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Uptake of Dialogic Teaching and Learning Using a Genre-Based Pedagogical Approach: Engagement and Identity Negotiation in an English Language Teacher Education Writing Course in Thailand

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ABSTRACT

This thesis focuses on the process of change or lack of change in the uptake of dialogic teaching and learning in a Thai teacher education context. Since 2013, the Thai government has required English language teachers to shift their teaching practices from traditional language teaching approaches to more context-based dialogic approaches. However, there has been a relative lack of uptake of these kinds of approaches by Thai English language teachers. In an effort to understand this, the study was designed to investigate teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' engagement with dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle in English writing classes in Thai English language teacher education. In this way, the teaching and learning cycle was used as scaffolding in order to provide the context for which interactional scaffolding – dialogic interaction could occur.

The theoretical framework draws on sociocultural theory and specifically on situative perspectives that focus on engagement and the negotiation of identity (Greeno & The Middle School Mathematics Through Application of Project Group, 1998). These perspectives provide a way of conceptualising teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' teaching and learning identities as mediated by their experiences, and as related to their actual teaching and learning practices. The specific sociocultural constructs used in the study are mediation and appropriation (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Wertsch, 1991; Wertsch, 2006).

The ethnographic research design was both deductive and inductive. This design allowed the identification of themes in the data, and a return to the literature to make sense of these themes. The focus on engagement and identity is consistent with an ethnographic approach because it

allows the researcher to explore human behaviour as significantly influenced by the settings in which it occurs. Data were collected through: (1) semi-structured interviews before and after a seven-week English writing course for pre-service English language teachers in which the teaching and learning cycle was used as a pedagogical tool to introduce dialogic interaction into class. Twelve pre-service teachers were interviewed. I (the researcher) was one of two teacher educators participating in the study, and I also engaged in a dialogic interview with the other educator; (2) participant observation and observation of classes during the introduction of the teaching and learning cycle, and (3) gathering teaching-and-learning-related documents.

The findings revealed that the ways that the participants engaged in the course were context-sensitive. Past learning experiences appeared to have a strong influence on the participants' teaching and learning identity and their subsequent uptake of the teaching and learning cycle. Scaffolding strategies implemented in the study, which were found to be useful for this uptake by both the teacher educators and pre-service teachers, comprised the interactional sequence of Initiation-Response-Feedback and the teaching sequence of Presentation-Practice-Production, which were both aligned to the teaching and learning cycle. The research revealed that a process of change towards more dialogic forms of interaction may take time in the Thai context, and may be reliant on a teacher's positive learning experiences with this kind of interaction.

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Part One: Background to the Study

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

In this introductory chapter, I provide an overview of this research conducted on the (lack of) change of identity and/or uptake of different ways of teaching and learning. Identity is considered to be mediated by teachers' and/or students'experiences, related to their actual teaching and learning practices, and discursively constructed.

I divide this chapter into seven sections. In the first section, I describe the background and the reasons for undertaking the research. Second, I present my profile as the researcher. Third, I discuss the objective of the study. In the fourth section I give an overview of the theoretical perspectives used in this study, while in the fifth I discuss the features of the research design. In the sixth section, I argue the significance of this research. The chapter ends with an overview of the thesis structure.

BACKGROUND AND

REASONS FOR UNDERTAKING THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study is to investigate teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' engagement with dialogic teaching and learning in English writing classes in English language teacher education in Thailand. In this study, I adopted the genre-based pedagogy of the teaching and learning cycle as a resource to investigate this dialogic interaction. Both teacher educators and pre-service teachers were the focus in order to try to understand how they might be influencing each other in their engagement with dialogic interaction.

Genre-based pedagogy draws on systemic functional linguistic, a perspective that focuses on the idea of the interrelationship between language and context. This pedagogical approach connects with principles of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory emphasising the active role of adult caregiver or teacher and child or students in the shared construction and negotiation of meaning that emerges in language development and the notion of scaffolding (Hammond, 2001; Feez, 2002; Rose & Martin 2012). This connection has become one of the major ways in which interest in the notion of scaffolding has been generated. Scaffolding in classrooms within genre-based pedagogy is divided into two types: designed-in scaffolding and point-of-need scaffolding (Sharpe, 2001). Designed-in scaffolding is articulated through the teaching-learning cycle (Dansie, 2001). Point-of-need scaffolding is spelt out into classroom talk with an emphasis on the active role of students and teachers in the negotiation and construction of language texts (Sharpe, 2001; Hammond, 2001). The teaching and learning cycle in this study is understood to be underpinned by dialogic approach to teaching and learning because of its strong focus on dialogic scaffolding.

Following global trends and also recent literature in the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), the Thai government requires Thai English language teachers to shift their teaching practices from traditional language teaching approaches, such as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), to more context-based dialogic approaches. This new requirement arose from a concern that prevailing educational practices were inadequate to help students to develop control over English language writing that they learned at schools. This problematic led to the attention that teaching and learning English writing needs to be paid not only the grammatical structure and processes of composing texts but nature of texts that students learn to write (Office of the Education Council, 2006). Moreover, the new requirement also emphasises active teaching about English language and active role of both teachers and students in the shared construction and negotiation of meaning that happens in language development (Office of the Education Council, 2006). However, this government requirement

is not necessarily being taken up by teachers (Darasawang & Todd, 2012; Hayes, 2010; Nicoletti, 2015). Research into a new way of teaching and learning writing in English in Thailand (e.g. Chaisiri, 2010; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009) identified genre-pedagogy as an example of a new way of teaching English as required by the Thai government and advocated the benefits of using the teaching and learning cycle in classrooms. Even though the teaching and learning cycle in particular has been reported to be successful in the Thai context (Chaisiri, 2010; Chuenchaichon, 2011; Kongpetch, 2006; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009; Payaprom, 2012; Saito; 2010), there has been a lack of uptake of the approach.

The gap between studies reporting successful outcomes in writing as a result of genre-based pedagogy and the continued lack of attention to dialogic approaches by a great number of Thai English language teachers led to this study's focus on teacher educator and pre-service teachers' engagement with dialogic teaching and learning in a writing course. Engagement was conceptualised through a sociocultural lens in the way that knowledge/ understanding and/or identity is co-constructed through social engagement (Greeno & The Middle School Mathematics Through Application of Project Group, 1998; Horn, Nolen & Ward, 2013). Teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' beliefs around teaching and learning, as mediated by their experiences, were related to their actual teaching and learning practices. From a sociocultural perspective, the ways in which teacher educators and pre-service teachers navigate and develop an understanding of themselves in an educational context can be explored using the idea of identity construction, which is underpinned by the ideas of mediation and the appropriation of new ideas. The concepts of mediation and appropriation were used as a frame for investigate change of identity or uptake of teaching and learning of the participating teacher educators and pre-service teachers Mediation that is used in this study as dialogic approach to teaching and learning within the framework of the teaching and learning cycle (a new approach to teaching and learning), plays a crucial role as the stimulus (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) that influences the teacher educators and pre-service teachers to appropriate

new ways of teaching and learning into their own practices. The concept of appropriation refers to the process of how individuals adopt the environment's stimuli to create their own ways of practice (Leontiev, 1981; Wertsch, 1998). Appropriation was used in this research to investigate how the teacher educators and pre-service teachers might change (or not change) through their engagement in dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle.

In the study, I – a teacher educator in Thailand – introduced the teaching and learning cycle to another teacher, Cindy, and we both taught a writing class at the same level for a period of seven weeks using the cycle. We both had different degrees of exposure to the dialogic, language-in-context ideas on which the teaching and learning cycle is based, and this is documented in detail because the relationship between teaching and learning experiences and engagement with dialogic interaction is central to the study. I understood the teaching and learning cycle to be a resource I could use to investigate this dialogic interaction in relation to teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' identity as teachers and learners. Both the teacher educators and the pre-service teachers were the focus of this study in order to try to understand how they might be influencing each other in their engagement with dialogic interaction.

PROFILE OF THE RESEARCHER

My five years of experience teaching English writing to pre-service teachers at a university in Thailand and my exposure to pedagogical approaches in Australia led to this thesis. During the time that I was teaching at the Thai university, I found a mismatch between the pedagogic approach used to teach pre-service teachers, and what the assessment required them to do. Pre-service teachers were taught about English grammar and the writing of discrete sentences, but the assessment at the end of the course required them to write a whole text. Moreover, I found that many teacher educators of the university still adhered to traditional teaching approaches

because they understood that language must first be learned before it can be used. The idea was that learners who know the grammatical rules and vocabulary can then understand and communicate fluently in English. During my time in Australia I was exposed to the idea of text-based scaffolding (Feez, 2002), and having the students use the language in communicative (and scaffolded) ways as they are learning. I then thought about these ideas in relation to my own experiences of learning in Thailand. This led me to explore the connection (if any) between the participating pre-service teachers' understandings about teaching and learning as the result of their own past and current teaching and learning experiences, and their teaching and learning practices using genre-based pedagogy.

THE OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was therefore to describe and analyse the engagement of the participants during a pedagogical change related to the teaching and learning cycle. I originally conceived this research project as a way to understand the identity formation of teacher educators and pre-service teachers in relation to teaching and learning. A teacher's identity involves personal understandings and beliefs about teaching and learning that have been influenced by their learning experiences (Alsup, 2006; Chong, Ling, & Chuan, 2011; Graham & Phelps, 2003; Horwitz, 1999; Norton & Toohey, 2011; Olsen, 2008; Stout, 2001; Wenden, 1998). In other words, there is a very high likelihood that teachers teach in the same way they were taught when they were learners (Chong, Ling, & Chuan, 2011; Clandinin & Connelly, 1995).

However, in Thailand, research focusing on the identity formation of pre-service teachers and teachers is still limited. Consequently, the aim of this research was to explore any connections and/or friction between pre-service teachers' and teacher educators' appropriation of their own

past – and current – teaching and learning experiences and their teaching and learning practices via the use of the teaching and learning cycle. This cycle is underpinned by a dialogic approach to teaching and learning and consists of four stages: building the field, modelling and deconstruction of the text, joint-construction of the text, and independent writing. The cycle is discussed in detail in Chapter Four.

Based on the objective of the research, I generated two research questions which helped me investigate teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' engagement with dialogic teaching and learning in English writing classes in English language teacher education in Thailand.

1. How do Thai pre-service English teachers and their teacher educators engage with the teaching and learning cycle in a seven-week English writing course?

2. How do they discursively construct themselves as teachers and learners before and after the seven-week course?

OVERVIEW OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this research, I adopted a sociocultural approach to engagement and the negotiation of identity (Greeno & The Middle School Mathematics Through Application of Project Group, 1998; Horn, Nolen & Ward, 2013). From a sociocultural perspective, engagement refers to behaviour that results from the integration of socially and culturally constructed forms of mediation into individuals' understandings of themselves or their identity (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978). Engagement is therefore considered to be the result of the negotiation of identity. Negotiation or construction of identity refers to the process of appropriation, or the process in which *inter*mental activity (when individuals engage in social interaction) becomes *intra*mental activity (internal to the individual) thus generating new understandings, ways of

thinking, and ways of interacting with others. In other words, the process of identity construction starts with an individual engaging in a new social practice or a new idea/information. Then, s/he incorporates this new way of practice or idea by negotiating it with his/her existing understanding. As the result of the process of identity negotiation, s/he creates his/her own way of understanding that affects his/her motivation to practice (Holland & Lachicotte, 2007).

Lantolf and Thorne (2006) have explained that, by participating in social practices, individuals learn the norms, roles, and culture of the social context, and develop their identities through investing themselves in situated social activities. These identities then mediate how individuals interact socially in a context and whether they resist or accept different practices (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Wertsch, 1998). Understanding engagement and identity in this way helped me understand the interplay between individuals and their contexts; more specifically, it helped me to identify how teacher educators, and the pre-service teachers engaged and made sense of teaching and learning experiences.

FEATURES OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Since the focus of my research is to investigate participants' engagement, and to understand that engagement from their perspectives, this study was designed as a qualitative ethnographic case study. I understood an ethnographic approach to be useful because this genre of research focuses on meaning construction, and seeks to understand participants' subjective meanings rather than comparing them to a normative model (Horn, Nolen, & Ward, 2013). This research was designed as a case study because it particularly aims to study how pre-service teachers and

their teacher educators engaged in an intervention, and case studies facilitate exploration of complex human meaning-making processes within a particular context.

This study was carried out using three methods of data collection. The first method was semi-structured interviews, which were carried out before and after a seven-week English writing course for pre-service English language teachers in which the teaching and learning cycle was used as a pedagogical tool to introduce dialogic interaction into the classes. Twelve pre-service teachers were interviewed. I (the researcher) was one of two teacher educators participating in the study, and also engaged in a dialogic interview with the other educator. The second method was participant observation and observation of two classes during the introduction of the teaching and learning cycle, and the third method was the collection of teaching-and-learning-related documents such as lesson plans, worksheets and handouts. These documents indicated the content and classroom activities that the participating teacher educators chose in order to engage in classroom. Therefore, these documents were used to investigate the uptake of the teacher educators.

I used thematic analysis (TA) to analyse data as suggested by Braun, Clarke, and Terry (2014). TA grounds data analysis principally in what a participant has said or what has been written (Braun, Clarke, & Terry, 2014), but analysis of the themes can be informed by the application of theoretical frameworks.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Dialogic teaching and learning in the teaching and learning cycle was applied in this research in order to reflect on how the teacher educators and pre-service teachers engaged with and thought about teaching and learning written English. Although this kind of approach has been found to be successful in Thailand (Chaisiri, 2010; Chuenchaichon, 2011; Kongpetch, 2006; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009; Payaprom, 2012; Saito; 2010), the focus of previous research has been the outcome and not the classroom engagement of teachers and students that made it successful (see Chaisiri, 2010; Chuenchaichon, 2011; Payaprom, 2012; Saito; 2010). I undertook this study on the assumption that teacher identity is a significant factor in the uptake of innovative teaching and learning approaches (see Holec, 1987; Horwitz, 1985; Horwitz, 1987; Horwitz 1988; Horwitz 1999; Wenden, 1987). For example, Thai pre-service teachers and their teacher educators are more familiar with traditional teaching approaches such as the grammar-translation method when teaching English language, and their beliefs about teaching and learning may influence their uptake of a dialogic approach, especially if they are unsure how to make the approach successful.

In sum, this research is significant because it focuses on both teacher educators and preservice English language teachers, investigating how they both engaged in dialogic teaching and learning in the teaching and learning cycle, and if/how they adjusted their understandings of teaching and learning according to this engagement. It adds to the literature on how teacher educators and pre-service teachers negotiate their identities as teachers and learners when participating in an unfamiliar pedagogical approach. It also has the potential to inform how professional development for teachers can be conducted in Thailand.

THESIS STRUCTURE

Part One: Background of the Study

Chapter One: outlines the context of this study, and addresses background information and reasons for undertaking the research. Moreover, this chapter also provides the aim of the study, theoretical frameworks used to interpret the findings, methodological choices, and significance of the research

Chapter Two provides information about the Thai context including the education system, teacher education, and general perspectives on teaching and learning, English teaching and learning in Thailand, as well as pedagogical reform and the mismatch between policy and practice in English language education.

Chapter Three discusses a sociocultural perspective that was used in the study to interpret the data. The concepts of appropriation and mediation in sociocultural theory were used to identify and interpret the process of change and/or lack of change in the participants' identities or uptake of teaching and learning in the seven-week course.

Chapter Four provides a discussion of the teaching and learning cycle which was used as a contextual tool for exploring dialogic interaction in this research. The theoretical perspectives and concepts that underpin the teaching and learning cycle are discussed. The connection between the teaching and learning cycle and dialogic interaction also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter Five explains the research design, and data collection methods. It also provides the general information about the participants, and information on the implementation of the

teaching and learning cycle in this study. The chapter then discusses the research instruments and the procedure for the analysis of data from this research. Finally, the chapter provides information about the researcher's position and the research trustworthiness, and discusses ethics issues.

Part Two: Findings of the Study

Chapter Six addresses the findings from classroom observations and participant observations relating to teacher educators' choice of content to be taught and of the teaching approach. This chapter provides the findings answering the first research question – how Thai pre-service English teachers and their teachers engage with the teaching and learning cycle in a seven-week English writing course. The findings discussed in this chapter inform the findings reported in Chapter Six and Chapter Seven.

Chapter Seven sets out the findings regarding the first research questions. It analyses the findings from classroom observations and participant observations regarding teacher–student and student–student interaction. The findings discussed in this chapter inform the analysis of the findings in Chapter Eight.

Chapter Eight addresses the findings in relation to the second research question – how the pre-service teachers and teacher educators discursively construct themselves as teachers and learners before and after the seven-week course. This chapter focuses in particular on the analysis of the interview data.

Part Three: Discussion of the Findings

Chapter Nine gives a summary and discussion of the major research findings. It discusses the findings in order to answer the research questions. Moreover, it also provides the limitations of the study and directions for further research, and presents the implications of the study.

CHAPTER TWO
Context of the Research

In this chapter, I provide background knowledge on the Thai context where the study was situated. All the teacher educators, and pre-service teachers who participated in the study were Thai, either teaching or studying in the department of an English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher education program at a university in Thailand. Therefore, this chapter provides background knowledge with respect to this context in order to facilitate understanding of where the teacher educators and pre-service teachers came from, and to help inform the understanding of the teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' teaching and learning experiences that are explored in the findings chapters.

I divide this chapter into six main sections. The first section provides information on the education system in Thailand, while the second explains the system of teacher education in Thailand, which is provided at the university level only. This information is central in helping the reader construct an understanding of the educational process that the participants in this research experienced before engaging in the seven-week course. In the third section, I discuss the influence of Thai cultural values on perspectives of the nature of teaching and learning in the Thai context. These perspectives are described in order to assist the understanding of the potential influence of context on how the participants of the study understood teaching and learning.

In the fourth section, I discuss English teaching and learning in Thailand. This information supports the understanding of the teaching approaches that were used to teach English writing in the writing course. In the fifth section, I discuss pedagogical reform and the mismatch

between policy and practice in English language education in Thailand in an effort to build an understanding of the current issues of English language education in Thailand that led to the purpose of this research. In the sixth section, I focus more particularly on teaching and learning writing in English in Thailand.

THE CURRENT THAI EDUCATION SYSTEM

According to the National Education Act 1999, Thailand's education system is divided into four levels: pre-school, primary, secondary, and tertiary levels (Office of the National Education Commission, 1999). The provision of pre-school, primary and secondary education, including vocational and technical education is carried out under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. The tertiary education is the responsibility of both the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of University Affairs. Similar to the Western educational patterns, the Thai educational system includes twelve years of primary and secondary education comprising six years of primary education (grades 1 to 6) and 6 years of secondary education (grades 7 to 12). Vocational education offers various types of specialised courses and training programs. This type of education includes three years of lower certificate courses which entail an additional two years, and are equal to the diploma level of vocational studies. Upon the completion of vocational education, learners can further pursue a degree course at the tertiary education level.

