä haluat sanoo (.) vaikka pluskvamperfektissä ↑ (.) että <minä olin osannut uida > (.) kuis sanosit (.)	req.info
232	T	minä olin osannut uida ↑	req.info rep
233	LM1	((yawn))	
234	T	LF1	nom
235	LF1	onkse että I be able to swi:m	sug
236	T	mm mut jos se olis että minä <b>olin</b> osannut uida	eval.neg req.info clar
237	LF1	en mä osaa=	(info)
238	T	=mitä me pistetään sen ben paikalle	req.info clue
239	LF1	had	info
240	T	ja	pro
241	LM1	(xx)	
242	LF1	been	info
243	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc
244	T	eli kuis se tuli ↑	che
245	LF1	no I had been able to	info
246	T	mm ↑ (.)	acc

In Episode 9, from which this example is taken, the teacher introduces the learners to the different forms of the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may*. The teacher starts Example 91 by saying in Finnish the sentence to be translated, which involves the auxiliary verb *can* in the past perfect tense (line 231). However, because the mere saying aloud of the sentence does not trigger any response from the learners, the teacher repeats it and nominates LF1 who is to translate it (lines 232 and 234). When she names LF1 the pupil answers in the form of a suggestion by saying *onkse että I be able to swi:m* (is it *I be able to swim*) (line 235). However, the answer is not correct. The teacher evaluates the reply negatively and prompts her further to work on the translation by clarifying the tense of the target verb form: *mm mut jos se olis että minä **olin** osannut uida* (mm but if it were *I was able to swim*) (line 236). Importantly, the teacher does not seem to want to reject the learner's answer. Instead, she only indicates implicitly that there is

something wrong with it by repeating the sentence and calling LF1's attention to the verb form (see Section 7.3.4 for a discussion of marking critical features). At this point LF1 seems to get frustrated with the task and answers *en mä osaa* (I can't do this) (line 237) (see Section 7.3.5 for a discussion of frustration control). However, the teacher continues working with LF1 by giving her a clue *mitä me pistetään sen ben paikalle* (what do we put instead of the verb *to be*) (line 238). LF1 is able to pick up the teacher's clue and gives the first part of the verb form *had* (line 239). After the teacher's further prompt *ja* (and) (line 240) LF1 also gives the other part *been* (line 242), which the teacher accepts (line 243). Apparently to make sure that LF1 remembers and understands the structure, she then asks LF1 to repeat the complete sentence once again, asking *eli kui se tuli* ↑ (what was it) (line 244). LF1 repeats the answer, and the teacher accepts it (lines 245-6). LF1 still seems to be strongly other-regulated, the grammar point being rather low in her ZPD. What is also important here is that the teacher's request for clarification of the target structure from LF1 apparently benefits her classmates' comprehension, since they can participate in the teaching-learning process by listening to the teacher's scaffolding.

In addition to requesting the pupil to repeat the correct target structure, the teacher may also ask the pupil to clarify his or her own answer. In doing this the teacher seeks to call attention to the task goal. By asking for a clarification the teacher can also emphasise certain elements of the grammar point for the benefit of the whole class. Consider Example 92:

EXAMPLE 92 Episode 6. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 5			
42	T	entäpä helposti ↑ (.)	req.info
43	T	LM3 ↑	nom
44	LM3	easily	info
45	T	mm ↑	acc
46	T	miten kirjoitat ↑	req.info
47	LM3	easily	info
48	T	hyvä ↑	eval.pos
49	T	eli yy muuttuuki siellä iiksi (.)	clar

In Episode 6, from which Example 92 is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on adverbs. The teacher starts Example 92 by saying aloud the next adverb to be translated and by selecting the next speaker (line 42-3). LM3 immediately gives the correct adverb, *easily* (line 44), which the teacher accepts (line 45). However, although LM3 seems to be near self-regulation in the task and this particular feature seems to be high in LM3's ZPD, the teacher requests him to spell the adverb (line 46). LM3 spells the adverb correctly (line 47), and the teacher evaluates his response positively by saying *hyvä* ↑ (good) (line 48). In the end the teacher goes on to clarify the spelling, saying *eli yy muuttuuki siellä iiksi* (.) (the letter y changes to the letter i) (line 49). By asking for the clarification the teacher apparently seeks to direct the pupils' attention to the ending of adverbs, and especially to the changes that occur when an adverb

is formed from an adjective. Thus, she calls the attention of the class to the task goal, which is the formation of adverbs.

*Direction maintenance by providing a clarification of the target structure.* A possibility, instead of maintaining direction by requesting a clarification is for the teacher to call attention to the goal by providing a clarification herself. By using this strategy she particularly seems to seek to promote learner comprehension. She typically provides a clarification in response to the requests from the pupils, as in Example 93:

EXAMPLE 93 Episode 2. Lesson 1. Old grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 8			
69	T	ja kaheksas LF5:lle	req.info nom
70	LF5	mm that's enough for now aren't it	info
71	T	that's (.) that <b>is</b> enough for now	eval.pos /neg clue
72	LF5	no (.) isn't it	info
73	T	hyvä	eval.pos
74	LF2	ei siis voi olla aren't ↑	req.info
75	T	ei ku siel on is siellä that is=	info
76	LF2	=mut eiks siihen käy noin aren't it	req.info
77	T	[ei]	info
78	LM2	[mites se käy]=	req.info
79	T	=eihä it sanan kans ikinä käytetä aren't siel on aina [is]	info
80	LM2	[voi vitsi]	ack

Example 93 is taken from an episode in which the teacher and the pupils go through homework on tag questions. The teacher starts Example 93 by saying the number of the next sentence to be translated and nominates LF5 who is to translate it (line 69). LF5's translation, however, is only partially correct (line 70). Therefore, the teacher does not accept the answer completely but prompts LF5 to correct the sentence (line 71). She does this by giving the pupil a clue about the nature of the error. She repeats the beginning of the sentence and emphasises the correct verb form in the first part of the target structure: *that's (.) that is enough for now* (line 71) (see Section 7.3.4 for a discussion of marking critical features). This minimal help that does not go beyond identifying the nature of the error is enough for LF5 to take over and to finish the correction. In addition, in her turn *no (.) isn't it* (line 72) the learner seems to mimic the teacher's previous other-regulation by saying *no*, and thus she makes use of *private speech* to control herself before providing the correct response. This is evidence of LF5's increasing self-control and her moving towards self-regulation in the task. In addition, it implies that this particular grammar point is high in LF5's ZPD.

At this point another pupil, LF2, requests a clarification from the teacher by asking *ei siis voi olla aren't* (so it can't be *aren't*) (line 74). In her response the



teacher clarifies the target structure by saying *ei ku siel on is siellä that is* (no because there is *that is*) (line 75). However, the teacher's first clarification does not seem to convince LF2, and she persists with her request for clarification, asking *mut eiks siihen käy noin aren't it* (but can't it be *aren't it*) (line 76), to which the teacher replies *ei* (no) (line 77). LF2 still wants the teacher to clarify further and asks: *mites se käy* (how is it then) (line 78), to which the teacher responds: *eihä it sanan kans ikinä käytetä aren't siel on aina is* (you never use *aren't* with the word *it* there is always *is*) (line 79). In this example, LF2's request for clarification starts a series of teacher and pupil exchanges that clarifies the formation of tag questions. Consequently, the teacher's scaffolding of LF2's understanding of the grammar point may also benefit the classmates' comprehension.

In addition to providing a clarification in response to a pupil's request, the teacher may clarify the target structure after accepting a pupil's correct answer. In doing this the teacher seeks to help the pupils to work towards the overall task goal and to promote pupil comprehension. Consider Example 94:

EXAMPLE 94 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 4			
93	T	mutta sitte meidän pitäis tarkkailla muutamia tapauksia katsotaanpa ensin vaik:ka tätä koko lausetta I just can't drink in the mornings can I ↑	ms
94	T	mitä huomaatte tästä verbistä (..)	req.info
95	T	löytyykö sitä muualta [(.)]	req.info reph
96	T	LM5	nom
97	LF1	[en tiiä]	(info)
98	LM5	no se ei o kieltomuoto	info
99	T	joo:o	acc
100	T	eli katsokaas tääl oli kieltomuoto (.) mut tääl ei ollukkaan (.)	clar
101	LM5	mm	ack

In Example 94, the teacher continues introducing the formation of tag questions to the pupils. At the beginning of the example, the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the sample sentence *I just can't drink in the mornings can I ↑* (line 93) and requests information from them by asking *mitä huomaatte tästä verbistä (..)* (what do you notice about this verb) (line 94). However, because no immediate response occurs, the teacher rephrases her question by asking *löytyykö sitä muualta (.)* (can you find it anywhere else) (line 95) and selects LM5 to answer the question (line 96). Before the teacher manages to finish her rephrase, LF1 answers *en tiiä* (I don't know) (line 97). The teacher, however, does not react to this. Instead, she accepts LM5's correct answer (lines 98-9). In addition to accepting the previous answer, the teacher clarifies it by saying *eli katsokaas tääl oli kieltomuoto (.) mut tääl ei ollukkaan (.)* (there is a negation here but here there isn't) (line 100). The teacher clarifies the right answer by directing the pupils' attention to the difference between the verb form in the main sentence and that in the tag question. In this way she seeks to promote learner comprehension by

calling the pupils' attention to the task goal, the understanding of the formation of tag questions.

*Direction maintenance by clarifying a request for information.* In addition to requesting a clarification or providing a clarification of the target structure, the teacher may clarify her request for information in order to help the pupils to work towards the task goal. The need for a clarification may be due to a new grammatical term, which the teacher has to explain in order to maintain direction, as in Example 95:

EXAMPLE 95 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 5			
101	T	ja sitte huomaatte et sama verbi sekä TÄÄLLÄ (.) että TÄÄLLÄ (.)	ms
102	T	mites se eroaa kahest ensimmäisest lauseest	req.info
103	LL	(xx)	
104	T	mikä tääl on liitekysymykses verbinä (..)	req.info clue
105	T	mitä verbei näkyy	reph
106	T	LM2	nom
107	T	hä=	req.rep
108	T	=mitä verbei näkyy [tääl liitekysymyksissä]	rep
109	LF1	[(laugh)]	
110	LM2	eeh (.) wake up	info
111	T	joo:o	acc
112	T	tääl on päälausees wake up sit tääl onki don't	clar
113	T	mikäs tääl on päälausees verbinä seuraavas esimerkis	req.info
114	LM2	bring	info
115	T	bring	acc
116	T	ja sitte onki ↑	pro
117	LM2	doesn't	info
118	T	doesn't (.)	acc
119	T	mitäs keksisitte (..)	req.info
120	T	mikä verbi on can verbi (..)	req.info clue
121	LF1	mitä mikä verbi se on	req.clar
122	T	millases käytös se on	clar
123	T	sil on hienompi nimiki (.)	reph
124	T	LM5	nom
125	LM5	en tiä	(info)
126	T	etkö ↑=	pro
127	LM5	=en	(info)
128		(..)	
129	T	mikä verbi (.) on can verbi (..)	req.info rep
130	T	meil on piip verbejä ja pääverbejä	clue
131	LF1	mitä ↑	req.rep
132	LF3	apuverbi	info
133	T	apuverbi	acc
134	T	eli jos sul on täällä apuverbi täällä lauseessa (.) päälauseessa se pitää löytyy täält liitekysymyksestä (.) mutta jos [tääl ei] ole	exp
135	LM4	[pitääks kirjottaa]	
136	T	oota hetki vielä	
137	T	jos ei ole apuverbiä (.) ni sit pitää käyttää don't tai doesn't (.)	exp

continues

## EXAMPLE 95 continues

138	T	miks tääl on sitte doesn't (.) ja tuol don't (..)	req.info
139	T	mihin se liittyy (..)	reph
140	T	mihin se liittyy (..)	rep
141	T	minkä kans pitää aina käyttää doesn't	clue
142	T	LM9	nom
143	LM9	yksikön kolmannen=	info
144	T	=nii	acc
145	T	tääl on he sen takia on doesn't eroavana erotuksena don't sanasta (..)	clar

In Episode 1, from which the example above is taken, the teacher introduces tag questions. In explaining the formation of tag questions she breaks down the grammar point and in Example 95 foregrounds the difference between the verbs in the main clause and in the tag question. At the beginning of Example 95, the teacher directs the pupils' attention to the sample sentence by saying *ja sitte huomaatte et sama verbi sekä TÄÄLLÄ (.) että TÄÄLLÄ* (then you notice the same verb here and here) (line 101) and requests information by asking *mites se eroaa kahest ensimmäisest lauseest* (how does it differ from the first two sentences) (line 102). Because no verbal response occurs, the teacher gives the learners a further clue by referring to the verb: *mikä tääl on liitekysymykses verbinä (..)* (what is the verb in the tag question) (line 104) and after a pause rephrases it by saying *mitä verbei näkyy* (what verbs can you see) (line 105). Then she calls on LM2 to answer and he requests the teacher to repeat the question (lines 106-7). LM2 is able to pick up the teacher's repetition and gives the correct answer, which the teacher accepts (lines 110-111). Before moving on the teacher clarifies the task by saying *tääl on päälausees wake up sit tääl onki don't* (here we have wake up in the main clause and here we have don't) (line 112). By clarifying the grammar point in the middle of her explanation the teacher seems to want to ascertain that all the pupils are able to follow. Then she moves on to the next sample sentence by asking *mikäs tääl on päälausees verbinä seuraavas esimerkis* (what is the verb in the next main clause) (line 113). LM2 gives the correct verb form and after the teacher's prompt he also identifies the verb in the tag question (lines 114 and 117).

After this the teacher returns to the initial sample sentence and foregrounds the grammatical term *auxiliary verb*. Because her implicit question *mitä keksisitte (..)* (what could you say) (line 119) followed by a long pause does not trigger any response, the teacher gives the pupils a clue by asking them about the verb: *mikä verbi on can verbi* (what verb is *can*) (line 120). At this point LF1 requests the teacher to clarify her question by asking *mitä mikä verbi se on* (what do you mean what verb it is) (line 121). In order to help LF1 to understand the question the teacher rephrases it by asking *millases käytös se on* (in what kind of use is it) (line 122). Because no immediate response occurs, the teacher rephrases the question further by saying *sil on hienompi nimiki (.)* (it also has a finer name) (line 123). In rephrasing the teacher appears to want to make it clear that the question is about a special verb whose function is different from those of regular verbs. However, no verbal response occurs and thus the teacher has LM5 answer (line 124). Although LM5 directly replies that he does not

know the answer, saying *emmä tiiä* (I don't know) (line 125), the teacher further prompts him to think about the question by asking *etkö* ↑ (do you not know) (line 126). After the teacher's prompt LM5 repeats *en* (I don't) (line 127).

Because the pupils have not answered the question yet, the teacher repeats her initial question *mikä verbi (.) on can verbi (.)* (what verb is the verb *can*) (line 129) and tries to clarify it by giving yet another clue by saying *meillä on piip verbejä ja pääverbejä* (there are "piip" verbs and main verbs) (line 130). LF3 is finally able to pick up the teacher's last clue and gives the correct answer by saying *apuverbi* (an auxiliary verb) (line 132). After LF3's correct answer the teacher explains the different verbs in the main clauses and in the tag questions (lines 134 and 137) and asks the further question *miks tääl on sitte doesn't (.) ja tuol don't (.)* (why do we have *doesn't* here and *don't* there) (line 138). Again here the teacher repeats her question, rephrases it by asking *mihin se liittyy (.)* (what is it related to) (lines 139-40) and gives the learners a clue by asking *minkä kans pitää aina käyttää doesn't* (with which do you have to use the verb *doesn't*) (line 141). After the teacher's clue LM9 provides the correct answer (line 143) and the teacher clarifies the use of the verbs by saying *tääl on he sen takia on doesn't eroavana erotuksena don't sanasta (.)* (there is *he* and that's why we have *doesn't* as a difference from the word *don't*) (line 145). In this example, the pupils still seem to be other-regulated and the grammar point seems to be low in their ZPDs, and thus the teacher's explicit clarifications are needed.

To summarise, direction maintenance is the third of the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process described by Wood et al. (1976). In the original analysis by Wood et al. (1976), the feature of direction maintenance was used for keeping the learners motivated and in pursuit of the task goal. For the purposes of the present study, however, direction maintenance was broken down into three subcategories, encouragement, comprehension and clarification (see Edwards and Mercer 1987, McCormick and Donato 2000). Clarification of the target structure, as discussed in this section, involves those strategies with which the teacher attempts to maintain the pupils' concentration on the task by ensuring that the learners' as well as her own responses and questions are clear so that everybody can understand them. With these strategies the teacher scaffolds the pupils' language production by clarifying the target structures and the structures employed in the process of scaffolding. Firstly, the teacher can ask the learners to clarify their answers. Secondly, the teacher herself can provide a clarification of the target structure. Lastly, the teacher can clarify her requests for information if no verbal response occurs or if the pupils overtly indicate that they have not understood the initial question. The teacher apparently uses these strategies to invite the learners to express their ideas clearly. In addition, by requesting or providing a clarification the teacher wants to ascertain that the class has heard and understood the task goal.

### 7.3.4 Marking critical features

What is significant in the process of scaffolding is that under the expert's guidance a novice is able to concentrate on those task elements that he or she is incapable of doing alone. As was described in the previous sections, during the process of scaffolding a pupil is first oriented towards the task by the teacher and then the task is simplified so that the learner is able to understand what the task requires. After this the pupil's orientation towards task-relevant goals is maintained. According to Wood et al. (1976), marking critical features of the task is the fourth of the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process. The teacher marks critical features in particular when a mismatch between the pupil's work and the teacher's preferred solution exists. The teacher's marking provides information about the discrepancies to the whole class. In addition, the teacher may accentuate certain features of the task in the course of the teaching-learning process to foreground some element of a correct answer provided by a learner.

This section discusses the teacher's various strategies in marking critical features in order to help a learner to carry out the activity. These strategies include *calling the learners' attention to an error*, *emphasising a grammar point in the initiation of the task* and *pointing out a grammar point in a correct answer provided by the learner*. In the following, each of these strategies is described and illustrated by a few examples.

**Marking critical features by calling attention to an error.** The teacher typically calls attention to any aspect of a learner's answer that involves a error. The teacher's marking helps the learner to recognise the discrepancy between what he or she has produced and the grammatically correct structure. The teacher may explicitly ask about the error, as in Example 96:

EXAMPLE 96 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 4			
50	T	entäpä nelonen äiti on voinut auttaa meitä mikä aikamuoto (..)	req.info
51	T	LF6	nom
52		(..)	
53	LF6	oisko se perfekti	sug
54	T	on (.)	acc
55	T	osaisko LM2 tehdä ↑	nom pro
56	LM2	mum have (..) been able to help us	info
57	T	mm ja äitiko on vielä hän yksikön kolmas ni haven paikalle laitetaanki mitä=	eval.pos /neg exp req.info
58	LM2	=has	info
59	T	has . hyvä ↑ (..)	eval.pos

In Example 96, the teacher and the learners go through exercises on the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. At the beginning of the example, the teacher elicits a response from the learners by saying the number of the

sentence and asking the tense of the sentence to be translated (line 50). After a pause the teacher asks LF6 (line 51), who gives her answer in the form of a suggestion by saying *oisko se perfekt* (could it be the perfect tense) (line 53). LF6's answer is correct and the teacher accepts it (line 54). The teacher then transfers the translation task to another learner and prompts LM2 to answer by asking *osaisko LM2 tehdä* ↑(could LM2 do it) (line 55). In response to the teacher's prompting LM2 provides a translation that is not, however, completely correct (line 56). In consequence, the teacher marks the error in LM2's translation sentence by asking *mm ja äitiko on vielä hän yksikön kolmas ni haven paikalle laitetaanki mitä* (mm and because mother is she in the third person in the singular what do you write instead of *have*) (line 57). In other words, the teacher first acknowledges LM2's answer and then marks the critical grammar point that is not correct in his sentence. LM2 is able to pick up the teacher's marking and corrects the error by providing the verb *has* (line 58). Thus, in terms of scaffolding, LM2 is still at the level where the teacher's assistance is needed. More specifically, LM2 is still other-regulated in the task, the grammar point being rather low in his ZPD. However, LM2 seems to be moving towards self-regulation and shows greater control over the target structure. One sign of this is the pupil's ability to make immediate use of the teacher's marking of an error (line 58). In the end the teacher evaluates the pupil's correction by saying *has hyvää* ↑(*has good*) (line 59).

The teacher calls the learners' attention to important aspects in the task in order to help them to improve grammatical accuracy in their own language use. When marking grammatical errors in the pupils' answers the teacher seeks to help them to understand the grammar structures in question. Instead of explicitly asking about an error in a learner's answer, the teacher may merely emphasise the place of the problem in the answer given, as illustrated by Example 97:

EXAMPLE 97 Episode 2. Lesson 1. Old grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 8			
69	T	ja kaheksas LF5:lle	req.info nom
70	LF5	mm that's enough for now aren't it	info
71	T	that's (.) that is enough for now	eval.pos /neg clue
72	LF5	no (.) isn't it	info
73	T	hyvä	eval.pos
74	LF2	ei siis voi olla aren't ↑	req.info
75	T	ei ku siel on is siellä that is=	info
76	LF2	=mut eiks siihen käy noin aren't it	req.info
77	T	[ei]	info
78	LM2	[mites se käy]=	req.info
79	T	=eihä it sanan kans ikinä käytetä aren't siel on aina [is]	info
80	LM2	[voi vitsi]	ack

In Example 97, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on tag questions. At the beginning of the example, the teacher elicits a response from LF5 by saying aloud the number of the next sentence to be translated and the learner's name (line 69). However, there is an error in LF5's translation *mm that's enough for now aren't it* (line 70), and thus the teacher does not accept the answer completely. Instead, she accepts the first part of the sentence by repeating it. In her repetition the teacher also emphasises the correct verb form in the first part of the target structure: *that's (.) that is enough for now* (line 71). In other words, she marks the error, that is, the form of the verb, in order to help LF5 to correct it on her own. This minimal help that involves calling attention to one aspect of the target structure is enough for LF5 to take over and to finish the correction. In addition, in her response *no (.) isn't it* (line 72) the learner makes use of *private speech* to control herself before providing the correct response. To be precise, her use of the word *no* indicates her attempt to take control over the grammar point, and thus it is evidence of LF5's increasing self-control. LF5 seems to be moving towards self-regulation. Furthermore, it implies that this particular grammar point is already fairly high in LF5's ZPD.

The teacher's marking of the error sparks a further discussion about the correct verb form in the target structure. Another pupil, LF2, requests a clarification from the teacher by asking *ei siis voi alla aren't* (it can't be *aren't*) (line 74). In her turn the teacher provides a clarification by saying *ei ku siel on is siellä that is* (no because there is *that is*) (line 75). However, this is not enough for LF2, who seeks further clarification by asking *mut eiks siihen käy noin aren't it* (but can't it be *aren't it*) (line 76), to which the teacher responds by saying *ei* (no) (line 77). LF2 still insists on further clarification by asking *mites se käy* (how is it then) (line 78), to which the teacher responds by saying *eihä it sanan kans ikinä käytetä aren't siel on aina is* (you never use *aren't* with the word *it* there is always *is*) (line 79). In this example, LF2's request for clarification induces the teacher to explain further the grammar point. In doing so the teacher also attempts to maintain the learners' orientation towards the task and help them to keep motivated (see Section 7.3.3 for a discussion of direction maintenance).

In addition to calling a learner's attention to an error in his or her answer, the teacher may focus the pupil's attention on the characteristics of a grammar point that he or she does not seem to be sure of. In order to make sure that the learner understands the grammar point in question the teacher may ask the learner to repeat his or her answer. When she does this the teacher seems to want to promote the learner's comprehension and knowledge of the English grammar. Consider Example 98:

EXAMPLE 98 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 12			
194	T	[entäpä sitten vielä futuuri]	ms
195	T	minun täytyy opiskella englantia kovasti	req.info
196	LF2	I have had (.) I will have	info
197	LL	(xx)	
198	T	futuuri (..)	pro

continues

## EXAMPLE 98 continues

199	T	minun täytyy opiskella englantia	req.info rep
200		(..)	
201	LF2	onkse I will have to	sug
202	T	on	acc
203	LL	(xx)	

In Episode 13, from which Example 98 is taken, the teacher introduces the pupils to the different forms of the auxiliary verb *must*. In the example above, the teacher first informs the pupils that they still have to go through the future tense with her metastatement *entäpä sitten vielä futuuri* (we still have the future tense) (line 194). Then she elicits a response from the learners by saying aloud the next sentence to be translated (line 195). LF2 first starts to answer incorrectly, but after a pause she corrects the verb form, saying *I have had* (.) *I will have* (line 196). At this point the teacher seems to notice that LF2 is uncertain about the target structure, and thus she marks the important aspect of the sentence by saying *futuuri* (the future tense) (line 197). In marking the tense of the verb the teacher seeks to prompt LF2 to be more sure of her choice of the correct verb form (line 198). However, LF2 is not able to pick up the teacher's first prompt, and therefore after a long pause, the teacher repeats the sentence to be translated (line 199). After a further long pause LF2 provides her response *onkse I will have to* (is it *I will have to*) (line 201). The pupil's answer is in the form of a suggestion, and thus it indicates that LF2 is still not quite sure about the correct target structure. It seems that LF2 is not sure about the term *futuuri* (the future tense) (lines 194, 198) that she should use as a tool in the translation exercise. LF2 also seems to be uncertain how the structures of L1 correspond the structures of L2 and this leads to uncertainty in her L2 competence. However, the answer is correct and the teacher accepts it in the end (line 202). This example implies that LF2 is moving towards self-regulation as regards the grammar point. In other words, she seems to be able to make use of the *social frame*, that is, the mere presence of the teacher in order to correct the error in her answer. Consequently, the grammar point seems to be fairly high in her ZPD.