Tertiary or university education offers undergraduate courses, and is available to learners who have completed the twelve years of primary and secondary education or the diploma level of vocational education. University education in Thailand is divided into two types of institutions. Firstly there are institutions which fall under the Ministry of Education, such as state universities. Second, there are private institutions for which the Ministry of Educational Affairs

is responsible. In order to cope with the numbers of students wishing to continue their studies at university level, admission to university is managed by the National Institute of Educational Testing Service through special examinations. Students must be examined and pass the Central University Admission system in order to be able to select the university in which they wish to enrol. In addition to the national admission exam, each university operates its own direct admission system.

TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education in Thailand, where the teacher educators and pre-service teachers (PSTs) in this study came from, is available only at the tertiary level. Teacher education in Thailand takes responsibility for pre-service teacher training for early childhood education and primary and secondary school teaching. The courses offer various majors including Thai Language, English, mathematics, early childhood education and general sciences. Teacher education is offered by state universities and falls under the responsibility of the Commission of Higher Education. Therefore, all teacher education programs share the same goal of educating, researching, developing, and producing teachers whose knowledge and practice meet the National Education Act and Standards (Office of Higher Education Commission, 2007).

Like other programs in higher education, admission to teacher education requires students to achieve a specified grade point average (GPA), combined with satisfactory scores in the Ordinary National Education Test (O-NET), General Aptitude Test (GAT) and Professional Aptitude Test (PAT) (Office of Higher Education Commission, 2007). Moreover, universities also have their own entrance criteria applied through the quota system in order to provide opportunity for students attending schools in more remote economically disadvantaged areas such as many parts of the North, Northeast, and some parts of the South who have much less

chance of taking and/or passing the national admission system (The Office of Higher Education Commission, 2007).

Teacher education is offered to secondary graduates and consists of a five-year bachelor degree with four years of coursework and one year for an in-school placement as a form of internship. In the first two years, the program emphasises the development of knowledge relating to a specific area of certain majors. During the third and fourth years which are the context of this research, pre-service teachers are given courses that aim to improve their skills and knowledge in the areas of teaching practice. Moreover, during the fourth year, pre-service teachers are assigned to their preferred schools and are required to make observations and reports that help prepare them for conducting actual teaching in an authentic classroom context in their fifth year. In the fifth year, pre-service teachers are required to teach in the schools they chose in their fourth year, and comply with the school schedules. During their teaching practice, pre-service teachers are assigned to work as full-time teachers in the school for one academic year. They are required to prepare lesson plans for the entire academic year under the supervision of their mentor teachers. Teacher educators also contribute in the process by visiting pre-service teachers during the time they are located at school in order to assess their teaching practice through the process of supervision of instruction. Moreover, each PST is required to conduct a classroom action research study in order to show their understanding of classroom teaching as well as their abilities in applying the knowledge of their specialised field and its pedagogy. Once students satisfactorily complete the program, the institutions offer them a teaching license with a bachelor degree in education.

THE GENERAL PERSPECTIVES OF TEACHING AND
LEARNING IN THE THAI CONTEXT

The traditional conception, by which is meant the commonly held perception, of teaching and learning in Thailand is that it is transmissive and authoritarian in nature. The predominant teaching style seems to be expository (Chayanuvat, 2003; Hayes, 2008). This conception of teaching in Thailand appears to have been influenced by the Thai cultural values, such as respect for authority, and a strong social hierarchy (Wiriyachitra, 2002).

Classroom interaction in the Thai context is centred on the role of teachers who are considered as the authority in the classrooms. Students are obedient, respectful to teachers, and reserved rather than expressive of their ideas (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, & Moni, 2006). Thus, teaching is perceived as teacher dominated "chalk and talk" or rote learning (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, & Moni, 2006) that focuses on the transmission of knowledge (Wiriyachitra, 2002). In Thailand, as Gibbons (2006) pointed out, a good teacher transmits "ready-made concepts" to students and a good student receives and remembers those ready-made concepts. This approach is often referred to as using teacher-centred behaviour as the way to interact with students (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, & Moni, 2006). Knowledge acquisition is affected through a one-way transmission process from teachers to students, with limited interactive processes between students and teachers (Wiriyachitra, 2002). Several research studies have pointed out that both Thai learners and teachers have understood the role of teacher as being the source of knowledge (Chayaratheee & Waugh, 2006; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015).

Moreover, the Thai traditional culture has also influenced the philosophy of teaching and learning in that it informs the design of the Thai school curriculum. A good school curriculum is underpinned by a recognised philosophy of teaching and learning, and identifies a range of

learning areas such as core subjects. Moreover, the school curriculum promotes cross-curricular learning on topics considered important for the social, cultural and economic development of a given jurisdiction (UNESCO, 2015). It also sets out both content standards that describe what students should learn, and performance standards that support teachers' practices (UNESCO, 2015). The curriculum in Thai schools can be characterised by the fundamental concept of unidirectional transmissive teaching and learning underlying its structure and philosophy, resulting in content-based and outcome-based curricula (UNESCO, 2015).

This nature of learning and teaching in Thailand has tended to bring about the lack of students' abilities of analytical thinking, problem solving, and creative thinking (ONEC, 2015; Pillay 2002). With the trend of globalisation and the need to improve human resources capacity in order to gain a competitive edge, the Thai government needed to improve the nation's human resource capacity by improving the quality of education and by adjusting pedagogy, and the methods of learning. This attempt therefore called for education reform which is discussed later in this chapter.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN THAILAND

The perspective of teaching and learning as explained above also determined that the approaches to teaching English language would be deductive. Deductive teaching approaches embodied in the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) appeared to be the dominant English language teaching approach in Thailand (Darasawang, 2007) and were underpinned by the view of "knowledge as commodity, language as conduit" (Gibbons, 2006, p. 15). According to this view, the "commodity" metaphor characterises language teaching and learning as transmission-based (Hammond, 2001) and as using a pedagogy based on rote learning and repetition (Gibbons, 2006). From the view of language as conduit, English is seen as a vehicle

for transmitting information from one individual to another. This teaching approach separates language from content, and focuses on theoretical aspects of language.

This understanding of language pedagogy has influenced Thai English teachers to believe that making new sentences involves observing the regularities (rules, patterns, structure) underlying them and working out how to operate them to generate new sentences. Therefore, English language teaching in most Thai classrooms focuses on treating English primarily from the rule-governed point of view and concentrates on knowledge of grammar and items of vocabulary. The component parts of English are taught separately, beginning with simple elements such as parts of speech, and vocabulary, and progressing to simple, and more complex sentences. The method focusses on grammar exercises in which students are required to apply the rules that they have learned through drill exercises by doing tasks such as completing already constructed sentences, formulating new ones, and completing filling-in and matching exercises (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf, & Moni, 2006). As a result, students seemed to have a good knowledge of English grammar, but they seemed unable to apply this knowledge in productive communication including speaking and writing (Noom-ura, 2013).

The low communicative proficiency in English of Thai students was one of the reasons that prompted reform of the English language teaching approach in Thailand. The Ministry of Education in Thailand announced the recent education reform and declared a new National Education Plan with a focus on transforming the nation into a knowledge-based society by placing learners at the centre of learning (Office of the Education Council 2006). To serve this education reform, the new National Education Act was formulated and disseminated to implementation level (Office of the Education Council 2006); this led to the reform of pedagogy that is discussed in the next section.

EDUCATION REFORM AND THE MISMATCH BETWEEN POLICY

AND PRACTICE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

It is specified by the current National Education Act that there must be changes in the teaching approach in Thai schools and other educational institutions. In order to achieve the desired reform of Thai education, there is a need to change both curricular and the teaching–learning processes. The Ministry of Education has provided the framework for the core curriculum, which was aligned with the National Education Act 1999 (The Office of National Education Commission, 2000). This included objectives, standards, and assessment, and evaluation methods of teaching and learning. Educational institutions were allowed to adapt the curriculum, teaching–learning activities, materials, and time allocation to the needs of the local community. Accordingly, the local curriculum was required to take into account "the balance of acquiring knowledge, critical thinking, practical tools, and virtue, and social responsibility" (Atagi, 2002, p. 31). In terms of the teaching–learning process, the key reform in relation to pedagogy has been the mandating of the attempt to bring together the Western notion of learner-centred pedagogy and Thai traditional values. The learner-centred approach was regarded as one of the central themes in education reform (The Office of National Education Commission, 2000). Therefore, the ONEC proposed requirements for applying learner-centred teaching approaches in the teaching and learning process (Office of National Education Commission 2000). For example, educational institutions had to develop effective learning processes. The achievements could be assessed by testing and/or through observation of students' performance, such as their learning behaviour, and their participation in activities. In addition, the reform also required that individual learners be considered in organising teaching and learning activities. Teachers were required to act as facilitators, whereas students were urged to be more responsible for their own learning with help from teachers. To do that, learners should be encouraged to be part of the lesson, to interact with the material, with each other, and with the teacher in an active way (Office of National Education Commission 2000).

The requirements of the recent education reform have therefore brought about the reform of pedagogy in all areas. In particular, the reform has affected the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Thailand. The Education Act stipulated that the teaching and learning of a foreign language must incorporate more learner-centred approaches with an emphasis on developing communicative competence in both speaking and writing. The expected pedagogy was teaching language at the level of discourse or contextualisation as well as at the traditional level of grammar and vocabulary (Office of the National Education Commission, 2000). Moreover, Thai EFL teachers were expected to foster collaborative learning, thinking processes, and the use of English by changing themselves from tellers to facilitators, and from material users to teaching material creators in order to promote learners' constructive self-learning (Wongsothorn, 2002).

Although the Ministry of Education made efforts to improve the standard of English language teaching and learning by changing the purposes of the EFL curriculum, and English teaching–learning processes, the outcomes have not been as successful as they expected. This is seen clearly in the results of several studies showing that Thai graduates' English communicative proficiency was relatively low (Kongpetch, 2003; Noom-ura, 2013; Prapphal, 2003; Wiriyachitra, 2002; Wongsothorn, 2002). It was found that a number of factors had contributed to the lack of success in changing the way of teaching and learning in Thailand.

For example, some factors relate to the lack of clarity of the curriculum and the directions for changing the teaching–learning processes. According to Darasawang and Todd (2012) and UNESCO (2015), the current National Education Act provided educators and teachers with unclear directions regarding the purpose of the curriculum and how it should be implemented (UNESCO, 2015). For instance, it did not provide a clear theoretical underpinning for the curriculum nor did it offer information about what effective pedagogy means in a standards-

based environment. As a consequence, although the Thai EFL teachers were encouraged by the recent education reform to adapt their teaching approaches to be more contextualised and encourage active interaction in classrooms, they appeared to adhere to the deductive teaching approach to which they were accustomed (Darasawang & Todd, 2012).

These factors concern Thai EFL teachers. According to Wongsothorn (2002), the Thai EFL teachers did not change their teaching approach from the grammar-translation method to a more contextualized language teaching for promoting communicative competence because they still lacked knowledge, and practical experience of the contextualized language teaching. They found difficulties in arranging activities corresponding to the aim of the lesson and to suit the students. Therefore, they tended to lack confidence in their own abilities to carry out the new way of teaching. The literature related to this issue (e.g. Suratruangchait et al., 2006; Punthumasen, 2007; Thep-ackarapong, 2009) has suggested that in order to motivate teachers to change their teaching approaches as required by the current National Education Act, it is important to provide them with extensive training and assistance that can promote learner-centered instruction. Moreover, teacher education programs also need to start training their pre-service teachers about the learner-centred approach, and contextualised language teaching in the early years of their teacher education.

TEACHING AND LEARNING WRITING IN ENGLISH IN THAILAND

Several studies (e.g., Arunsirot, 2013; Dueraman; 2015; Kansopon; 2012; Wongsothorn, 2001) have revealed that Thai students had relatively low English writing proficiency. They further pointed out that the Thai students appeared to be unable to apply their knowledge of English language to write a paragraph and/or text in English. The cause of students' low writing proficiency was found to arise from the teaching approach used for English language writing.

Writing instruction in most classrooms, including the university under investigation in this research appeared to rely on first language writing theory, and the grammar-translation approach (Dueraman, 2015). A typical writing class starts with an explanation of relevant grammar, vocabulary, and perhaps some aspects of how to write a main idea and supporting idea in sentences (Arunsirot, 2013), the focus of teaching, and the use of sentence-level writing exercises. Moreover, the teaching and learning of writing in many Thai classrooms relies on teacher-modelling whereby, after explaining the relevant knowledge of English language, Thai EFL teachers demonstrate how to write a paragraph or a text in front of the class, and allow their students to observe or copy the teacher's model text onto their notebooks (Arunsirot, 2013). In particular, teaching English language writing at the tertiary level has relied most on teacher-centered approach with the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP or 3Ps) teaching approach (Noom-ura, 2013). The implementation of this teaching approach in the Thai context relies on the fact that the teacher provided students with lecturing at the beginning of the lesson. Then, the teachers required students to do writing exercises that focussed on sentence-level discourse or on a worksheet before having each student construct a whole written text as the final assignment of the course. The discussion of the PPP is provided in the next chapter.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have pointed out important information that is necessary for understanding the education system of Thailand, teacher education, the perspective of teaching and learning in the Thai context, English language teaching and learning in Thailand, and the issues of English language education particularly in the Thai context. This issue then became the current problem that led me to conduct this research as discussed in the previous chapter. Moreover, this issue also influenced me to focus on identity construction and change of identity construction by implementing a dialogic teaching approach within the teaching and learning

cycle. The theoretical framework underpinning the focus of this research is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

Identity and Classroom Interaction

The focus of this research is on the process of change in identity or the uptake of a different way of teaching and learning that emerges through participation in dialogic interaction with the teaching and learning cycle. A dialogic approach to teaching and learning, as framed by the teaching and learning cycle was used as a mediating tool to trigger the process of change. The concept of identity through a sociocultural, situative perspective was used as a lens through which to understand the process. In particular, the concept of appropriation and mediation were used as a frame for how identity is constructed. Scaffolding underpinned by a dialogic approach to teaching and learning within the framework of the teaching and learning cycle was understood as mediation that leads to appropriation of teaching and learning via the teaching and learning cycle.

Based on the research focus, I divided the literature review of my thesis into two chapters (Chapter Three and Chapter Four). In this chapter, I provide discussion of the concept of identity and the process of identity construction, and divide the discussion of theoretical perspectives concerning the sociocultural theory used in this research into four sections. In the first section, I provide a general conceptualisation of identity and discuss change relating to identity. In the second section, I discuss the concepts of appropriation and mediation as important constructs to understand the process of change of identity or the uptake of teaching and learning. This discussion then leads to the section on scaffolding. In this third section, I explain the concept of scaffolding used in this study through the lens of sociocultural theory. More specifically, the types of scaffolding used in this study are explored as ways to stimulate classroom dialogic interaction in the forms of Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) and

Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE), turn-taking in the classroom, types of questions, wait time, and Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP).

IDENTITY FROM A SOCIOCULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

From a sociocultural perspective, the cognitive development of individuals appears on two planes. First, the development occurs on the social plane as an interpsychological category, and second within the individuals themselves as an intrapsychological category (Vygotsky, 1981). This concept allowed me to see the relationship between social interactions as intermental activity, and individual cognitive development as intramental capabilities. It also enabled me to see and be able to explain the process of identity construction that starts from an individual engaging in a particular social interaction activity, interacting with information, intellectual tools, and other individuals. Then, s/he incorporates the new tools, information, and experiences of engaging in the new activity by negotiating the new ideas, and the existing ideas.

This developmental perspective also helps me understand the processes affecting individual motivation in that the information and tools applied in the social activities become the means for mediating complex volitional behaviour of individuals (Holland & Lachicotte, 2007). Theorising identity as an outcome of interaction between an individual and social context can be considered to derive from the developmental perspective. Holland and Lachicotte (2007) described how individuals construct identities that mediate their behaviour and interpretation of the world by saying:

Identities are culturally imagined and socially recognised types – social and cultural products – that are actively internalised as self-meanings…and serve as motivation for action. People identify themselves with (and against) these socially constructed types in the various domains of their everyday lives.

(Holland & Lachicotte, 2007, p. 134)

Identity in this research is realised in socially constructed teacher and student roles. Thus, identity indicates the teacher and/or student roles that the participants of this research took up when participating in classes. The roles of teacher and student motivate particular teaching and learning practices, and expectations in classes.

I adopted the situative perspective (Greeno & The Middle School Mathematics Through Application of Project Group, 1998; Horn, Nolen & Ward, 2013), which takes sociocultural theory as the overarching frame, to explicate the concept of identity construction in this research. The situative perspective proposes that identity is developed within and influenced by contexts. In other words, the situative perspective argues that it is necessary to look at an individual's trajectory within their situated context (Greeno and The Middle School Mathematics Through Application of Project Group, 1998). Horn, Nolen, and Ward (2013) investigated trajectory through engagement in relation to the ways individuals develop understanding of relationships with tools or resources, and how they form and develop relationships with others. This perspective led me to emphasise contextualised accounts of how engagement in a particular instructional context mediates construction of a certain identity type as teacher and student, and to envision how it enables the participants of the research to engage in a particular interactional context (Greeno and The Middle School Mathematics Through Application of Project Group, 1998). This idea influenced me to investigate teacher educators' (teachers') and pre-service teachers' (students') engagement in a course of English language writing in the Thai context that provided a new way of teaching and learning, and new types of classroom activities. In doing that, I could observe how the teacher educators and the pre-

service teachers engaged in the social interaction in the seven-week course, and investigate how they understood their experiences in the course.

There are empirical studies that have adopted a situative perspective as the theoretical framework for investigating changes in practices and changes in identity, and identity construction. These studies were designed to observe their participants within particular educational contexts (e.g., Hall & Jurow, 2015; Horn, Nolen, & Ward, 2013; Peressini, et al. 2004). These studies have added to the understanding of identity as emerging through participation in practice. A few examples of these empirical studies indicate how they have contributed to this field. The first example of empirical research was conducted by Min (2013). She conducted a self-study research that aimed to investigate change in her own practice, and to understand the connection between identities and practices in relation to written feedback. Min (2013) adopted an ethnographic case study methodology using observation and interview to examine critically entries of her reflection journal, learning log, and written comments to reflect her beliefs and practices over time during the peer review training. In this study, she (the teacher/researcher) participated in an 18 week writing course the main aim of which was to develop expository essay writing skills and the trainee teacher's written feedback. It showed how the unique constitution of individual and social regulation evolves within a given situation. The research found that the teacher/ researcher's personal experiences, task characteristics, and the procedural facilitators influenced change in her identity concerning cognition, motivation, and change in her practice.