As was mentioned above, the teacher calls the learner's attention to the features in his or her answer that are incorrect. The teacher typically marks the critical features after the learner has provided his or her complete answer. However, the teacher may also call the learner's attention to problems while the learner is carrying out the task, as in Example 99:

EXAMPLE 99 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 12			
(21 lines omitted from the sequence)			
153	T	LM10 (.) kuinkas sanot (.)	nom pro
154	T	<b>hän</b> oli ollut nuori=	req.info
155	LM 10	=eeh (.) he (.)has	info

continues



## EXAMPLE 99 continues

156	T	mm (.) mut pluskvamperfektissä hasin paikalle laitettiin mitä	eval.neg req.info clue
157		(..)	
158	LM 10	onkse (.) had	sug
159	T	on (.) he had been young	acc info
160	LF2	[(xx)]	
(23 lines omitted from the sequence)			

In Episode 9, from which this example is taken, the teacher introduces the pupils to the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. Before introducing the new grammar point the teacher and the pupils revise the verb *to be* in different tenses. The teacher starts Example 99 by naming LM10 and prompting him to translate the sentence *hän oli ollut nuori (he had been young)* (lines 153-4). After the teacher reads the sentence aloud LM10 starts his answer by saying *eeh (.) he (.) has* (line 155). Before LM10 manages to finish, the teacher interrupts him by saying *mm (.) mut pluskvamperfektissä hasin paikalle laitettiin mitä* (but in the past perfect tense what do we put instead of the verb *has*) (line 156). In other words, the teacher marks the erroneous verb form in LM10's answer before the pupil continues any further. What is also significant in the teacher's clue is that she uses the verb *laitettiin* (to put) (line 156) in the past tense, thus reminding the pupils that they have already gone through this grammar point in previous lessons. In addition, she provides LM10 with time to come up with the correct target structure (line 157). LM10 is still uncertain about the verb form, and he provides his answer in the form of a suggestion by saying *onkse (.) had* (is it *had*) (line 158). Yet, the answer is correct and the teacher accepts it by saying *on (.) he had been young* (yes *he had been young*) (line 159). In other words, the teacher provides the rest of the target structure. It seems that the teacher wants to emphasise the correct form of the verb *to be*, which they are revising in the exercises, and she does not require LM10 to repeat the rest of the sentence since he is still uncertain about the verb form. In terms of scaffolding, LM10 seems still to be at the level where assistance provided by a more capable other is needed. LM10 is thus other-regulated in the task, the grammar point being rather low in his ZPD. However, he is able to pick up the teacher's marking of the critical feature. Consequently, he seems able to assume increasing responsibility for the task.

As pointed out above, the teacher may mark the error in the pupil's answer by emphasising the verb form in the sentence for translation. The teacher may also transfer the question to another pupil if she thinks that the task is possibly too difficult for the pupil. In addition, in order to promote comprehension the teacher may explicitly mark the critical feature at the end of the sequence, as in Example 100:

EXAMPLE 100 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 13			
204	T	kuinka teet kysymyksen (.) täytyikö (.) minun (.) tiskata	req.info
205	LF2	did I (.) eiks se oo	sug
206	LF5	do I have to	info
207	LL	(xx)	
208	LM2	no:-	ack
209	T	<b>täytyikö</b> minun tiskata (..)	req.info rep
210	T	LM4	nom
211	LM4	no alottaa tolla (.) will I have to	info
212	T	joo se olis futuuri (.) will I have to (.)	eval.neg exp
213	T	mut mitens jos imperfektist teetki kysymyksen täytyikö minun (..)	req.info
214	T	ei voidakkaa alottaa hadillä	clue
215	LF2	did I (.) anteeks	info
216	T	LF2 ↑	nom
217	LF2	did I	info
218	T	mm (.)	acc
219	T	täälä muistat käyttää did	clar
220	LL	(xx)	

Example 100 is taken from an episode in which the teacher introduces the pupils to the structure *to have to*. At the beginning of the example, the teacher elicits a response from the learners by asking *kuinka teet kysymyksen (.) täytyikö (.) minun (.) tiskata* (how do you form the question *did I have to wash up*) (line 204). The teacher focuses the learners' attention on a specific aspect of the task, the fact that the sentence for translation is in the form of a question. Because all the previous sentences have been statements, the teacher apparently wishes to direct the learners' attention to the form of this particular sentence. After the teacher's elicitation LF2 responds uncertainly *did I (.) eiks se oo* (*did I isn't it*) (line 205). The learner's words *eiks se oo* (*isn't it*) are evidence of the learner's suspicion that something is wrong with her answer. After LF2's response LF5 offers the answer *do I have to* (line 206), which is not correct either. A little later LM2 acknowledges the situation by starting his turn by saying *no:-* (well) (line 208), but he doesn't continue, and thus the teacher repeats the sentence to be translated ***täytyikö minun tiskata (..)*** (*did I have to wash up*) (line 209). Because both LF2 and LF5's responses are incorrect (lines 205-6), the teacher continues her scaffolding by marking the tense of the sentence (line 209). That is, she emphasises the verb form of the target structure. In addition, at this point the teacher transfers the task to LM4 by naming him (line 210). The teacher seems to notice that the grammar point in question causes problems and she seems to want to encourage several pupils to think about the problem. However, LM4 translates the sentence incorrectly using the future tense *no alottaa tolla (.) will I have to* (well let's start with that *will I have to*) (line 211). In her next turn the teacher explains what LM4 has translated by saying *joo se olis futuuri (.) will I have to (.)* (yes that would be the future tense (.) *will I have to*) (line 212). She further asks LM4 to translate the target structure in the past tense by saying *mut mitens jos imperfektist teetki kysymyksen täytyikö minun* (but how could you ask in the past tense *did I have to*) (line 213). It seems that apart from the target

structures the terms *futuuri* (the future tense) (line 212) and *imperfekti* (the past tense) (line 213) cause problems for the pupils. They do not seem able to link the terms and the corresponding structures, and thus the mere mention of the terms does not help the pupils to come up with the right answer.

Because the teacher's further request and a long pause do not trigger any response from any of the pupils, the teacher gives a further clue by saying *ei voidakkaa alottaa hadilla* (we can't start with *had*) (line 214). At this point the teacher uses the form *we*, thus referring to a joint task. LF2 is finally able to pick up the teacher's clue and answers (line 215). However, she notices that she has not bid for a turn, and thus she apologises by saying *did I (.) anteeks* (*did I* sorry) (line 215). After the teacher says her name LF2 repeats her answer *did I* (line 217), which is correct. At the end of the sequence, the teacher again marks the correct verb form in the question by saying *täällä muistat käyttää did* (here you remember to use *did*) (line 219). Because the translation of the question in the past tense seems to be low in the pupils' ZPDs, the teacher apparently wants to make sure that all the pupils pay attention to this grammar point. Accordingly, she refers to the verb form once again in the end.

**Marking critical features by emphasising a grammar point in the initiation of the task.** Apart from calling attention to errors, the teacher uses a strategy that involves marking critical features of a grammar point right at the beginning of the sequence, that is, in the initiation of the task. This is especially the case when the class goes through an exercise consisting of several sentences to be translated that differ only slightly from each other. That is, the exercises concentrate on a particular grammar point in its different forms, for example, in different tenses. The teacher may mark the critical grammatical feature by emphasising it, as in Example 101:

EXAMPLE 101 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 4			
41	T	<entäpä> >osaan leikata nurmikon< (.)	req.info
42	T	[osaan leikata nurmikon]	req.info rep
43	LM1	[(xx)]	
44	T	LF2 ↑	nom
45	LF2	I can ja (.) [emmä muista]	info
46	T	[mm ↑] (.)	acc

In Episode 9, from which the example above is taken, the teacher introduces the pupils to the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. In the episode, the teacher introduces the different tenses of the structures by going through several sentences incorporating the tenses. Before concentrating on the different forms of the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may* the teacher and the pupils revise the use of the auxiliary verbs in the present tense. In Example 101, the teacher and the pupils go through a sample sentence including the auxiliary verb *can*. The teacher starts the sequence by saying aloud the sentence to be translated <entäpä> *osaan leikata nurmikon* (how about *I can mow the lawn*) (line 41). This

time she emphasises the auxiliary verb in her very first elicitation of a response from the learners. Just before this sequence the teacher and the pupils have gone through a sample sentence concentrating on the auxiliary verb *may*, and thus the teacher seems to want to emphasise that the sentence in hand involves the other auxiliary verb. In other words, the teacher helps the pupils by directing their attention to a specific aspect of the task in hand. In doing this the teacher apparently seeks to help the learners to avoid making errors. However, because no immediate response occurs, the teacher repeats the sentence and selects LF2 to translate it (lines 42 and 44). After this LF2 starts to translate the sentence by saying *I can ja (.) emmä muista (I can and I don't remember)* (line 45). In other words, LF2 is able to translate the auxiliary verb, but the other words in the sentence cause her problems. Thus, she seems to be near self-regulation in the grammar point. However, the teacher accepts the sentence with a minimal response *mm* (line 46). By her acceptance the teacher indicates that the auxiliary verb is the focus of the task, and she does not require the pupils to translate the rest of the sentence. She seems to want to make sure that the focus of the sequence, that is, the auxiliary verb *can* is high in LF2's ZPD.

In addition to emphasising a critical feature of the grammar point in the first question in the sequence, the teacher may also highlight a specific aspect of the sentence to be translated when she repeats her elicitation. That is, if no immediate response occurs, the teacher may repeat just a part of the sentence, thus marking an important element in the structure. Consider Example 102:

EXAMPLE 102 Episode 10. Lesson 8. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 5			
65	T	sitte jos mä sanosin että: <meillä on ollut lupa ostaa karkkeja lauantaisin> (.)	req.info
66	T	meillä <b>on ollut lupa</b> (.)	rep
67	T	kuinkas sanosit (.)	pro
68	T	LM9 (.)	nom
69	T	meillä on ollut lupa	rep
70	LM9	eeh (.) we have (.) been <i>allowed</i> to	info
71	LM1	LM5	
72	T	ostaa karkkeja	req.info pro
73	LM9	[buy candies]	info
74	LM1	[(xx)]	
75	T	mm (.)	acc
76	T	lauantaisin	req.info pro
77	LM9	on: Saturdays:	info
78	T	mm ↑ <we have been allowed to> (.)	acc

In Episode 10, from which this example is taken, the teacher introduces the pupils to the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to* in different tenses. In Example 102, the teacher and the pupils work on a sample sentence involving the structure *to be allowed to* in the perfect tense. The teacher starts the sequence by saying aloud the sentence to be translated *sitte jos mä sanosin että: <meillä on ollut lupa ostaa karkkeja lauantaisin> (.)* (then if I said that *we have been allowed to*

*buy sweets on Saturdays*) (line 65). However, because no immediate response occurs, the teacher repeats the beginning of the sentence *meillä on ollut lupa* (*we have been allowed to*) (line 66), thus emphasising the verb form. In doing this the teacher marks the important grammatical aspect of the sentence, that is, the perfect tense of the target structure. As in the previous example, the teacher wants to call the pupils' attention to the main focus of the task. At the same time she seems to want to facilitate the learners' language production. However, the teacher's mere repetition of the verb form does not trigger any response from the learners, and thus she further prompts the pupils by saying *kuinkas sanosit* (.) (*how would you say*) (line 67). Because the prompt does not seem to help the pupils, the teacher finally nominates LM9 who is to translate the sentence (line 68). In addition, she repeats the verb form once more (line 69). At this point LM9 starts his translation by saying *eeh* (.) *we have* (.) *been allowed to* (line 70). LM9's hesitation *eeh* and pauses indicate that he is uncertain about the verb form. In other words, he is still at the level where other-assistance is needed, that is, he is still other-regulated in the task. He also pronounces the form *allowed* incorrectly (line 70). However, the teacher ignores the mispronunciation and prompts LM9 further to go on with the translation by saying *ostaa karkkeja* (*to buy sweets*) (line 72). The teacher apparently notices LM9's difficulties in providing the target structure, and therefore she does not want to distract him with the pronunciation. After the pupil's answer the teacher still prompts him to complete the sentence by saying *lauantaisin* (*on Saturdays*) (line 76). In the end the teacher accepts LM9's answer and repeats the translation of the verb form: *mm* ↑ *<we have been allowed to>* (.) (line 78), thus marking the verb tense once more.

**Marking critical features by pointing out a grammar point in a correct answer provided by the learner.** Finally, as well as by calling attention to an error or emphasising a grammar point in the initiation of the task, the teacher in the classroom situation under study may mark a critical feature by pointing out a grammar point in a correct answer provided by the learner. In doing this the teacher seems to want to improve the learners' grammatical accuracy and promote their knowledge of English. Consider Example 103:

EXAMPLE 103 Episode 7. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 2			
17	T	entäpä kakkonen	req.info
18	T	LM9 ↑	nom
19	LF9	eeh (.) <i>Florence sings</i> (.) <i>terribly</i> [but <i>Maria sings beautifully</i> ]	info
20	T	[mm ↑ (.)] mm (.) hyvä (.)	eval.pos
21	T	ja taas ässät paikallaa (..) ja huomaa beautifully sanas kaks ällää ↑ (.)	ext

Example 103 is from an episode in which the teacher and the pupils go through sentences involving adverbs. The teacher starts Sequence 2 by saying aloud the number of the next sentence (line 17). After the teacher names him, LM9 answers *eeh* (.) *Florence sings* (.) *terribly* but *Maria sings beautifully* (line 19). LM9's

use of a hesitation *eeh* and pauses is evidence of both his uncertainty over the task and his attempt to gain self-control. In other words, although the learner is proceeding towards self-regulation, he is still at the level of the ZPD where other-assistance is needed. In spite of the pronunciation errors in LF9's answer, the teacher evaluates it positively by saying *mm (.) mm (.) hyvä (.)* (mm mm good) (line 20). As in the previous example, the teacher here seems not to want to distract the learner's attention from the grammar point by correcting the pronunciation error, because the learner is not yet certain about the target grammar point. What is also significant here is that after accepting the learner's answer the teacher still marks critical points in the target structure by saying *ja taas ässät paikallaan (..) ja huomaa beautifully sanas kaks ällää ↑ (.)* (and again the letters s in their places and please note that there are two letters l in the word *beautifully*) (line 21). She seems to want to point out the critical aspects of spelling that may cause the learners problems.

To summarise, the teacher uses different strategies in marking certain features of the task as relevant. She calls attention to critical features when pupils are challenged by tasks or are not working towards the target structures. There are three different ways in which she may do this in the present study. Firstly, she may call the learner's attention to a specific feature when there is a mismatch between the learner's language production and the right answer. The teacher's marking of critical features provides information about such errors. Secondly, the teacher may emphasise grammar points right at the beginning of the sequence. In other words, she may mark specific items in her question in order to help the learners to concentrate on the main focus of the task. She may also emphasise a grammar point in her repetition of the question if no immediate response occurs. Thirdly, she may accentuate important features of the task in the course of the teaching-learning process to point out some elements in a learner's correct answer in order to promote the learners' grammatical awareness.

### 7.3.5 Frustration control

As was described in the previous sections, during the process of scaffolding the teacher first attempts to draw a pupil's attention to and to engage his or her interest in the task. Then the task is simplified so that the learner is able to understand the task demands. After this the teacher's role is to keep the pupil in pursuit of the task-relevant goals. Next, the teacher may mark critical features of the task in hand, in particular when problems arise in carrying out the task. According to Wood et al. (1976), controlling the learners' frustration during their work on the task involves the fifth of the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process. In other words, the teacher's task is to reduce the stress on the pupil during the teaching-learning process without encouraging his or her dependence on the expert.

This section discusses the teacher's various strategies for controlling the learner's frustration in order to help him or her to complete the task in hand.

These strategies include *explicit encouragement*, *repeating or rephrasing the task* and *inviting several learners to participate in the task in hand*. In the following, each of these strategies is described and illustrated by a few examples.

**Frustration control with explicit encouragement.** While the task is being carried out the learner may get frustrated if he or she is not able to take control over the task. In such cases the teacher's task is to reduce the learner's stress. However, at the same time the teacher has to try to keep the learner from giving up the task. The teacher in this study typically encourages the learners explicitly to go on working towards the task goals whenever they indicate any frustration, as in Example 104:

EXAMPLE 104 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 2			
12	T	entäpä toinen (.) minä en voinut tavata häntä eilen mikä aikamuoto ↑ (.)	req.info
13	T	<en voinut tavata häntä eilen ↑> (..)	rep
14	T	miten se olis myönteisenä (..)	reph
15	T	LF2	nom
16	LF2	minä tapasin hänet viime (xx) eilen	info
17	T	mm (.)	acc
18	T	<b>tapasin pystyin</b> tapaamaan (.) mikä aikamuoto se on	req.info
19	LF2	preesens (..) imperfekti kai ((whisper))	info
20	T	imperfekti (.) hyvä	eval.pos
21	LF2	* ihan sama asia *	ack
22	T	vähän: [eri tavalla vaa]	ack
23	LF2	[no eikö oo]	ack
24	T	mm en [(.)] eli tapasin (.) pystyin tapaamaan en voinut tavata ne oli käänteisiä	exp
25	T	kuinkas tulis imperfektissä	req.info
26	T	LF4	nom
27	LF4	eeh emmä tiedä (.) mä en oo osannu sitä	(info)
28	T	mm (.) ihan oikein varmaan	pro
29	LF4	eeh I wasn't able to meet her yesterday	info
30	T	kyllä ↑ (.)	acc
31	T	her tai him (.) kumpi tahansa	ext
32		(..)	
33	LF2	käyks her	req.info
34	T	her (.) käy ↑ (.)	con

In Episode 12, from which the example above is taken, the teacher and the pupils go through homework on the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. At the beginning of Example 104, the teacher elicits a response from the learners by reading aloud the sentence to be translated and asking about the tense of the sentence (line 12). Because no immediate response occurs, the teacher reads the sentence again (line 13). At this point the teacher apparently notices that because of the negation it is difficult for the learners to define the correct tense, and thus she simplifies the task by asking them first to convert the original negative sentence into an affirmative one: *miten se olis myönteisenä (.)* (how would it be as the affirmative) (line 14) (see Section 7.3.2 for a discussion of reduction in degrees of freedom). After the teacher names her LF2 responds by

saying *minä tapasin hänet viime (.) eilen (I met him last (.) yesterday)* (line 16). Although the learner's answer is not completely correct, the teacher accepts it (line 17). However, in her next turn she emphasises the correct affirmative verb form by asking *tapasin pystyin tapaamaan mikä aikamuoto se on (I met I was able to meet what tense is it)* (line 18). LF2 provides the correct answer by saying *preesens (..) imperfekti kai ((whisper)) (the present tense (..) the past tense probably)* (line 19). In other words, after a pause LF2 is able to correct her own error by changing the tense without any verbal help from the teacher. Thus, the *social frame*, that is, the mere presence of the teacher, is enough to help her to come up with the correct tense. However, her use of the word *kai* (probably) (line 19) indicates that she is still uncertain about the structure. In terms of scaffolding, LF2 seems to be at the level where the teacher's implicit assistance is enough to help her to come up with this particular target structure. The grammar point seems to be rather high in her ZPD. In her next turn the teacher confirms that the verb form is correct and evaluates the pupil's response positively by saying *imperfekti (.) hyvä (the past tense good)* (line 20). She evidently seeks in this way to reduce the learner's uncertainty and to encourage her to go on with the task. LF2 acknowledges the teacher's response laughingly with her comment *\* ihan sama asia \* no eikö oo (quite the same thing isn't it)* (lines 21 and 23) and the teacher reacts to this with her acknowledgement: *vähän: eri tavalla vaa (in a slightly different way)* (line 22).

At this point because the negative target sentence is difficult for the learners, the teacher explains it by comparing it with the affirmative one: *mm en (.) eli tapasin (.) pystyin tapaamaan en voinut tavata ne oli käänteisiä (mm that is I met (.) I was able to meet I wasn't able to meet those were the opposites)* (line 24). The teacher then moves back to her initial question by asking *kuinkas tulis imperfektissä (how would it be in the past tense)* and nominates LF4 who is to answer next (lines 25-6). However, the teacher's elicitation does not trigger any appropriate reply from LF4, who responds by saying *eeh emmä tiedä (.) mä en oo osannu sitä (eeh I don't know (.) I couldn't do it)* (line 27). The learner's turn indicates that she is very uncertain of her ability to work on the task in hand. The teacher seems to notice the learner's frustration over the difficulty of the task and therefore she seems to want to encourage LF4 to believe in the correctness of her answer. She prompts LF4 to give her answer by saying *mm (.) ihan oikein varmaan (mm quite correct I'm sure)* (line 28). The grammar point in question seems, in fact, to be quite high in LF4's ZPD, since she picks up the teacher's prompting and provides the correct sentence, which the teacher accepts (lines 29-30). The teacher also extends the grammar point by giving an alternative to the pronoun *her* (line 31). In other words, with the help of the teacher LF4 is able to improve her performance and proceed towards self-regulation. In the end at the request of LF2, the teacher confirms once more that the pronoun *her* is correct (lines 33-34).

As a second way of relieving the learners' stress over the task in hand the teacher may encourage them to continue working towards the task requirements by referring to a joint task. In other words, she may explicitly



offer the pupils help in carrying out the task. However, as was pointed out in Section 7.2, the teacher avoids giving the correct answer, since her aim is to involve the pupils in carrying out the task. Consider Example 105:

EXAMPLE 105 Episode 8. Lesson 6. New grammar point: structure *had better*.

SEQUENCE 5			
47	T	<sitten> neljäs kohta eikö hänen olisi parasta viedä Janice sairaalaan (..)	req.info
48	T	<b>eikö</b> olisi parasta (..)	reph
49	T	kuinka LF1:llä on	nom
50	LF1	no kun ei o mitään	(info)
51		(..)	
52	T	mitä LF5:lla on	nom (trans)
53		(..)	
54	LF5	no ei oikeen mitään	(info)
55	T	ei oikeen (.) mut jotain kuitenkin sano se mitä on (.)	ack pro
56	LF5	no en (.) no ku ei siin oo mitää (.) järkevää .	(info)
57	LF1	*järkevää*	ack
58	T	LF2	nom (trans)
59	LF2	no en minä tommosii oo voinnu osata	(info)
60	LF1	[* kauhee mil äänel *]	
61	T	[voidaan yhes kattoo] (.)	pro
62	T	eikö hänen olisi parasta	req.info rep
63	LF1	ku ei nää tuolt [tuolt]	
64	LF2	[emmä oo ees] ikinä kuullukkaa [tommosii]	(info)
65	LF5	[(xx)]=	
66	LF1	=onks toi joku perhaps tuol (.) mul on semmoin siel	req.clar
67	T	no ni jos <had better> ois että olisi parasta (.)	exp
68	T	ni kuinka tehää silloin kysymys (..)	req.info
69	T	millä alotetaan (.)	clue
70	T	LF1 ↑	nom
71	LF2	[perhaps]	info
72	LM1	[mä en tiä näitä]	(info)
73	LF1	[emminä tiä]	(info)
74	T	[ei aloteta] perhaps	eval.neg
75	T	kummalla alotetaan Janicella vai hadillä	clue
76	LF2	täh	req.rep
77	T	jos täst tehää kysymys ni miten päin tulee	req.info reph
78	LM8	no hadilla	info
79	T	hadilla alotetaan (.)	acc
80	T	eli eikö hänen olisi parasta (..)	req.info rep
81	T	hadn't-	pro
82		(..)	
83	LF1	[he had better to (.) eeh (.) emmä tiedä mikä on viedä]	info req.info
84	LM5	[(xx) teet sukupuolen vaihdoksen]	
85	T	take	info
86	LF1	take Janice to the hospital	info

Example 105 is from an episode in which the teacher introduces the learners to the structure *had better*. The teacher starts Sequence 5 by saying aloud the next sentence for translation (line 47). Because no immediate response occurs, she repeats the beginning of the sentence (line 48). At the same time she foregrounds an important element of the task by emphasising the first word of the question *eikö (hadn't)* (line 48) (see Section 7.3.4 for a discussion of marking critical features). Because the teacher's repetition followed by a pause does not trigger any response from the learners, the teacher nominates LF1 who is to give her answer (line 49). LF1, however, is not able to provide the target structure, but answers *no kun ei o mitään* (well I haven't got anything) (line 50). After providing LF1 with time to come up with a suitable answer the teacher finally transfers the task to LF5 (line 52). As in the exchange with LF1, the teacher uses a long pause in her exchange with LF5 to invite her participation in the activity (line 53). In response to the teacher's prompting LF5 gives a vague answer *no ei oikeen mitään* (not really anything) (line 54). The teacher seems to notice LF5's uncertainty and prompts her to give an answer (line 55). She tries to encourage LF5 by saying *ei oikeen (.) mut jotain kuitenkin sano se mitä on (.)* (not really (.) but something please say what you have there) (line 55). In spite of the teacher's encouragement LF1 refuses to provide her translation by explaining that *no en (.) no ku ei siin oo mitää (.) järkevää* (no because there is nothing sensible in it) (line 56).

At this point, because her prompting does not elicit a suitable answer from LF5, the teacher calls on a third pupil, LF2, to answer (line 58). However, she is not able to provide a translation either. Instead, she indicates her frustration over the difficulty of the task in hand by saying *no en minä tommosii oo voinnu osata*  $\hat{}$  (I couldn't possibly do it) (line 59). It appears that because of her several unsuccessful attempts at helping the learners to understand the task by prompting, the teacher starts to use other means of assistance. She tries to control the pupils' frustration by referring to the task in hand as a joint activity and offers her help by saying *voidaan yhes kattoo* (we can do the task together) (line 61). She also repeats the beginning of the sentence to be translated (line 62). LF2, however, continues indicating her frustration by saying *emmä oo ees ikinä kuullukkaa tommosii* (I have never even heard about those) (line 64). In addition, LF1 requests a clarification of the words in the sentence (line 66), but the teacher does not react to this. Instead, she starts to simplify the task by concentrating on the formation of the question and explaining first *no ni jos <had better> ois että olisi parasta* (well if *had better* meant ought to do something) (line 67) and then by asking *ni kuinka tehää sillon kysymys (..)* (how do we form the question then) (line 68) and *millä alotetaan (.)* (with which word do we start) (line 69) (see Section 7.3.2 for a discussion of reduction in degrees of freedom). Because no immediate response occurs, the teacher calls on LF1 to respond (line 70). LF1, however, is still unable to take control over the task and answers *emminä tiiä* (I don't know) (line 73). At the same time LM1 also indicates his inability to work on the task by saying *mä en tiiä näitä* (I don't know these points) (line 72). LF2, on the other hand, makes a suggestion, which is incorrect (line 71). In response

to LF1 and LM1's declarations that they do not know and LF2's incorrect reply, the teacher starts to simplify the sentence even further, first by replying to LF1 *ei aloteta perhaps* (let's not start with the word *perhaps*) (line 74) and then by asking a forced-choice question *kummalla alotetaan Janicella vai hadillä* (do we start with *Janice* or *had*) (line 75). After the teacher's rephrasing of the question LM8 is finally able to give the correct answer *no hadilla* (well with the word *had*) (line 78), which the teacher accepts (line 79). The teacher then repeats the sentence to be translated once more and after a long pause prompts the learners further by saying the first word *hadn't* (lines 80-1). After a long pause LF1 is finally able to start the translation, saying *he had better* (.) *eeh* (.) *emmä tiedä mikä on viedä* (*he had better eeh I don't know what is to take in English*) (line 83). After the teacher provides the verb LF1 completes the sentence (line 86).

In this example LF1, LF2, LF5 and LM1 show their frustration over the task in hand by saying frankly that they do not know the answers. The teacher tries to reduce their frustration by explicitly offering her help and referring to the task as a joint process. Importantly, the teacher does not want to provide the correct target structure. Instead, she insists on inviting the pupils' active participation in the task. In terms of scaffolding, the learners seem to be at the level where explicit help is still needed. They seem to be strongly other-regulated. In other words, the new grammar point seems to be low in their ZPDs.

***Frustration control by repeating or rephrasing the task.*** Apart from controlling the learner's frustration by explicitly encouraging him or her, the teacher may try to decrease the stress the pupil feels by first repeating the elicitation for a response. In addition, in order to make sure that the learner understands the grammar point of which he or she seems to be uncertain the teacher may ask additional questions about it, as in Example 106:

EXAMPLE 106 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 7			
106	T	entäs sitte se toinen (.)	ms
107	T	toinen oli may verbistä saada olla lupa tehdä jotain (.)	ms
108	T	mites se kierrettiin muissa aikamuodoissa	req.info
109	LF2	ihan sama nää	(ack)
110	LF6	voi ei (.) voi jukra näitä	(ack)
111	T	LF6 ↑ (.)	nom
112	T	miten kierrettiin	req.info rep
113	LF6	be allowed to	info
114	T	ja mites taas laitetaan be verbin paikalle ↑ (.)	req.info
115	T	mitä sen kohdalla pitää muistaa tehdä . (.)	reph
116	T	LM7	nom
117		(.)	
118	LM7	no pistää siin aikamuodos mikä se nyt sitte on	info
119	T	kyllä ↑ (.)	acc

Example 106 is from an episode where the teacher and the learners go through homework on the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. The teacher starts

the example above with the metastatement *entäs sitte se toinen* (.) (and how about the other one) (line 106). Before asking the actual question the teacher explains that the other auxiliary verb that they will work on next is *may* (line 107). Then the teacher tries to elicit a response from the learners by asking *mites se kierrettiin muissa aikamuodoissa* (how would you say it in the other tenses) (line 108). However, no appropriate response occurs. Instead, LF2 answers *ihan sama* (I don't care) (line 109), which indicates her frustration over the target structure. Similarly, LF6's frustration is indicated in her response *voi ei* (.) *voi jukra näitä* (oh no oh gee) (line 110). In response to the learners' frustration the teacher starts to work with LF6, calling on her to answer next (line 111). Because naming her and providing a long pause do not trigger any response from LF6, the teacher tries to reduce her stress over the task in hand by further repeating the question: *miten kierrettiin* (how would you say it in another way) (line 112). LF6 is able to pick up the teacher's scaffolding and provides the correct verb form *to be allowed to* (line 113). In other words, in terms of scaffolding, LF6 seems to be at the level where the teacher's mere implicit assistance helps her to come up with the target structure. She seems to be near self-regulation in the task. The grammar point thus seems to be high in her ZPD.

At this point because of the pupils' uncertainty as to the answers, the teacher seems to want to make sure that they understand the grammar point. She asks the pupils to define the use of the structure *to be allowed to* more closely by asking *ja mites taas laitetaan be verbin paikalle ↑* (.) (and what do we put instead of the verb *to be*) (line 114). After a pause she rephrases her question by inquiring *mitä sen kohdalla pitää muistaa tehdä* . (.) (what do you have to remember to do) (line 115). Because the pupils do not respond, the teacher nominates LM7 who is to answer next (line 116). After a long pause LM7 provides the correct answer, which the teacher accepts (lines 118-9). In other words, LM7 seems to be at the level of scaffolding where he needs only the teacher's implicit help to come up with the correct response. Thus, he seems to be near self-regulation, the target structure being rather high in his ZPD.

As was noted above, in order to reduce the learners' frustration over the difficulty of the target structure the teacher may first repeat the elicitation for a response. However, the teacher may also give the learner explicit clues after she has noticed his or her frustration, as in Example 107:

EXAMPLE 107 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 13			
218	T	LM5 (.)	nom
219	T	saatko polttaa kotona (.) ei en saa	req.info
220		(.)	
221	LM5	oisko se että (.) emmä tiä	(info)
222		(.)	
223	T	preesens	clue
224	LM5	ihan sama mikä se on emmä sit tiedä kuitenkin	(info)
225	T	tiedät (.)	pro
226	T	käytät ekaa sanaa ylhäältä esimerkiks	clue
227	LM5	no (.) may you smoke: at home	info

continues

## EXAMPLE 107 continues

228	T	mm (.) may you smoke at home ↑	acc
229	T	tai are you allowed to smoke at home ↑ (.)	ext
230	T	kuinka sanotaa ei en saa	req.info
231	LM5	että no I may not	info
232	T	mm ↑ no I may not (.)	acc
233	T	<b>tai:</b> (.) sitten niinku tääl on et are you allowed no I'm not (.) en saa	ext
234	LF2	no (.) miten ↑	req.rep
235	LM	paljo kello on	
236	LF5	(xx) voiko niin kirjottaa (.) mayn't	req.info
237	LF2	((laugh))	
238	LF5	eiku can't	info
239	LF2	(xx)	
240	LF5	eiks se käy may you (.) joo (.) >ei mitää< kaikki on ihan selvää	ack
241	T	may you (.) on siel ylhääl (.) vähän epäselvästi kato sit vois nostaa vähän ylös (.)	ms

In Episode 12, the teacher and the learners go through homework on the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. The teacher starts Example 107, by selecting LM5 to answer next and by saying aloud the next sentence for translation (lines 218-9). After a long pause LM5 responds by saying *oisko se että (.) emmä tiää* (would it be that (.) I don't know) (line 221). In other words, LM5 attempts to take over the task but after a pause he claims that he does not know the answer. The teacher registers his uncertainty and provides him with another long pause. Because LM5 does not answer in any way, the teacher gives him a clue by saying *preesens* (the present tense) (line 223). At this point LM5 expresses his further frustration over the task by saying *ihan sama mikä se on emmä sit tiedä kuitenkaa* (it doesn't matter what it is I don't know it anyway) (line 224). Instead of transferring the task to another learner, the teacher emphatically prompts LM5 by saying *tiedät* (you do know it) (line 225). The teacher seems to want to reduce the stress the pupil feels by increasing his self-confidence. She also seems to want to remind the pupil of their having gone through the grammar point in previous lessons and that he is therefore supposed to know it. In addition to prompting, the teacher gives the pupil an explicit clue by referring to the transparency *käytät ekaa sanaa ylhäällä esimerkiks* (you use the first word up here for example) (line 226). As a result, LM5 is able to come up with the first part of the target sentence, which the teacher accepts (lines 227-8). In addition, the teacher extends the target structure by giving an alternative (line 229). After this she requests LM5 to translate the rest of the sentence (line 230). LM5 gives the correct answer, and the teacher accepts it by repeating it (lines 231-2). The teacher also extends the last part of the sentence by mentioning an alternative structure (line 233). At the end of the sequence, LF2 and LF5 still discuss the correct spelling of the auxiliary verb *may* (lines 234-240) and the teacher asks them to look at the transparency (line 241). In this example, LM5 still seems to need the teacher's explicit clue in order to be able to start translating the target sentence. However, with the help of the teacher he manages to get over his frustration and to work at a level where he would not

be able to complete the task alone. Thus, working in collaboration with the teacher LM5 is able to proceed towards self-regulation.

*Frustration control by inviting several learners to participate in the task.* Finally, in addition to encouraging the pupils and repeating and rephrasing the task, the teacher in the classroom situation under study may try to control the learners' frustration by transferring the task to another learner, and thus inviting several learners to share the teaching-learning process. As already illustrated by the previous examples, the teacher appears to facilitate the pupils' understanding of the grammar point in question by giving them an opportunity to listen to others carrying out the task. Consider Example 108:

EXAMPLE 108 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 12			
(32 lines omitted from the sequence)			
165	T	mitä erikoista huomaat jos kaikki monikkomuodot menee samallailla (.) perfektiin verrattuna ↑	req.info
166	LF2	((xx))	
167	T	mitä (.) erikoista [perfektiin verrattuna ↑] (.)	rep
168	LF2	[(xx)]	
169	T	LF1	nom
170	LF1	voi ei (.) mitä ↑	req.rep
171	T	mitä erikoista perfektiin verrattuna tässä ↑	rep
172		(.)	
173	LF1	ai nois kahes tollasessa	req.clar
174	T	eikä ku tässä (.) tohon edellisee verrattuna	clar
175	LF1	no (.) hm (.) no niinku (.) emmä tiä (.) tai siis=	(info)
176	T	=mm LM3 ↑	nom. (trans)
177	LM3	no tota	ack
178	LF1	((laugh))	
179	T	niä ↑	pro
180	LM3	[no ku (.) tuol ei tuu sitten tonne (.) eeh yksikön kolmannen (.) siihe sitä has sitä]	info
181	LF2	[tää on ihan sika huonoo (.) (xx) se on ihan tyhjä ei sit tartte tyhjentää (.) ei tartte tyhjentää se on ihan surkee ei se terota]	
182	T	ei (.)	acc
183	T	eli täällä (.) nyt yksikön kolmas ei eroo enää mitenkää muuten aikasemmin eros (.)	clar

In Episode 9, from which the example above is taken, the teacher and the learners revise the verb *to be* in different tenses. In Example 108, they work on the past perfect tense. Just before this example they have gone through a few sample sentences involving the verb *to be* in the past perfect tense. The teacher starts Example 108 by asking *mitä erikoista huomaat jos kaikki monikkomuodot menee samallailla (.) perfektiin verrattuna ↑* (what special do you notice if all the plural forms are formed in the same way in comparison with the perfect tense) (line 165). Because no appropriate response is given, the teacher repeats her elicitation and nominates LF1 who is to answer (lines 167 and 169). LF1, however, is not able to take control over the task. Instead, she expresses her frustration and requests a repetition by saying *voi ei (.) mitä* (oh no what) (line

170). In response to the learner's request the teacher repeats the question (line 171). After a long pause LF1 requests a further clarification by asking *ai nois kahes tollasessa* (in those two) (line 173). The teacher clarifies the task by saying *eikä ku tässä (.) tohon edelliseen verrattuna* (no but in here compared to that previous one) (line 174). At this point LF1 tries to take control over the task in hand by saying *no (.) hm (.) no niinku (.) emmä tiiä (.) tai siis* (no hm well I don't know or) (line 175). Her answer could be interpreted as *private speech*, which is a sign of an initial control over the construction. However, without giving LF1 more time to come up with an appropriate answer the teacher transfers the task to LM3, who acknowledges the task by saying *no tota* (well) (line 177). The teacher prompts him further to start to work on the task by saying *nii* ↑ (yes) (line 179). LM3 is able to take control over the task and provides the correct answer (line 180). In the end the teacher accepts the answer and clarifies the grammar point (lines 182-3). In terms of scaffolding, LM3 seems to be at the level where the teacher's mere implicit help is enough to help him to come up with the target structure and LM3 seems to be near self-regulation. The grammar point is thus rather high in his ZPD.

To summarise, frustration control is the fifth of the features of scaffolding as defined by Wood et al. (1976). It involves reducing the stress the pupils feel in cases where they express their incapability of going on working on the task in hand. In other words, controlling frustration also involves keeping the pupils engaged in the task. One way of which the teacher in this class typically controls the pupils' frustration is to provide them with explicit encouragement. Another is to repeat or rephrase the initiation of the task in order to help them to participate in the teaching-learning process. A third and final possibility is for the teacher to invite several pupils to carry out the same task. The pupils are thus also able to benefit from the teaching-learning process by listening to the scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher.

### 7.3.6 Demonstration

As defined by Wood et al. (1976), the process of scaffolding consists of six features, of which the first five have been described in the previous sections. The teacher first draws a pupil's attention to and engages his or her interest in the task goals. Then the teacher simplifies the task so that the learner is able to understand the task requirements. Next, after simplifying the task the pupil's orientation towards the task-relevant goals has to be maintained. Fourthly, the teacher's task is to highlight critical features of the task that may be overlooked by the pupil. The teacher then may help the pupil to control his or her frustration if necessary. Finally, according to Wood et al. (1976), demonstrating an idealised version of the act to be performed involves the sixth of the scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process. As originally analysed by Wood et al. (1976) demonstration involves modelling solutions to a task even possibly by actually doing it or by explicating a learner's partial solution. This is also found to be the case in the present study. However, in the

present study demonstration involves modelling not only target structures, that is, grammar structures, but also, for example, pronunciation and vocabulary. Although the main focus of the grammar instructional episodes is grammar points, the teacher also takes into account other areas of language learning in order to promote the learners' language comprehension.

This section discusses the teacher's various strategies in modelling appropriate solutions to tasks in order to help the learners to complete them. These strategies include *correcting the learner's language production*, *extending the target structure* and *providing the target structure*. In the following, each of these strategies is described and illustrated by a few examples.

**Demonstration by correcting the learner's language production.** In order to promote the learner's comprehension of the grammar point in focus the teacher may model the correct form. If the learner's answer contains an error, the teacher may correct the answer and demonstrate the ideal target structure for the benefit of the whole class. The teacher in this study typically corrects the learner's answer if the error involves, for example, pronunciation and does not involve the main grammatical focus of the episode. She may also insist that the learner repeats the model, as in Example 109:

EXAMPLE 109 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 12			
73	T	and LM7 please	nom
74	LM7	eeh I've <i>sung</i> (.) to my broth- my mother	info
75	LF1	((laugh))	
76	T	mm please say <i>sung</i> =	acc req.rep
77	LM7	= <i>sung</i>	rep

Example 109 is from an episode where the teacher and the learners go through homework on the perfect tense of different verbs. The teacher starts Example 109 by nominating LM7 who is to answer (line 73). The teacher's mere naming of the pupil is enough to trigger a response from him (line 74). However, LM7 pronounces the verb form *sung* incorrectly (line 74) and thus the teacher models the correct pronunciation and asks LM7 to repeat it by saying *mm please say sung* (line 76). At once LM7 repeats the correct pronunciation (line 77). In terms of scaffolding, LM7 seems to be at the level where the teacher's mere demonstration of the correct form is enough to help him to understand the task. LM7 seems to be near self-regulation in the task. At the same time the repetition of the correct pronunciation benefits the classmates' comprehension of the target structure.

As an alternative to insisting on the learner's repeating the model, the teacher may demonstrate the correct answer without asking the pupil to repeat the correct pronunciation. It seems that this is especially the case when the word containing the error is not part of the main focus of the grammar instructional episode. Consider Example 110:



EXAMPLE 110 Episode 3. Lesson 2. Old grammar point: perfect tense.

SEQUENCE 22			
124	T	and LM3 ↑ (..)	nom
125	T	and I think -	pro
126	LM3	and I think everything's alright (.) mm (.) I have sunk in a <i>chair</i>	info
127	T	mm <u>chair</u> (.) mm	acc clar

Like the previous example, Example 110 is from Episode 3, in which the teacher and the learners go through homework on the perfect tense. The teacher starts Example 110 by nominating LM3 who is to answer (line 124). However, because LM7 does not immediately come up with a response, the teacher prompts him to answer by starting the target structure. That is, she starts to say *and I think* (line 125) expecting the learner to complete it. The teacher's incomplete utterance in fact helps LM3 to provide an answer (line 126). Thus, the grammar point seems to be rather high in LM3's ZPD. However, LM3 pronounces the word *chair* incorrectly, and thus the teacher models the correct pronunciation of the word while accepting the learner's answer by saying *mm chair (.) mm* (line 127). Unlike in Example 109, this time the teacher does not insist on the pupil's repeating the model. It seems that she does not want to emphasise the pronunciation error, because it does not involve the verb form.

As well as pronunciation errors the teacher can correct other grammatical errors by modelling the target structure for the learners. As was noted above, if the main grammatical focus contains errors, the teacher typically invites the learners to correct their own errors by using some of the strategies described in the previous sections. However, if the error concerns other parts of the sentence, the teacher may demonstrate the ideal structure required to achieve the task goal, as illustrated by Example 111:

EXAMPLE 111 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: different forms of *must*.

SEQUENCE 4			
84	T	minun täytyi mennä elokuvaan lauantaina (.)	req.info
85	T	LM2	nom
86	LM2	joo (.) ai se on toi	ack
87	T	minun täytyi mennä elokuvaan	req.info rep
88	LM2	I had to go to movies	info
89	T	mm (.) to the movies	acc info

In Episode 13, from which this example is taken, the teacher introduces the learners to the other way of saying the auxiliary verb *must*, that is, the structure *to have to*. At the beginning of the sequence, the teacher says aloud the sample sentence, which includes the target structure *to have to* (line 84). After the teacher names him LM2 acknowledges the task by saying *joo (.) ai se on toi* (yes oh yes it is that) (line 86). Because LM2 does not immediately go on to give the answer, the teacher repeats the sentence to be translated (line 87). At this point

LM2 is able to take control over the task and answers by saying *I had to go to movies* (line 88). However, the article *the* is missing from the learner's answer. As a result, the teacher adds the article to the structure when she accepts LM2's response (line 89). In other words, the teacher models the correct target sentence by repeating it in her turn. She apparently also seeks to improve all the pupils' comprehension of the target structure. The structure *to have to* seems to be high in LM2's ZPD, because he does not need any explicit help to take control over the grammar structure.

**Demonstration by extending the target structure.** As well as by correcting the learner's answer, the teacher can model the sentence to be translated by extending the target structure. In other words, in order to promote grammatical accuracy in the learners' production the teacher may provide the learners with alternatives for the target structure, as in Example 112:

EXAMPLE 112 Episode 8. Lesson 6. New grammar point: structure *had better*.

SEQUENCE 4			
37	T	kolmonen	req.info
38	LF2	hm no ei nyt=	
39	LF1	=ei nyt vielä	
40		(..)	
41	T	Janicen olisi parasta kertoa äidilleen siitä (.)	req.info
42	T	LF6 ↑	nom
43	LF6	eeh Janice had better tell about it to her mother	info
44	T	mm (.) tell about it ↑ (.) to her mother se on oikein ↑	acc
45	T	tai toistepäin tell her mother (.) about it . (.) molemmat on oikein	ext
46	LL	(xx)	

Example 112 is from an episode where the teacher introduces the learners to the structure *had better*. The teacher starts Example 112 by saying the number of the next sentence (line 37). Because LF2 and LF1 indicate that they need more time, the teacher provides the pupils with a long pause before going on with the task (lines 38-40). After the pause the teacher reads aloud the sentence to be translated and nominates LF6 who is to answer (lines 41-42). The grammar point seems to be high in LF6's ZPD, and she seems to be near self-regulation in the task. Accordingly, she is able to take control over the task and to provide the correct target structure (line 43). The teacher first accepts the pupil's answer by saying *mm (.) tell about it ↑ (.) to her mother se on oikein* (*mm tell about it (.) to her mother it is correct*) (line 44). After repeating the learner's answer the teacher extends the target structure by giving an alternative, saying *tai toistepäin tell her mother (.) about it (.) molemmat on oikein* (*or the other way around tell her mother about it both are correct*) (line 45). In other words, the teacher models the target structure first by repeating the learner's correct answer and then by providing an alternative for it. Demonstrating the correct structure may also benefit all the pupils in the class when they listen to the teacher's scaffolding.

As well as to improve grammatical accuracy in the learners' production the teacher may model alternatives to the target structure in order to increase the learners' vocabulary. Example 113 illustrates this:

EXAMPLE 113 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 5			
46	T	<kuinkas sanot> eh osaa:n tiskata (..)	req.info
47	T	osaan tiskata (.)	rep
48	T	LF1	nom
49	LF1	mm no I can >mut emmä tiiä mitä on tiskata<	info req.info
50	T	kuka muistaa tiskata ↑ (.)	req.info pro
51	T	LM2	nom
52	LM2	wash the dishes	info
53	T	mm ↑	acc
54	T	I can: do the dishes tai I can wash up ↑ (.)	ext

Example 113 is from an episode in which the teacher introduces the learners to the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may* and the related verb forms *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. At the beginning of Example 113, the teacher says aloud the sentence for translation (line 46). Because no immediate response occurs, the teacher repeats the sentence to be translated and nominates LF1 who is to translate the sentence (lines 47-8). The target auxiliary verb seems to be high in LF1's ZPD, since she immediately provides it (line 49). However, LF1 has problems with the other words in the sentence, and she says *mm no I can >mut emmä tiiä mitä on tiskata<* (mm well *I can* but I don't know what is *to wash the dishes* in English) (line 49). Instead of providing the answer herself, the teacher directs the same question at the whole class by asking *kuka muistaa tiskata ↑* (who recalls what is *to wash the dishes* in English) (line 50). By using the verb *muistaa* (recall) the teacher seems to want to indicate to the pupils that they should know the verb from previous lessons. When the teacher asks her by name LF2 provides the correct verb form *to wash the dishes*, which the teacher accepts (lines 52-53). At the end of the sequence, the teacher goes on to provide the learners with two alternatives for the verb form *to wash the dishes* by saying *I can: do the dishes tai I can wash up ↑* (.) (*I can do the dishes* or *I can wash up*) (line 54). By modelling two alternative target sentences the teacher is able to introduce the learners to different words in the same context.