The findings revealed that her beliefs changed over time because of her realisation of the benefit of using guiding principles that were provided in the course, as a new way of giving feedback for helping students to learn. This new way of providing teacher feedback enhanced her understanding of how to give feedback. The structural change instigated a corresponding

priority shift in her comments from fixing students' problems to understanding their intentions. She started to identify students' problems, explicitly explaining the problems, and providing her students with specific suggestions. Her constant reflection, along with the explicit articulation and demonstration of her understanding in the form of peer review training helped align her feedback practices with her understanding at different points in time. That is, it can be concluded that the situational characteristics of the context influence individuals' understanding and perspectives, which in turn lead to particular practices. The study showed that a situative perspective can identify the ways that individuals characteristically engage in learning practices as aspects of their identities

The second empirical example concerns case studies conducted by Gresalfi (2004). She investigated eight students in order to characterise their mathematical identities in relation to persistent patterns of participation in classroom learning activities. The findings of her study revealed the ways that individuals differed in their tendencies to work independently or collaboratively, and in their efforts toward individual or mutual understanding of mathematical ideas and practices. The ways of participating in the two classrooms differed significantly, with one of the teachers providing more focus and direction for students to work collaboratively toward mutual understanding. Student identities appeared to be influenced by this difference in ways that are consistent with the idea that identities are constructed in interaction, influenced by the activity system in which they participate.

The above studies contributed to the choice of my research focus of looking at identity as a result of engagement in social practice. In other words, when participating in a social context, individuals construct their identities within the frame that is provided for them by the society and social situation (Holland & Lachicotte, 2007). Since individuals construct their identities by interacting in social contexts that provide and mediating tools and resources, identity may

be further constructed according to changes in the tools and resources (Holland & Cole, 1995; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Since the focus of my research is to understand change or uptake of a different way of teaching and learning, the situative sociocultural approach to identity led my attention to the process of identity construction within a particular context through the notion of mediations and appropriation. These notions were helpful in formulating the development of identity of teaching and learning which can lead to change or uptake of a different way of teaching. In particular, they helped me to understand how participants came to be able to organise themselves as 'teacher' and 'student'. In the next section, I discuss how the concepts of mediation and appropriation in a sociocultural perspective contribute to studying identity, and present research that has developed these concepts.

IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION THROUGH MEDIATION AND APPROPRIATION

In order to investigate and understand (lack of) change in the process of identity construction of teachers and learners or in their uptakes of teaching and learning, I adopted the sociocultural concepts of identity construction, appropriation and mediation. In this section, I first discuss the concept of appropriation, then, I explain the concept of mediation.

Appropriation

I used the concept of appropriation to investigate how the participants in this research might change (or not change) through their engagement in dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle. The concept of appropriation was adopted because it explains how individuals change through their involvement in one or another activity in the process of becoming

prepared for subsequent involvement in related activity (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). It also explains the way in which individuals adapt the environment's stimuli or mediating tools available in the community in order to mediate their engagement with the environment (Hasan, 2005). In other words, these tools are then used by the individuals when interacting or practising with others in the community. As a result of transforming the social into the individual, individuals also change their perceptions and practices (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Moreover, as Wertsch (1998) has explained, once an individual has constructed a certain identity, his/her pre-existing identity can be relevant to or contrast the expectations of a new community in which s/he is engaged. Therefore, s/he reorganises his/her pre-existing identity. In this way Wertsch (1998) asserted that the individual's appropriation can involve acceptance or resistance. Appropriation as acceptance occurs when there is a connection between the new mediating tools including physical tools (that enable individuals to shape and master the material environment (Hasan, 2005) and/or semiotic tools or signs (that enable individuals to use meaning to interact in the social environment and to gain mastery over their own actions (Hasan, 2005), and individuals' pre-existing understanding (Wertsch, 1998). For instance, caregivers transmit their cultural tools of intellectual adaptation that children appropriate (Wertsch, 1998). On other hand, appropriation as resistance is what Wertsch (1998) saw as resulting from friction between pre-existing understandings and mediated/mediating tools in the new context. This approach occurs when an individual engages in a community that provides new tools, information, or practices which are not consistent with his/her concepts of good or expected practices or values. As a result, s/he may not appropriate the new tools, information, or practices, or s/he may not choose to change his/her practices. In this study, a dialogic approach to teaching and learning within the framework of the teaching and learning cycle was understood as a mediating tool – a psychological tool that was used to mediate the transformation of teaching and learning identity of the research participants. The idea of appropriation as acceptance or resistance is useful for my study because it allowed me to

analyse the way teachers' and students' identities were negotiated in terms of what changed and/or did not change after engaging in a new way of teaching and learning through dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle. This new way of teaching and learning is explained later in this chapter.

Appropriation has been used as a key concept for understanding change in engagement in education context. The study of Flores and Day (2006), for example, adopted the concept of appropriation as identity construction in order to investigate transformation of the participants' engagement in a new school context. They studied the way school culture, which was in stark contrast to the participants' prior school experiences, shaped and reshaped the teacher identities of the participants – fourteen newly graduated Australian teachers. Their findings showed that most of the teachers resisted adopting the values and norms of the school in the first year. However, they started to appropriate these through gradually adopting the school culture into their own practices in the second year. The findings described how by being involving in social interaction within the school culture, the teachers gradually shifted from initial enthusiasm which were their pre-existing understandings of conservatism and compliance. Vadeboncoeur, Vellos, and Goessling (2011) supported the idea that the process of identity construction or reconstruction is slow. These studies supported the point that the mediated tools including signs provided in a community stimulated the development of self, and determined who the individuals become through the process of identity construction (Baumgartner, 2001). This appeared to be a useful framework for analysing the process of change in my research.

Based on the concept of appropriation, and the related studies as discussed earlier, I realised that in order to promote change or uptake of a different way of teaching and learning, mediation plays an important role as the stimulus that drives the process of identity reconstruction. Therefore, mediation in the sociocultural perspective is another key concept in my study. This concept is discussed in the next section.

Mediation

Providing new teaching practices as a form of mediation can influence the process of appropriation (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). This can lead to change in identity or uptake of a different way of teaching and learning. I particularly adopted Wertsch's (1991) idea of mediation as the guideline for defining mediation in my research. Wertsch (1991) expanded the dimension of the mediation in identity construction from symbolic to material artefacts or what he called explicit and implicit mediation.

The concept of explicit mediation was adopted as a framework in this research. Explicit mediation refers to the use of a new set of artificial stimuli or signs that serve as auxiliary means in social activities (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Lantolf & Thorne 2006). Wertsch (2007) pointed out that there are two main characteristics of explicit mediation. First, it is explicitly introduced by an external agent (Wertsch, 1998) such as a teacher, or someone else such as a researcher. The external agent intentionally introduces a stimulus means into the course of an activity (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). Second, the "materiality of the stimulus means, or signs involved, tends to be obvious and nontransitory" (Wertsch, 2007, p. 180).

I found that the study of Leontiev called *The forbidden colour* is important for understanding explicit mediation, and the process of appropriation. Leontiev (1994 as cited in Van de Veer, 2009, p. 34) studied how individuals used signs given by social contexts in different stages of development. He examined how his four participant groups including different age groups used the colour cards given by the researcher to help themselves answer questions and avoid answering with certain colour terms. Leontiev found that the youngest group of children aged between five and seven were unable to use the sign (colour cards) as attentional aids to help them answer the questions. For example, when blue and red were forbidden colours, the

participants needed to use the blue and red card to aid their performance by showing the researcher the cards. The older children group age eight to thirteen, on the other hand were able to use the sign to mediate their actions. They used the colour cards to aid their performance. They looked at the cards before answering questions so that they could avoid saying the forbidden colour terms. However, the adult group did not need to use the colour cards to help avoid the forbidden colour terms. Leontiev further pointed out that the group of adults did not need to use external cultural signs. Instead, they relied upon the internal sign or inner speech to mediate their performance (Van der Veer, 2009). This internal sign which relates to what is going on in an individual head is implicit mediation.

Leontiev interpreted these findings as evidence for the gradual mastery of external mediation. These findings were then taken as a model for normal individuals' mental development. That is, it is speculated that human development starts from the stage of individuals not yet being capable of using the available tools provided in the social interaction. The second stage is when an external tool is used when individuals overwhelmingly rely on the available external mediation. Finally, the third stage is internal mediation, which is when external mediation is replaced by implicit mediation. These findings imply that the role of external mediation is that of as stimulus for development. In other word, appropriation must pass firstly through an external material stage or explicit mediation, then this external mediation is appropriated to become the individuals' implicit mediation. This process implies the influence of mediation in identity reconstruction and suggests ways that could lead to change of identity for my research.

As pointed out in Chapter One, I support the participants of the research to change the way of teaching and learning in an English language writing course. Teaching is regarded as mediation of learning. From a sociocultural perspective, a learner's strong classroom participation cannot be regarded as the consequence of his/her innate ability, but as a measure of the access to the

interaction with teachers' supports or scaffolding. Hand and Gresalfi (2015) and Calabrese-Barton et al. (2013) asserted that teachers' practices that involve a clear access to a new domain and salient roles for learners enabled learners to arrange themselves regarding the domain in ways that supported the negotiation of productive learning identities. In the next section, I discuss scaffolding, or the way that I conceptualised teaching-related mediation in this research.

SCAFFOLDING

In this study, I used the teaching and learning cycle as scaffolding in order to provide the context for which interactional scaffolding – dialogic interaction – could occur. According to Hammond and Gibbons (2005), "without the existence of the designed-in features…interactional support may become a hit and miss affair that may contribute little to the learning goals of specific lessons or units of work" (p. 20). The teaching and learning cycle was conceptualised as a designed-in feature to enable dialogic interaction. In this section, first I discuss the concepts of scaffolding and of dialogic interaction as interactional scaffolding. The next chapter describes how these concepts were applied in my research project, in which the teaching and learning cycle in a genre-based approach was used as context for providing the interactional scaffolding and as the tool to investigate dialogic interaction.

Scaffolding from a Sociocultural Perspective

Sociocultural theory influenced my thinking regarding the development of educational knowledge, helping me see that this should be regarded as a social rather than an individual process. Instead of seeing learning as the transmission of knowledge, learning should be seen as the expansion of learners' potential to construct knowledge. This conceptualisation has considerable implications for how to scaffold learning.

I conceptualised scaffolding in this study as the teacher engaging students in active teacher–student interaction. This idea was influenced by Vygotsky's notion of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which refers to the cognitive gap between what learners can do alone and what they can do with the assistance of teachers as expert others (Vygotsky, 1978). ZPD provides the idea of the role of the teacher in that the teacher initially takes an authoritative role which is similar to how an expert supports an apprentice. At the beginning, the teacher provides contributions to support dependent contribution from the learners until the learners' independent contributions increase. Then the teacher diminishes the contribution, and allows learners to proceed independently with no support from the teacher.

From this perspective, scaffolding can also be understood in relation to dynamic assessment (DA). The DA approach refers to methods of conducting a language assessment that target the range of what learners are not yet able to do independently but can potentially do in cooperation, or in a collaborative activity (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). By adopting this approach, the role of teachers moves away from that of the traditional assessor to that of responsive assistant (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008), who firstly observes learners in order to discover their current level of performance and understanding, then adjusts, or selects suitable ways of assisting learners. These suitable assistances enable learners to advance in their learning (Rivera et al., 1999). This idea led me to conceptualise the role of teachers as co-constructors of knowledge who try to engage learners in dialogic interaction in order to effectively support learners to connect the abstract concept to the concrete (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). Moreover, it also implied that the role of teacher in this study includes having a significant degree of control over the interaction in terms of how they adopt interactive scaffolding to engage students in the co-construction of knowledge. In the next section, I explore the concept of dialogic teaching and learning – then I address dialogic interaction as interactional scaffolding, which the teachers in this study (including myself) used to scaffold co-construction of knowledge.

THE CONCEPT OF DIALOGIC TEACHING AND LEARNING

According to the requirement of the recent Education Act (as discussed in Chapter Two) and in line with my attempt to change teaching and learning English writing in the Thai context so that it moves from recitation to being more active, I selected dialogic teaching and learning in the teaching and learning cycle as a new way of teaching and learning. Dialogic teaching is grounded in research on the relationships between language, learning, thinking and understanding, and in observational evidence on what makes for good learning and teaching (e.g., Choi, Tatar, & Kim, 2014; Gillies, 2015; Lisanza, 2012). According to Alexander (2008), dialogic teaching means using ongoing talk between the teacher and students, as opposed to transmissive teaching, in an effective way in order to carry out teaching and learning. This kind of teacher–students talk is used to stimulate and extend students' thinking and advance their learning and understanding (Alexander, 2008).

Alexander (2008) further pointed out that there are five principles designed to ensure whether or not teacher–student interaction in classrooms is dialogic. These principles of dialogic teaching indicate that teachers need to be: collective, in that teachers and students collaboratively address learning tasks; reciprocal in that teachers and students attend to each other, share ideas, and consider alternative ideas; supportive, where students help each other's learning; cumulative in that teachers and students construct knowledge and understanding in relation to each other's ideas to make coherent investigations; and purposeful in that teachers design discussion to achieve specific education goals.

Moreover, Mercer and Littleton (2007) suggested that to achieve truly dialogic interactions between teachers and students that can mediate student learning, it is critically important that teachers use different types of questions that have a range of communicative functions. For instance, teachers can use questions that aim at testing students' factual knowledge, and that

encourage students to make explicit their thoughts, reasons and understandings. Moreover, within the dialogic interaction in second or foreign language classrooms teachers can also model ways of using language that students can appropriate for themselves, and the teacher can also provide opportunities for students to engage in sustained interactions that allow them to articulate their understandings and clarity their misconceptions (Mercer & Littleton, 2007).

Alexander (2008) additionally added that to create dialogic interaction in the classroom, teachers should not focus only on eliciting students' brief factual responses or aim only at testing or using recall questions, or merely leading students to spot the answer which they think the teacher wants to hear. Instead, the teacher should have pedagogical strategies to accommodate different teaching approaches. These strategies are used to promote the kind of teacher–student talk in the classroom that can engage both teacher and students in dialogic exchanges, and to encourage students, in turn, to explain, ask questions, argue, reason or provide evidence, justify, and negotiate outcomes (Alexander, 2008). In addition, Alexander (2008) pointed out that dialogic refers not only to teacher–student interaction, but also to student–student interaction. In the dialogic classroom, teachers promote more student–student interaction. This can be done by providing their students with opportunities to engage in collaborative group work discussion that requires students to attend to what other students have to say and talk more purposefully towards solving problem issues.

The concept of dialogic interaction in the classroom was considered an effective way of teaching, which research has shown to be related to students' learning and development (see for an overview Howe & Abedin, 2013; Mercer & Dawes, 2014; van der Veen, & van Oers, 2017). However, the literature relating to dialogic interaction did not seem to identify a specific form of dialogic teaching. Rather, many of them indicated that the authoritative discourse in dialogic classroom interaction that involves the teacher focusing on students' attention on the

problem as they are led through a question and answer regime, seems to be similar to an IRF interaction. Therefore, I chose to adopt IRF with the intention of consolidating students' understanding of the problem as a helpful form of dialogic interaction in this study. Moreover, influenced by the concept of dialogic teaching as explained above, I designed pedagogical strategies for stimulating students to engage in dialogical ways. In the next subsection, I discuss Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) as a form of dialogic interaction, and the strategies that were implemented in this study.

Dialogic Interaction as Interactional Scaffolding Used in this Study

Based on the concept of scaffolding as explained earlier in this chapter, I conceptualised interactional scaffolding in my study as dialogic classroom interaction through a triadic interaction pattern – Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) – because this interactional pattern allows teacher and students to take turns in co-constructing knowledge within a predictable structure. Since it is a predictable structure, I saw that it would be easy for Thai students to follow, and to understand their turn taking, given that they focused on learning content, and were not accustomed to active discussion in the classroom (Darasawang & Todd, 2012; Foley, 2005; Low & Warawudhi, 2016; Phonhan; 2016; Prakongchati, 2012; Thongsukkaew & Rampai, 2014; UNESCO, 2006). Within the IRF, I emphasised the role of teachers in engaging learners to take turns to talk by using questions to initiate discussion, and as a follow-up of students' contributions. Moreover, I also focused on particular pedagogical strategies suggested by Alexander (2008), which include types of questions, and wait time that can stimulate students to engage in dialogic interaction in order to co-construct knowledge. In addition, as I initially observed teachers and pre-service teachers' engagement in the teaching and learning cycle, I found that the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) which is the traditional teaching pattern in the Thai context, and Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE)

triadic dialogue appeared to be a conspicuous element of teacher–student interaction. Therefore, I decided to provide the discussion of the concepts of PPP, and IRE in order to help the readers make sense of what was happening during the course.

In the next subsections, first, I discuss the IRF and IRE as a way of scaffolding learning in classroom interaction. Second, I provide the discussion of turn-taking and classroom questioning. Third, I look closely at different types of questions that teachers can use to stimulate students' contribution. Fourth, I explore the idea of wait time as a strategy to engage students to talk/discuss in classrooms. Fifth, I discuss the PPP as a further way of scaffolding learning that occurs frequently in the Thai context.

IRF and IRE

IRF and IRE are triadic dialogic classroom interactions comprising three parts, namely, the teacher engaging in interaction by asking questions, allowing learners' responses, and giving feedback based on the accuracy of the learners' responses (Butterfield & Bhatta, 2015; King, 2018; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). In this way, the two dialogic classroom interactions differ in the last turn: in IRF, the I represents an initiating move, such as questions posed by the teacher, R stands for the response from learners, and F stands for follow-up or feedback from the teacher. However, in IRE, the last turn is the follow-up move, whch is largely evaluative, normally taking the form of an explicit acceptance or rejection of learners' responses, or an implicit indication that the answers are unacceptable (Boyd & Rubin, 2006). According to Wells (1999), the IRF appears to be more dialogic than the IRE because in the last move of the IRF the teachers follow up on learners' responses by providing elaboration and comments, asking for elaboration, challenging learners through asking probing questions, and giving learners opportunities to express their ideas, and opinion. In contrast, in the IRE the teachers have

complete control over the content presented in the classroom, and evaluate learners' responses based on their own viewpoints (Lin & Lo, 2016). Moreover, the teachers generally take the main role in speaking in the class and presenting the ideas (Lin & Lo, 2016).