**Demonstration by providing the target structure.** Finally, as well as by correcting the learners' answers and by extending the target structure, the teacher in this study may model the grammar structure by providing the learners with the target structure. As was noted in Section 7.2, this particular teacher goes to great lengths to avoid giving the correct answer. However, if nobody seems to be able to provide the target structure and if her scaffolding does not help the pupils to come up with the correct answer, the teacher cannot but model the correct form in order to be able to continue the interaction, as in Example 114:

EXAMPLE 114 Episode 7. Lesson 4. Old grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 5			
44	T	sitten on pukeutumislauseita (.)	ms
45	T	onks LF2:lla ↑	nom
46	LF2	joo (.) someone dress elegantly (.) somebodys dress BUT somebodys dress eeh emmä tiiä miten toi lausutaa	info
47	T	taste-	pro clue
48	LF2	no jotenki kuiteskii=	ack
49	T	=tastelessly=	info
50	LF2	=no just sillee	ack
51	T	mm ↑ (..)	ack
52	T	mitä tarkoittaa tastelessly (.)	req.info
53	T	LF1	nom
54	LF1	no emmä tiedä	(info)
55	T	LM5	nom (trans)
56	LM5	mauttomasti=	info
57	T	=mauttomasti (.) kyllä	acc

Example 114 is from an episode where the teacher and the learners go through exercises on adverbs. The teacher starts Example 114 with a metastatement (line 44), that is, she introduces the learners to the structure of the sequence by saying *sitten on pukeutumislauseita (.)* (then we have sentences concerning dressing) (line 44). The teacher then nominates LF2 who is to answer, asking *onks LF2:lla ↑* (does LF2 have) (line 45). When named by the teacher LF2 starts to provide an answer by saying *joo someone dress elegantly (.) somebodys dress BUT somebody dress eeh emmä tiiä miten toi lausutaa* (yes someone dress elegantly (.) somebodys dress but somebody dress eeh I don't know how to pronounce that) (line 46). In other words, LF2 is not sure about her answer and indicates her inability to take control over the task by saying *emmä tiiä miten toi lausutaan* (I don't know how to pronounce that) (line 46). Instead of immediately giving the correct answer, the teacher prompts the learner to come up with the target structure by giving her the beginning of the target adverb *taste-* (line 47). In her next turn the learner indicates her frustration at not being able to continue the teacher's utterance by saying *no jotenki kuiteskii* (well somehow) (line 48) (see Section 7.3.5 for a discussion of frustration control). At this point the teacher models the target structure by providing the adverb *tastelessly* (line 49). This may benefit all the pupils in the classroom, since they are able to listen to the teacher's scaffolding. LF2 does not repeat the correct adverb but acknowledges it by saying *no just sillee* (just like that) (line 50).

After providing the correct adverb the teacher apparently notices that this particular grammar point is low in LF2's ZPD. LF2 still seems to be other-regulated in the task, thus needing more information about it. Consequently, the teacher elicits a further response from the learners by asking *mitä tarkoittaa tastelessly (.)* (what does the adverb *tastelessly* mean) (line 52) (see Section 7.3.3 for a discussion of direction maintenance). Because no immediate response occurs, the teacher calls on LF1 to answer (line 53). However, because LF1 does

not know the answer, the teacher transfers the question to LM5 (lines 54-5), who provides the correct answer, which the teacher repeats and accepts (lines 56-7).

To summarise, the sixth of the scaffolding features described by Wood et al. (1976) involves modelling the target structures in order to improve learner comprehension. Demonstration, as originally analysed by Wood et al. (1976), involves modelling solutions to a task, possibly even by completing a learner's answer or by explicating a learner's partial solution. In the present study, however, demonstration involves modelling not only target structures, that is, grammar structures, but also, for example, pronunciation and vocabulary. In providing the learners with scaffolded assistance, the teacher takes into account all aspects of mastering L2. Although the main focus of the grammar instructional episodes is grammar points, the teacher provides scaffolded assistance, for example, for improving the pupils' pronunciation or increasing their vocabulary. The teacher uses various strategies in modelling target structures in order to help the learners to understand the task in hand. Firstly, the teacher may model the target structure by correcting a learner's language production. Secondly, she may extend the target structure by giving acceptable alternatives. Finally, she may have no choice but to provide the target structure, if no appropriate response occurs.

### 7.3.7 Summary

This section aimed to answer the third research question: What kind of strategies does the L2 teacher employ in providing scaffolded assistance? In order to illuminate the strategies used by the teacher in the present study, the specific scaffolding features described by Wood et al. (1976) are applied. Wood et al. (1976) define six scaffolding features that constitute the scaffolding process. These scaffolding features, which concern the way in which a teacher assists a learner, are *recruitment*, *reduction in degrees of freedom*, *direction maintenance*, *marking critical features*, *frustration control* and *demonstration*. It is important to note in this connection that these features do not, however, automatically follow each other in succession. Instead, the teacher's task is to find out through co-operation with the learners what kind of scaffolded assistance is needed by different learners in different situations.

It is evident from the data that the teacher in this case employs various strategies in providing the learners with scaffolding. Different strategies are deployed dynamically as the teacher assesses the pupils' level of competence and determines what type of scaffolding the pupils need to be able to accomplish a particular part of the task in hand. This microgenetic analysis also shows how the teacher is responsive, as described by Jarvis and Robinson (1997), in the sense that through her moment-by-moment choice of contingent responses to the learners' answers, she uses what the learners say, and builds further scaffolded assistance on those answers. In addition, the teacher's responsiveness is shown in the ability to identify a potential problem and make it a focus of discussion. In other words, the scaffolding process is a joint activity involving both the teacher and the pupils.

At the beginning of the scaffolding process the teacher's first task, as defined by Wood et al. (1976), is to recruit the pupils into the task in hand. According to the original definition by Wood et al. (1976:95), recruitment involves a tutor "luring a novice into the task either by demonstrating it or providing tempting material". According to Wood et al. (1976) a tutor's task is to awaken a novice's interest in the task. Although Wood et al. (1976:99) also mention gaining a learner's attention, they discuss especially the question of getting a learner interested in the task. However, in the present case in order to get an episode started the teacher first has to draw the learners' attention to the task. Because of the nature of teacher-led whole-class interaction, the teacher first has to make sure that the learners direct their attention to the teacher's instructions and do not concentrate on, for example, their personal affairs. The basis for effective scaffolding is provided by ensuring that all participants pay attention to the ongoing teaching-learning process. Accordingly, the analysis of Wood et al. (1976) has to be revised for the purposes of the present study. In this study, recruitment is taken to refer both to drawing the learners' attention to and engaging their interest in the task.

At the beginning of the grammar instructional episode, the requirement involves drawing the pupils' attention to a new grammar topic. In other words, the teacher introduces the learners to a new topic to be worked on. Because at the beginning of the episode the teacher has to turn the pupils' attention from the previous grammar topic to a new one, it typically takes the teacher several exchanges to draw the learners' attention to the new grammar point. First, in recruiting the pupils into the task at the beginning of the episode, the teacher typically explains to the learners explicitly that they will start working on the next grammar point. If the teacher and the learners do not have symmetrical definitions of the task situation, the teacher has to explain the task demands to the learners more thoroughly in order to help them to achieve intersubjectivity. Furthermore, at the beginning of the episode, in particular, the pupils are sometimes occupied with their off-task exchanges with each other, and thus the teacher has to call for order to direct their attention to the task. In addition, the teacher may refer to grammar points the class have gone through in previous lessons in recruiting the learners into the next task. In doing this the teacher attempts to make connections between the knowledge the learners already have and that they need to carry out the new task. Moreover, if no immediate response occurs after her introduction, the teacher may use the strategy of individual nomination to invite a learner to participate in the task in hand. Lastly, although the teacher often starts a new activity by first drawing the learners' attention to the task, attracting the pupils' interest in the task is also important right from the beginning of the episode. The teacher may arouse the learners' interest in the task by challenging them. She may point out that they should know the next grammar point they are going to go through together.

Unlike at the beginning of the grammar instructional episode, recruitment in the middle of the episode does not involve any change in grammar point. Instead, the grammar point remains the same within the episode. Moving from

one sequence to another within an episode involves only a shift from one grammar task to another. For this reason the teacher in this study often manages to recruit the pupils into the task fairly quickly in the middle of the episode. In order to achieve this the teacher uses various strategies. First, she typically recruits pupils into the task by asking questions and by reading aloud sentences to be translated into English. She may foreground important elements of the task by emphasising them in her elicitation of a response from the learners. If no immediate response occurs, the teacher may also repeat her initial elicitation or a part of it. Second, the teacher may recruit the learners into the task by emphatically naming the pupil she wants to answer next. She may seek a response from a pupil by stating that he or she knows the target structure or by asking how he or she would carry out the task in hand. Third, the teacher may draw the pupils' attention to the task by emphasising that participation in the teaching-learning process is more important than avoiding an incomplete answer. In other words, she may indicate to the learners that errors are allowed. Fourth, the teacher may also explicitly attempt to enlist the learner's interest in the task by providing an interesting example. Lastly, in addition to the strategies mentioned above, which the teacher puts into practice by using mainly Finnish, she may direct the pupils' attention to the task by using English.

Secondly, according to Wood et al. (1976), after recruiting the learners into the task the teacher often has to reduce the degree of freedom in relation to the task in hand in order to help them to complete it. In other words, this second task involves simplifying the task into subtasks that still allow the pupils to reach a solution. The decision to reduce the degree of freedom is based on the teacher's assessment of the learners' ability to carry out the task, or in particular, their inability to work on it. In other words, if the learners are unable to respond to the teacher's initial elicitation, the teacher rephrases it until they can engage themselves in the scaffolding process. First, the teacher may reduce the degree of freedom by asking more specific questions if the learners have failed to respond to her initial elicitation for an answer. Although she typically simplifies the question because of the learners' inability to answer, the pupils may also sometimes ask the teacher to simplify her question before even starting to answer. In addition, the teacher may sometimes provide the correct answer if her more specific questions do not help the learners to come up with the answer. Second, the teacher may simplify the task by giving specific clues that help the learners to complete it. Third, the teacher may simplify the task by limiting the scope of her initial question, for example, moving from an open-ended question to a forced-choice one, which limits the task and makes it possible for the pupils to answer the question accurately. After a learner's correct answer to a forced-choice question, the teacher may let the learner complete the rest of the task on his or her own, thus avoiding giving him or her too much assistance. Fourth, the teacher may provide the learners with manageable subtasks, the completion of which contributes to the full solution of the task. Similarly, the pupils may start to break down the task into the subtasks

by asking the teacher questions. Lastly, the teacher may focus first on the meanings of the words in the grammar exercise. Correspondingly, the pupils may ask the teacher about the meanings of some words before working on the grammar point in hand.

Thirdly, as described by Wood et al. (1976), the teacher's task is to maintain the learners' concentration on the task in hand. According to Wood et al. (1976), the teacher has the role of keeping the pupils motivated and in pursuit of the task goals even if they may temporarily lose interest and not use all their abilities in carrying out the task in hand. This analysis of direction maintenance also applies to the present study. However, in order to describe teacher-led full-class interaction in greater detail, some additions and revisions have to be made to the original categorisation. The original category of direction maintenance is too imprecise to illuminate the strategies employed by the teacher in the present study. Thus, for the purposes of the present study three subcategories have been identified for the teacher's strategies in maintaining the learners' concentration on the task. Based on the present data and some previous studies of scaffolded learning (see Edwards and Mercer 1987, McCormick and Donato 2000) the subcategories of encouragement, comprehension and clarification have been identified. Each of these subcategories relates to the third feature of scaffolding, that is, helping the pupils to maintain their orientation towards the overall task goal.

In this case the teacher may use strategies involving encouragement in maintaining the learners' direction. She encourages the pupils to participate in the co-construction of the target structures whenever the pupils seem to lose their motivation or interest. In the first place, the teacher may prompt the learners to come up with an appropriate response. She often avoids providing them with negative evaluation. Instead, she may attempt to incorporate even partially correct attempts into her prompts and provide the learners with positive statements as to their knowledge. Second, she may encourage the pupils with metastatements, which help them to understand the purpose of the subsequent sequences. Third, in seeking to maintain concentration on the task the teacher may explicitly call the pupils' attention to the overall task goal. Lastly, the teacher may encourage the learners by checking whether they have any problems with their work.

In addition, in maintaining the learners' orientation towards the overall task goal, the teacher uses strategies with which she attempts to monitor and facilitate their comprehension of grammar points during the scaffolding process. She uses these strategies in order to establish and maintain the pupils' comprehension of the grammar points they are going through during the activity and to maintain the pupils' involvement in the task. First, she may maintain direction by asking the pupils to provide an explanation of their responses. She wants to ascertain the pupils' "online" comprehension and find out whether more explicit assistance is needed. At the same time she can create opportunities for the pupils themselves to engage in the scaffolding process. Second, if a breakdown in comprehension occurs or if the pupils ask for an



explanation, the teacher may provide the learners with a grammar explanation. Lastly, in order to maintain the learners' direction by facilitating their comprehension the teacher may refer to grammar points that have been dealt with in previous lessons. In other words, she may attempt to create the basis for the new grammar points by revising old ones.

Furthermore, in maintaining direction the teacher in this study employs strategies with which she scaffolds the pupils' language production by clarifying the structures provided by the participants. She attempts to maintain the pupils' orientation towards the task by ensuring the clarity of the target structures and the structures employed in the process of scaffolding. She encourages the pupils to repeat, clarify or expand their answers. For one thing, the teacher may request the learners to clarify their responses. For another, she may provide a clarification of the target structure herself in order to call attention to the task goal. Thirdly and lastly, she may clarify her request for information if no verbal responses occur or if the learners indicate that they have not understood the teacher's initial request for a response.

Fourthly, according to Wood et al. (1976), the teacher's task is to mark critical features of the task when the pupils are challenged by tasks or are not working towards the task goal. First, the teacher in the classroom situation under study may call the pupil's attention to an important aspect of the task when a mismatch exists between the pupil's work and the target structure. The teacher's marking provides information about the errors the learner has made. A second way of marking critical features is for the teacher to emphasise a grammar point in her initial elicitation for a response from the learners to help them to concentrate on the main focus of the task. She may also emphasise a grammar point in the repetition of her question. Lastly, the teacher may point out a grammar point in the pupil's correct answer in order to promote the learners' grammatical accuracy.

Frustration control is the fifth of the scaffolding features described by Wood et al. (1976). In cases where the pupils indicate that they are frustrated by the difficulty of the tasks, the teacher's task is to make an attempt to reduce their stress and help them to continue their work. First, the teacher in this study may control the learners' frustration by explicitly encouraging them to go on working on the task. Second, she may repeat or rephrase her initial elicitation for a response. Lastly, she may also invite several pupils to work on the same task in order to help them to complete the task jointly.

Finally, demonstration is the sixth of the scaffolding features defined by Wood et al. (1976). As originally defined by Wood et al. (1976) this involves modelling idealised solutions to the task to be performed possibly even by actually doing it or by explicating the learner's partial solution. In the present study, however, demonstration involves not only modelling target structures, that is, grammar points, but other areas of language learning as well. Apart from modelling grammar target structures, the teacher may also demonstrate, for example, pronunciation or vocabulary. Demonstration thus involves modelling the ideal target structure to improve the learners' comprehension of the grammar

point in hand and to improve accuracy in the learners' production. First, the teacher in this study may demonstrate the target structure by correcting the learner's previous response. Second, she may extend the grammar point in hand by providing alternatives for the target structure. Lastly, she may provide the target structure, thus demonstrating the ideal solution.

In conclusion, the teacher in the classroom situation under study employs a number of strategies in providing the learners with scaffolded assistance, as defined by Wood et al. (1976). The analysis shows that while scaffolding is a joint activity both the teacher and the learners need to be active in order for the teaching-learning process to be successful. Importantly, however, effective scaffolding is always dependent on the participants and the context where it is provided. The features of effective scaffolding are the focus of the next section.

## 7.4 Effective scaffolded assistance

The focus of the present study is on the scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher in teacher-led whole-class interactions. Section 7.1 described the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes in the data of the present study. It was shown how grammar episodes are organised into phases by the participants' interaction. Section 7.2 took a closer look at the sequential organisation of spoken discourse during the grammar instructional episodes. The analysis showed the ubiquity of the IRE or IRF structure (Sinclair and Couthard 1975, Mehan 1979). In addition, it was demonstrated how the IRF structure is exploited by both the teacher and the pupils. Next, the analysis took a closer look at the teacher's strategies in the extension of the follow-ups. Section 7.3 thus concentrated on the teacher's scaffolding strategies during the grammar instructional episodes. The analysis described the variety of strategies employed by the teacher in providing scaffolding as defined by Wood et al. (1976).

Bearing in mind the organisation of the grammar instructional episodes and the teacher's scaffolding strategies, this section extends the analysis in the previous sections by examining the variation in the scaffolding that turns out to be effective in the classroom situation under study. The aim of this section is to answer the fourth research question: What kind of scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher turns out to be effective according to the data of the study? This section, however, does not seek to give an in depth account of the variation in nature or extent of the different grammar instructional episodes transcribed for the present study. It seeks instead to shed more light on the features of the scaffolding that proves to be effective in the grammar instructional episodes under study. It is also to be noted that an effective scaffolding process is defined as one where the pupils come up with the correct target structure with the help of the teacher. To achieve this purpose, a few representative examples that reflect the variation in the data are described in more detail in the following.

*Minimal scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher.* As was pointed out in Section 4.3, too much scaffolding might inhibit learning, because then pupils do not get enough opportunities to try to come up with the correct answers on their own. Conversely, too little scaffolded assistance from the teacher might leave them to struggle alone with too much complexity. Therefore, depending on the occasion, effective scaffolded assistance involves both different kinds and different amounts of scaffolding provided by the teacher. In the data of the present study there are grammar instructional episodes in which the learners are able to provide the correct answers with only minimal help from the teacher. On some occasions the pupils are completely or nearly self-regulated in the tasks, and thus the minimal help afforded by the teacher's simple reading aloud of the sentences to be translated is enough to elicit the correct answers from the pupils. Consider Example 115, where the teacher's and the pupils' turns are displayed in two parallel columns to illustrate more clearly the situation:

EXAMPLE 115 Episode 9. Lesson 7. New grammar point: different forms of *can* and *may*.

SEQUENCE 10					
79	T	nyt mejän pitäis katsoa kuinka niille tehdään kaikki muut aikamuodot (.) ja se alkaa sillä että kerrataan olla verbin aikamuotojen käyttöä (.)			ms
80	T	kuinkas sanot imperfektissä että: <minä olin nuori> (.)			req.info
81	T	LM3 ↑			nom
82			LM3	I was young	info
83	T	mm (.)			acc
84	T	miten sanot (.) <b>sinä</b> olit nuori (.)			req.info
85	T	LM8			nom
86			LM8	you were (.) young	info
87	T	mm (.)			acc
88	T	kuinkas tulee (.) <b>hän</b> oli nuori ↑ (.)			req.info
89	T	LF6			nom
90			LF6	she was young	info
91	T	mm (.)			acc
92		(..)			
93	T	kuinkas monikossa me olimme nuoria ↑ (.)			req.info
94	T	LM4			nom
95			LM4	we were young	info
96	T	mm (.)			acc
97	T	kuinka tulee kaikki muut persoonat te olitte ja he olivat nuoria ↑ (.)			req.info
98	T	LM3			nom
99			LM3	you were <i>they</i> were	info
100	T	mm (.)			acc
101	T	<mitä> (.) millon käytetään wassia (.)			req.info
102	T	LF2 ↑			nom
103			LF2	yksikön ekaa ja kolmosee	info
104	T	mm			acc
105	T	eli muistetaan että minä (.) ja hän (.) se oli se was (.)			clar
106	T	tää oli imperfekti			clar

In Episode 9, from which the example above is taken, the teacher introduces the learners to the different forms of the auxiliary verbs *can* and *may*, that is, the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. Before introducing the new grammar point the teacher and the pupils revise the verb *to be* in different tenses. In this way the teacher attempts to build the new grammar point on one that the pupils have already learned at school. In Example 115, the focus is on the past tense. The teacher starts Example 115 with the metastatement *nyt meidän pitäis katsoa kuinka niille tehdään kaikki muut aikamuodot (.) ja se alkaa sillä että kerrataan olla verbin aikamuotojen käyttöä (.)* (then we should study how the other tenses are formed and we will begin by revising the use of the verb *to be*) (line 79). After introducing the focus of the sequence to the learners the teacher elicits a response from LM3 by reading aloud the sentence to be translated *kuinkas sanot imperfektissä että: <minä olin nuori>* (how do you say in the past tense *I was young* in English) (line 80) and by naming the pupil (line 81). After a short pause LM3 provides the correct translation, which the teacher accepts (lines 82-3). Without further comment the teacher moves on to the next sentence for translation and elicits a translation from LM8 by reading first the sentence aloud *miten sanot (.) sinä olit nuori (.)* (how do you say *you were young* in English) (line 84) and then naming the learner (lines 84-5). Again after a short pause, the pupil gives the correct target structure, which the teacher accepts with the minimal response *mm* (lines 86-7). Similarly, the teacher reads aloud the following sentences to be translated using the past tense (lines 88, 93 and 97) and the learners provide the correct target structures without any further help from the teacher (lines 90, 95 and 99). At the end of the sequence, the teacher still makes sure that the learners understand the difference between the verb forms *was* and *were* by asking *<mitä> (.) millon käytetään wassia (.)* (what when do you use the verb *was*) (line 105). When the teacher names her LF2 provides the correct answer, which the teacher accepts (lines 103-4). In the end the teacher clarifies LF2's answer by reformulating it and repeating the name of the verb tense (lines 105-6).

In Example 115, the discussion between the teacher and the learners proceeds smoothly without any problems. The grammar point in hand seems to be high in the learners' ZPDs, and thus being close to self-regulation in the tasks, the learners are able to complete them without any further scaffolding from the teacher. This shows how the teacher is responsive in the sense that she does not provide the learners with unnecessary scaffolded assistance. Instead, she provides them only with pauses, during which they are able to come up with the correct structures. That is, the scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher is contingent, meaning that it is offered only when it is needed.

Moreover, in cases where the learners are close to self-regulation in the task, they are able to make use of the source of help that is provided simply by the teacher being present. When the pupils did their homework alone at home they were not always able to complete the exercises in question. Yet, in the classroom in the presence of the teacher they are able to translate the target structures on their own. Aljaafreh (1992) defines this source of help as the *social frame*. In other words, the social frame as a subtle source of assistance is enough to help the learners to complete the tasks without any strategic help from the

teacher. However, as Tharp and Gallimore (1988:37) remark, the control function remains in the form of overt verbalisation. In addition, on these occasions the learners' use of *private speech* increases. That is, in assuming greater responsibility for the learning process the learners start to regulate the tasks on their own by using private speech, as in Example 116:

EXAMPLE 116 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able to* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 17					
281	T	kymmenen ↑ (..)			req.info
282	T	entäpä kymmenen [saatko ajaa autoa ensi kesänä]			req.info
283			LF2	[(xx)]	
284	T	onko LF1:llä			nom
285			LF1	ai mikä	req.rep
286	T	saatko ajaa			rep
287			LF1	öö (.) öö (.) >emmä tiiä< tuleeks siihen joku will vai	sug
288	T	kyllä ↑			con
289			LF1	be allowed to	info
290		(..)			
291			LF1	tota: eeh to: drive a car next summer	info
292	T	hyvä (.) hienoo ↑ (..)			eval.pos

Example 116 is from an episode in which the teacher and the learners go through homework on the structures *to be able to* and *to be allowed to*. The focus of the example above is on the structure *to be allowed to*. The teacher starts the sequence by saying the number of the next sentence to be translated (line 281). Because merely giving the number of the sentence does not trigger any response from the learners, the teacher reads the complete sentence aloud (line 282). This does not help them to come up with an appropriate response either, and thus the teacher calls on LF1 to answer by asking *onko LF1:llä* (does LF1 have) (line 284). However, before starting to reply LF1 asks for a repetition, which the teacher provides by repeating the verb form of the sentence (lines 285-6). After the teacher's repetition LF1 begins her answer by suggesting *öö (.) öö (.) >emmä tiiä< tuleeks siihen joku will vai* (*öö öö I don't know is it the verb will*) (line 287). The teacher confirms that LF1's suggestion is correct, and LF1 provides the correct form *be allowed to* (lines 288-289). At this point the teacher does not provide the learner with any more verbal assistance. Instead, she provides LF1 with a long pause to help her to produce the last part of the sentence. After the pause the learner does in fact provide the rest of the translation sentence by saying *tota: eeh to: drive a car next summer* (*well eeh to drive a car next summer*) (line 291). In the end the teacher evaluates the learner's response positively by saying *hyvä (.) hienoo ↑* (*good great*) (line 292).