Several researchers who have used classroom observation in the western world (Cazden, 1988; Creese, 2006; Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Lin & Lo, 2016; Wells & Mejia Arauz, 2006) have documented that IRF appears to be a common instructional pattern of classroom context. The comparatively few studies conducted in Asian classrooms (e.g., Bui, 2004 as cited in Bao, 2014, p. 135; Butterfields & Bhatta, 2015; Lin & Lo, 2016; Ozemir, 2009; Rashidi & Rafieerad, 2010; Waring, 2009) have reported that the IRF was also applied. The studies similarly reported that the use of this tightly-framed participation pattern usually started from the teachers initiating learning topics by asking questions with the purpose of checking learners' knowledge and understanding, and the mastery of what had been taught (Lin & Lo, 2016; Naruemon, 2003). Then, learners were expected to display what they knew, or learned by answering the teachers' questions. Wells and Mejia Arauz, (2006) explained that through this exchange sequence, the teachers do not merely control the direction of classroom participation and content presented in the class but also stimulate learners to take an active part in the activities. In particular, Rashidi and Rafieerad (2010) also pointed out that by initiating the sequence, teachers have the exclusive right to organise and orchestrate lessons, to start a new topic whenever they want to nominate turns such as who takes the floor for a speaking turn, and when learners can bid for a turn. Moreover, Edwards and Westgate (1994) pointed out that IRF provides teachers and learners with a familiar interactive structure. Therefore, the learners have a clear understanding of teachers' expectations regarding behaviour and interaction in the classroom (Edwards & Westgate, 1994).

Although the triadic sequence of IRF is commonly used in the classroom, there has been disagreement among classroom researchers regarding its educational value. For example, Cullen (2002) documented that heavy reliance on the IRF limits learners' learning opportunities. In the IRF triadic pattern, teachers dominate the classroom talk through directing, eliciting, and evaluating. Thus, the use of IRF appears to be more facilitative of the teachers' control of classroom discourse than of learners' learning (Lemke, 1990) Van Lier (1996) supported this point. He argued that the IRF exchange can be interpreted as acting rather than genuine communication in classrooms, and that the teachers provide limited opportunities for learners to talk about, negotiate and elaborate ideas and knowledge presented in the class. Therefore, learners tend not to construct knowledge from the conversation with the teacher. Lemke (1990) also elaborated this point, arguing that the IRF has a powerful impact on learners' epistemologies regarding their approach to knowledge. In this way, the overuse of IRF tends to limit learners' opportunity to contribute since "…students have little or no opportunity for initiative, for controlling the direction of the discussion, or for contesting teacher prerogatives under triadic dialogues" (Lemke, 1990, p. 11) As a result, learners tend to perceive that their role in the class is to be the receivers of knowledge that is mainly contributed by teachers.

Moreover, Alexander (2008) further argued that implementing IRF triadic dialogue results in talk that is a one-sided and cognitively unchallenging dialogic exchange; this kind of dialogic teaching approach may inhibit students' development or limit them from exercising their explanatory capacities. Teachers who use IRF as a way to stimulate dialogic teacher–student interaction may be ill-informed about students' understandings, and as a consequence "lose the diagnostic element that is essential if their teaching is to be other than hit-or-miss" (Alexander, 2008, p. 93). Recent research by Howe and Abedin (2013) also supports this support. They indicated that classroom dialogue across four decades seemed to adopt IRF as a form of dialogic interaction in classrooms. They pointed out that this type of teacher–student interaction was still adopted because teachers' understandings of teaching and learning tend to

rely on a transmission process where students are instructed in basic information and talked at rather than talked with (Howe & Abedin, 2013). They furthermore indicated that it may also be because of the organisational structure of the classroom where students hardly ever work in groups and if they do, they are rarely structured so as to facilitate rich dialogic exchanges of ideas and understandings.

While many researchers have argued against the extensive use of the IRF, this triadic pattern has been conceptualised as dialogic. Wells (1993), for example, proposed that the F move can be used to "extend the student's answer, to draw out its significance or to make connections with other parts of students' total experience" (p. 30). He further stated that the F sequence can be developed into a genuine dialogic co-construction of meaning (Wells, 1993). Nystrand (1997) also asserted that the teachers should provide "high-level evaluation" that is not only the teacher's acknowledgement of student responses, but also incorporation of student responses into the course of discussion. This high-level evaluation is dialogic and can be used to generate discussion and enhance the length of learner contributions (Nystrand, 1997).

Scholars in language and literacy education who draw on a sociocultural perspective in their work have supported the point that the IRF can be used as a way to scaffold learning in ESL and EFL (e.g., Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). According to Hammond (2001), teachers asking questions through the IRF pattern provides a scaffold for learners to deepen or enhance their understanding. However, the teachers should reformulate or extend the F turn (Hammond, 2001). Lin (2007) and Haneda (2005) also suggested that teachers can use the F move as a chance to challenge learners and follow up on learners' responses by asking follow-up questions that require learners to engage in further talk; indeed, Hammond (2001, p. 40) stated that "the extension of dialogue between teachers and students provides a 'push' for students as they work within the zone of proximal development". Additionally, Martin and Rose (2005)

and Rose and Martin (2012) indicated that the teaching and learning cycle can resemble the IRF pattern. They further suggested that in order to scaffold learning through the IRF pattern within the teaching and learning cycle, the I move should not be used simply for eliciting learners' responses, but be carefully planned to prepare learners to respond successfully. Moreover, the F move should also not simply be used for evaluating learners' responses, but should be designed for affirming and elaborating shared knowledge about the text features. The extension to the feedback response through teachers' questioning provides opportunities for the teachers to scaffold learning in the co-construction of knowledge. Therefore, learners gain new information or new knowledge and incorporate it into their existing understanding/knowledge (Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Wells, 1999).

It appears that the F move determines the dialogic nature of the IRF, albeit in a constrained way. When teachers dominate the F move through evaluation, they tend to suppress learners' participation. On the other hand, when the teacher requests justifications, connections, or counter-arguments and allows learners to self-select in making their contribution, these strategies can promote learners' participation and offer learners more opportunities for learning. This also implies the importance of the use of other strategies in IRF such as turn-taking, classroom questioning, and wait time, which are used to push learners into further discussion. In the next subsection, I discuss these three strategies.

Besides reviewing the literature concerning IRE and IRF, I was also aware of different repertoires of interactional patterns which are promoted by genre theorists. For example, Derewianka (2018) suggested that in terms of dialogic teaching, teachers need a model of context that can help them identify optimal conditions for learning. In this way, Derewianka (2018) draws on the idea of systemic functional linguistics - that is field, tenor, and mode - as keys factors to frame language use in talk in school contexts. Based on this idea, Derewianka

(2018) focuses on how language changes depending the three contextual variables. This idea is based on the thought of the relationship of speech and writing as the way to help students to move from the spoken mode form of language towards effective control of the writing mode. Derewianka (2018) saw that the spoken mode is easy to create, spontaneous and allows for the free flowing exchange of understandings. This language mode therefore can be used as a tool that allows students to construct knowledge and understanding of a topic as they learn to write and students can easily contribute their idea and perspectives (Mercer, Dawes & Kleine Staarmanc, 2009 as cited in Derewianka, 2018).

On the other hand, written language is extended, and needs to be coherently structured (Derewianka, 2018). In order to be able to write, students need to do more work in terms of creating a more information-dense language, and making more intentional choices of language features (Derewianka, 2018). Derewianka (2018) suggested that during the dialogic interaction, the teacher allows student to use spoken language to talk that can be broken and short and encourage students to speculate, and explain. Then, the teacher provide student with prompting. Once the students become more confident in their understanding and language, the teacher can start to encourage students to take on the characteristics of written language where extended meanings are expressed coherently as rehearsal for writing. I understood that this idea of creating dialogic contexts for learning seems to be helpful for the non-native English speaking students who were learning in classroom that required them to speak English in classroom because they did not necessarily share a language with the teacher. According to Derewianka (2018), I regarded the idea of using spoken language as tool for co-constructing idea to be useful for planning the way teachers can support students in the stage of joint construction where teacher and students work corroboratively to write a text and students are required to begin to contribute to the construction of the text while teacher can acts as a scribe.

The teacher initiation move in the IRF pattern does not only relate to how teachers present and deliver subject knowledge, but also how they apportion communicative rights. Within the IRF, the teachers can use various strategies for regulating turns. For example, in the I move, the teachers can address the question to the whole class or select a specific learner to respond (Bao, 2014). In the F move, the teachers can choose to give the floor back to the learner who responded before by asking him/her to modify, elaborate ideas or give the floor to other learners (Bao, 2014). Zhang and Zhou (2004) conducted a study in China in order to investigate strategies that teachers deployed in the classroom to elicit learners' responses. They found that the teachers in their study used four main strategies: individual nomination, invitations to reply, students' volunteering, and the teacher's self-answer. They also found that the teacher's self-answer was used most because it helped to save time. However, they were concerned that over-use of the teacher's self-answer can lead to learners' over-dependence on teachers and considerably reduce the significance of eliciting responses (Zhang & Zhou, 2004). Given the importance of concerns about eliciting learners' responses and dialogic engagement, in the next subsection, I therefore look at the implementation of different types of questions as a way to stimulate students to participate in the co-construction of knowledge.

Types of Questions

In this study, teacher questioning was regarded as teachers' chosen pedagogic strategy for scaffolding learning to lead students to deeper thinking. The implementation of questions can be regarded as a tool to encourage students to participate in negotiation of understanding in order to co-construct knowledge (Sullivan & Clarke, 1991). Researchers on teacher questioning and students' learning (e.g., Creese; 2006; Fusco; 2012) used different ways to classify questions used in classrooms. The following categories have proven useful in my study:

display or literal questions, reference questions, and metacognitive questions (Fusco; 2012; Long & Sato; 1983).

According to Long and Sato (1983), display questions are used in order to check students' knowledge or to elicit recall information. Tsui (1995 as cited in Creese, 2006, p. 440) additionally explained that this kind of question generates interactions that involve didactic discourse. They are often used in order to gain factual responses and are what Fusco (2012) has called closed-ended questions because they have only one right answer. On the other hand, referential questions are used to encourage learners to manipulate the information in some way in order to construct an appropriate answer (Fusco, 2012). This kind of question is also known as an opened-ended question (Fusco, 2012) because there is no single correct answer and learners are allowed to develop their own ideas and reasoning (Fusco, 2012; Sullivan & Clarke, 1991). When a teacher asks referential questions, they aim to encourage learners to elaborate, clarify and summarise their ideas and thinking, to investigate more complex issues, to seek multiple perspectives, to encourage learners to present evidence for their claims, and to build a tone of acceptance of different ideas (Creese, 2006). Creese and Blackledge (2010) asserted that using referential questions in the classroom helps teaching and learning go beyond the memorisation of factual information because such questions can lead learners to the process of using inferential knowledge and reasoning for constructing knowledge.

Along with display and inferential questions, Creese and Blackledge (2010) additionally proposed the use of metacognitive questions. This type of question can stimulate learners to express their opinion based on the topic or concepts, or to reflect on their own thinking, and learning. According to Fusco (2012), metacognitive questions influence learners to become aware of their own thinking and engage learners in the process of thinking that helps them build their cognitive skills.

Several researchers have conducted studies on the use of teacher questioning in ESL and EFL classrooms. They focused on exploring questioning behaviours and learning opportunities. They found that the use of referential questions can stimulate much longer and syntactically more complex learners' responses than applying display questions (e.g., Brock, 1986). However, many scholars have also argued against the findings concerning referential questions as a better support for student learning. For example, Wu (1993) and Dalton-Puffer (2006) pointed out that teachers' use of certain types of questions does not guarantee better learning. Boyd and Rubin (2006) also support this point. They examined teacher questioning and learning opportunities, and found that display questions engendered as many extended utterances as referential questions. Moreover, these utterances can help support the cognitive quality (Boyd and Rubin, 2006).

However, many studies also argued that to support learners' learning, teachers should use the three types of questions together in order to stimulate learners to participate in active classroom discussion as well as to participate in the process of classroom co-construction of knowledge. According to Wright (2016), display questions can be used in the initiation stage to help learners establish the factual foundation on which they can base their inferences. In this way, these questions can serve as "a warm-up" to referential questions (Wright, 2016). Then, referential questions and metacognitive questions can be used as follow-up questions (Wright, 2016). Pagliaro (2011) also supported this point, arguing that using the three types of questions as the baseline questions allows learners to give responses that determine the direction of the classroom discussion. Moreover, she pointed out that these follow-up questions can effectively support learning in the classroom because learners can build their understanding and knowledge over time through the follow-up responses of their peers (Pagliaro, 2011). Hammond (2001) supported this point, asserting that pushing learners to provide extended reformulation responses can draw learners along a line of reasoning which leads to "metastatements". According to Hammond (2001), the metastatement "creates a kind of

conceptual hook for the students, which may then be used to build new understanding" (p.35). In this way, teachers scaffold learners' extension of understanding through interactive talk. Furthermore, McCormick and Donato (2000) investigated teachers using questioning in an ESL context in order to see how questions were deployed as scaffolding devices to enable learners to achieve tasks beyond them. Their study supported the value of dynamic nature of questions or follow-up questions in classrooms.

In addition to teacher questioning, I also found that several scholars paid attention to wait time as critical in the process of asking questions in classroom. Therefore, in the next subsection I discuss wait time as a strategy for stimulating learners' participation in teacher-–student interaction.

Wait Time

Wait time in my research refers to the pauses that teachers make after asking questions in order to provide time for learners to think before responding to questions (Fusco, 2012). Wait time was regarded as scaffolding in my study because I found that it could help stimulate students to engage in discussion. Therefore, I decided to use wait time as a criterion to prove students' engagement in dialogic interaction.

According to Pagliro (2011), wait time appears to have effects on learners' participation in teacher–student interaction. Rowe (1978 as cited in Fusco, 2012, p. 61) conducted an experiment on wait time that the teachers allowed after asking questions in classrooms and found that the average wait time between the question and the answer was less than 1 second. In a few classrooms, the teacher provided a longer pause or wait time, and Rowe noticed that learners' responses appeared to improve. She concluded that increasing wait time changed the

discussion from an inquisitional nature where teacher did most of the structuring and soliciting, and students did the responding, to a more conversational nature where both the teacher and the students participated in structuring, soliciting, and responding. She additionally suggested that teachers should pause at least 3-5 seconds after asking a question and selecting a learner to reply. Walsh and Satte (2005) built on Rowe's research and also found that learner responses improved when the teacher allowed 3-5 seconds of wait time. They concluded that enough wait time provides learners the chance to stop in order to think, and reflect about what has been asked before they respond (Walsh & Sattes, 2005). Other research such as that of Bao (2014) and Tomlinson (2000) supported this point. They reported that when teachers gave learners sufficient time, learners could use their metacognitive skills or the ability to reflect on their own thinking before responding. In this way, learners are more apt to consider their response in relation to the question asked (Sullivan & Clark, 1991; Tomlinson, 2000).

Although various studies on wait time have pointed out the positive effects of providing longer wait time, much research that has investigated teacher--student interaction through teacher questioning and student response in the Asian context has indicated that the practice is not well established. For example, Bao (2014) revealed that teachers often asked questions, then immediately called on a learner to respond, immediately reacted to the learner's response, and immediately asked other questions. Walsh and Sattes (2005) explained that there are many reasons for teachers having difficulty with wait time. The reasons include the discomfort of silence, fear of embarrassing the learners, and the stress of a packed curriculum (Walsh & Sattes, 2005). Fusco (2012) provided suggestions to motivate teacher to use wait time, stating that teachers need to understand the main aim of wait time, which is to produce highly effective responses that bring about genuine thinking, understanding of learners, and genuine classroom dialogic discourses in classroom.

As stated earlier, the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) teaching approach was found to be a conspicuous element of teacher–student interaction in this research, which was both deductive and inductive – the latter meaning that, as I identified themes in the data, I went back to the literature to make sense of these themes. The PPP as a chosen teaching approach by the teachers thus became a principal focus.

The PPP is a pedagogical strategy to teach language items (Criado, 2013) that was introduced in Thailand as a part of communicative language teaching, and is currently implemented in Thai EFL classes (Chayararheee & Waugh, 2006; Wongsathorn at al., 1996). The PPP consists of three phases. First, teachers start the lesson with explaining and modelling in P1. Second, the teachers provide drills or controlled practice in P2. Third, the teachers finally lead learners to the transference of the knowledge/lesson to different situations in the stage of Production or P3 (Tomlinson, 2011). According to Criado, (2013), and Nikitina and Furuoka (2006), in P1, the teaching and learning process is highly controlled in its focus on showing linguistic items and structures of the targeted language, and providing learners with materials such as models or sample structures and vocabulary. This stage requires learners to inductively figure out the underlying rules and meaning (Criado, 2013). At this stage, teachers can rely on monologue and do not commonly seek to elicit verbal responses from the learners (Gibbons, 2006). Nikitina and Furuoko (2006), and Criado, (2013) pointed out that the period of teachers' presentation or the P1 is beneficial to learners' learning particularly for learners of foreign languages because it is the stage where teachers start to scaffold learning through presenting information or concepts and giving instructions that are necessary for preparing learners for assignment tasks. Consequently, learners can become confident before engaging in the tasks (Nikitina & Furuoko, 2006).

In the P2, teachers still retain a high level of control in their checking of learners' accurate understanding of the lessons or language items that are presented in the P1 (Criado, 2013). This phase aims at achieving correct forms and structures (Criado, 2013). To help learners gain the fluency in applying the language items, teachers provide learners with drills or practice activities (Criado, 2013). The phase P3 aims at increasing learners' fluency in the language use through autonomous and challenging activities such as discussion, debates, role-play, and text writing (Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006). Because of the clear steps and the dominant role of teachers, the PPP appears to be consistent with Thai traditional classroom culture. Therefore, for teachers the PPP remains a common choice for organising the foreign language classroom procedure in Thailand (Chayararheee & Waugh, 2006). The PPP allows the teachers to remain in charge of classroom activities, and provides them with a straightforward (and measurable) way to evaluate success or failure (Chayararheee & Waugh, 2006).

Moreover, the PPP strategy to teach English language is regarded as a useful formula for scaffolding learning and can help to make the move from teacher modelling to learner autonomy. Criado (2013) argued that the PPP can be used to scaffold learning in language classes because the approach follows the nature of human psychological development in learning language. In other words, the stages of the PPP involve declarative knowledge about the system and form of language, and procedural knowledge, which is the knowledge of how to use that system and the form that corresponds to P2 and P3 (Taatgen & Aderson, 2008). Hence, this strategy was adopted by many Thai English teachers and teachers still adhere to this teaching pattern even though the new Education Act tried to convince teachers to change (as discussed in Chapter Two). This provides teachers with clear practical pedagogical steps, and guidelines for supporting learners by offering them knowledge and guided practice (P1 and P2) in order to help students reach their potential performance (P3).