In Example 116, LF1 is at first uncertain about the target structure. However, when the teacher confirms that her suggestion for the auxiliary verb is correct she is able to complete the sentence for translation without any further assistance from the teacher. Instead, she resorts to private speech *öö öö (.) >emmä*

assistance from the teacher. Instead, she resorts to private speech *öö öö* (.) >*emmä tiiä*< (*öö öö* I don't know) (line 287) and *tota: eeh* (well eeh) (line 291) to take control over the task. With the help of her self-regulating speech LF1 is able to produce the correct target structure. It seems that the teacher notes the learner's increasing control over the task, and thus she does not offer any further scaffolded assistance. The grammar point seems to be quite high in the pupil's ZPD. Interestingly, however, LF1 is not able to complete the sentence when working on the task alone at home, but the social frame and time are necessary for her to produce the correct translation.

*Gradual and contingent scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher.* In addition to the sequences where the teacher's minimal help is enough to trigger appropriate responses from the learners, the data of the present study cover occasions when the learners need the teacher's gradual and contingent verbal assistance to carry out the task in hand. That is, in order to complete the task the learners need scaffolded help with different parts of the target structures. On these occasions in order to provide effective help the teacher is responsive in the sense that she makes an attempt to provide scaffolded help only when the learners need it. In addition, she attempts to provide the appropriate amount and type of help for the learners. The teacher may move between implicit and explicit assistance depending on the learners' needs, as in Example 117:

EXAMPLE 117 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Old grammar point: structures *be able* and *be allowed to*.

SEQUENCE 11					
153	T	<b>miksi</b> et saanut katsoa sitä (..)			req.info
154	T	LM10 (.)			nom
155	T	mikä on miksi=			req.info
156			LM 10	=why	info
157	T	mm ↑ (.)			acc
158	T	mikäs on se <olla verbi> mitä käytetään sinän kanssa imperfektissä			req.info
159	T	ei was vaan -			clue
160			LM 10	eeh	ack
161		(..)			
162	T	se toinen			clue
163			LM 10	were	info
164	T	were ↑			acc
165	T	ja sitte se kielteisenä on ↑			req.info
166			LM 10	weren't	info
167	T	mm ↑			acc
168	T	ja osaatko jatkaa loppuun why weren't			req.info
169		(..)			
170			LM 10	eeh get (.) >on teevee<	info

continues

## EXAMPLE 117 continues

171	T	mm ↑ <nyt> ei tarvita gettiä ku sul oli siellä se (.) piti käyttää sitä al- allow juttua why weren't you (.)			eval.neg clue
172	T	kuinka jatkuu ↑			pro
173			LM 10	eeh <i>allowed</i> to mitä	info req.rep
174		(..)			
175	T	katsoa			rep
176			LM 10	eiku <i>watch it</i>	info
177	T	mm hyvä ↑ (.) why weren't you allowed (.)			eval.pos

In Example 117, the teacher and the learners go through homework on the structure *to be allowed to*. The teacher starts the sequence by reading aloud the sentence to be translated *miksi et saanut katsoa sitä (..)* (*why weren't you allowed to watch it*) (line 153). In addition, she provides the learners with a pause to come up with an appropriate answer (line 153). Because no immediate response occurs, the teacher selects LM10 to answer (line 154). However, the learner is not able to take control over the task, and thus the teacher starts to scaffold him with more explicit assistance (line 155 onwards). The teacher first helps the learner to get started by asking *mikä on miksi* (what is *why*) (line 155). LM10 immediately provides the correct question word *why*, which the teacher accepts (lines 156-7). After this the teacher continues with her scaffolding by asking *mikäs on se <olla verbi> mitä käytetään sinän kanssa imperfektissä* (what is the form of the verb *to be* that we use with the pronoun *you* in the past tense) (line 158). However, at this point LM10 fails to come up with any appropriate verb form, and thus the teacher provides him with a clue by asking *ei was vaan – (not was but)* (line 159). In other words, the teacher starts to form a forced-choice question, which would be simpler for the pupil to answer. Furthermore, the teacher provides LM10 with more time to answer the question. However, because LM10 is not able to take control over the verb form, the teacher continues her forced-choice question by adding *se toinen* (that other) (line 162). This seems to help LM10 to come up with the correct verb form and he answers *were* (line 163). At this point the teacher makes her question even more explicit by asking *ja sitte se kielteisenä on ↑* (and that in the negative form is) (line 165), to which LM10 gives the correct answer *weren't* (line 166). In other words, the teacher attempts to make the verb phrase simpler for LM10 by asking first the affirmative form of the verb and only after that its negative form. This seems to help LM10, who translates the beginning of the sentence with the teacher's help.

After this the teacher apparently attempts to find out whether the learner is able to complete the rest of the target sentence without any further scaffolding. She prompts the learner to go on with the translation by asking *ja osaatko jatkaa loppuun why weren't* (and can you continue the rest *why weren't*) (line 168). In other words, she avoids giving too much help by asking an implicit question. However, the learner does not seem to be able to take control over the task, and he provides an incorrect answer *eeh get (.) >on teevee<* (*eeh get*

on TV) (line 170). Consequently, the teacher gives the pupil a further explicit clue by saying *mm* ↑ <nyt> *ei tarvita gettiä ku sul oli siellä se* (.) *piti käyttää sitä allow juttua why weren't you* (.) (*mm now we don't need the verb get you had to use that verb allow why weren't you*) (line 171). Because LM10 does not immediately start to answer, the teacher gives him a further prompt by saying *kuinka jatkuu* ↑ (how do you continue) (line 172). After the prompt LM10 finally starts to translate the end of the sentence by saying *eeh allowed to mitä* (*eeh allowed to what*) (line 173). Before repeating the verb the teacher provides LM10 with a further long pause to help him to come up with the correct translation (line 174). After the teacher's repetition of the verb LM10 adds the rest of the sentence by saying *eiku watch it* (*no watch it*) (line 176).

In order to visualise the scaffolded assistance and the co-construction of the target structure, the sequence of Example 117 is diagrammed on two axes in Figure 3. The diagram used by Donato (1994) to describe collective scaffolding is modified for the purposes of the present study. The horizontal axis represents the interactional time, that is, the actual time it took the teacher and the pupil to carry out the task. The vertical axis illustrates the subtasks into which the teacher simplifies the overall task. The order of linguistic elements on the vertical axis represents what occurred in the classroom. The letters refer to the learners the teacher provides with scaffolded assistance in the sequence. Next to each letter there is a positive (+) or negative (-) sign representing a correct or an incorrect response. If the pupil does not provide any verbal response, it is also marked with a negative sign. The sequence of letters matches the order in which the utterances appeared in the dialogue. By matching the position of the pupil with the vertical and horizontal axis the contents of the utterance, its correctness or incorrectness and its sequential relationship to other utterances can be discerned. In addition, the influence of the teacher's scaffolded assistance can be visualised by following the course of positively and negatively marked utterances.

6. main verb watch it													1+
5. aux.verb you allowed to								1-	1-	1-	1+		
4. neg.verb be weren't							1+						
3. verb be were			1-	1-	1-	1+							
2. question word why		1+											
1. complete sentence	1-												
<b>subtasks</b>	↑	<b>interactional time</b>										→	

FIGURE 3 Episode 12. Lesson 9. Scaffolded help for *miksi et saanut katsoa sitä* (why weren't you allowed to watch it?) (Diagram adapted from Donato 1994). l=LM10.



In this example, the teacher provides both contingent and gradual scaffolding for the learner. Interestingly, the teacher seems to notice that the grammar point is low in LM10's ZPD, and thus she simplifies the task using many different strategies. At the same time in trying to avoid giving too much help the teacher is responsive in the sense that she makes an attempt to provide appropriate kind of assistance at the appropriate time. Because the simple reading aloud of the target sentence does not trigger any response from the learner, she breaks down the sentence in order to make it simpler for LM10 to translate. Figure 3 represents this developmental influence of the teacher's scaffolding on LM10's language production. In simplifying the sentence for translation into subtasks the teacher goes through the sentence word by word, modifies her question into a forced-choice one and concentrates first on the affirmative form of the verb before asking him to produce the negative one. Through the dialogue with the teacher LM10 is able to complete the task. In other words, with the teacher's scaffolded help he is able to work at a level higher than he is capable of by himself.

**Shared scaffolding.** Finally, there are episodes that represent shared scaffolding in the classroom in the data of the present study. Teacher-fronted tutoring in an L2 classroom involves more than one pupil, in some cases as many as forty pupils, working together with the teacher. Consequently, in order to facilitate the learning of several pupils, the teacher is required to accommodate her scaffolded assistance not just to one but a number of pupils, who are all situated at their individual levels of performance. In addition, in whole-class contexts the learners are also able of providing help to their peers during collaborative L2 interactions. Hence, sequences in which several learners co-construct the target structures with the help of the teacher's scaffolding can be found in the interaction in the classroom situation under study. Consider Example 118:

EXAMPLE 118 Episode 13. Lesson 10. New grammar point: structure *to have to*.

SEQUENCE 2					
66	T	miten sanot että <minun (.) täytyi (.) mennä (.) kotiin (.) kahdeksalta ↑> (.)			req.info
67	T	minun täytyi mennä kotiin kahdeksalta ↑ (.)			rep
68	T	LM3			nom
69			LM3	I had to (.) eeh go eiku emmä tiiä=	info
70			LM2	=go home	info
71			LM3	I had to go home (.) eeh=	info
72	T	=at ↑			info
73			LF2	[eight]	info
74			LM3	[at] eight	info
75	T	mm ↑			acc

Example 118 is from an episode in which the teacher introduces the learners to the structure *to have to*. At the beginning of the sequence, the teacher elicits a response from the learners by asking *miten sanot että <minun (.) täytyi (.) mennä*

(.) *kotiin* (.) *kahdeksalta*  $\hat{T}$  (.) (how do you say *I had to go home at eight* in English) (line 66). Because no immediate response occurs, the teacher repeats the sentence to be translated (line 67). When he is named by the teacher LM3 starts to translate the sentence by saying *I had to* (.) *eeh go eiku emmä tiiä* (*I had to eeh go no I don't know*) (line 69). As soon as LM3 indicates that he is not sure about the target structure, LM2 continues LM3's translation by saying *go home* (line 70). LM3 acknowledges LM2's help by repeating the beginning of the target structure that has been translated so far *I had to go home* (.) *eeh* (line 71). However, his hesitation *eeh* at the end of his turn indicates that he is not able to complete the task by himself (line 71). Therefore the teacher prompts him to translate the rest of the structure by providing him with the next word of the sentence *at* (line 72). After the teacher's prompt both LF2 and LM3 simultaneously continue the sentence. LF2 adds *eight* and LM3 *at eight* to the translation (lines 73-4).

Example 118 illustrates a sequence in which the teacher's scaffolded assistance is shared by several pupils. In addition, in co-constructing the target structure the pupils also provide each other with help under the teacher's guidance. Figure 4 depicts the process of development during this sequence:

6. prep.+time at eight							LM3+
5. time eight						LF2+	
4. prep at					T+		
3. aux.+main verbs + place I had to go home				LM3+			
2. place go home			LM2+				
1. aux.+main verbs I had to go		LM3+					
complete sentence	LL-						
<b>partial answers</b> ↑	<b>interactional time</b>						→

FIGURE 4 Episode 13. Lesson 10. Scaffolded help for *minun täytyi mennä kotiin kahdeksalta* (I had to go home at eight). (Diagram adapted from Donato 1994). LM2, LM3, LF2=Learners, LL=All the learners in the class, T=teacher.

As described in Example 118, this sequence starts with the teacher's reading aloud of the sentence to be translated. However, because none of the pupils make any response to the teacher's first elicitation, the teacher calls on LM3 to translate the sentence. After this LM3 translates the beginning of the sentence. A little later LM2 and LF2 join in the co-construction of the task. During the process the teacher also provides the pupils with a linguistic element of the task, that is, the preposition *at*, thus prompting them to continue their translation. In other words, the teacher scaffolds the learners' joint learning

process, during which the learners are at the level where assistance provided by a more capable other is needed. This joint work is illustrated in Figure 4. Importantly, the teacher, however, seems to have overall control over the teaching-learning process, and it is she who accepts the joint translation at the end of the sequence (see Example 118).

To summarise, this section aimed to answer the fourth research question: What kind of scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher turns out to be effective according to the data of the study? The purpose was to illuminate the features of the scaffolding process that turn out to be effective in the grammar episodes in the classroom situation under study. In this study an effective scaffolding process is defined as one during which the learners are able to complete the task with the help of the teacher's scaffolded assistance. In contrast, in the sequences where scaffolding is not viewed as effective, the pupils do not come up with an appropriate solution to the task in hand. In those sequences the teacher provides the learners with the correct target structure in order to be able to move on to the next task. The teacher's scaffolded assistance can be seen as ineffective, for example, in Example 59 in Section 7.3.1. and Example 87 in Section 7.3.3, in both of which the teacher first attempts to help the learners to achieve the task. However, the learners are not able to pick up the teacher's assistance. Instead of providing more scaffolded assistance or asking the learners different questions, the teacher provides the solution to the task and starts to scaffold the next task.

In sequences where the teacher's scaffolded assistance turns out to be effective the learners are able to benefit from the teacher's scaffolding. The teacher provides the learners with scaffolded assistance to help them to perform at a higher level than their actual level of competence. Thus, effective scaffolded assistance involves both different kinds of scaffolding strategies and to different extents. In other words, the teacher has to respond to the learners' needs in different situations. Minimal scaffolded assistance from the teacher is enough to trigger appropriate responses from the learners in cases where they are completely self-regulated or close to self-regulation with regard to the tasks in hand. The grammar points in question are then high in the learners' ZPDs, and thus the social frame is enough for them to complete the task. The teacher's effective scaffolding in this study is also gradual and contingent. In other words, the teacher helps the learners to complete the tasks by gradually providing more and more appropriate assistance in those circumstances where they clearly face difficulties. In addition, the present study shows that effective scaffolding involves sequences including shared scaffolding. In other words, although the teacher starts a sequence by directing her scaffolded assistance only to one learner, other pupils join later in the co-construction of the task. Thus, the teacher's scaffolding is shared by all the participants in the interaction. On these occasions the learners may help each other in carrying out the task.

## 8 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The importance of the teacher's assistance for the L2 learning process in the classroom is indisputable. Sociocultural approaches emphasise the interdependence of social and individual processes in the co-construction of knowledge. Vygotsky's concept of the ZPD and its related scaffolding metaphor serve as a viable basis for the present study of the teacher's scaffolded assistance in teacher-fronted whole-class interactions. In this final chapter, the aim of the study and the research steps are first summarised in Sections 8.1 and 8.2, respectively. Scaffolded assistance and its relevance to the L2 learning process is dealt with in Section 8.3. Conclusions drawn from the four research questions are then discussed in Section 8.4. After that in Section 8.5 some pedagogical implications are considered. Finally, in Sections 8.6 and 8.7 the limitations of the study are addressed and suggestions are made for future research.

### 8.1 Summary of aims

Research has shown that instructional patterns differentially affect learners' achievement (Wood et al. 1978). The most effective approach to instruction, as Wood and Middleton (1975:190) show, is at a level "just above a learner's region of sensitivity to instruction", that is, the ZPD, an instructional pattern known as scaffolding (Wood et al. 1976). Descriptive studies of teachers' tutorial (e.g. Aljaafreh 1992, Nassaji and Swain 2000) and classroom practice (e.g. Antón 1999, Gibbons 2003) have cited scaffolding as an instructional technique beneficial to learner achievement. While descriptive studies of scaffolding in L2 tutorial contexts have already for quite a number of years provided several examples of scaffolding in practice, only recently has a growing number of descriptive studies focused on classroom practice. More specifically, no studies of scaffolding during teacher-led whole-class lessons have been published in

Finland. Given the potential of scaffolding to benefit pupil learning, its specific use in classroom practice needs to be further explored.

The present study has aimed to make a contribution to studies of scaffolding by exploring L2 interaction in its naturalistic classroom setting from a Vygotskian perspective. The purpose was to examine the possible scaffolded assistance provided by an L2 teacher in a classroom in a secondary school. The episodes chosen for study were examples of grammar teaching, because these grammar instructional episodes represented the majority of the teacher-led whole-class interaction in all the 11 lessons. The study focused on teacher-fronted whole-class episodes that have been the focus of only a few studies within the Vygotskian framework until recently. These previous studies conducted in the classroom needed to be taken further. That is, these studies have not paid attention to the general organisation of episodes and classroom discourse when exploring an L2 teacher's scaffolding. In addition, the purpose of the present study was to adapt the features of scaffolding originally defined by Wood et al. (1976) in a tutorial setting to the whole-class interaction. Building on previous research on the ZPD and scaffolding this study aimed to provide a framework which would capture patterns in the interactional structures and, in particular, the scaffolding strategies the teacher employed in providing the learners with scaffolding as defined by Wood et al. (1976).

As noted in the introduction, a number of researchers distinguish foreign language learning and second language learning. However, in line with the work of several other researchers (e.g. Ellis 1994) the term second language was used as a superordinate term to cover both types of learning in the present study. Nevertheless, it is important to note in this connection that English is studied as a foreign language in Finland. That is, English is studied in an environment and culture in which English is not spoken as a everyday language. In the present study English was not the mother tongue of the teacher either. In secondary schools in Finland, when teaching the grammar of a foreign language teachers often use L1 in explaining the rules of the target language, as was the case also in the present study. Accordingly, negotiations between the teacher and pupils also occurred at least partly in L1. Using L1 apparently facilitated the learners' participation in negotiations. Although quantifying the learning outcomes was beyond the present study, it could be questioned whether using L2 would have promoted language learning to a greater extent.

With these premises in mind, this case study sought to address four research questions concerning 1) the general organisation of grammar instructional episodes in the classroom context, 2) the sequential organisation of classroom discourse in the grammar instructional episodes, 3) the strategies the teacher employed in providing scaffolded assistance as defined by Wood et al. (1976), and 4) the features of scaffolding that turned out to be effective in the grammar instructional episodes in data pool of the present study. In order to answer these questions a microgenetic approach was used. That is, an approach was adopted in which moment-to-moment changes in the participants' language behaviour were noted and examined (Guerrero and Villamil 2000:54).

In describing and interpreting interaction between the teacher and the learners as well as, especially, the teacher's strategies in providing the learners with scaffolding the findings of Cazden (1988), Mehan (1979), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Wells (1996, 1999) were also made use of. The methods of analysis are discussed in the following section.

## 8.2 Research steps

As was mentioned above, a great number of the previous studies of the ZPD and scaffolding have examined one-to-one teaching situations (e.g. Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994, Aljaafreh 1992, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Antón and DiCamilla 1998, Brooks and Donato 1994, DiCamilla and Antón 1997, Guerrero and Villamil 1994, 2000, Lantolf and Aljaafreh 1995, Nassaji and Swain 2000, Villamil and Guerrero 1996). Only recently has a growing number of studies concentrated on whole-class interactions (e.g. Antón 1999, Gibbons 2003, McCormick and Donato 2000, Verplaetse 2000). However, no such studies have been published in Finland. The previous studies, both those adopting a microgenetic approach and those employing a macrogenetic one, however, have examined teaching-learning processes without paying attention to the broader organisation of interactions between a teacher and learners in a naturalistic classroom setting. The focus of these studies has been on different characteristics of the process or learners' development of language use.

In the present study an attempt was made to examine grammar instructional episodes and the scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher from a slightly different viewpoint. Firstly, the broader instructional context of a classroom where the grammar instructional episodes were embedded was described. Classrooms are institutional contexts, and thus there are also certain educational practices that shape instructional episodes. Consequently, in order to describe the scaffolded assistance provided by the L2 teacher during the grammar episodes the different phases within these episodes were first examined, drawing on the study by Mehan (1979). Secondly, the sequential organisation of the spoken discourse between the teacher and the learners during the grammar instructional episodes was studied. That is, the smaller building blocks of the co-construction of the episodes were examined. Drawing on the studies by Mehan (1979) and Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and the schema identified by Wells (1996, 1999), the analysis described how the basic IRF structure was expanded by the teacher and the learners to achieve different goals during the scaffolding process. Thirdly, the strategies the teacher employed in order to provide the learners with scaffolding as defined by Wood et al. (1976) were examined. In other words, the teacher-fronted whole-class discourse was depicted in terms of the uses to which language was put. Thus, the primary function of the teacher's every turn was first identified and then described in more detail within the context of the whole episode, that is, in

relation to the functions of the teacher's other turns and to the learners' turns of speech. As was mentioned above, both the teacher's and the learners' turns of speech were considered in the analysis, because scaffolded learning is always a joint process. However, in assigning functions there is a tension between the situatedness of the meaning of utterances and any attempt to categorise functions. Therefore, making generalisations is always problematic (see Section 8.6). After having determined the primary functions the scaffolding features were applied to them. Importantly, no particular functions were an indication of a particular strategy but the context always had an effect on the final coding. Finally, drawing on the above-mentioned study by Wood et al. (1976), the features of scaffolded assistance that turned out to be effective in the data of the present study were described.

To sum up, the present analysis proceeded by describing first the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes, concentrating next on the smaller building blocks of the sequential organisation of spoken discourse, and finally focusing especially on the expansions of the follow-up moves, that is, examining the teacher's strategies in providing scaffolded assistance during the episodes. In this way the study went beyond describing the scaffolding process in isolation from the broader organisation of episodes in order to understand better the structure of grammar episodes, the scaffolded assistance provided by an L2 teacher, and the interaction between a teacher and learners during this scaffolding process.

### **8.3 Scaffolded assistance and L2 learning**

The present study aimed to make a contribution to research on corrective feedback in examining the feedback provided by the teacher in the form of scaffolding strategies during whole-class interaction. The issue of corrective feedback has been at the centre of many discussions with regard to L2 learning. Even though the findings of both ethnographic and experimental research on corrective feedback have been informative, there are still unanswered questions concerning the connection between feedback and the L2 learning process. Several recent Canadian studies, for example, have investigated the kinds of explicit teacher feedback likely to promote accuracy. One of these studies, the study of corrective feedback and learner uptake by Lyster and Ranta (1997) looked at different types of error feedback offered by teachers, and noted that recasts were the most common. However, they noted that recasts were less likely to lead to immediate self-correction by students. Although it was beyond the scope of the present study to link learning outcomes with specific feedback procedures, examining the strategies the teacher employed in providing scaffolded assistance shed light on the L2 learning process. In line with previous studies (e.g. Lyster and Ranta 1997) the present study showed that learner errors can be corrected using different strategies, which do not always

have to be explicit, or even explicitly negative. Importantly, in order to gain insights concerning teacher-led whole-class interaction the present study took account of the ongoing process and approached L2 learning as a joint activity between the teacher and pupils. In contrast to previous studies of corrective feedback within other approaches (e.g. Carroll and Swain 1993, Chaudron 1988), the present study within Vygotskian sociocultural theory demonstrated that any type of corrective feedback could be relevant to the teaching-learning process if negotiated between the participants and provided within the learner's ZPD. It was not possible to define the types of corrective feedback a priori; rather the appropriateness of different types of feedback was determined in social interaction.

In the sociocultural perspective adopted in this study, L2 learning is taken as a mediated process (Lantolf 2000b). In the study scaffolded assistance and language learning depend crucially on mediation provided by other individuals, who jointly with the learner dialogically co-construct the ZPD that the task represents for the learner. There may be different ZPDs for different learners and for different tasks (Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994). In a sociocultural view learning emerges as the result of interaction within the ZPD. In the ZPD the learner may move through stages of object- and other-regulation to complete self-regulation, thus becoming capable of solving problems independently (e.g. Wertsch 1985a, 1998). During the mediated activity the learner internalises and appropriates features of the target language through social interaction with the teacher and other learners. From this viewpoint, learning is not something the learner does without assistance. Rather, as Lantolf (2000b) points out, it is a collaborative endeavour necessarily involving assistance, or additional mediation. This additional mediation may come, for example, from another individual or "from integration of an artefact, such as a computer, into the particular activity" (Lantolf 2000b:80).