In addition, Hedge (2000) also pointed out that P1 and P2 are useful at a level of psycholinguistics. For instance, the presentation phase allows learners to pay attention to and notice particular linguistic features. By noticing the language feature, learners can make the link and connect what they have already known to the new forms being emphasised in order to facilitate their learning (Hedge, 2000). Cook (2001) further argued that the PPP classroom activities are predictable and expected so that learners do not worry about what is going to come next, and tend to have less anxiety when participating in classroom activities. This point also corresponds to the findings of Sánchez (2004 as cited in Criado, 2013, p. 98). Her findings argued that too much variety in organisational patterns can generate learners' anxiety and fear, which can in turn result in lower learning performance and classroom participation (2004 as cited in Criado, 2013, p. 98).

Despite the support for the PPP approach, many scholars in the foreign language teaching literature have argued that the PPP strategy for teaching language may be useless (e.g. Criado, 2013; Ellis, 2003; Lewis, 1996) because the PPP strategy emphasises linguistic components that do not promote learners' development of communicative competence (Lewis, 1996; Harmer, 1996). They pointed out that the PPP approach is based on a sentence-level theory of language. Language is presented in a decontextualised way in which language items are taught and learned as isolated elements or chunks (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Willis 1990). In addition, since the PPP focuses on language forms and structures, it emphasises accuracy and correctness (Sánchez, 2004 as cited in Criado, 2013, p. 105). Therefore, teaching and learning language through the PPP process tends to focus on encouraging learners to remember forms and structures in order to be able to write and/or speak correctly. The P2 stage in particular has often been related to mechanical drills that are not regarded to resemble real life communication. DeKeyser (2007) supported this point, asserting that focusing on forms alone cannot help learners to construct meanings and thus cannot promote the cognitive development needed for language acquisition.

Furthermore, the PPP implies that teachers take the role of informant in P1, and corrector in P2, and P3 (Tomlinson, 2011). The teachers who rely on the PPP tend to play the central role in the whole process of teaching and learning rather than allowing learners to take responsibility for their own learning. As a consequence, learners are considered to be spoon-fed by the teacher rather than to construct knowledge by themselves. They are considered to possess knowledge that lacks depth of understanding (Tomlinson, 2011). If this is the case, the PPP approach is not in line with a sociocultural perspective that emphasise learning through social interaction in which learners gradually construct knowledge with the guidance of their teachers and ultimately appropriate this knowledge.

In Thailand, many teachers in ELT scaffold their learners' development through a passive form of the PPP. However, Harmer (1996) and Criado (2013) have proposed a contemporary version of the PPP that uses interactive teaching and learning tasks inside each stage. They explained that language elements are not reduced to structures alone but the sequencing pattern can also involve vocabulary and linguistic aspects of longer stretches of discourse (Criado, 2013; Harmer, 1996). For instance, teachers can include authentic texts as model texts to teach language in context. Such texts are used as a pretext to study language forms which can be included in the stage of Presentation of structures or to study lexical items located in the text. In the Practice and Production stages, the teachers can generate samples that are similar to the language presented in the P1 stage and/or can increase self-study, get the learners to practise using the language through joint construction activities, and encourage learners to produce a piece of writing, or dialogues in role play activities. Moreover, Criado (2013) also suggested that teachers should reduce the PPP's rigid and repetitive patterns. For example, the teachers may offer P2 or P3 at the beginning of the lessons and either P1 or P2 at the end of the lessons depending on the subjects being studied.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have focused on the theoretical framework of sociocultural theory. Identity was theorised using situative perspectives under the umbrella of sociocultural theory. In order to understand how identity was constructed or changed, I focused on the process of identity construction through the concepts of appropriation and mediation. These were used as the tools for exploring (lack of) change of identity: appropriation was understood in relation to the uptake of new ways of teaching and learning and explicit mediation was presented in relation to scaffolding learning in the classroom. In this chapter, I pointed out the importance of explicit mediation as the factor influencing implicit mediation, and I analysed the concept of explicit mediation in relation to scaffolding. The scaffolding that was used in this study consisted of two layers. The first layer is interactional scaffolding – dialogic interaction, while designed-in scaffolding in the teaching and learning cycle constitutes the second layer. In this chapter, I discussed dialogic interaction as scaffolding in the form of IRF and IRE, turn-taking and classroom questioning, types of questions, wait time, and the PPP. The discussion of the teaching and learning cycle as designed-in scaffolding is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR
The Teaching and Learning Cycle

In this study, I adopted a teaching and learning cycle – a genre-based pedagogical approach that draws on systemic functional linguistics – in order to scaffold Thai pre-service teachers' learning of English language writing. The teaching and learning cycle draws on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (see Chapter 3) and can be understood as explicit mediation from a sociocultural perspective. It also draws on systemic functional linguistics which offers a way to understand language in its context of use, and English language teaching uses this theory to help second/foreign language learners comprehend and work with English (Schleppegrell, Greer & Taylor, 2008; Derewianka & Jones, 2012). The application of the teaching and learning cycle has been developed and elaborated to include dialogic pedagogies.

In Australia, the teaching and learning cycle was introduced as an alternative to student-centred communicative pedagogies (Rose & Martin, 2012). Later, the teaching and learning cycle has been adopted beyond Australia and outside the Anglosphere, including in some Asian contexts where it is being used to replace more traditional teacher-cantered pedagogies. In this chapter, I discuss the theories underpinning the teaching and learning cycle and review literature relating the applications and elaborations of the teaching-learning cycle. The period under discussion spans several years, with research being conducted over decades, regarding the shift from traditional teacher-centred pedagogies. The current study is embedded within this fluid research, adding to studies conducted in culturally and linguistically diverse contexts, like Thailand.

The traditional approach to language teaching, which is normally adopted in the Thai context, relies on teacher-dominated and decontextualised methods that focus on teaching grammatical rules, isolated sentence formats, and discrete-point items. Given that the current Education Act aiming at moving away from the traditional English language teaching to more contextualised language teaching approaches and active learning, the teaching and learning cycle appeared to be an innovative and relevant teaching method in Thai teacher education, and was therefore chosen for this study.

In this chapter, I first discuss systemic functional linguistics – the theoretical knowledge base that underpins genre-based pedagogy – and how to scaffold language development in reading. I also discuss the notion of register in order to understand the concept of teaching language from the perspective of systemic functional linguistics. Second, I link these concepts to the discussion of scaffolding language development in writing through the teaching and learning cycle in genre-based pedagogy. In this second section, I focus in particular on the discussion of genre-based pedagogy, and the teaching and learning cycle as a form of scaffolding in this study.

SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS

Systemic functional linguistics was developed by Halliday and his colleagues in response to limitations found in the traditional grammar teaching approach in schools, which is disconnected from real uses of language (Halliday, 1993). This theoretical perspective has been proven to be a useful concept for the study of texts. Halliday (1993) set out to explain the semantic functions of language patterns, by exploring their functions in discourse, in the texts that individuals actually speak or write to communicate with each other (Halliday, 1993). In other words, the focus of this theory is to analyse language as used naturally in any social

setting. The essential characteristic of systemic functional linguistics is its orientation outside linguistics towards sociology (Halliday, 1993). This view highlights the relationship between languages and how it is used based on the recognition that language varies from context to context. Halliday (1991 as cited in Ghadessy, 1999, p. xi) explained that the whole construction of language is intrinsically connected with the situational and cultural context in which language is created:

> *A theory of language in context is not just a theory about how people use language, important though that is…It is a functional explanation, based on the social-semiotic interpretation of the relations and processes of meaning [which is] fundamental in our language education work.*

<div align="right">(Halliday, 1991 as cited in Ghadessy, 1999, p. xi)</div>

Moreover, Eggins (1994) supports the idea that systemic functional linguistic provides the approach that enables linguists to analyse and explain how meanings are made in everyday linguistic interactions. Additionally, Burns and Coffin (2001, p. 96) supported this point, stating that the "SFL focus is on *semantics*, which deals with how people use language to make meaning; and *functionality,* which is concerned with the way we arrange text coherence". Therefore, the systemic functional linguistics approach sees language as a linguistic behaviour potential that is defined by the context of the situation and the culture. I saw that this approach can help the teacher and myself to know about how language works in both cultural and situational contexts. This language theory appears to be a very useful descriptive and interpretive framework for looking at language as a strategic, meaning making resource. Thus, I saw that the language perspective of systemic functional linguistics would facilitate my understanding and appropriation of a new way of teaching language that focuses on tendencies and patterns in texts which would otherwise remain hidden. It identifies such patterns through description, interpretation and ways of making meaning of texts.

Perhaps Halliday's greatest contribution is the explanation of three layers of language, particularly grammatical patterning, simultaneously serving interpersonal, ideational, and textual functions in each clause of a text (Rose, 2015). Halliday (1993) explained the functional approach to language that initially started from observations of the way children learn language. He indicated that the language advancement of the child from acquiring language to being able to master his/her own language through his/her own consciousness and control, comes only through the instruction of adults or a more competent individuals (Halliday, 1993). When the child achieves that consciousness and control over a new language function, s/he then can use it as a tool. Halliday used the stages of language development of children from early childhood to later childhood to explain how the micro functions used by children at the beginning of early childhood merge into three major meta functions in the mature language system (Foley, 1991).

Based on the idea of the functional approach to language, Derewianka and Jones (2012) suggested that studying this language development can help understand the functional approach to language in systemic functional linguistics. Moreover, studying this language development can be used to help teachers guide students' understanding of how language is used in different kinds of situations. According to Halliday (1975 as cited in Derewianka & Jones, 2012, p. 20), children start to communicate with other by using an idiosyncratic system of sounds or protolanguage, and then as they grow up they begin to use the three meta functions of language consisting of the interpersonal function, the ideational function and the textual function of language in order to make meaning. (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). In the interpersonal function, children use language to interact with others, to build relationships with others (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). For example, they develop the ability to ask questions, and engage in conversation in order to express themselves. In the ideational function, children used language to represent the world logically through experiential and logical meanings (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). In the textual function, once children start to make longer utterances, they are able to engage in organising text (spoken or written text) in a way that

makes sense to their audience; for example they can structure the flow of information, and connect different elements of the text and its context (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). These three functions of language also link to the understanding of register that is discussed in the following section.

<div align="center">REGISTER</div>

Systemic functional linguistics has been taken up English language learning functional language analysis. Halliday (1993) explained intrinsic relations between the three meta functions of language (the interpersonal, the ideational, and the textual), as discussed earlier, and three dimensions of social context or the register variables: field, tenor, and mode. Field refers to the topic to be discussed, tenor refers to the nature of the relationship between participants (i.e. speakers and listeners or writers and readers), and mode refers to the channel of communication (Halliday, 1993). When a child has learned to use language in the way that is appropriate for the context of situation, the interpersonal choices s/he makes reflect the tenor of the discourse, the ideational reflects field variables, and the textual choices reflect the medium by which they are conveyed or the mode. All of these elements of language (functions and register) relate to each other in terms of function and system within a social purpose (a particular context) as can be seen in Figure 1, which shows the complete functional model of language and context. This model illustrates the aspect of register (field, tenor, and mode) being projected onto language and influencing its use.
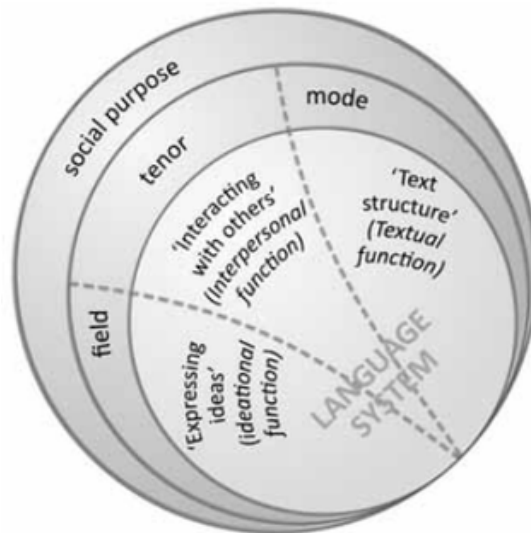
Figure 1. Functional Model of Language (Derewianka & Jones, 2012, p. 25)

In each context, a certain social purpose of the interaction which determines to genre indicates a particular register of language (Halliday, 1993). These elements of language in context are factors in the context that the individual uses to predict the language choices they might make (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). This perspective on language offers a way of teaching language known as functional perspectives for language teaching (Gibbons, 2002; Klingelhöfer & Schleppegrell, 2016).

This perspective on language teaching highlights the teaching of grammar through analysing language in a text (spoken or written) in which it is used. This way of teaching grammar does not relate to labelling grammatical elements according to the syntactic category such as nouns, verbs, adverbs, or subject, object. Instead, it focuses on identifying the configuration of grammatical structures, and connecting those grammatical choices with the social purposes, and situations (Schleppegrell, 2004). Moreover, this language teaching approach also emphasises the importance of the role of teachers in engaging students in extended conversation about the information in the texts in order to develop richer understandings of the

content, and in sensitising students to the meaning of the different choices of language that the author has made (Schleppegrell & de Oliveira, 2006).

Slater and McCrocklin (2016) support the idea of encouraging teachers to use systemic functional linguistics as a tool to analyse texts and as a way to help students work critically with texts. They supported the importance of adopting a functional language teaching approach to teach language in classroom, arguing that language teaching should not focus on teaching forms as an end in itself. Rather, it should include the three interacting dimensions of language, which are grammatical forms, functions, and meaning. In the other words, teachers should always teach grammar in reference to meaning, social factors, and discourse (Slater & McCrocklin, 2016).

Derewianka and Jones (2012) provided a clear explanation of how language teaching according to the functions of language, particularly register, can be useful for teachers as a means of developing an understanding of the genre, and for teachers' ability to chunk language meaningfully for students. Derewianka and Jones (2012) pointed out that one of the functions of language which relates to the field is to enable students to use language to express and connect ideas. They specifically showed that in the classroom context teaching about this function of language can relate to the content knowledge according to the curriculum, such as a particular field of knowledge and concepts. In order to assist students' abilities to use language to express and connect ideas, Derewianka and Jones (2012) provided a way to teach language. Instead of teaching language through identifying subjects, verbs, or objects, they suggested that teachers can chunk clauses/sentences into more meaningful way that are Participants (such as people, animals, objects, and, abstract things that participate in action), Process (such as what the participant is doing or what is happening), and Circumstance (such

as the detail surrounding an activity, as in where?, when? how? (Derewianka & Jones, 2012).

An example of this way of chunking a clause or sentence is shown in Figure 2.

The Mole	has been working	very hard	all the morning.
Participant	Process	Circumstance	Circumstance
(who?)	(what's happening?)	(how?)	(how long?)

Figure 2. The Illustration of Sentence/Clause Chunking
(adopted from Derewianka and Jones, 2012, p. 25)

After teaching students how to construct clauses or sentences, the teacher can also lead students to extend the clauses and sentences by joining clauses together to connect ideas in different ways, such as using conjunctions (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). Then the teacher can engage students in using language to interact with others. This way of teaching language relates to the interpersonal function of language, which relates to tenor (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). Derewianka and Jones (2012) suggested that the teacher can provide students with major interpersonal resources – the Mood system, and the Appraisal system (Attitude, Engagement, and Graduation). Finally, the teacher can lead students to using language to shape texts. In this stage, which refers to mode, the teacher can encourage students to apply the knowledge of language that they have learned to create a coherent and cohesive written or spoken text (Derewianka & Jones, 2012)

The idea of text analysis based on the notion of register has been regarded as a useful teaching approach for teaching reading for comprehension. For example, the study by Schleppegrell, Greer, and Taylor (2008) investigated the implementation of the idea of register that has been adopted by teachers to teach reading. Schleppegrell, Greer, and Taylor (2008) conducted a case study of one teacher's experiences demonstrating the implementation of functional language

analysis, which is an approach to secondary content area reading grounded in systemic functional linguistics (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008), to engage students in close reading and discussion of a school history text. They also report the findings that supported the effectiveness of the approach in improving students' reading and writing skills as well as their understanding of historical content. In their study, they explored the work of a teacher who adopted the functional grammar analysis. They found that the teacher chose to use sentence chunking and reference device strategies to help students explore the text and understand information they needed to write in the writing tasks. The teacher provided students with a text, and worksheet with the clause from the text followed by boxes labelled with functional grammar categories: Actor/Participant (noun), Action/Process (verb), and Receiver/Goal. The task on the worksheet also required students to analyse the grammatical elements in the clauses based on the categories. An example of the talk on the worksheet is presented in Figure 3:

its citizens had to pay heavy taxes.

Actor/Participant (nouns)	Action/ Process (verbs)	Receiver/Goal: Who or What?
its citizens	had to pay	heavy taxes

(The reference device (pronoun) *its* has to be linked back to *Rome* in the phrase *Rome's huge armies* in the previous clause to recognize *who* had to pay.)

Figure 3. An Example of the Implementation of Functional Grammar Analysis
(source: Schleppegrell, Greer, & Taylor, 2008, p. 181)

The task also required students to identify the information or reference device/s that complete/s the sentences. At the beginning of the task, the teachers modelled the analysis strategies and worked with the whole-class on one paragraph from the text. Afterward, the teacher and students read and worked through the text together clause by clause. Then the class reviewed the analysis together. In doing that, students could check their understanding and answers. During the task, the teacher also engaged students in discussion by the use of teacher questioning as scaffolding. Their study revealed that rich conversation about text during

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language analysis helped students understand how language makes meaning, and identify the elements of a clause as processes, participants and circumstances. Moreover, discussing the reference devices allowed students to see the patterns in the ways text is written.

In addition, the study of Slater and Mcrocklin (2016) focused on how to prepare teachers to use systemic functional linguistics for literary analysis in their teaching. They investigated teachers during two-hour professional development workshop aimed at promoting the use of systemic functional linguistics. Slater and Mcrocklin (2016) pointed out that in order to encourage teachers to try the new teaching approach in their classrooms, it is important to make the new teaching approach explicit and approachable for teachers.

The workshop began with the instructor of the workshop explicitly providing the teachers a brief introduction of what systemic functional linguistics is (Slater & Mcrocklin, 2016). Then, the instructor invited teachers to carry out a basic transitivity analysis of different types of texts which had been taken from both young children's book and those for older students. After that, the instructor read the text aloud to the teachers, and asked after-reading questions. Then, the teachers were given copies of the book and a worksheet that required them to carry out an analysis in small groups. The approach to analysis in this workshop was adopted from French (2009 as cited in Slater & Mcrocklin, 2016, p. 197) that focused on the cooperation between teacher and students in the analysis of language used in a storybook in terms of the pattern and choices in the wording of the book, as well as how those patterns worked to shape the story. For example, in this workshop the instructor directed the teachers to identify the processes that indicated what was being verbalised in the story, and then to explore how these processes patterned out over the full story.