Scaffolded assistance, which was the focus of the present study, is a particular kind of social interaction, consisting of those supportive behaviours by which the teacher can help learners to achieve higher levels of regulation. During the scaffolding process the teacher creates "supportive conditions in which learners can participate and extend their current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence" (Donato 1994:40). In the present study scaffolded assistance was taken to consist of the different strategies employed by the teacher in assisting learners through grammar tasks during teacher-led full-class interaction. Scaffolding is a joint process that is constructed on the basis of the learner's needs. It refers to a collaborative process in which the teacher and the learner operate within the learner's ZPD. More specifically, scaffolded assistance is negotiated as an "online" joint effort in a social interaction between the teacher and learners (Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994).

By viewing feedback, that is, scaffolded assistance, as a joint activity, it was possible to demonstrate the full extent of the learners' participation in the process and the negotiable nature of the activity. In line with the previous studies (e.g. Adair-Hauck and Donato 1994, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Nassaji



and Swain 2000) the analysis also showed the responsive nature of scaffolded assistance when provided according to the notion of the ZPD. In other words, the teacher adjusted her scaffolding strategies to the level of the learners' needs as it emerged in the negotiations. The teacher also provided assistance only when it was needed. This finding supports the results of previous studies within a Vygotskian perspective, which demonstrated that the teacher could use both explicit and implicit strategies successfully to assist learners in L2 learning (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994). In the tasks in which the learners were not yet completely self-regulated the learners needed to be scaffolded. The teacher's scaffolding strategies promoted the pupils' L2 learning while with the help of the teacher's scaffolded assistance, the learners were able to carry out tasks they would not have been able to complete on their own. The study showed how the teacher's different strategies helped, for example, the learners first to concentrate on one part of the problem at a time, and in the end to join different parts together and to complete the target structure. Scaffolded assistance was given in an interactive way and it was greatly determined by the learners who were active participants in the activity. The analysis thus demonstrated the importance of the joint social activity and the value of the scaffolded assistance given by others for the L2 learning process.

## **8.4 From the organisation of the episodes to the teacher's strategies**

In this section the findings reported in Sections 7.1 to 7.4 are summarised. Section 8.4.1 examines the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes. The sequential organisation of classroom discourse and the use of the IRF sequence by the participants in the episodes are described in Section 8.4.2. In Sections 8.4.3 and 8.4.4, the strategies employed by the teacher during the scaffolding process and the features of effective scaffolding in the grammar instructional episodes are then discussed. Finally, Section 8.4.5 describes scaffolded learning situations in terms of the overall organisation of the episodes and the collaborative nature of the process.

### **8.4.1 The organisation of the grammar instructional episodes**

The analysis of the general organisation of the grammar instructional episodes showed that the grammar instructional episodes were organised sequentially as they unfolded in time. These episodes had a beginning and an end. In other words, they were framed, and thus they were separate from other episodes, such as vocabulary episodes, in the classroom. This definition of an episode is in accordance with that of Leinhardt and Putham (1987) according to which an instructional episode is a detachable piece of instructional material having a recognisable beginning and an end point for both the teacher and the learners.

Moreover, the analysis in the present study demonstrated that grammar instructional episodes in the classroom were organised into phases by the teacher and the learners. The episode was thus a teaching-learning occasion that had *an opening phase* and *a closing phase* with *a grammar instructional phase* in the middle. The episode consisted of all the talk that occurred in dealing with one grammar point. Furthermore, these phases had a structure characteristic of the teaching-learning process. Thus, the findings of the present study confirm previous research on the structure of classroom lessons (e.g. Cazden 1988, Mehan 1979). In addition, these results support previous findings of studies of literacy events (e.g. Pitkänen-Huhta 2003).

Although the teacher played a major part in the opening, the grammar instructional and the closing phase, this study demonstrated that all the participants in the episode participated in the co-construction of the episode. That is, target structures are always completed in co-operation with the teacher and one or more pupils. Thus, both the teacher and the learners were active participants also in the scaffolding process that was embedded in the grammar instructional episodes. This lends support to the previous studies of the L2 learning process from a Vygotskian perspective (e.g. Aljaafreh 1992, Brooks and Donato 1994).

The three phases were identified in all the grammar instructional episodes in the data of the present study. However, both the structure and, especially, the length of the phases showed significant differences depending on the place within the language lesson. In addition, the main focus of the episode, that is, the new or the previously studied grammar point, had an effect on the overall organisation of the grammar episode.

In the opening phase of the grammar instructional episode, the teacher and the pupils have to orient themselves towards the next grammar episode. If the opening of an episode also marked the opening of the language lesson, it was typically fairly long. Moreover, the opening of an episode focusing on new grammar points tended to be longer than that of an episode with previously studied grammar points in focus. During the opening the teacher directed the pupils' attention to the next grammar point. She sometimes briefly revised previous grammar points. In the episodes examined, there were instances where the pupils continued to talk about personal matters or other issues that were not always considered appropriate by the teacher, and thus they were not ready to move on to the next grammar point. On these occasions there were competing discussions going on at the same time. In order to establish a shared orientation towards the task the teacher ignored the pupils' inappropriate remarks and continued the official discussion, that is, the discussion of the next task. She could also ask the pupils to participate in the joint task by directing questions at them. If, however, the pupils continued to challenge the teacher's authority in organising the opening in spite of her remarks, she, at some point, had to put an end to the pupils' talk by explicitly ordering them to concentrate on the task in hand. The teacher's task was to try to create a shared intersubjectivity between herself and the pupils, and this eventually succeeded.

In other words, the episode proceeded according to the teacher's plan. In this class the pupils typically started to orient themselves towards the next task when the teacher indicated the beginning of a new episode with words like *elikkä* (so) or *sitte* (next).

The grammar instructional phase was the core of the grammar instructional episode, the stage during which the main task was brought into the centre of interaction and carried out by the participants. While the opening phase was shaped by its place within the lesson, the main focus of the episode had a major effect on the structure of the grammar instructional phase. The teacher typically started a grammar instructional phase on a new grammar point by revising previously studied grammar rules before introducing the learners to a new grammar point. The duration of this revision ranged from just one or two exchanges to several sequences. The teacher could also start the grammar instructional phase by referring to the contents of the pupils' English textbook. In order to be able to foreground important elements of the new grammar point the teacher could ask the learners to read sample sentences first in English and then translate them into Finnish. She could also occasionally start to go through the grammar exercises immediately after the opening phase. In cases where the pupils were engaged in unofficial discussions, that is, discussions about personal matters, the teacher could use humour to gain the pupils' attention. However, there was less resistance to the organisation of the grammar instructional phase than there was during the opening phase. On these occasions some negotiation was needed. On the other hand, if the main focus was on an old grammar point, the teacher typically started the grammar instructional phase by reading aloud the exercises one by one without any specific instructions or revision of grammar rules. However, if the grammar point was complex, the teacher could engage the pupils in fairly long revision sequences before checking the homework. By revising the grammar rules the teacher seemed to want to foreground important issues before embarking upon the exercises.

The grammar instructional episode closed with a closing phase, the structure of which was affected by its place within the lesson. When the closing phase was in the middle of the lesson, the teacher typically used only a few words or even just one word to mark a switch from one episode to another. She might also add an evaluative comment on the execution of the previous task. In addition, the teacher could check whether the pupils had any further questions about the tasks they had done during the episode. The transition from one episode to another could be explicitly indicated by the teacher, especially if there were also a change from teacher-led to individual work. Alternatively, the teacher could indicate the transition by switching teaching materials. However, if the closing phase was at the end of the lesson, the teacher spent a fairly long time in giving the pupils instructions for the homework. The pupils could also initiate the closing phase or prolong it by resisting the assignment of homework.

The present study demonstrated that grammar instructional episodes were organised into phases which reflected the overall organisation of lessons. Furthermore, the different phases differed from each other in terms of their interactional structure and length. The study further showed how spoken discourse could be organised in smaller building blocks within the phases of episodes and how the IRF structure was made use of by the participants. In addition, the study investigated the teacher's scaffolding strategies in the expansion of the follow-up moves. This three-phase organisation of the episodes was thus a basis for illuminating the structure of grammar instructional episodes and the teacher's strategies in providing scaffolded assistance for the learners.

#### **8.4.2 The sequential organisation of classroom discourse**

The findings of the present study demonstrated the sequential organisation of spoken discourse in grammar instructional episodes as defined by Wells (1996, 1999) in his studies of whole-class interaction. The four-level organisation, that is, the organisation in terms of levels of moves, exchanges, sequences and episodes, revealed the dialogic nature of the discourse between the teacher and the learners. Furthermore, the most prominent interactional structure was the teacher's eliciting of responses from the pupils, which took the form of elicits, responses and follow-ups. Thus, the microgenetic analysis showed the ubiquity of *triadic dialogue* (Lemke 1990), also known as the IRF or IRE sequence established by Cazden (1988), Mehan (1979) and Sinclair Coulthard (1975).

The analysis demonstrated how the basic IRF structure could take a number of forms and be employed by the teacher for a wide variety of functions. This depended mainly on the teacher's choice of follow-up. When, instead of briefly evaluating the learner's response, the teacher insisted that the learner should further explain or expand his or her contribution, what started as a basic IRF exchange developed into a dialogic co-construction of the task. This finding does not support previous studies which suggest that the teacher's use of the IRF structure in a whole-class setting confines learner participation only to the response turn of the structure (e.g. Gutierrez 1994, Nunan 1987, Thornbury 1996). On the contrary, the analysis showed how both the teacher and the learners in the classroom were able to initiate sequences in order to provide or seek further information. Thus, the results of the present study lend support to those previous studies of teacher-student interaction in a teacher-fronted whole-class setting that have found the IRF structure to be able to provide learners with scaffolds during the teaching-learning process (e.g. Boyd and Maloof 2000, Gibbons 2003, Jarvis and Robinson 1997, Nassaji and Wells 2000, Verplaetse 2000, Wells 1996, 1999, 2002).

The findings of the present study, like those of the study by Ohta (1999), indicated that the teacher could use the IRF structure to create more opportunities for learner participation. However, in comparing teacher-fronted and learner-learner activities both the studies by Ohta (1995, 1999) claimed that in teacher-fronted contexts student participation was limited. She found that it

was in learner-learner contexts that the IRF structure was extended by learners. Accordingly, Ohta (1999) concluded that it was important for teachers to provide learners with opportunities for the reallocation of turns in teacher-fronted discourse settings as well.

The present study goes beyond the previous studies by demonstrating how the teacher uses a broad range of strategies in extending the IRF routine. In line with previous studies (e.g. Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975, see also Cullen 2002) the analysis showed two broader roles for the follow-up, that is, an evaluative role and a discursal role. The function of the evaluative follow-up was to provide evaluative feedback to individual learners about their performance. In the present study the evaluative follow-ups were divided into those involving only implicit evaluation and those with explicit evaluation. In contrast, the purpose of the discursal follow-up was to pick up learners' responses and to incorporate them into the teaching-learning process. In other words, exchanges were extended with further dependent exchanges.

In the present study the teacher's follow-up typically included only implicit evaluation indicating only acknowledgement or acceptance of a pupil's preceding answer. Furthermore, the teacher's follow-up could be completely absent from the IRF structure, especially when the teacher and the pupils were checking homework that did not cause any problems. In addition, in order to indicate her acceptance of the previous answer, the teacher repeated it. Repetition of the complete answer or a particular part of it was a strategy frequently used by the teacher to ensure that everyone had heard the previous answer and to foreground important elements of the task in hand. The teacher could also reformulate a pupil's answer by slightly elaborating it or by correcting small errors in it. She rarely provided the correct answer in her follow-up. In cases where the teacher's follow-up was explicitly evaluative, the evaluation seldom amounted to just negative assessment even where the answer provided was partly or completely incorrect. Instead, the teacher attempted to concentrate on encouraging a pupil to continue working on the target structure by providing at least a brief explanation of the grammar point in question. Furthermore, the teacher might indicate explicit evaluation by emphasising her acceptance in the form of repetition of the learner's response.

The teacher in this study extended the three-part IRF structure by making use of different strategies. She exploited her follow-up move to build on the pupil's contribution and to develop a dialogue with the class, thus initiating further dependent exchanges. Although implicit evaluation was typically included in the third part of the IRF sequence, the dominant function of the discursal follow-up was to engage the learners in the ongoing discourse. The teacher typically initiated further dependent exchanges after a pupil's incorrect or incomplete response. She could continue prompting the same pupil or she could invite the rest of the class to participate in the problem-solving process. In addition, in order to ensure a pupil's understanding of the task the teacher could request a further explanation of his or her correct answer. Furthermore, the teacher expanded her own follow-up by providing the pupils with further

grammar explanations or alternatives for the target structure. With her discursual follow-up she could also create bridges between the grammar points they were learning at that particular time and those they had gone through earlier.

However, it was not always the teacher who initiated further dependent exchanges in the classroom situation under study. The pupils also exploited the follow-up move by asking for further information about the matter in hand. These inquiries could even put the teacher's role as a primary knower into question. In some cases a pupil might provide his or her answer in the form of a suggestion, thus prompting the teacher to initiate further dependent exchanges. If a pupil answered directly that he or she did not know the answer, the teacher might take this as an indirect challenge and asked further questions about the task. Sometimes, but seldom, a pupil could also acknowledge or even accept the teacher's previous turn, thus extending the IRF structure. This could cause a temporary shift in roles, since accepting the previous responses is normally the teacher's task.

In terms of prospectiveness, the basic evaluative IRF structure was ordered according to the scale of *demand* (D) > *give* (G) > *acceptance* (A), in which the teacher demanded an answer that the learner gave and which, in turn, was acknowledged or accepted by the teacher. In cases where the teacher provided a learner with further information in her follow-up turn, the correspondent exchange type was D-G-G. Moreover, the analysis showed in detail how the three-part IRF routine was extended by employing various strategies. This finding lends support to those by Nassaji and Wells (2000) and Wells (1996, 1999, 2002). Accordingly, several variants of the basic exchange types D-G-A and D-G were present in the classroom discourse. After the initiation of the exchange, the teacher and the pupils frequently stepped up the prospectiveness of the current move so that in turn it required or expected a further turn that initiated a new exchange. In this way the basic IRF sequence was developed into a dialogic co-construction of the task.

### 8.4.3 The teacher's strategies in providing scaffolding

The present study suggests that scaffolding is a viable framework for investigating the teaching-learning process during grammar instructional episodes in a classroom setting. In the classroom situation under study the teacher employed various strategies in providing the learners with scaffolding mainly during dependent exchanges. The teacher's use of various strategies in this study support the findings of the study by Greenfield (1984), according to which scaffolding 1) creates support, 2) functions as a tool, 3) expands the range of the learner, 4) permits the learner to achieve a task he would not be able to achieve otherwise, and 5) is used selectively to help the learner where needed. Firstly, the teacher's various strategies during the teaching-learning process created support. She employed different strategies to recruit the learners into the task and supported active engagement in the problem-solving process. When breakdowns in learning occurred, the teacher used a broad range of

strategies to reduce the degree of freedom of the task, to mark critical features, to control the learners' frustration and demonstrate the ideal target structure. She employed various strategies in a way that assisted and supported the learners' concentration on the task goals. Secondly, scaffolding in the form of teacher strategies functioned as a symbolic tool. The teacher's strategies mediated the pupils' language learning and participation. Direction maintenance strategies were primarily used to serve as guidelines for understanding grammar points and for facilitating classroom discussion about the tasks, for example. Thirdly, the teacher's use of different strategies expanded the pupils' learning. For example, the teacher's strategies served to improve the learners' ability to identify and correct grammar errors. Fourthly, when the learners had difficulties with grammar exercises, the teacher's strategies enabled them to achieve a task that they could not carry out alone. Fifthly, the teacher selectively chose strategies to scaffold language learning activities. For example, when attempting to engage the learners in the teaching-learning process the teacher's direction maintenance strategies invited them to be active participants in the problem-solving process. When breakdowns occurred, she intervened to build understanding, for example, by reducing the degree of freedom or by marking critical features.

The present study extends the previous studies of scaffolding by illuminating both the structure of teacher-fronted grammar instructional episodes and by describing various strategies the language teacher employed to provide scaffolding during grammar learning. The micro-analysis of the teacher's strategies during the scaffolding process as revealed by the data of the present study does not support those previous studies that conclude that scaffolding is impossible, or at least very limited, in teacher-fronted whole-class lessons in schools (e.g. Bliss et al. 1996, Hobsbaum et al. 1996, Ohta 1995, Tharp and Gallimore 1988, 1991). On the contrary, in line with the previous study of the teacher's scaffolding at the different levels of the ZPD by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000), the present study suggests that scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher is indeed possible in teacher-fronted learning situations in a naturalistic whole-classroom setting. Thus, the analysis lends support to those previous studies that have found scaffolding beneficial in a classroom setting (e.g. Gibbons 2003, Jarvis and Robinson 1997, Verplaetse 2000).

The present study aimed to make a further contribution building on previous studies of scaffolding by specifying through detailed analysis the various strategies employed by an L2 teacher during the scaffolding process in grammar instructional episodes. In order to gain insight into how the teacher's strategies scaffolded pupils' solution paths, the features of scaffolding as defined by Wood et al. (1976) were related to the strategies used by the teacher in the present case. These features were found to be present in the teacher's use of various strategies in scaffolding language learning and participation. The definitions of scaffolding turned out to be general enough to apply to a context different from the original one-to-one tutorial situation. When coding the strategies in the data the researcher and the other teacher agreed that the

original scaffolding features covered the teacher's strategies in the present case and therefore no additional features could be distinguished. However, some of the original categories had to be broadened. The present study is one of the few to look at scaffolding beyond one-to-one tutoring situations and to apply the metaphor of scaffolding to the teacher-fronted whole-class context. It is significant that the features that Wood et al. (1976) first analysed in a tutorial setting seemed to have application also in a traditional, large group, teacher-directed classroom setting.

The definitions applied in the present study were sensitive to the L2 context, although they remained consistent with those of Wood et al. (1976). In examining the strategies employed by the teacher in providing the learners with scaffolding in this case it was found that some revisions and expansions had to be made to the categories of the original model. Firstly, the category of recruitment by Wood et al. (1976) did not describe the teacher's strategies in recruiting the learners in the task in the present study accurately enough. According to Wood et al. (1976), the teacher's task was to engage a novice's interest in the task. However, in the present study recruitment was found to involve both drawing the learners' attention to and engaging their interest in the task. Because of the nature of teacher-led full-class interaction, the teacher first had to draw the learners' attention to the task. At the beginning of episodes, in particular, the learners tended to concentrate on their discussions with other pupils and not on the teacher's instructions. Thus, before starting the next task the teacher had to recruit the learners' attention to the instructions for the task. After making sure that the learners were paying attention to the next activity the teacher attempted to engage their interest in completing the task in hand.

A further example of how an original definition was modified for the context of an L2 classroom was the analysis of direction maintenance strategies. According to Wood et al. (1976), the teacher's task was to keep learners motivated and in pursuit of the task goals. However, the original category was revised for the purposes of the present study. On the basis of the present data and some previous studies of scaffolded learning (see Edwards and Mercer 1987, McCormick and Donato 2000) what was originally classified as direction maintenance was further distinguished under the subcategories of encouragement, comprehension and clarification. Each of these subcategories was found to relate to direction maintenance as originally defined, that is, assisting pupils to keep working towards the overall task goal. The subcategory of encouragement consisted of the strategies involving encouragement in maintaining the learners' orientation towards the task. The teacher encouraged the learners to participate in the co-construction of the target structure whenever they seemed to lose motivation. In order to keep the pupils oriented towards the overall task goal the teacher also used strategies with which she attempted to facilitate and maintain their comprehension of the grammar points. The third subcategory, clarification, consisted of those strategies with which the teacher scaffolded the pupils' language production by clarifying the



structures being presented. The teacher both asked the pupils to clarify the structures they had provided and clarified her own questions and remarks during the scaffolding process.

The third revision concerned the category of demonstration by Wood et al. (1976). This category involved demonstrating an idealised version of the act to be performed. In the present study the category was expanded to involve modelling not only target structures, that is, grammar structures, but also, for example, pronunciation and vocabulary. Although the main focus of the grammar instructional episodes was on grammar points, the teacher also paid attention to other areas of language learning in order to promote the learners' language use.

Overall, the original scaffolding features as described by Wood et al. (1976) were found useful in illuminating the teacher's strategies in an L2 classroom. However, for the purposes of the present study of teacher-fronted whole-class interaction some additions and revisions were made to the original definitions. The categories of the original model of scaffolding were thus used as a basis for these modifications, being flexible enough to be sensitive to the classroom context. The definitions of the features of scaffolding employed in the present study are shown in Table 8:

TABLE 8 Features of scaffolding (adapted from Wood et al. 1976)

	FEATURE	DEFINITION
1	recruitment	recruiting the learner's attention to and interest in the task
2	reduction in degrees of freedom	simplifying the task
3	direction maintenance	helping to keep the learner motivated and in pursuit of the goal with strategies involving encouragement, maintenance of comprehension and clarification of structures
4	marking critical features	highlighting certain relevant features and pointing out discrepancies between what has been produced and the ideal solution
5	frustration control	reducing stress and frustration during the problem-solving process
6	demonstration	modelling an idealised form of the act to be performed by completing the act or by explicating the learner's partial solution

The above-described features of scaffolding correspond with those identified by Wood et al. (1976) in general. As noted above, for the purposes of the present study, additions and revisions were made to the definition of the first, third and sixth of the features originally distinguished.

#### 8.4.4 Effective scaffolded assistance

The present microgenetic analysis demonstrated how the teacher varied both the nature and extent of her scaffolded assistance depending on the learners' capabilities. It is not possible on the basis of the present study to report the possible longitudinal effects of the teacher's scaffolding. However, some features of scaffolding turned out to be effective in the classroom situation

under study. In the present study an effective scaffolding process was defined as one where the pupils came up with the correct target structure as a result of the help provided by the teacher. As noted in Section 8.3, a similar phenomenon was studied within a different framework by Lyster and Ranta (1997). They studied corrective feedback and learner uptake and found, for example, that recast even though it was the most popular feedback technique, was the least likely to lead to uptake by learners. In their study elicitation was found to be the most successful technique for eliciting uptake.

In the present case the teacher gradually reduced the scaffolding provided as the learners became increasingly able to work on the target structures. She both changed her explicit assistance to implicit and reduced the total amount of scaffolding as soon as the learners started to take more control over the task. In line with previous studies (e.g. Aljaafreh 1992, Aljaafreh and Lantolf 1994, Ellis and Rogoff 1982, Greenfield 1984, Ohta 1995) the results suggest that effective scaffolded assistance is gradual and contingent. Research (e.g. Aljaafreh 1992) has also shown that effective help is dialogic. The findings of the present study confirm this. This became evident in the way the target structures were co-constructed through dialogic negotiation between the teacher and the learners. The scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher was also typically shared by all the participants in the interaction, which is in accordance with the findings of the study by Hakamäki and Lonka (2000). Thus, all the pupils in the classroom can benefit from scaffolded assistance, although, as Wells (1993) points out, shortage of time sometimes makes it difficult for the teacher to provide the sort and amount of assistance that could help every individual pupil to accomplish the tasks.

Apart from the sequences where the pupils were able to achieve the target structures with the help provided by the teacher, there were also sequences where scaffolding was not effective. That is, the pupils did not come up with an appropriate solution to the task. In those sequences the teacher provided the learners with the correct target structure in order to be able to move on to the next task. In these sequences the teacher first attempted to help the learners to complete the task, but the learners were not able to pick up the teacher's assistance. Instead of providing more scaffolded assistance or asking the learners different questions, the teacher provided the solution and started to scaffold the next task. It seems that in these cases the teacher realised that she did not have enough time to go through the task in smaller sections. The teacher might also have thought that the same grammar point would be the focus of the next grammar task and that through doing it that the learners would come to understand it.

#### **8.4.5 Describing scaffolded learning situations in the classroom**

In this section some aspects of the scaffolding process in an L2 teacher-fronted whole-class setting will be discussed. In the light of the microanalysis of the particular setting of the present study the discussion will focus especially on the

structure of the grammar instructional episodes, the collaborative nature of the scaffolding process and the teacher's role in whole-class interaction.

The study demonstrated how structuring of the grammar instructional episodes involves interaction between the teacher and pupils. As a result, the three phases described in the previous studies of the general organisation of classroom lessons (e.g. Cazden 1988, Mehan 1979, Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) can be identified also in smaller sections of a lesson, that is, grammar instructional episodes. Thus, it appears that grammar instructional episodes are also organised by the classroom discourse between participants in a situation (see e.g. Pitkänen-Huhta 2003 on literacy events).

Furthermore, in taking a closer look at the sequential organisation of the spoken discourse between the teacher and the pupils during the grammar instructional episodes the analysis showed how the IRF sequence may be extended by both the teacher and the pupils. The IRF structure is the dominant exchange routine in classroom contexts, as earlier research (e.g. Cazden 1988) has suggested. In accordance with this finding, the interaction between the teacher and the pupils in this case also took this IRF form in teacher-fronted whole-class situations. However, the analysis in this study indicated that the basic IRF structure is not the most prevalent. Instead, it seems that either the teacher or the pupils frequently exploit the basic structure by extending it with further dependent exchanges. The interaction between the teacher and pupils may thus consist of several IRF or IR exchanges, and consequently teacher-learner discourse during the scaffolding process may involve long chains of exchanges. The follow-up move frequently contains several constituents, for example, the teacher's evaluation, further question, demand for a further explanation, or one or more comments. The findings also suggest that it is not only the teacher but also the pupils who frequently extend the basic IRF structure by asking further questions or by requesting explanations from the teacher.

The present study showed that long chains of IRF exchange structures often occur in the language classroom. It may be that teachers adopt an IRF mode of instruction because it is perceived, perhaps unconsciously, to be a powerful pedagogical device in the teaching-learning process. The present analysis also showed how the construction of long IRF chains always involves both the teacher and learners as active participants in the scaffolding process. In other words, the scaffolding process is a joint activity, in which negotiation between the teacher and learners takes place through dialogue.

In addition, by paying rigorous attention to the interaction during teacher-led whole-class grammar instructional episodes, the present study has made a contribution to research on the scaffolding process in describing the strategies used by the teacher to assist learners to work at levels beyond their current capabilities when working alone. In this context the present study also exemplifies and highlights the importance of the notion of responsiveness proposed by Jarvis and Robinson (1997). In providing scaffolded assistance the teacher is responsive in the sense that through her minute-by-minute choice of

strategies she takes into account what the pupils have said and uses the answers further by building on them. The teacher also shows responsiveness to the learners' levels of competence by identifying potential problems and raising them as topics for discussion. In this case the teacher, for example, pointed out important elements in the tasks before going through them. In other words, the teacher's strategies are never used in isolation from the learners' contributions. Rather, the teacher can scaffold the learning process only in collaboration with the learners.

In focusing on teacher-led whole-class interaction the present study demonstrated the teacher's role in the scaffolding process in the classroom. In contrast to the case of one-to-one interaction, during a full-class interaction the teacher has the whole class to consider when assisting learners in language learning. In line with previous studies of classroom interaction (e.g. Edwards and Mercer 1987, Gibbons 2003, Mercer 1995, Verplaetse 2000), the findings of the present study suggest that in the classroom the teacher can take the needs of different pupils into account, although the teacher's role may be rather dominant in many activities. In recruiting the learners to the task, for example, the teacher in the present study attempted to make sure that all pupils were listening to her instructions before she started to go through the task. She also made use of the shared nature of scaffolding when carrying out the tasks. For example, she asked the learners to repeat their correct answers too so that all the pupils in the class could learn from them. In addition, if the learner whom she had asked first could not complete the target structure she selected another speaker, thus sharing the task with several participants. It seemed that partly because of pressure of time the teacher did not continue prompting the same learner but invited several learners to solve the same grammar problem. However, in this way the whole class seemed to benefit from the teacher's scaffolding, since they were able to hear the appropriate target structure and compare it with the sentences they had written down in their notebooks. The teacher was also persistent in providing her scaffolded assistance, which was indicated by her continuing to prompt the same learner even though he or she had said *emmä tiitä* (I don't know). In fact, such perseverance is typical of scaffolding (e.g. Aljaafreh 1992). Furthermore, because of the shared nature of the scaffolding process in teacher-led whole-class interaction, the teacher could share the responsibility for completing the task with several learners. The findings of the present study thus support the study by Wells (1999), which found the teacher to be the chief initiator at the macro level while at the micro level teaching is characterised in terms of response. In other words, Wells suggested that the teacher is responsible for such activities as selecting topics for curricular units and activities through which they are to be addressed. However, having created the setting the teacher's task is to assist the learners in whatever ways seem most appropriate to enable them to achieve task goals that have been collaboratively negotiated. Furthermore, in the present study the teacher's role as the authoritative source of knowledge was sometimes challenged by the learners. This seems to be an indication of the changing

nature of teacher-led whole-class interaction. In other words, the teacher may allow the learners to take the initiative in order to encourage them to negotiate the task goals and to take more responsibility for the task.

## 8.5 Pedagogical implications

There are certain pedagogical implications for the language classroom in general that can be drawn from the present study. This study has provided an overall picture of the organisation of grammar instructional episodes in an L2 classroom. The implications concern the organisation of grammar instructional episodes, the way this affects the teaching-learning process and the impact of task design on classroom learning.

From a theoretical point of view, the present study can be seen to have made a contribution to research on scaffolding and on spoken interaction in general in the L2 classroom. The study has gone beyond previous studies by illuminating both the structure of grammar instructional episodes and the scaffolding strategies employed by the teacher in these episodes. The analysis has combined methods used in research on classroom discourse and scaffolding drawn from sociocultural theory to gain a more comprehensive view of teacher-learner co-operation in the L2 classroom. Thus, the study has provided a framework within which classroom interaction can be examined in teacher-fronted whole-class contexts.

From a practical point of view, the results point to certain recommendations as to what is required in the language classroom. Formal teacher-led whole-class settings, which have been addressed in the present study, are still important and prevalent contexts for L2 learning. Although classroom discourse is never predetermined and what goes on in different classrooms may be differently organised, this study has illuminated how teacher-fronted whole-class grammar instructional episodes are organised in phases characterised by different interactional structures. The study has further demonstrated how spoken discourse within these phases is sequentially organised in exchanges and sequences. Both the teacher and learners have various structures that they can make use of during the teaching-learning process. Thus, in order to facilitate both teaching and learning more attention should be paid to the organisation of episodes, and to that of language lessons in general. In other words, if, instead of simply evaluating pupils' contributions, the teacher extends the basic IRF structures by initiating new dependent exchanges and by inviting pupils' active participation in the task, the teaching-learning process may develop into a genuine dialogic co-construction of meaning. Furthermore, it is equally important that pupils should be aware of their opportunities to extend the three-part exchange structure. Naturally, this means that discursive practices in the classroom should not be too rigid.

Instead, with more varied structures, which pupils are also allowed to initiate and extend, the dialogic scaffolding process is possible.

Accordingly, more attention should be paid to raising teachers' awareness of the important position of negotiation in the teaching-learning process. In other words, in the process of effective scaffolding both the teacher and learners should be active participants. As this study has shown, in order to help learners to achieve the target structures the teacher can use various strategies in providing scaffolded assistance. However, to be successful these strategies have to be employed and made use of through negotiation. The scaffolding process is jointly constructed. It is through negotiation that the teacher is able to find out the level of a learner's ZPD in relation to the problem in question, and it is this which determines the appropriate kind of scaffolding and its extent. In addition, through negotiation learners are also able to make use of the teacher's and other pupils' knowledge.

Since classrooms are institutional contexts there are certain institutional ways of communicating into which pupils are socialised. In the present study, for example, the teacher's role was evidently more dominant in organising the grammar instructional episodes and constructing grammar tasks, although the pupils often participated actively in the co-construction of the target structures. Through these institutional ways of communicating pupils are socialised into particular ways of discussing and carrying out of grammar tasks, such as elicit-response-follow-up structures. As previous research has emphasised, these institutional ways of talking differ from real-life communication (see e.g. Ellis 2001, Hinkel and Fotos 2002 for studies of grammar teaching). Consequently, as was mentioned above, teachers should encourage pupils to move away from the basic IRF structure by asking additional questions and by commenting on the previous turns of speech, thus creating more genuine dialogues.

Dialogue being the basis of scaffolding the nature of effective scaffolded assistance, as this study has shown, varies depending on a variety of other factors as well. One of these factors is the nature of the task. As the analysis implies, tasks used in grammar instructional episodes seem to play a role both in regulating talk and activities and in providing clues for talk and activities (see also Pitkänen-Huhta 2003). However, more importantly, the results lend support to suggestions voiced recently by other researchers (e.g. Alanen 2004, Ohta 2000b) according to which the tasks themselves may not be of as much importance as what pupils do or what teachers allow them to do with them. In other words, task design alone cannot determine the nature of the activity pupils are engaged in. It is rather the interaction between learner and task that matters (e.g. Appel and Lantolf 1994, Lantolf 2000b). In fact, as earlier research (e.g. Alanen ja Dufva 2001, Coughlan and Duff 1994, Roebuck 2000) has demonstrated, learners may be engaged in different activities, although the task design is the same for all of them. Teachers should therefore become more sensitive to the ways in which pupils work on tasks: each learner is different and may participate in a different way (Wells 1998, 1999). This in fact presents an important challenge to language teachers.

In other words, as the results imply, the task design, and especially the ways in which the task is introduced to learners and carried out by them have an impact on classroom learning. In the classroom context it is important that all participants, as far as possible, contribute to and benefit from the co-construction of a grammar point that is the purpose of the discourse. Teachers should therefore pay more attention to encouraging learners to participate in the teaching-learning process, thus helping pupils to raise their confidence in speaking (see also Gibbons 2003). Furthermore, teachers should increase opportunities for speaking by involving learners in carrying out a wide variety of different tasks. Learner engagement is clearly of primary importance.

However, learner participation does not necessarily improve grammatical accuracy if the requirements of tasks remain at the same level. The findings of this study show that learners may work successfully on tasks of the same level of difficulty rather than moving on from this success at a simpler level to trying out a more complex task. They may get frustrated if they do not understand more difficult tasks at once. Therefore, teachers should maintain direction by making it worthwhile for learners to risk the next step. As this study has shown, it is possible for the teacher to emphasise that errors are allowed, thus helping learners to continue working on the task in hand. From a sociocultural perspective, learners in fact attempt to gain self-regulation through linguistic means when they make errors. Thus, errors are an important part in constructing target structures.

To summarise, the findings of this study have demonstrated how grammar instructional episodes consist of various structures that the teacher and learners can make use of in order to facilitate learning in a teacher-fronted whole-class context. Increasing opportunities for speaking, that is, encouraging pupils to participate in carrying out tasks, is especially important. Teachers should perhaps have more courage to engage learners in the teaching-learning process in a whole-class context too.

## 8.6 Limitations

The present study set out to describe scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher in the L2 classroom by addressing four questions concerning instructional episodes and the scaffolding process. It is important to be aware of the limitations of the approach chosen in the study.

The present study has made an attempt to examine the grammar instructional episodes of the eleven lessons in as much depth as possible. The research questions were broad, involving the organisation of the episodes, teacher-learner interaction and scaffolded assistance provided by the teacher. Consequently, some aspects were not dealt with as exhaustively as possible, thus calling for further studies. The relationship between the overall

organisation of episodes and the scaffolded assistance provided by a teacher should be investigated in greater detail in future studies.

The present study could be characterised as ethnographic in its approach, and the analysis focused on a single setting. The number of videotapes and transcribed lessons was relatively small, and all the episodes analysed were taken from grammar lessons. A larger number gathered over a longer period of time might have shown greater variation in the scaffolding strategies employed. In addition, data could have been collected representing various different levels of schooling. However, what would have been gained in breadth, might have been lost in the depth of analysis. The present study is a case study of one L2 teacher, and its aim was to study the scaffolded assistance provided by this particular teacher in teacher-fronted whole-class interactions in a secondary school. Thus, the findings cannot be generalised to all L2 interactions. They should therefore be seen as tentative rather than as a basis for generating hypotheses for future studies.

Although the present study aimed at an emic interpretation of the data, some concepts, for example, official and unofficial discourse, were defined primarily from the teacher's point of view. That is, official discourse was defined as that which concerned the task in hand and was started by the teacher. In contrast, unofficial discourse involved matters not linked with the dominant line of talk and was typically initiated by the pupils. However, when examining the scaffolding process both the teacher's and the learners' parts in the negotiations were taken into account.

One might ask whether the data collected represented L2 interaction in its naturalistic classroom setting. Although an attempt was made to video- and audio-record as unobtrusively as possible, the presence of the researchers in the classroom was likely to affect the teacher's and the learners' behaviour. For example, after the first lesson the teacher informed the researchers that she had not acted in her normal way during the lesson. Furthermore, during the first lesson some pupils seemed reluctant to participate in the lesson, although according to the teacher they were normally quite active. They may have felt uncomfortable in the presence of the researchers and the videocamera. The effect of the video- and tape-recorders being visible cannot be accurately assessed, but the impression was that the videocamera and the tape-recorders were quickly forgotten, and thus towards the end no more discontent was observed. Overall, interactions between the teacher and the pupils seemed relaxed. In addition, some pupils talked in a rather low voice and they were not always heard on the tape. However, in general the quality of the tapes was adequate.

Since the data consisted of transcripts made from recordings, it is important to keep in mind that transcription is never more than a partial representation of speech, because there is no means of transcribing all the special elements of speech and other communicative devices, such as gestures and facial expressions. Furthermore, the researcher always uses his or her intuition when the actions of the interlocutors are interpreted. However, in



order to increase reliability the present transcripts were checked by two people. Some adaptations were later made on the basis of the discussions of the differences in coding. Overall, however, the coding was fairly similar and no significant changes in the original transcripts had to be made.

The present analysis is also affected by the inevitable subjectivity in defining the primary functions of the teacher's scaffolding strategies. The functions used in the present analysis were based on those by Wells (1996, 1999). Since the present study focused on L2 interactions and not, like the studies by Wells, on L1 lessons the functions were attributed here to a different setting from that of the earlier study. For example, teacher-learner interactions were not so long and clear as they were in the earlier study, and the learners' level of competence in the foreign language also limited interactions. Furthermore, the identification of the strategies and the primary functions involved in each strategy was affected by the context in which they were used. Accordingly, in the data there were several episodes where they could have been interpreted in more than one way. To illuminate the dialogues analysed the primary functions have been indicated in the examples. Consider Example 119:

EXAMPLE 119 Episode 1. Lesson 1. New grammar point: tag questions.

SEQUENCE 5			
(18 lines omitted from the beginning of the sequence)			
119	T	mitäs keksisitte (..)	req.info
120	T	mikä verbi on can verbi (..)	req.info clue
121	LF1	mitä mikä verbi se on	req.clar
122	T	millases käytös se on	clar
123	T	sil on hienempi nimiki	reph
124	T	LM5	nom
(21 lines omitted from the end of the sequence)			

In Example 119, the teacher asks the learners about the grammatical term for the verb *can*. First she makes an attempt to elicit an appropriate answer from the learners with a direct question: *mikä verbi on can verbi* (what kind of verb is the verb *can*) (line 120). In the present analysis her next question *millases käytös se on* (how do you use it) (line 122) is interpreted to function as a clarification of the initial question, though it could also be interpreted to be a clue or a rephrasing of the initial question. However, the teacher seems to respond to LF1's question *mitä mikä verbi se on* (what what kind of verb is it) (line 121), which is coded as a request for a clarification. In other words, she makes an attempt to help LF1 to work on the task by clarifying her question, thus making it simpler for LF1 to answer. In addition, due to the nature of the lessons, which took place in naturalistic classroom settings, the primary functions of the scaffolding strategies cannot be understood without knowing the classroom setting, as in Example 120:

EXAMPLE 120 Episode 15. Lesson 11. Old grammar point: structure *have to*.

SEQUENCE 4			
(3 lines omitted from the beginning of the sequence)			
62	LF2	missä tuol on neljä	
63	LF5	no sen minkä minä kirjoitin	
64	T	tossa sinisen kaks ruutua vieressä	
65	LF2	joo joo (.) löyty	
66	LM5	(xx)	
67	T	mitä sinun <b>piti</b> tehdä (.)	eval.neg
68	T	nyt on taas unohtunu joku (.) asia ↑ kysymyksestä ↑ (.)	eval.neg clue
69	T	mitäpä puuttuu ↑ (.)	rehp
70	T	mitä sinun <b>piti</b> tehdä [(.)]	rep clue
(6 lines omitted from the beginning of the sequence)			

In Example 120, the teacher and the learners go through exercises that have been written on the board. At the beginning of the example, the participants look for the next exercise. After they have located it the teacher reads it aloud in Finnish (line 67). In the present analysis this is interpreted to function as a negative evaluation, because with this turn of speech the teacher also emphasises that the verb on the board is incorrect. In addition, the teacher's next turn is an example of a strategy that has several functions. In other words, with her words *nyt on taas unohtunu joku (.) asia kysymyksestä* (now something has been forgotten from the question again) (line 68) the teacher continues her negative evaluation, explains and at the same time gives a clue that the learners have forgotten a part of the question. Furthermore, with the word *taas* (again) (line 68) she gives a clue that this grammar point has caused problems before. After rephrasing her question (line 69) the teacher repeats the sentence in Finnish (line 70). However, in the analysis this is interpreted to function also as a clue, because with this turn the teacher seems to want to direct the learners' attention to the verb by emphasising it.

Like defining the primary functions, coding the teacher's strategies for specific scaffolding features described by Wood et al. (1976) is also affected by inevitable subjectivity. The coding is always dependent on the context, and therefore in the present analysis there were a number sequences where they could have been interpreted in more than one way, as illustrated by Example 121:

EXAMPLE 121 Episode 5. Lesson 3. New grammar point: adverbs.

SEQUENCE 1			
1	T	<sitte> (.) se joka on valmis (.) ni (.) yhteinen kysymys jotta pääsette eteenpäin >sit meette vähä eri tahtii< (.)	ms
2	T	kuinka näist sanoist voitais nyt tehdä adverbi (.)	req.info
3	T	LM8	nom
4	LM8	emmä tiä	(info)
5	T	tiedäthän (.) ku viittasit	pro
6	LM8	äl yy lisää=	info
7	T	=äl yy lisää perää (.)	acc

In Example 121, the teacher introduces the learners to the formation of adverbs. In the present study this sequence is coded as an example of frustration control. After the metastatement the teacher asks the pupils about the formation of adverbs and nominates LM8 who is to answer next (lines 2-3). LM8 answers directly that he does not know the correct answer (line 4). In this study the teacher's next turn (line 5) has been interpreted to be a strategy to control the learner's frustration. In other words, it is possible that the learner's answer *emmä tiitä* (I don't know) indicates frustration, which the teacher tries to control by saying *tiedäthän (.) ku viittasit* (you do know because you raised your hand) (line 5). The teacher seems to prompt LM8 to continue working on the task in hand. However, this could also have been interpreted as an example of direction maintenance, if the learner's statement (line 4) had not been considered to indicate frustration.

The total number of strategies identified in the study proved to be considerable when all the sequences between the teacher and the learners in the 15 grammar episodes were coded. In other words, all the data were analysed and representative examples were used in reporting. As noted above, coding the examples was far from simple. Accordingly, as described in the analysis, the classification of Wood et al. (1976) was modified for the purposes of the present study, because the original classification was too imprecise. By modifying the original classification the description and interpretation of the data were made more accurate.

In addition to the above-mentioned considerations, in order to increase the reliability and validity of the analysis the findings of the study were also discussed with another language teacher. In qualitative research, as Merriam (1988:167) points out, "data do not speak for themselves; there is always an interpreter, or a translator". In view of this subjectivity, the qualitative data in this study were dealt with in the way recommended by previous researchers (e.g. Merriam 1988, Silverman 2001, Syrjälä et al. 1994), that is, peer examination. This involves "asking colleagues to comment on the findings as they emerge" from the data (Merriam 1988:169). In this study throughout the process of analysis, the researcher engaged a colleague in informal discussions on the process of scaffolding in general and the adaptability of the categories employed in the present analysis. Furthermore, to verify the reliability of the coding employed in the analysis another language teacher coded four randomly selected episodes out of the possible 15 episodes. Later some adaptations were made on the basis of discussions of the differences in the codings. However, one might ask whether all the 15 episodes should have been coded also by the other teacher.

In ethnographic studies interviews are common practice. For the purposes of the present study, however, only the recordings of the L2 lessons and their transcripts were used. If the participants had been systematically interviewed after each lesson, it would have been possible to gather data on their own interpretations of the scaffolded strategies used. Such data would undoubtedly have been important in providing information on the subjects' own

explanations of the learning situations. However, because of the fast tempo of the lessons the teacher, for example, was not necessarily aware of her own choices of scaffolded strategies. Rather, the choices, which were made in the course of a dynamic interaction, depended on the particular moment, and the teacher could not possibly have been able to justify her choices afterwards. Interviews might, nevertheless, be an interesting object of investigation for future research.

## 8.7 Suggestions for future research

While the present study attempted to shed more light on the organisation of grammar instructional episodes and scaffolded assistance in teacher-fronted L2 lessons in a naturalistic whole-classroom setting, it still leaves many questions unanswered. The current study was a case study of scaffolded assistance provided by one L2 teacher in one secondary school, and its findings cannot be generalised to all L2 interactions. Therefore, in future research it would be interesting to study the scaffolding strategies employed by other teachers and in other schools in order to find out what kinds of scaffolding strategy are used by L2 teachers in general.

The present study focused on the scaffolding process and the strategies used by the teacher in L2 interactions. It left open questions concerning the effects of scaffolded assistance on L2 learning in teacher-fronted whole-class interactions. Thus, in future a longitudinal study of scaffolding and its benefits for L2 acquisition, that is, a study of the outcomes of effective scaffolding, would be valuable for L2 teachers and learners.

Further research is also needed to examine the differences between the types of scaffolding provided by teachers at different levels of education. In other words, it would be interesting to study to what extent scaffolding strategies differ when teachers assist learners of different ability groups or different ages, for example. In addition, it would be interesting to know what learners' attitudes towards scaffolding are. That is, whether L2 learners consider scaffolded assistance provided by a teacher useful for their learning or whether they regard it as intrusive and disturbing.

Furthermore, as was described in Chapter 6, in the case of the present study, the teacher and learners used both English and Finnish in working on the target structures. However, the role of L1 in the scaffolding process was not examined in the study. In the future it would be interesting to gather more information about what is done using L1 on the one hand and L2 on the other in L2 classrooms.

Another issue that requires further study concerns teacher training in Finland. It would be valuable to examine how teacher training could take into account the importance of scaffolded assistance. For example, it would be

interesting to work out a teacher-training program that focuses especially on responsive teaching in teacher-fronted whole-classroom settings.

The present study provided information on the scaffolding strategies used by an L2 teacher in teacher-fronted lessons in a naturalistic whole-classroom setting. It is hoped that despite its limitations the study has made a contribution in this area of research. It is also hoped that the present study has raised some new questions on the issue of scaffolding in L2 lessons.

## YHTEENVETO

### Vieraan kielen opettajan antama oikea-aikainen tuki luokkahuoneessa

#### Tausta ja tavoitteet

Tutkimus käsittelee vieraan kielen opettajan ja oppilaiden välistä vuorovaikutusta opettajajohtoisessa luokkahuoneympäristössä. Tutkimuksen pääpaino on vieraan kielen opettajan antamassa oikea-aikaisessa tuessa luokkahuoneopetuksen aikana. Oikea-aikaisella tuella (engl. scaffolding) tutkimuksessa tarkoitetaan opettajan käyttämiä erilaisia strategioita hänen antaessaan oppilaille ohjaavaa opetusta kieliopin opetustuokioiden (grammar instructional episode) aikana. Opettajan ja oppilaiden välistä vuorovaikutusta ja opettajan puhetta vieraan kielen luokkahuoneessa on tutkittu runsaasti esim. opettajan antamaa korjaavaa palautetta analysoimalla. Tutkimusta on tehty mm. opettajan reaktioista oppilaan virheisiin ja erityyppisen palautteen vaikutuksesta vieraan kielen oppimiseen sekä vertailtu palautetta saaneiden oppilaiden ja ilman palautetta opiskelleiden oppilaiden oppimistuloksia keskenään. Saadakseentistä kokonaisvaltaisemman kuvan toisen/vieraan kielen opettamisesta ja oppimisesta eräät tutkijat ovat alkaneet tarkastella kysymystä uudenlaisista teoreettisista lähtökohdista katsoen. Nämä tutkijat katsovat, että vuorovaikutusta kohdekielellä ei voi pitää ainoastaan syötteen (input) lähteenä itsenäiselle oppimiselle, vaan sillä on paljon keskeisempi rooli opetus/oppimisprosessissa. Itse asiassa joidenkin tutkijoiden mielestä kielellinen ja sosiaalinen kanssakäyminen muodostaa oppimisprosessin, joka on siis pohjimmiltaan luonteeltaan sosiaalinen pikemmin kuin yksilöllinen. Tämä ei ole uusi näkemys kielentutkimuksessa, mutta se on saanut lisäsysäyksen L. S. Vygotskyn (1896-1934) tutkimuksista.