In their study, the teachers were also invited to discuss the patterns they uncovered and how/whether they matched their intuitions about what the texts were about, – intuitions they had shared earlier regarding the use of adjectives. By guiding the task this way, the teachers expressed that they were able to see an obvious pattern when they had been guided to look at the processes. Slater and Mcrocklin (2016) found that the workshop appeared to be successful in introducing systemic functional linguistics to teachers who had little or no previous exposure to the teaching approach. They also asserted that by explicitly showing the process of teaching based on the perspective of systemic functional linguistics, the teachers were able to quickly grasp the idea of the teaching approach, and showed their interests in giving it a try in their own classrooms.

There are other studies supporting the implementation of functional language teaching as a way to develop students' understanding of the functions of language in written texts. For example, Fang and Schleppegrell (2010) explored how functional language analysis can be implemented in the classroom to help students construct meaning by using different texts and by engaging students to answer the three key questions about the text in order to lead students to analyse the text: (1) What is going on in this text? Who does what to whom, how, and where?, (2) How is this text organised?, and (3) How does the author of this text interact with the reader? What is the author's perspective? For example, the questions of What is going on in this text? Who does what to whom, how, and where? engaged students in the analysis of process types with accompanying participants and circumstances. The researchers explained that, to explore what was going on in the text, the teacher asked students to point out any processes. Then, the students identified the sentence. Afterward, the teacher pointed out the verbs in that sentence, explained the definitions and description in relation to how it related to being processes, and discussed how the writer of the text was using the verbs and constructing the sentences in order to convey the meaning of something being processes. Fang and Schleppegrell (2010) argued that in doing that the teacher can help students recognise language

patterns typical in different disciplines, and can raise students' awareness regarding the different ways language constructs knowledge in different subjects.

As discussed previously, the notion of register facilitates the use of functional language analysis as a teaching method for helping students to comprehend texts. The idea of register was also used to combine with the notion of genre, and has been applied as genre-based pedagogy in primary, secondary and ESL education in order to help students to learn writing. In the next section, I provide a discussion regarding genre-based pedagogy that was translated into classroom teaching practice through the teaching and learning cycle.

SCAFFOLDING WRITING

In this study I adopted the teaching and learning cycle as a way to teach language and scaffold students' learning of particular genres. The teaching and learning cycle was used as a way to introduce dialogic interaction into a writing class. In this section genre-based pedagogy is discussed as the first subsection. In particular, I explore what genre-based pedagogy means in systemic functional linguistics. In the second subsection, I provide the discussion of the teaching and learning cycle as a type of genre-based pedagogy. In this subsection, I report studies that have used the teaching and learning cycle for improving writing skills in both Asian contexts and the Australian context in order to explore any similarities and differences in implementation. Moreover, I will discuss some critiques of the teaching and learning cycle.

Genre-Based Pedagogy

The genre-based pedagogy used in this study follows the tradition of the Sydney school (Paltridge, 2001). Genre-based pedagogy draws on the perspective of systemic functional

linguistics, in particular the idea of the interrelationship between language and context. This pedagogical approach focuses on understanding the ways language is used to make meaning in specific contexts or genres (Rose & Martin, 2012). In other words, this pedagogy relies on the idea that language use is concerned with two contexts – the context of situation or language register, and the context of culture or patterns of language that shape genre (Feez, 2002). Therefore, it considers language to be sensitive to the context or situation in which it is used. In particular, it is concerned with the various purposes for which language is used in a particular genre. This teaching approach takes into account language at the level of whole text, which also includes clauses, and sentences (Feez, 2002; Hammond, 2001). It emphasises teaching students a specific social purpose of a genre, and providing students with model text of a target genre in order to explicitly teach the particular structure of the genre and specific linguistic features. According to Hyon (1996), genre-based pedagogy can raise students' awareness of the purposes and organisation of the text-types, and how language is used to achieve a particular purpose. This awareness thus can assist students to become successful writers (Hyon, 1996).

To assist teachers in helping students to learn how to be able to write particular text type in an effective ways, the Sydney school genre theorists provided a linguistic framework for teachers by categorising the basic genres students need to master to succeed at school into seven text types, namely, recount, procedure, narrative, description, report, explanation and exposition (Hyland, 2007). These genres were categorised based on broad rhetorical and linguistic patterns. The examples of genre, including the social purpose, generic structure and language features are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1

Text Types of School taken from The DVD Literacy Across the School Subject (Love, Baker, & Quinn, 2008)

Text type/ Genre	Social purpose	Generic structure	Language features
Recounts	Retell	Orientation Sequence of events Reorientation	Adverbials of time Action verbs Past tense
Procedures	Instruct	Goal Materials/equipment Procedural steps Suggestions	Action verbs Imperatives Adverbials of time, place and manner
Explanations	Tell how or why	Phenomenon Identification Explanation sequence	Action verbs Relating verbs Nominalisation Language of cause and effect
Information Reports	Classification and describe	Classification Description	Relating verbs Present tense Participants: generalised Technical language
Exposition: Single argument	Argue the case for or against	Thesis Argument Reiteration	Connectives Modality
Exposition: Discussion	Offer both sides of an issue	Preview Arguments for and against Recommendations	Connectives Modality
Narratives	Retell an imaginary event	Orientation Complication Resolution	Adverbials of time, place and manner Action verbs Participants: personal Everyday language Adverbials of reason Sensing verbs Saying verbs

Moreover, the development of genre-based pedagogy was also influenced by sociocultural theory in terms of the idea of social interactions mediating intellectual development and language learning (Vygotsky, 1987). Therefore, this teaching approach aims to foster active

involvement in learning, independence in writing, and the ability to analyse the way that language is used in authentic texts such as the ways language is used to inform or to persuade (Gibbons, 2002). To do that, it foregrounds teachers as having a central role in explicit instruction and as having the role to support or scaffold the learning of students in order to lead students to the point where they can write a target genre independently (Feez & Joyce, 1998; de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2012).

<div align="center">The Teaching and Learning Cycle</div>

The teaching and learning cycle is underpinned by genre-based pedagogy. The idea of socially-mediated construction of knowledge and the understanding of language offered by the genre-based pedagogy were translated into the form of the process of learning language as a series of scaffolded developmental steps called the teaching and learning cycle (Feez, 2002). The original teaching and learning cycle was designed by Rothery (Disadvantaged Schools Program, 1988). Then scholars in the area of genre-based pedagogy adapted the cycle and provided different versions of the teaching and learning cycle that vary in the numbers of stages. For example, Feez (2002) presented the five-stage teaching–learning that was adapted from Callaghan and Rothery (1988 as cited in Feez, 2002, p. 28), Green (1992 as cited in Feez, 2002, p. 28), and Cornish (1992 as cited in Feez, 2002, p. 28). The teaching and learning cycle provided in her work is composed of five stages: building the field; modeling and deconstructing the text; joint construction of the text; independent construction of the text; and linking related texts.

Martin and Rose (2005), and Rose and Martin (2010) adopted the teaching and learning cycle that was from Rothery's (1994) secondary school English materials. This teaching and learning cycle features three main stages, named deconstruction, joint construction and independent or individual construction. In this three-stage teaching and learning cycle, building the field and

setting the context are interpreted as a range of activities that are embedded in each stage of the cycle. Hammond (2001), Gibbons (2002) and Derewianka and Jones (2012) offered the four-staged teaching and learning cycle that is composed of building the knowledge of the field or building the field, modelling, joint construction, and independent construction.

The teaching and learning cycle model has been interpreted and developed to provide more supports to help students to learn. For example, Derewianka and Jones (2016) evolved the teaching and learning cycle to include more focus on the supported reading and viewing of texts and images for building field knowledge. They added the stage called supported reading in between building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text in the teaching and learning cycle. This stage, as they stated, "bridges the field building and modelling or deconstruction stages of the teaching learning cycle…" (Derewianka & Jones, 2016, p. 11). It involves providing opportunities for students to engage in extended exchanges regarding language and text (Derewianka & Jones, 2016; Jones & Derewianka, 2016). This stage promotes the reciprocity between reading and writing in order to reinforce building the field or to construct a common understanding of the field. To do this, they suggested that teachers provide students with topic-related texts. Then teachers engage students in reading activities in which teachers can adopt a teacher-led reading activity, shared and guided reading, or collaborative and dependent reading activities. Teachers may also select the activity that is suitable for the level of students or sequence the activities in response to students' needs and the topic at hand.

In an attempt to provide a clearer approach for engaging students in joint-construction of the text in a more effective way, Rossbridge and Rushton (2015) developed the teaching and learning cycle by extending the joint-construction activity into six steps to better support students in joint-construction. The steps start from the teacher thinking aloud. This is the first

stage, in which the teacher makes statements as a commentary on the audience, purpose, structure and language choices being made during the process of composition, and on the content of the text. The second stage consists of student questions and involves allowing students to call on all their own knowledge and understanding, and share these in the class. The third stage is when the teacher paraphases students' ideas. The fourth stage relates to students commenting on the teacher's paraphrasing. The fifth stage concerns teacher recasts. The sixth stage relates to students composing the idea into written form, and the teacher acting as scribe. These six steps are clear pathways in teaching joint-construction.

Although there are different forms of the teaching and learning cycle, they all still focus on the stages of building the field, modelling and deconstructing of the text, joint construction and independent construction. Each stage was designed to achieve a different purpose. The different purposes indicate variations of interactions across the stage and also relates to variations in the nature of the co-construction of knowledge. The idea of co-construction of knowledge across the teaching and learning cycle relies on the key aspects of student's apprenticeship into language which has influenced the development of the teaching and learning cycle (Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011). Painter's research further elaborated this point by pointing out that influences include the interventionist role of teacher in building learners' meaning-making resources in the form of verbal interaction such as using definitions, generalizing and explicit talking about language – this can prepare students for making the abstract and metaphorical meanings so pervasive in written language (Painter, 2000). The teacher's role in this way is described as "guidance through interaction in the context of shared experiences" (Martin, 1999, p. 126 as cited in Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011).

This way of interaction stimulates learning to progress more efficiently. By co-constructing these understandings with learners through dialogic meaning negotiation, learners are prepared for the further stages of the teaching and learning cycle (Painter, 2000). Rose and Martin (2012) incorporated the notion of teacher guidance through interaction in the teaching and learning

cycle by including teacher questioning, such as leading questions, as a way of trying and drawing knowledge about genre out of the students. In this research, I understood IRF interactional pattern as a kind of interaction that influences learning across the teaching and learning cycle. IRF as point-of-need scaffolding including the use of questioning and I included it based on the purposes and nature of co-construction of knowledge at each stage of the teaching and learning cycle. The purpose and role of teacher of each stage of the teaching and learning cycle is discussed below.

In the initial stages, the teacher takes a more direct role in helping learners to develop the knowledge, understandings and skills, while the learners take the apprentice role (Feez, 2002; Hammond, 2001). The role of teachers relies on high control over what is transmitted and received in the classroom (Martin, 1999). In the later stages, as the learners begin developing greater control over a written genre under focus, the teachers gradually reduce control and supports while learners' abilities are developed to the independent stage (Gibbons, 2002; Hammond, 2001).

Building the field is the first stage of the teaching and learning cycle. According to Rose and Martin (2012), this stage aims at building knowledge of the writing topic, and understanding about a certain text-type before beginning to write a text of a particular genre. In particular, this stage also relates to the construction of knowledge in relation to cultural and social contexts of a genre (Feez, 2002; Feez & Joyce, 1998; Hammond et al., 1992; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1996). For example, learners are provided with knowledge about the purpose of a genre and the context in which it is commonly used. This knowledge is considered as a useful foundation for learners in EFL/ESL who tend to have limited knowledge and information regarding the genres in English writing cultur**e** (Callaghan*,* Knapp *&* Noble*,* 1993; Coffin, 2006; Kongpetch, 2006). Rose and Martin (2012) also argued that learners should have an

understanding of a text type before writing about it. Thus, teachers should allow a relatively large amount of time to build awareness of the genre when learners are introduced to the target genre for the first time (Rose & Martin, 2012). Feez (2002) and Gibbons (2009) also suggested that activities in this stage should be designed to help learners become familiar with the context of the genre.

Classroom interaction in this stage is based on shared experiences and knowledge in relation to the writing topic/content and information shared between teacher and learner, and between learner and learners (Rivera, 2012). For instance, activities can be designed to enable learners to share and discuss aspects of the text-type, including activities such as brainstorming, talking to peers, reading relevant materials, looking at pictures or watching videos, guided research, or participating in a field trip (Feez, 2002; Gibbons, 2009). These activities also help learners to become familiar with language used such as vocabulary related to the writing topic of the text-type (Feez, 2002).

Modeling and deconstruction of the text, the second stage of the cycle concerns introducing learners to model texts of a genre that they will eventually write. This practice is similar to what is suggested in the first stage, which aims at building learners' knowledge of the context of the writing topic. However, it is different in that it provides learners with model texts for investigating the structural patterns and language features of the model (Rose & Martin, 2012). In addition, Feez (2002) also pointed out that in order to teach language features of the text-type, the teacher can integrate traditional language teaching activities such as teachers' presentation of the words or groups of nouns, verbs, and prepositions. Moreover, she also suggested that it is important that language features and grammatical form and structure are taught and learned in the context of purposeful language use (Feez, 2002; Rivera, 2012).

Hyland (2004) supported the implementation of genre-based pedagogy in the second language writing classroom suggesting that the activities in this stage should be designed to introduce learners to the model text of the target genre, and lead learners' attention to analysing the language features of the model text. For example, a teacher and learners could deconstruct the rhetorical pattern and linguistic features of the model text. Hyland (2004) also suggested that deconstruction of the text-type should include two levels, the text-level, and the language level. According to him, at the text-level, learners discuss the organisational stages within the provided text, and how each stage contributes to the overall social purpose of the text. Moreover, learners are guided to explore the rhetorical patterns of the text by sequencing, rearranging, and labeling the stages or parts of the text. In addition, modelling and deconstruction of the text often starts with the teacher taking full responsibility before gradually releasing the responsibility to students (Feez, 2002; Gibbons, 2006). The main idea of the role of teacher in this stage has implications for questioning and the strategies used to stimulate teacher-student interaction in this study.

Joint construction of the text, the third stage of the teaching and learning cycle concerns the teacher and learners working together to construct a text (Hammond et al., 1992). In this stage, the teacher changes from taking the main role in the classroom to gradually reducing his/her contribution to text construction, while learners are encouraged to begin to contribute to the construction of whole text by the teacher who acts as a scribe and guide (Feez, 2002; Gibbons, 2009). In other words, learners apply the knowledge about the genre and language that they learned from the previous stages, and the teacher only provides suggestions and discussion with learners based on learners' contributions.

Hammond (2009), Callaghan, Knapp and Noble (1993) and Hyland (2004) suggested that the activity in this stage can start from encouraging learners to reflect on the organisational stage

of the text, and to make a frame of their writing based on the model text. Then, the teacher encourages learners to rewrite the model text or create a new text that is similar to the model. This activity can be done through learners writing a text with the teacher on the whiteboard as a whole class activity (Hammond, 2009). The teacher allows learners to provide ideas for the writing, while the teacher writes down learners' words and/or ideas on the white board. Then, the teacher negotiates with learners to transform the learners' spoken language fragments into written language. At the same time, the teacher can draw learners' attention to the appropriateness and accuracy of the written language. At this stage, the role of the teacher transforms from that of authoritative presenter or an active leader in the first two stages to that of negotiator or facilitator of making suggestions.

The studies of Humphrey and Macnaught (2011) and Dreyfus, Macnaught and Humphrey (2011) provided a clear explanation of how teachers can interact with students through the use of teacher-led collaborative writing to support students' writing at tertiary level. They extended the stage of joint construction by placing the three-stage model – Bridging, Text Negotiation and Review in the joint-construction stage of the teaching and learning cycle. They also pointed out the solicitation and mediation strategies that can be used as point-of-need or micro scaffoldings in the form of verbal expression by the teachers. The solicitation relates to the teachers providing a range of prompts in order to guide students' thinking (Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011). Mediation refers to teachers providing students with the opportunity to share their ideas about what, how, and why through evaluation and expansion of students' contributions (Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011). Their studies have provided a useful model that can be used to plan activities within the joint-construction stage, and useful strategies that the teachers can use in order to stimulate dialogic interaction within the teaching and learning cycle.

Independent construction of the text or independent writing which is the last stage of the cycle, concerns the stage of learners writing the whole text independently (Hammond, 2009) as they become familiar with the topic, major features of the genre, and language features. However, independent construction does not mean that the teacher's scaffolding is not involved in this stage. Rather, at this stage the teacher changes his/her role from a facilitator to a collaborator or a provider of feedback on learners' written text (Hyland, 2004). At this stage, learners still need the teacher's assistance and guidance for improving their written work, though less in amount and more indirect in presentation (Hyland, 2004). Feez (2002) added that in the independent construction stage, the learners go through a process of generating content, drafting, rewriting, editing, and polishing until they can produce a complete text. The teacher helps learners redraft and edit their written work by designing activities such as a revising process with collaboration (Feez, 2002; Gibbons, 2009).

The teaching and learning cycle has been found to be useful for teachers because it provides clear stages for teachers to follow in order to engage students in the development of students' written languaget. Additionally, it is useful for students in terms of its aim of developing students' writing skills in a contextualised way. However, many critics have raised concerns about the fact that the way of teaching in the teaching and learning cycle seems to be based on a transmission pedagogy (Johns, 2002) that provides prescriptive how-to-do procedures (Hasan & Akhand, 2010; Yasuda, 2011). The stage of modelling and deconstruction of the text that focuses on using authentic text for modelling how students should write is regarded as especially reproductive. Therefore, the criticism argues that this way of teaching may limit students' development of their own thinking and expression (Sawyer & Watson, 1987 as cited in Hyland, 2009). The nature of genre-based pedagogy in which textual hegemony is promoted does not generally allow students to directly critique established genres. This, particularly in EFL contexts, can lead to the students prioritising memorisation and imitation of a set of acceptable / prototypical linguistic features in a model text provided by the instructor. Lin

(2006, p. 228) supported this point as she warned that the genre approach can "pose the inherent risk of becoming (and has indeed sometimes become) overly product-focused in a prescriptive way, since the curriculum is usually defined in terms of products – text in various genres". Moreover, the other concern Badger and White (2000) also asserted is that this approach may undervalue students' skills regarding text production, and see the students as largely passive. Therefore, they are concerned that this way of teaching can impact students' creativity, and as a result students may write texts as meaningless reproductions.

Rose and Martin (2012) eased these concerns by pointing out that the stages in the teaching and learning cycle that comes with genre-based pedagogy aims at stimulating students' active thinking and active roles, and by exposing students to authentic texts of the genre in focus, writing can be taught in an explicit way. They further pointed out that this explicitness is actually one of the strengths of this teaching approach because it shows students how language is used and structured in a real context. They also reported the finding of the studies that showed that learning from modelling is how students initially learn language – then students can adapt and apply what they have learned in ways that are meaningful to them – and more creative – when they have taken control (Rose & Martin, 2012). Indeed, the joint-construction stage was designed to support this practice. In the joint-construction of the text, students are stimulated to apply their knowledge and share their creativity based on their own understanding and knowledge (Hyland, 2009). Furthermore, the teaching and learning cycle provides spaces for teachers to provide point-of-need scaffolding such as teacher questioning in IRF (Hammond, 2001) in order to engage students in active thinking. This kind of teacher scaffolding helps deepen students' knowledge and understanding, which can lead students to independent writing performance or to be able to apply the knowledge in their own writing (Feez, 2002).

Additionally, Hyland (2009) has asserted that it is possible that these criticisms of the teaching and learning cycle (as discussed above) can occur if teachers have only a superficial understanding of the approach or lack understanding of the main purpose and how the approach works in classroom. In this case, the explicit teaching can become merely a transmissive way of teaching and can impose restrictive formulae which limit students' creativity. As a result, students may see learning writing in the teaching and learning cycle as learning sets of rules for writing (Hyland, 2009). Moreover, Badge and White (2002) warned that if teachers spend most of the time in the classroom on explaining how language is used and with a variety of readings, it is likely that students are going to be passive (Badge & White, 2000).

Studies Using the Teaching and Learning Cycle

Despite these criticisms, there is evidence that the teaching and learning cycle has been successfully used and has been successfully used at school level and university level of different EFL/ESL contexts. For example, Kuiper, Smit, De Wachter, and Elen (2017) conducted a study on scaffolding tertiary students' writing in a genre-based writing intervention in the Netherlands. In their study, a 5 week subject-specific writing intervention through genre-based pedagogy with the teaching and learning cycle was designed and subsequently enacted by a subject lecturer in a fifth-year class involving 13 students. The study explained how the teacher implemented the scaffolding regarding language register in writing from the first stage to the last stage of the teaching and learning cycle. In particular, the study pointed out how the teacher started with introducing to the students the characteristics of the particular genre. Then it explained how the teacher taught about the writing content, and the purpose of the text. After that, it discussed how the teacher encouraged students to analyse language features of the text based on the relation between writer and reader. For example, an analysis and writing tool was designed for students as a teaching resource in order to support students in analysing the sample text in terms of goal, overall structure, and linguistic features.

Moreover, this study pointed out how teachers interacted with students as well as stimulated/challenged them to actively engage in the activities. The study found that the interplay of designed scaffolding (instructional materials and activities) and interactional scaffolding (teacher–student interactions) promoted students' writing performance over time. Comparison of students' pre- and post-tests by means of an analytic scoring scheme pointed to statistically significant growth in the use of typical genre features. The results of this design-based research study indicated the potential of genre-based pedagogy for scaffolding and promoting tertiary students' writing.

In addition, Spycher (2017) explored a case study of a 5th grade teacher in a school composed of ethnically diverse students in the United States. The teacher implemented the concept of register for scaffolding writing. This study revealed the process of how the teacher implemented scaffolding in each stage of teaching academic writing. It described how she adopted the concept of register as a way of scaffolding students' learning so they could construct their knowledge of language used in academic writing. The study explained that the teacher engaged students in the activity of language analysis beginning by providing students with a model text for reading. Then she engaged students in exploring the language of the text by starting to analyse the text and paragraphs. In this activity, the teacher and students collaboratively identified the purpose and audience of the text, analysed the text structure and organisation, analysed cohesion, and reconstructed the text. After that the teacher led students to a deeper language analysis at the sentence-level. In this activity, students were required to unpack the meanings in sentences that are important for an understanding of the central meanings of the text overall. This was done by having students break up the different chunks of the sentences (such as dissecting a particularly long noun phase into smaller parts). Then the teacher used sentence expanding, combining and condensing activity by having her students start writing a basic sentence and work together with other students to expand, combine, or condense the sentence, which enriches its meaning. Moreover, the language

analysis activities also included word-level analysis that required students to examine verb types, and discuss, for example, how verbs or adjectives are condensed into a noun or noun group.

The implementation of the teaching and learning cycle for assisting students to learn how to write was also found to be successful in Asian contexts. For instance Emilia (2005) conducted a study on the effectiveness of using a critical genre-based pedagogy with the teaching and learning cycle in teaching academic writing in an Indonesian tertiary EFL setting. The findings revealed positive outcomes in that students were able to develop control of the target argumentative genre. They were able to construct texts with clear schematic structure, and use information to support their arguments. Additionally, students were able to develop the metalanguage for discussing critical reading and writing. Similarly, Ho (2009) investigated the outcomes of teacher–student collaboration in genre-based pedagogy in Singapore for developing students' writing of various text types. The findings showed that the teacher–student collaborative activities in the teaching and learning cycle helped students improve their writing in terms of schematic structure, and patterns of clause construction. The study also pointed out that the explicit way of teaching can help students construct background knowledge about the target genre which can lead them to be able to adapt the knowledge in their own ways.

The study of Deng, Yang, and Varaprasad (2014) aimed at exploring the effect of a genre-based pedagogy used in the classroom of a secondary school in the Singaporean context in order to raise students' awareness about the organisation of the Conclusions chapter in a thesis. She used a pre- and post-questionnaire to collect data at the beginning of the lecture before students were given any pedagogical input on writing the Conclusions assignment and after they wrote their first drafts. Moreover, students' writing samples were also analysed for their

understanding. The findings revealed that most students' understanding of the organisation of the Conclusion chapter had improved. In addition, the analysis of students' written works showed that the students had learnt to use these elements to give their research content a logical and coherent flow in their writing.

In Thailand, there are a number of studies into teaching and learning using the teaching and learning cycle (e.g. Chaisiri, 2010; Kongpetch, 2006; Krisanachinda, 2005; Lerdpreedakorn; 2009; Tangpermpoon 2008; Wisootruchira, 2002). All studies focused on developing students' skills, and their abilities of writing a whole text using the teaching and learning cycle. Their findings pointed out that students improved their control over generic structure and language features of the target genres. For example, Lerdpreedakorn (2008) reported on how the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle helped improve EFL students' writing proficiency. Her study aimed to investigate the value of the teaching and learning cycle in teaching writing in an EFL context at the tertiary level, and to explore the students' perceptions of the genre-based approach. Students' texts were analysed using the systemic functional grammar framework. Moreover, semi-structured interviews and students' diaries were also used to explore students' attitudes towards learning to write using the genre approach. A teacher's journal was also used in order to provide information about how responsive students were to the teaching and learning cycles. The research findings showed that the teaching and learning cycle implemented in the study was successful in helping students at different proficiency levels to improve their writing and to produce discussion texts.

Despite these achievements, the observations from the teacher's journal revealed that it took time for the teacher and students to complete the writing during the joint construction stage. In addition, the students seemed to struggle with certain grammar points. Some students still made mistakes when they wrote. She pointed out that this might result from the fact that they did not have much background knowledge of English grammar and English vocabulary. It could be said that students' grammatical knowledge did not develop significantly. In terms of students'

attitudes toward to the teaching and learning cycle, her study revealed that all the students recognised that modeling helped them to understand the schematic structure and the language features of the discussion genre. Moreover, the students also mentioned that they felt that they had confidence to write after discussion with their peers and teacher during joint construction.

The study by Tangpermpoon (2008) supported the point in relation to the lack of improvement in students' use of English grammar in the Thai context. He conducted a study concerning the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle, focusing on the importance of using integrated approaches between the traditional English language teaching and the teaching and learning cycle for teaching English major students at tertiary level. His study explained the integration of the traditional English language teaching approaches, and the teaching and learning cycle in genre-based pedagogy to improve students' writing skills. He argued that writing is considered the most difficult skill for Thai English language learners because they need to have a certain amount of second language background knowledge about the grammar, rhetorical organisation, appropriate language use or specific lexicon which they want to use to communicate with their readers. He therefore decided to adopt the traditional grammatical teaching approach as a way to teach language features. This way of teaching grammar focuses on the role of teacher in classifying words into parts of speech, then describing the grammatical structures and patterns. Teachers normally describe the patterns for word inflection, and the rules of syntax by which those words are combined into sentences. The teacher then adopted the genre-based pedagogy as a way to teach English language writing explicitly. The findings of his study showed that integrating the two approaches helped students improve their writing because traditional grammar teaching helped the Thai students construct knowledge of the grammatical patterns and structures, while the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle guided the students in their writing practice.

After reviewing the studies on the teaching and learning cycle in the Thai context, I found that most of them focused on improving writing and the outcomes of the use of the teaching and learning cycle. Furthermore, I found that these studies did not focus on the use of the concept of register as a way to scaffold language learning within the teaching and learning cycle. Rather, it seemed that they adopted the idea of the sequences of teaching writing from the teaching and learning cycle, but still taught language features and grammar in the normal traditional way. Moreover, I also found that little work has been done focusing on the processes of teaching and learning or on how the teachers actually implemented scaffolding and interacted with students in the teaching and learning cycle.

The study by Chaisiri (2010) additionally pointed out the impact of the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle on students' development of writing skills, and attitudes toward English language learning. He conducted action research that aimed at examining the effects of implementing a genre-based pedagogy in a writing classroom at the university level. The study did not identify how the genre-based pedagogy was implemented by the Thai teachers in the classroom. The results of his study revealed that implementing a genre-based approach in the writing classroom produced promising results in terms of improvements in student writing, and this reflected both the advantages of the teaching and learning activities in the classroom and the positive attitudes of students toward English language learning.

Hyland (2004) supported the benefit of genre-based pedagogy in helping second language learners learn to write teaching English language writing. He proffered seven advantages of genre-based pedagogy. First, he pointed out that genre-based pedagogy offers explicit teaching that makes clear what is to be learned as a way of facilitating the acquisition of writing skills. Second, he argued that the approach is systemic because it provides a coherent framework for focusing on both language and context. Third, it relies on a needs-based orientation that allows

teachers to consider course objectives and content derived from students' needs. Fourth, it is supportive in terms of giving teachers a central role in scaffolding students' learning. Fifth, it is critical in that it gives the resources for students to understand and evaluate values discourses. Sixth, it is consciousness raising in terms of its ability to help increase teachers' awareness of text and confidently advise students on their writing.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I aimed at discussing important ideas and concepts that formed the basis of the teaching and learning cycle, which I used in scaffolding students' learning in this study. I provided an explanation of the theory of systemic functional linguistics, and discussed related studies on how teachers can adopt the concept of functional language teaching in the classroom to help students construct new knowledges and understandings. This idea then led to the discussion of research using genre-based pedagogy, and the teaching and learning cycle.

CHAPTER FIVE

Research Methodology

In this chapter, I provide an explanation and description of the research design and methodological detail for this study. This research is underpinned by sociocultural theory which positions social interaction as central to human development and learning (Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, the researcher and participants in this study are considered as inseparable and as influencing one another as they interact. The research instruments were designed to support the interaction between the researcher and the participants. A qualitative approach was chosen because it allows deeper investigation into the complex human meaning-making process. The main task of this research was investigating the lack of change or process of change in the uptake of a different way of teaching and learning or change in teaching and learning identity when participants were involved in the teaching–learning cycle. Therefore, the methodology that was adopted in this research was qualitative ethnographic case study.

In this chapter, I divide the discussion into four major sections. In the first section, I present a discussion of the qualitative ethnographic research design. In the second section, I describe and explain the data collection methods, the research setting and research participants. In the third section, I explain the data collection and analysis procedures as well as the establishment of trustworthiness in the research. In the fourth section, I address ethical issues.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Qualitative Research Methodology

Qualitative methods mainly aim to capture the lived experiences of the social world and the meaning individuals give these experiences from their own perspectives (Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005). "Qualitative inquiry cultivates the most useful of all human capacities—the capacity to learn from others" (Patton, 2002, p.1). This research analyses and represents teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' engagement by tracing their practices in a seven week English writing course with the implementation of the teaching–learning cycle as a way to encourage and investigate teacher–student and student–student dialogic interaction. Qualitative methods are thus particularly relevant to this research, given their emphasis on the need to both describe and understand individuals' behaviour. The data collected were focused on participants' construction of their own reality. For the readers of this research to gauge for themselves the credibility of the researcher's interpretations, the context under which these interpretations were made needed to be richly and thickly described (Denzil, 1989). The intention to create the rich thick description led to the choice of a descriptive case study.

Qualitative Case Study

In this section, I discuss the relevance of a general case study approach. Then, I address why a descriptive case study was deemed particularly relevant. This research was designed as a case study because it particularly aimed to see how pre-service teachers and their teacher educators engaged in the teaching–learning cycle, and case studies facilitate the exploration of complex human meaning-making processes within a particular context (Yin, 1009).

Yin's (2009) conceptualisation of qualitative case study methods is applied in this study. According to Yin (2009, p. 18), case study is "an empirical inquiry that investigates a

contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not really evident". Because case study is limited in scope and emphasises a particular aspect of the culture under investigation, I was able to clarify the phenomenon of interest, which was the implementation of the teaching–learning cycle as the way to encourage and investigate teacher–student and student–student dialogic interaction. The cases for this research were two groups of pre-service teachers (students) in a teacher education institution in Thailand. The first group were taught by Cindy, the other teacher educator, and the second group was taught by me (when I am speaking of myself as a research participant, I refer to myself as Pin). I chose to study two specific cases: Cindy and her class, and Pin and her class. Once the phenomenon of interest was clarified, I was able to capture the events and interpret the way that Cindy, the pre-service teachers and I negotiated our identities while engaging in the teaching–learning cycle (see Yin, 2009).

Descriptive case study was applied in this research in order to produce detailed descriptions of a phenomenon (Yin, 2009). The focus of descriptive case study reflects an interpretive aspect that aims to study the immediate meaning of social actions of the case or cases being studied (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Therefore, it is crucial that the case study is conducted in the field and through direct interaction with the participants in order to obtain information on participants' interactive systems of activity and their viewpoints.

Ethnographic Design

An ethnographic approach was adopted in this study. Ethnographic research involves studying cultural patterns, analysing their structure and content, and using this for explanation of particular social phenomena (Geertz, 1973). The two main foci of ethnographic designs are describing in detail the system of meaning that embodies a culture and that can lead to an understanding of particular action, and the researcher's pre-existing understandings,

experience, and theoretical traditions that are used to analyse and describe the cultural patterns (Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005).

Since this research sought to investigate (lack of) change in identity or uptake of different ways of teaching and learning, ethnographic design was useful because the core nature of ethnographic research is to understand individuals' patterns of behaviour from an insider's point of view (Fetterman. 1998). Geertz (1973) also pointed out that ethnographic design attempts to convey the interpretation of cultures that is represented by the researcher's perspective. Zaharlick (1992) additionally pointed out that the depth of information depends on the researcher's perception. Therefore, there is a responsibility on the part of the researcher to the culture being studied because the perspective of the researcher impacts on the knowledge produced about that cultural group.

Given this concern, the choice of an ethnographic design guided me to participate in the fieldwork and to conduct participant observation. Following the tradition of ethnographic design, I simultaneously immersed myself as a teacher educator/teacher who participated in the research in order to develop ongoing relationships with the participants within the research setting, and observe their changes. Without having experience relating to the culture of the research participants, it is difficult for the researcher to describe and interpret. Through this immersion, I created social relations with the pre-service teachers and the other teacher educator, and experienced events similarly to the participant (Cindy) in particular. I was able to participate and observe in classes where participants learned and taught English writing and I was therefore able to obtain firsthand data to discover, describe, and interpret action and interaction (Zaharlick, 1992).

Because interactive systems are complex and they are influenced by social situations carried out by people in a particular setting, they cannot be easily discerned through quantitative methods or brief encounters. To understand the processes of teaching and learning, it was considered important to create space– for the participants' voices about negotiated experience to be heard as they were narrated and given specific meanings, as well as participants' reflections about significant situations of negotiation. Moreover, capturing teaching/learning trajectories was important for understanding the meaning of engagement because it helped to understand the interplay of the past and present experiences of participating in the seven-week course that motivated the degree of uptake of teaching/learning practices. Therefore, I chose to use a combination of open-ended interviews and participant observation to gain the data for representing and interpreting participants' engagement in order to detect any change. This helped create rich thick descriptions for making sense out of the data (Denzil, 1989; Fetterman, 1998).

RESEARCH SETTING

The research setting was an English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher education program at Lignum Vitae University (pseudonym) in Thailand. This research was conducted during the second semester of the 2016 academic year. I chose the research site for two reasons. First, the main objective of this research was to study Thai pre-service teachers' and Thai teacher educators' engagement in English language writing classes with the implementation of the teaching–learning cycle. Therefore, this university was selected as a case study of teacher education in Thailand because the university took responsibility for pre-service teacher training for teaching in primary and secondary schools. As with other universities in Thailand, the main goal was to educate, research, develop, and produce teachers with academic standing in order to meet the requirements of the National Education Act and Standards (The Office of Higher Education Commission, 2007).

The Faculty of Education of this university is similar to those in other universities where teacher education is offered to secondary graduates in a five-year bachelor degree which covers the fields of Thai Language, English, mathematics, early childhood education and general sciences. Admission to teacher education in state universities requires students to meet a specified grade point average (GPA), combined with satisfactory scores in the Ordinary National Education Test (O-NET), General Aptitude Test (GAT) and Professional Aptitude Test (PAT) (The Office of Higher Education Commission, 2007).

Moreover, as with other state universities in Thailand, Lignum Vitae University also has its own entrance examination called the quota system in order to provide opportunities for students attending school in more remote economically disadvantaged areas such as many parts of the North, Northeast, and some parts of the South who have much less chance of taking and/or passing the national admission system (The Office of Higher Education Commission, 2007). Most students attending teacher education in state universities are from medium to low socioeconomic background. Hence, the students of Lignum Vitae University can be used as a representative of different universities in Thailand where a Bachelor of Education course is offered.

The second reason for the choice of site was that the university was accessible. I was familiar with the staff, the setting and student profile. I knew the nature of English language teaching in this context. The non-native English-speaking teacher educators were assigned to teach writing, reading, and speaking for specific purposes courses, while native English-speaking teacher educators were assigned to teach general English speaking and listening courses. The dominant pedagogic approaches were grammar-translation method, direct method, and audio-lingual method. The English classes at the university were quite large, with about thirty to forty pre-service teachers per class.

RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Recruitment

The participants comprised twelve pre-service teachers and two teacher educators, one of whom was myself. The university was selected as the case study through the method of purposive sampling, and this approach was extended to inviting pre-service teachers' and teacher educators' involvement (see Neuman, 2006). As stated by Morse (1998), for research to be effective, participants ought to be selected on the grounds that they have the necessary knowledge and experience of the issue or topic, have the capability to reflect and articulate their views and are keen to participate in the study. Thus, I selected the third year pre-service teachers as the most suitable group because they had the necessary knowledge for learning English language writing and they were given the English language course that was suitable for implementing the teaching–learning cycle.