Vygotskylainen viitekehys ei ole yhtenäinen oppirakennelma vaan lähestymistapa, joka pitää sisällään monenlaisia tutkimussuuntauksia, joille on yhteistä sosiokulttuuristen tekijöiden huomioonottaminen yksilön kehityksessä ja sitä kautta myös toisen/vieraan kielen opetus/oppimisprosessissa. Nämä tutkimussuuntauokset lisäksi käyttävät eri nimikkeitä kuvatessaan omaa tutkimustaan. Vygotskylaista viitekehystä käyttävien keskuudessa nimitys sosiokulttuurinen lähestymistapa on yleisesti käytössä.

Keskeisintä Vygotskyn lähestymistavassa on ehkä hänen näkemyksensä siitä, kuinka yksilöiden välisen tason ilmiöt siirtyvät yksikön sisäisen tason ilmiöiksi, minkä seurauksena yksilö vähitellen oppii itse säätelemään omaa toimintaansa. Kielellä on tässä prosessissa keskeinen asema. Se toimii oppimisprosessissa välittäjänä. Tärkeää on kuitenkin muistaa, ettei Vygotsky kieltänyt biologisten tekijöiden vaikutusta yksilön kehityksessä. Hänen mukaansa yksilö ensin tiedostaa itsensä suhteessa toisiin ja ymmärtää itsensä yksilönä vasta sosiaalisen vuorovaikutuksen kautta.

Suhde yksilöiden välisen tason ja yksilön sisäisen tason ilmiöiden välillä tulee selvimmän ehkä esille Vygotskyn (1978) kehittämässä oppimisen lähikehityksen vyöhykkeessä (the Zone of Proximal Development, ZPD), joka on oppi-

misen todellisen kehitystason ja potentiaalisen kehitystason välinen etäisyys. Vygotskyn mukaan itsenäinen ongelmanratkaisu määrittää todellisen kehitystason ja aikuisen johdolla tai osaavampien tovereiden kanssa yhteistyössä tapahtuva ongelmanratkaisu vuorostaan määrittää potentiaalisen kehitystason. Vygotskyn ajatusten mukaan opetus/oppimisprosessissa on tärkeää luoda lähikehityksen vyöhyke, jossa oppijan sisäiset kehitysprosessit pääsevät toimimaan oppijan ja sosiaalisen vuorovaikutuksen kautta. Toisin sanoen opetus/oppimisprosessi mahdollistaa oppijan kehitysprosessien toimimisen. Vygotskyn ajatus oppimisen lähikehityksen vyöhykkeestä nähdään usein oikea-aikaisen tukemisen (scaffolding) lähisukulaisena. Vygotskyn kiinnostus lähikehityksen vyöhykkeellä tapahtuvaan opetukseen ja oppimiseen sai hänet myös kritisoimaan opetusta, joka on suunnattu oppijan senhetkisen kehitystason mukaan. Vygotskyn mukaan opetuksen tulisi aina olla suunnattu tasolle, jota oppija ei vielä itsenäisesti hallitse.

Opetus/oppimisprosessin näkeminen yhteistyöprosessina, jossa keskeisessä asemassa ovat jatkuvat neuvottelut prosessiin osallistujien kesken, avaa uusia näkökulmia opettajan ja oppilaiden välisen vuorovaikutuksen tutkimiseen luokkahuoneessa. Sosiokulttuurisen näkemyksen mukaan toisen/vieraan kielen oppiminen on konkreettisten ja psykologisten välineiden kautta välittyneet prosessi (mediated process). Luokkahuoneessa tapahtuvassa oppimisprosessissa voivat välittäjinä toimia kielen lisäksi esim. oppikirjat ja tietokone. Prosessissa oppijat voivat sisäistää ja haltuunottaa (appropriation) vieraan kielen olemalla sosiaalisessa kanssakäymisessä opettajan ja toisten oppijoiden kanssa. Toisen/vieraan kielen luokkahuone on tärkeä ympäristö kielen oppimiselle, sillä siellä oppija voi saada opettajan antamaa oikea-aikaista ohjausta ja olla sosiaalisessa kanssakäymisessä sekä opettajan että toisten oppijoiden kanssa. Näkemyksen mukaan kanssakäyminen, joka tapahtuu lähikehityksen vyöhykkeellä ja oikea-aikaisesti tukemalla, on kielenoppimisen kannalta erityisen tärkeää. Vygotskyn mukaan se, minkä oppija osaa tehdä toisen avustuksella tänään, hänen on mahdollista tehdä itsenäisesti tulevaisuudessa.

Aikaisemmat tutkimukset äidinkielen ja toisen/vieraankielen opetuksesta ja oppimisesta ovat lisänneet tietoa opettamisesta ja oppimisesta sosiaalisena prosessina, mutta ilmiö kuitenkin kaipaava vielä lisätutkimusta. Vaikka opettajan antamaa oikea-aikaista tukea on tutkittu melko paljon pienryhmäkontekstissa, oikea-aikaista tukea opettajajohtoisessa luonnollisessa luokkahuonetilanteessa on kuitenkin tutkittu suhteellisen vähän. Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoituksena onkin tutkia nimenomaan vieraan kielen opettajan luokkahuoneessa antamaa oikea-aikaista tukea. Tutkimuksen kohteena on opettajan antama oikea-aikainen tuki nimenomaan suomalaisessa opettajajohtoisessa luonnollisessa luokkahuoneympäristössä, josta ei toistaiseksi ole julkaistu tutkimuksia. Tutkimuksessa siis katsotaan opetus/oppimisprosessin olevan sosiaalinen prosessi, jossa kielellä on keskeinen asema. Puhe muokkaa opetus/oppimisprosessia ja siten myös opetustuokioita. Samalla kuitenkin opetustuokioiden rakenne omalta osaltaan muovaa osallistujien puhetta ja toimintaa. Tämä tutkimus lähtee siitä perusoletuksesta, että opetus/oppimiskontekstin sosiaalisen luonteen

ymmärtäminen on tärkeää jotta voidaan ymmärtää prosessiin osallistujien toimintaa ja puhetta. Tutkimuksen peruslähtökohtana on Vygotskyn sosiokulttuurinen teoria, mutta tutkimuksessa käytetään hyväksi myös luokkahuoneiskurssin tutkimusta. Tavoitteena on tarkastella opetustuokioiden rakennetta ja kuvata ja tulkita toisen/vieraan kielen opettajan käyttämiä strategioita hänen antaessaan oikea-aikaista tukea opettajajohtaisen luokkahuoneopetuksen aikana. Tarkoituksena on analysoida yhden opettajan ja hänen luokkansa välistä vuorovaikutusta mikrotasolla. Tutkimusongelma on muotoiltu neljäksi tutkimuskysymykseksi, joiden avulla tarkastellaan tutkimuskohdetta. Laajemman kuvan saamiseksi opettajan ja oppilaiden välisestä vuorovaikutuksesta tarkoituksena on ensinnäkin kuvata opetustuokioiden yleistä rakennetta ja sitä, miten opettaja ja oppilaat käyttävät avaus-vastaus-seuranta -rakennetta (initiation-response-follow-up) hyväkseen opetusdialogin jatkamiseksi. Tutkimuksen päätaavoitteena on selvittää opettajan käyttämiä strategioita hänen antaessaan oikea-aikaista tukea opettajajohtaisen luokkahuoneopetuksen aikana. Lisäksi tutkimus pyrkii kuvaamaan oikea-aikaisen tuen piirteitä kyseisessä luokkahuoneessa niiden opetustuokioiden aikana jolloin oppilas kykenee tuen avulla suorittamaan annetun tehtävän.

### **Tutkimusaineisto**

Tutkimuksen aineistona on 11 äänitettyä ja videonauhoitettua peruskoulun peräkkäistä kahdeksannen luokan englannin oppituntia. Luokassa oli opettaja ja 17 oppilasta, joista 10 oli poikia ja 7 tyttöjä. Opettajalle ja oppilaille ei kerrottu tutkimuksen varsinaista tarkoitusta. Heille kerrottiin, että tutkimuksen kohteena olisi luokkahuonekieli yleensä. Näin yritettiin taata, että osanottajat käyttäytyisivät mahdollisimman luonnollisesti äänityksen ja videoinnin aikana, ja että saataisiin litteroitavaksi mahdollisimman luonnollista luokkahuoneopetusta. Litteroitu aineisto käytiin aluksi läpi tutkimuksen kannalta olennaisten opetustuokioiden identifioimiseksi. Opetustuokion identifioinnin perusteena käytettiin määritelmää, jonka mukaan opetustuokio on luokan toiminnassa erotettavissa oleva jakso ja sillä on siis sekä opettajan että oppilaiden kannalta katsoen havaittavissa oleva alku ja loppu. Äänitetyiltä tunneilta valittiin 15 opetustuokiota lähempää tarkastelua varten. Valitut opetustuokioiden käsittelivät kaikki kielioppia. Kieliopin opetustuokioksi määriteltiin opetustuokio, jossa opetuksen pääkohteena on jokin kielioppiasia (grammar instructional episode). Lisäksi opetustuokioiden jaettiin niihin opetustuokioihin, joissa keskuksena olivat opettajan opettamat uudet kielioppiasiat sekä niihin, joissa opettaja kertasi oppilaiden kanssa jo aiemmin läpikäytyjä kielioppiasioita. Kieliopin opetustuokioiden valittiin tutkimukseen koska ne sisältävät suurimman osan aineiston opettajajohtaisesta luokkahuoneopetuksesta. Valittujen opetustuokioiden pituudet vaihtelivat noin yhdestä minuutista 20 minuuttiin.



## Analyysimenetelmät

Tässä tutkimuksessa tarkastellaan opettajan ja oppilaiden välistä vuorovaikutusta vieraan kielen luokassa kvalitatiivisin mikroanalyysin menetelmin kiinnittämällä huomiota kaikkien prosessiin osallistuvien tuotoksiin ja niiden ilmentämiin tulkintoihin. Analyysin perustana on Vygotskyn sosiokulttuurinen teoria ja hänen kehittämänsä ajatus oppimisen lähikehityksen vyöhykkeestä (ZPD) sekä Woodin, Brunerin ja Rossin (1976) määrittelemä oikea-aikainen tuki. Kyseessä on kuvaileva tapaustutkimus, joka keskittyy yhden englannin kielen opettajan yhteen opetuskurssiin.

Tutkimuksen voidaan katsoa olevan luonteeltaan etnografinen, sillä se tarkastelee opettajan ja oppilaiden välistä vuorovaikutusta yhdessä kontekstissa ja sen tavoitteena on tutkimuskohteen syvälinen ymmärtäminen kuvaamalla ja tulkitsemalla. Tutkimuksen analyysissä käytetään hyväksi myös luokkahuonediskurssin tutkimusta. Tutkimus pyrkii vastaamaan neljään tutkimuskysymykseen koskien 1) kielioppiopetustuokioiden rakennetta luokkahuonekontekstissa, 2) opettajan ja oppilaiden välisen luokkahuonediskurssin jakautumista eri tasoihin ja avaus-vastaus-seuranta -rakenteen hyväksikäyttöä opetusdialogin aikana, 3) opettajan käyttämiä strategioita hänen antaessaan oppilaille oikea-aikaista tukea, sekä 4) oikea-aikaisen tuen piirteitä kyseisessä luokkahuoneessa niiden opetustuokioiden aikana jolloin oppilas kykenee tuen avulla itse suorittamaan annetun tehtävän loppuun.

Kieliopin opetustuokioiden rakennetta tarkasteltaessa analyysissä käytetään hyväksi aiempien luokkahuonediskurssitutkimusten tuloksia (esim. Cazden 1988, Mehan 1979, Sinclair ja Coulthard 1979). Tarkastelu kohdistuu siihen, miten opetustuokioiden rakenne järjestyy osallistujien puheen kautta ja millaisia erilaisia vuorovaikutusrakenteita kieliopin opetustuokioissa voidaan havaita. Oletuksena on, että osallistujien puhe muokkaa opetustuokioiden rakennetta ja samalla opetustuokioiden yleinen rakenne vaikuttaa osallistujien vuorovaikutukseen.

Opettajan ja oppilaiden välistä luokkahuonediskurssia analysoitaessa käytetään tutkimuksessa hyväksi Wellsin (1996, 1999) monitasoista organisaatiota, joka jakaa diskurssin neljään tasoon: episodit (episode), sekvenssit (sequence), vaihtoparit (exchange) ja siirrot (move). Tutkimuksen tavoitteena on ennen kaikkea tarkastella niitä eri tapoja, joilla opettaja ja oppilaat käyttävät avaus-vastaus-seuranta -rakennetta hyväkseen opetusdialogin jatkamiseksi. Opettajan ja oppilaiden välisen puheen rakenteen tarkastelussa otetaan huomioon sekä yksinkertaiset avaus-vastaus-seuranta -jaksot että ne jaksot, joita osanottajat ovat laajentaneet.

Tutkimuksen päätavoitteena on tutkia millaisia strategioita opettaja käyttää luokkahuoneopetuksen aikana. Analyysin kolmannella tasolla siirrytään tarkastelemaan opettajan käyttämiä strategioita hänen antaessaan oppilaille oikea-aikaista tukea kieliopin opetustuokioiden aikana. Tarkastelun kohteeksi otetaan opettajan ja oppilaiden välinen vuorovaikutus pääasiassa laajennettujen avaus-vastaus-seuranta -jaksojen aikana. Tutkimuksessa tarkastelleen oikea-aikaista tukea Woodin, Brunerin ja Rossin (1976) määrittelemien piirteiden poh-

jalta. Jokainen piirre ja siihen liittyvät tutkimuksen kohteena olevan opettajan käyttämät strategiat luokkahuoneopetuksen aikana analysoidaan erikseen.

Opettajan strategioiden lisäksi tutkimuksessa tarkastellaan tehokkaan oikea-aikaisen tuen piirteitä tutkimuksen kohteena olevassa luokkahuoneessa. Tehokas oikea-aikainen tuki määritellään tutkimuksessa tueksi, jonka avulla oppilas pystyy suorittamaan annetun kielioppitehtävän loppuun. Toisin sanoen opettaja ei tällöin anna valmista vastausta oppilaalle, vaan oikea-aikaisen tuen avulla ohjaa oppilaan vähitellen itse rakentamaan vastauksen.

## Tulokset

Aiempiä luokkahuonediskurssitutkimuksia tukien tutkimuksen tulokset osoittivat, että opetustuokiot jakautuvat osallistujien puheen kautta kolmeen osaan: avaus-, varsinainen kieliopin käsittely- ja lopetusjakso. Kaikille kolmelle jaksolle olivat tyypillisiä erilaiset vuorovaikutusrakenteet. Jaksojen rakenteeseen ja varsinkin niiden pituuteen vaikutti jaksojen paikka oppitunnin sisällä. Myös se oliko opetuksen kohteena uusi kielioppiasia vai vanhan, jo aiemmin opetetun, kielioppiasian kertaus vaikutti jaksojen rakenteeseen.

Avauksen aikana opettaja kiinnitti oppilaiden huomion tulevaan tehtävään. Opettaja saattoi myös kerrata lyhyesti edelliset kielioppiasiat. Jos kaikki oppilaat eivät olleet valmiita aloittamaan seuraavaa opetustuokiota, opettaja yritti ensin luoda yhteisymmärryksen seuraavan tehtävän luonteesta. Näissä tapauksissa oppilaat saattoivat osallistua omiin keskusteluihinsa samanaikaisesti kun opettaja antoi ohjeita. Tutkimuksen kohteena olevassa luokassa oppilaat kuitenkin yleensä keskittyivät seuraavaan tehtävään, kun opettaja osoitti siirtymisen esim. sanoilla *elikkä* tai *sitten*. Kieliopin käsittelyjakson, jonka aiheena oli uusi kielioppiasia, opettaja usein aloitti kertaamalla aiempia aiheeseen liittyviä kielioppisääntöjä. Hän saattoi myös pyytää oppilaita selvittämään uuden asian oppikirjasta ennen tehtävien tekoa. Jos opetuksen aiheena taas oli jo aiemmin opetettu kielioppiasia, opettaja yleensä ryhtyi heti käymään läpi tehtäviä. Lopetukseen vuorostaan liittyi joskus lyhyt opettajan arvio tai muutama sana, joilla hän osoitti siirtymisen seuraavaan asiaan. Jos lopetusjakso oli tunnin lopussa, se oli kestoltaan pitempi.

Tulokset osoittivat myös avaus-vastaus-seuranta -jakson olevan yleinen rakenne tutkimuksen kohteena olevassa luokkahuoneessa. Kolmiosaista perusrakennetta opettaja käytti hyväksyessään tai arvioidessaan oppilaan vastausta ilman lisäkommentteja. Keskustelujen mikrotason analyysi osoitti, että sekä opettaja että oppilaat yleisesti laajensivat kuitenkin keskustelun rakennetta keskusteluun liitetyillä vaihtopareilla. Laajentamalla oppilaan antamaa vastausta opettaja saattoi sisällyttää oppilaan tuotoksen osaksi opetusdialogia. Hän saattoi tukea oppimista selittämällä asiaa lisäkommenteilla tai liittämällä uuden asia jo opetettuun aiempaan kielioppisääntöön. Tutkimuksen kohteena olevassa luokassa oppilaan virheellisen vastauksen jälkeen opettaja yleensä kannusti samaa oppilasta jatkamaan tehtävää kysymällä häneltä lisäkysymyksiä, joihin opettaja oletti oppilaan osaavan vastata. Vaikka oppilas joskus suoraan sanoi, että hän ei tiennyt vastausta, opettaja jatkoi saman oppilaan kannustamista.

Näin oppilas saattoi kaikesta huolimatta suorittaa tehtävän loppuun opettajan avustuksella. Opettaja saattoi myös kannustaa koko luokkaa osallistumaan vaikeuksia aiheuttaneen tehtävän suorittamiseen. Varmistaakseen oppilaan osamisen opettaja saattoi myös kysyä lisäselvitystä, vaikka oppilaan vastaus olisikin ollut täysin oikea. Opettajan lisäksi myös oppilaat laajensivat kolmiosaista keskustelurakennetta saadakseen lisäselvitystä tehtäviin.

Analyysistä kävi myös ilmi, että opettaja käytti useita strategioita antaessaan oppilaille oikea-aikaista tukea kieliopin opetustuokioiden aikana. Analyysissä sovellettiin Woodin, Brunerin ja Rossin (1976) määritelmää, jonka mukaan oikea-aikaisen tuen piirteitä ovat oppilaiden mielenkiinnon värvääminen, tehtävän yksinkertaistaminen, oppilaiden tavoitteessa pysymisestä huolehtiminen, kriittisten piirteiden merkitseminen, turhautumisen hallitseminen ja idealisoidun mallin antaminen. Jotta määritelmä kuvaisi tutkimuksessa olevaa luokkahuoneopetusta mahdollisimman tarkasti, Woodin ym. määritelmää muokattiin tilanteeseen sopivaksi. Tutkimuksessa oppilaiden mielenkiinnon värvääminen laajennettiin käsittämään myös oppilaiden huomion kiinnittäminen tehtävään, sillä luokassa opettaja ensimmäiseksi varmisti, että kaikki olivat valmiita aloittamaan uuden tehtävän. Oppilaiden tavoitteessa pysymisestä huolehtiminen puolestaan jaettiin kolmeen alakategoriaan. Tutkimuksessa kategoria käsitti strategiat, joilla opettaja pyrki kannustamalla, kielioppiasioiden ymmärtämisen varmistamisella sekä selventämällä esille tulleita kielioppirakenteita huolehtimaan, että oppilaat pysyisivät tehtävän antamassa tavoitteessa. Tutkimuksessa myös kategoria kohderakenteen mallintamisesta laajennettiin koskemaan annettua tehtävää kokonaisuudessaan eli siis esim. myös ääntämistä, jonka opettaja usein toisti tai pyysi oppilaita toistamaan. Tutkimuksen tulokset siis osoittivat, että luokkahuoneessa opettaja pystyi antamaan oikea-aikaista tukea erilaisia strategioita käyttäen. Prosessissa, joka on yhteistyötä, sekä opettaja ja oppilaat olivat aktiivisessa asemassa.

Opetustuokioissa, jossa opettajan antaman oikea-aikaisen tuen määriteltiin olevan tehokasta, annetulla tuella havaittiin olevan yhteisiä piirteitä. Tutkimuksessa tehokas tuki määriteltiin tueksi, jonka avulla oppilas itse pystyi suorittamaan annetut tehtävät. Tällaisen tuen luokkahuoneessa havaittiin olevan asteittain oppilaan avun tarpeen mukaan muuttuvaa. Opettaja myös suuntasi annettua oikea-aikaisen tuen kaikille luokan oppilaille. Lisäksi opettajan havaittiin välttävän tarpeettoman tai liiallisen tuen antamista.

### **Tulosten arviointia**

Tutkimus sekä tukee aikaisempien tutkimusten tuloksia että avaa uusia näkökulmia opettajan ja oppilaiden välisen vuorovaikutuksen tutkimukseen opettajajohtaisen luokkahuoneopetuksen aikana. Kieliopin opetustuokioissa voidaan erottaa avaus-, kieliopin käsittely- ja lopetusjaksot, joille on ominaista erilaiset rakenteet. Vaikka opettajan rooli onkin usein dominoivampi luokkahuoneessa opettajajohtaisen opetuksen aikana kuin oppilaiden, myös oppilailla on tärkeä osuus opetustuokioiden rakenteen muodostumisessa. Kielioppia käsiteltäessä avaus-vastaus-seuranta -jakso on keskeinen rakenne, jota sekä opettaja että op-

pilaat voivat käyttää hyväkseen opetusdialogin laajentamiseksi. Oppimisen kannalta voi olla hyvinkin tärkeää, että sekä opettaja että oppilaat tiedostavat mahdollisuutensa rakenteen laajentamiseen opiskeltavien asioiden selvittämiseksi.

Luokkahuoneessa opettajalla on käytössään erilaisia strategioita oikea-aikaisen tuen antamiseksi oppilaille. Prosessi on kuitenkin aina yhteistyötä, jossa oppilailla on tärkeä aktiivinen rooli. Jotta opettaja pystyisi tehokkaasti tukemaan oppimista, täytyy hänen voida oppilaiden kanssa käytyjen neuvottelujen kautta tunnistaa oppilaiden senhetkinen kehitystaso kyseessä olevan tehtävän suhteen. Tämä vaatii myös oppilaiden aktiivista osallistumista opetus/oppimisprosessiin. Prosessissa on tärkeää oppilaiden osallistumisen ja virheiden teon mahdollisuuden korostaminen.

Tutkimus nosti esiin useita kysymyksiä, joita tulisi ottaa tarkastelun kohteeksi tulevaisuudessa. Opettajan antaman oikea-aikaisen tuen laajempaan kuvaamiseen tarvitaan lisää tutkimusta eri luokka-asteilta ja eri opettajien tunneilta. Tässä tutkimuksessa ei oikea-aikaisen tuen vaikutusta oppimiseen voitu käsitellä, mutta jatkossa olisi syytä selvittää, missä määrin oikea-aikainen tuki edesauttaa oppimista opettajajohtoisessa luokkahuoneessa. Olisi myös mielenkiintoista selvittää tarkemmin, miten oppilaat itse suhtautuvat opettajan antamaan oikea-aikaiseen tukeen. Huomio tulisi myös kiinnittää siihen, miten opettajankoulutuksessa voitaisiin entistä paremmin ottaa huomioon opettajan antaman oikea-aikaisen tuen merkitys opettajajohtoisilla vieraankielen tunneilla.

Tämä tutkimus tuo esille opettajan ja oppilaiden välisen vuorovaikutuksena ja opettajan antaman oikea-aikaisen tuen monitahoisuuden opettajajohtoisien luokkahuoneopetuksen aikana. Tutkimus tarjoaa kehyksen, jonka puitteissa opettajan antamaa tukea luokkahuoneessa voi tarkastella.

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## APPENDIX 1

## Transcription conventions

wo[rds]	simultaneous speech: left-hand brackets
[wo]rds	mark the start of the overlap, right-hand brackets the end of the overlap
(.) (..)	pause (shorter, longer)
text1= =text2	latching speech
CAPITALS	loud speech
<b>bold font</b>	emphatic stress
>fast<	fast speech
<slow>	slow speech
.	falling intonation
	rising intonation
* laughing *	laughing production of speech
exte:nde::d	noticeable extension of the sound of syllable
cut off wo-	cut off word or sentence
<u>marked</u>	marked pronunciation
<i>mispronounced</i>	mispronunciation
((laughs))	transcriber's comments
eeh/ehm/mm	incomprehensible word/sentence
affirmation	nonverbal sounds marking hesitation/positive

## Symbols to identify the speaker:

T	teacher
LM1	identified male learner (LM1, LM2 etc.)
LF2	identified female learner (LF1, LF2 etc.)
LM	unidentified male learner
LF	unidentified female learner
LL	unidentified learners

## APPENDIX 2

## Seating arrangement in the class