The third year pre-service teachers had finished the course that focused on basic English language skills in their first and second years, and completed the courses concerning teaching EFL in first semester. I perceived that these areas of knowledge were important for studying in the English Writing for Academic Purposes Course because this course required them to be able to write an information report in English concerning English language teaching methods for EFL learners. The teacher educators were included because one (Cindy - pseudonym) was responsible for the English Writing for Academic Purposes Course, and the other (myself) had experience with the concept of dialogic interaction and the teaching–learning cycle.

Pre-service Teachers

The third year pre-service teachers were understood to be the most suitable sample to investigate in relation to their engagement because pre-service teachers began the process of building knowledge about learning how to teach in the third year. Therefore, providing them with the teaching–learning cycle with dialogic interaction as a new experience of learning writing in English was relevant to them and could potentially influence their perceptions about teaching and learning, and the process of knowledge construction.

There were 35 third year pre-service teachers in each class. The selection of participants for this research was on a voluntary basis. Because a large number of pre-service teachers consented to being interviewed, the principle of maximum variation sampling was applied. This helped to capture a wide selection of English language proficiency (Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005). Based on the grade obtained from the subject 'Essay Writing' in the first semester of their third-year, I grouped the PST samples into low, medium, and high proficiency. I then confidentially selected two participants per group for both classes, giving me a more manageable sample size of 12 students.

Teacher Educators

There were two teacher educator participants in this research. Firstly, since I decided to conduct the research in the English Writing for Academic Purposes Course, I sent an email to Cindy, the other teacher educator who was responsible for teaching the course, and invited her to participate in the study. Secondly, I included myself as a teacher educator participant. Both my own positioning around English language teaching, as a Thai teacher educator who had studied abroad, and how I implemented my understanding of the teaching–learning cycle with dialogic teaching and learning form a significant focus of this study.

An Overview of Participants

Pre-service Teachers

The pre-service teachers in this study were born and raised in Thailand, aged between 21 and 22 years old when they were in the third year of the Bachelor of Education in the EFL teaching department at Lignum Vitae University in Thailand. Participants in each of the two classes consisted of three males and three females. Five pre-service teachers were accepted by the quota system to study in the university. Others were accepted by the general national university admission system. The Bachelor of Education in the EFL teaching department at the university was their first degree. The pre-service teachers had been studying together since their first year at the university. They completed basic English language courses in their first and second year. Moreover, in their second year, they attended a workshop aiming to improve their English communicative skills. The only opportunities they had had to communicate in English with native speakers of English were at schools and the university with teachers. The following tables provide a summary of the research participants' pseudonyms, age, gender, and the Thai provinces where they came from.

Table 2

Participant Overview in Cindy's Class

Participants*	Age	Gender	Provinces
Neung	21	Male	Nonthaburi
Song	22	Female	Beung Kan
Sam	22	Male	Songkla
See	21	Female	Bangkok
Ha	21	Female	Mahasarakham
Hok	22	Male	Surachathani

Table 3

Participants Overview in my Class

Participants*	Age	Gender	Provinces
Jed	22	Female	Cheangmai
Pad	22	Female	Bangkok
Kaow	22	Male	Chonburi
Sib	21	Male	Nakornpathom
Sib-ed	22	Female	Trang
Sib-song	22	Male	Lopburi

*All names are pseudonyms

Teacher Educators

Cindy

Cindy was 38 years old. She is from the Philippines and had been living in Thailand for more than 10 years. She can speak Thai fluently. She had been teaching English for 14 years and working in the teacher education university for 7 years. She held a Bachelor degree in Education from a local university in the Philippines and an MA in TESOL. She was chosen by the head of department to teach the English Writing for Academic Purpose classes in 2010. In 2011, she was assigned to be in charge of the annual symposium the purpose of which is to offer fourth-year pre-service teachers an opportunity to provide a formal presentation of their academic articles. In 2014, she was chosen by the Dean of the Faculty of Education to teach English Language Capability Development for the ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations) aiming at facilitating the teacher educators in the Faculty of Education of the university to improve their English language skills as a preparation for working with the ASEAN community and giving guidance in preparing syllabus and lesson plans in English.

Pin (Myself)

I was 33 years old at the time of this study. I came from Thailand and had taught English for five years before taking leave to study a PhD in Australia. I obtained my first degree of a Bachelor of Arts (English) from a university in Thailand in 2007. In 2009, I furthered my study in a Master of Education as an International Language course in Australia. In 2014, I attended the university's language center bridging program in Australia for 15 weeks as a requirement of the university before starting my Higher Degree by Research. Having experiences in studying aboard, I was exposed to teaching and learning styles, and strategies such as communicative teaching and the teaching and learning style that encouraged students to actively participate in class discussions and to ask questions if they did not understand. These teaching and learning styles, and strategies are different from the traditional approaches that have been used in Thailand. During my career, I have been an advisor for EFL teaching major pre-service teachers on classroom action research and a teacher educator teaching English writing skills and reading skills for first-year to third-year pre-service teachers.

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE TEACHING–LEARNING CYCLE
AS A WAY TO ENGAGE IN DIALOGIC INTERACTION

The teaching–learning cycle was implemented in the English Writing for Academic Purposes course in the second semester at the Faculty of Education, Lignum Vitae University in Thailand for seven weeks. The course ran for 4 hours twice a week. It focused on developing academic writing ability. The information report was the chosen genre in the course.

The teaching–learning cycle was a new teaching approach in the normal teaching program for all pre-service teachers in their third year. It was different from the normal teaching approach

of grammar-based activities and the writing of discrete (unrelated) sentences. The assessment of the course was text-based in that the pre-service teachers were expected to write a short academic article in relation to "Teaching Techniques for Developing English as Second Language Learners".

The teaching in the seven-week writing course was focused on assisting students to connect knowledge of English to writing practice in preparation for the assessment. The activities involved in the seven-week course were based on the four stages of the teaching–learning cycle which the teacher and learner went through together in order for learners to gradually gain independent control of their writing. Chapter Five discusses the ways I prepared myself and Cindy for teaching in this course by implementing the teaching–learning cycle, and how/what we chose to teach in the course.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

In order to capture the best possible picture of the participants' engagement in the teaching–learning cycle, the research instruments were principally chosen based on the interaction between the researcher and the participants. As can be seen in Table 4, this study was carried out using three data collection tools. The first tool was interviews. In this study, interviews were conducted twice – interview one and interview two. Interview one was conducted before the seven-week course and interview two was conducted after the seven-week course. The second tool was observations which included participant observation in Cindy class and classroom observation in my class. The third tool was document review including of lesson plans, handouts and worksheets that were collected to act as a cross reference. Each step of the data collection process was designed to collect data for answering the research questions. In

the following, I describe each method employed in data collection, reasons for its adoption, the instrument design, and explanation of how the research instrument were used.

Table 4

An Overview of Data Collection

Participants	40 minutes Semi-structured Interviews		4-hour Sessions Observations	Document Review
	Interview One	*Interview Two*		
12 pre-service teachers (6 pre-service teachers in each class)	Before week 1	After week 7	- Participant observation in Cindy's class - Classroom observation in my class - conducted weekly	- PSTs' written works/worksheets
2 teacher educators	Before week 1	After week 7		- Course description - Lesson plans - Handouts and work protocols

Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews are one of the main methods of data collection used in qualitative research. According to Legard, Keegan, and Ward (2003), semi-structured interviews aim to talk to people to obtain their point of view that is embedded within language. This kind of interview is based on knowledge construction through normal human interaction that is conversation. As Kvale (1996, p. 3) points out, "knowledge is awaiting in the subject's interior to be uncovered, uncontaminated by the [interviewer]". Semi-structured interviews were adopted as a main research method because they can provide an in-depth examination of the participants' perceptions and topics. Moreover, they allow the researcher and participants to negotiate meaning. Therefore, I was able to take a role as an active learner about the participants' experiences of learning and teaching English writing in that I could probe or ask

follow-up questions about interesting areas which emerged (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2003).

<center>Generation of Interviews</center>

Semi-structured interviews in this research were divided into two stages—Interview One which was conducted before the seven-week course in order to investigate the pre-existing discursive construction of teaching and learning roles, and Interview Two which was conducted after the seven-week course in order to investigate whether this had changed after participants had experienced dialogic interaction in the teaching–learning cycle. I designed six interview questions for Interview One and four questions for Interview Two. The Interview Two questions repeated questions 3, 4, 5, 6 from Interview One. The interview guide in this research was a list of questions in Thai, which I then translated into English (Merriam, 2009). An example of the original version which is in Thai, and my translation is given in Appendix E.

The content of the interview questions was chosen in order to explore participants' engagement in teaching and learning English writing before and after the seven-week course. The interview questions in this research also subscribed to the first four of Patton's six kinds of interview questions that can be put to interviewees (Patton, 2002): (1) demographic/background questions, (2) experience and/or behaviour questions, (3) opinion/value questions, (4) sensory questions, (5) knowledge questions, and (6) feeling questions.

With respect to the focus of demographic/background, the interview questions in this research included *"How long have you studied English?"*, and *"Have you been to an English-speaking country? If so, for how long and did you study there? Have you lived/ studied in any other countries? For how long?"* In regard to experience or behaviour and sensory questions, the

interview questions were *"Think about three English language teachers you've had during your years of studying English. What do you think they did well? What do you think they could have improved?"* Opinion or value questions included "How do you think English language writing should be taught?" *"Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language teacher (in your opinion)?"*, and *"Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language student (in your opinion)?"*

As pointed out earlier, the questions in Interview Two were taken from Interview One. I decided to repeat questions 3, 4, 5, and 6 from Interview One because I aimed to investigate change by comparing and contrasting the answer of the participants before and after engaging in the seven-week course.

Conducting Interviews

I conducted 40 minute individual interviews with twelve pre-service teachers in Thai in a setting that was conducive, convenient, and mutually agreed upon. The interviews were audio recorded and were conducted one-to-one in order to ensure privacy and to explore each participants' responses in depth. Moreover, I applied the notion of the co-authored statement; that is, the original interview schedule with the pre-service teachers was conducted in Thai language. As shown on Table 3, the PST participants were interviewed twice—before the seven-week course (before week 1, before the first classroom observations) and after the seven-week course (after week 7, after the fourth classroom observations).

In Interview One with the teacher educators, I interviewed Cindy in English in her office one day before the course started. Because I was not only the researcher but also a participant in the study, she also interviewed me in English using the same questions. Interview Two was

conducted straight after the seven-week course. I first interviewed Cindy, and then she also interviewed me using the same Interview Two questions.

The conversations were recorded using a digital recorder because I wanted to interact with the participants during interviewing rather than spending time on note taking. In addition, digitally-recorded interviews provided me a level of detail and accuracy. The recordings were all in Thai. They were transcribed and translated by me and reviewed by a third party in order to verify the translations. Moreover, the edited and translated transcripts of notes of the interview were sent back to the participants for checking in order to ensure agreement on a correct version of the translation.

<div align="center">Observations</div>

Observations are another important source of information because the classroom interaction of individuals cannot always be understood by only interviewing them (Hays, 2004). Observations provide a more complete description of phenomena (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Observations in this research were used as a means of obtaining data on how pre-service teachers and the teacher educator engaged in the course, representing their uptake of teaching and learning practices, and to support the data from the interviews, so as to obtain a deeper understanding of what was being observed (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). Experiences from being in the classrooms can help to cross-reference and interpret the data. The observations of Cindy's class and my class were conducted weekly from week 1 to week 7 and lasted four hours. I conducted classroom observation in Cindy's class, which was taught by Cindy, and participant observation in my own class. The details of the actual implementation of each observation are described in the following sections.

Conducting Classroom Observations in Cindy's Class

During classroom observations in Cindy's class, I sat on a chair at the back and joined in some activities with students so the students would not have the feeling that they were being observed. During the observation, an observation protocol was used to help organise the data into appropriate categories and to ensure that the observation was sufficiently focused on the data required to achieve the research's aims (Yin, 2009). The observation protocol is explained in greater detail in the next section. The lessons were also video-recorded so as to help gain much greater depth than observation done by hand involving live coding (Bowman, 1994). Categorisation of the information from observation through video recording could be developed more fully after watching the video recordings (Edwards & Westgate, 1987). Two small cameras were used to record interaction, one camera capturing the pre-service teachers, while the other recorded the teacher educator in a class. The use of two cameras allowed each group of participants to be viewed from two different angles and to provide verification of the events of that moment, from different angles. After each observation, I watched the video recording and took extensive observation notes.

Conducting Participant Observation in My Class

During my classroom observations, I was teaching the pre-service teachers in front of the class and joined in the activities with students. In order to keep some consistency with data collection methods, the classroom practice was recorded by using the video recorder in the same way and for the same number of times as in Cindy's class. Moreover, the interaction during the course was recorded because I was taking the role as a teacher educator who was a participant in the research and wanted to naturally interact with the participants during the course rather than spend time on taking field notes. Using a video-recorder provided me with extensive detail and

I could watch the video-recording after each observation, using the observation protocol that I used in Cindy's class when watching the videos.

Observation Protocol

The observation protocol was adapted from The Activity Setting Observation System (ASOS) (Rivera et al., 1999). The ASOS was designed to provide a system for observing socio-cultural activities in classrooms and was developed based on sociocultural theory. The protocol thus focuses on giving meaning to classroom activities, and serves as an explanatory basis for generating understanding about human consciousness affected by and affecting cultural values (Rivera et al., 1999). This made ASOS a useful model for designing the observation protocol of this research because it helped with capturing interpersonal interaction between teacher and students and between students and peers at the whole-class level and in smaller groups. Based on ASOS, the major unit of analysis in the observation protocol in this research was the activity setting. That is, cognitive action occurring among participants within the setting involved the environment and objective features of the events—who, what, where, when, and why. Within each activity setting as suggested by ASOS, four instructional categories were coded: teacher–student dialogue; responsive assistance by teacher or students; joint productive activity with teachers or peers, and modelling/demonstration by teacher or students. By using the protocol, the data from observation were appropriately categorised for linking to dialogic interaction in class. The observation protocol is provided in Appendix D.

ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Data were analysed using thematic analysis (Braun, Clarke, & Terry, 2014). Thematic analysis (TA) was used because it grounds data analysis principally in what a participant has said or what has been written (Braun, Clarke, & Terry, 2014), but analysis of the themes can be informed by the application of theoretical frameworks as presented in Chapter Three. Theories can then be used to make sense of the themes but not drive them.

TA provided me a systematic approach to recognise patterns within the data and to retain the context of each data unit allowing relationships between themes to be considered. The analytic process for thematic analysis, as suggested by Braun, Clarke, and Terry (2014), is given below and I describe and provide an example of what I did at each stage of the process.

The analysis procedure started in the first week of the course. First, the data were transcribed and annotated. I carefully read the data from interviews and observations at least three times in order to engage myself in the data. The passages or phases that seemed important were highlighted. I also took notes as an initial casual observation about the data. These notes were used to form the basis of the second phase of coding the data. In the second phase, I started to generate initial codes. As suggested by Yin (2009), after reading the entire dataset from interviews and observations, I coded only the parts that were potentially relevant to the research purpose and useful for answering the research questions.

The codes generated in this data analysis were both descriptive and interpretative; for example, the code 'Provided learners with guidance' is descriptive, because it summarised the content of what the teacher performed in the classroom. Moreover, I coded the data as interpretative. For instance, the code "Observed and/or tested learners' current level of understandings and

adjusted assistance for enabling learners to [achieve a] higher level of knowledge/ understanding' is interpretative, because it described my assumption about the teacher's questions and her purpose in asking questions, and providing responses.

The third phase was to categorise the codes which might merge into 'candidate' or prospective key themes. The codes that contained similar ideas were categorised in the same theme. The candidate themes that offered the fullest data-based account for answering the research questions were chosen. In the fourth phase, themes were reviewed, revised, and refined. Some candidate themes were split into new themes. A thematic map was used to consider connections between themes. It should also be noted that I analysed more than one type of data source—interview, and observation data. I cross-referenced between the two data sources by searching for similarities and differences between them in this phase (Daymon & Holloway, 2002). I identified codes and themes found in observation data which fitted with codes and themes found in interview data. The excerpts from interview data that were coded and used to generate themes were used to explain how the participants negotiated their identities as teachers and learners.

In the fifth phase, I refined each theme's scope and definition. I then moved to an interpretative level of data analysis. As I moved through the analytical process in this phase, I considered myself as a part of the analysis. I reflected my understanding, experiences, and assumptions regarding the data in order to develop my narrative so as to provide readers with insights about the data and meanings in relation to the focus of my research. Furthermore, it should also be pointed out that since I performed the data coding, there were some challenges concerning trustworthiness. I discuss this issue later in the chapter.

RESEARCHER'S POSITION AND RESEARCH TRUSTWORTHINESS

In ethnographic research the researcher is considered to be an instrument for making sense of the phenomenon under study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Since I regarded myself as an instrument, there were some challenges about assuring trustworthiness in this research. In the following, I describe some of my personal background that made me both an insider and outsider, and my awareness of the possible effects of being an insider researcher in particular.

My research explores how Thai pre-service teachers who are regarded as foreign language learners, how their teacher educators engage in English writing classes, and what influences their engagement. As a Thai EFL and an English instructor in Thailand, I have much in common with my participants. This research was conducted in Thailand and related to Thai education. A Thai citizen by birth, I studied in private primary and secondary schools in Thailand. I firstly obtained my degree at Bangkok University in Thailand. I was an English language teacher educator in Thailand for approximately five years. I had many ties, both socially and professionally to the broad context of my research. It helped me attain a depth of understanding of the participants that may not be accessible to outsiders. I believed that these experiences provided me a distinct advantage in terms of emic validity (Whitehead, 2005). Besides this experience in Thailand, I obtained experience in studying abroad. I attended an English language course in Australia for three months. Then, in 2010 I achieved a post-graduate degree at an Australian university. In 2015, I attended an English Bridging course for 4 months before commencing my Ph.D. The knowledge and experience I have gained from studying in Australia allowed me to establish some distance from the study. My position as an 'outsider' was linked to the way that I have been exposed to the Australian education system, and teaching and learning practices in Australia were very different to what I had experienced in Thai education.

Being an insider researcher can be very beneficial because it affords easy access to the field; having a great understanding of the culture being studied means there is no alteration to the nature of social interaction, and facilitates close contact which in turn promotes both the telling and the judging of the truth (Whitehead, 2005). I made good use of the advantages of being an insider researcher in collecting the data. First, I was accepted into Lignum Vitae University. Being accepted meant that I was welcomed by the pre-service teachers and teacher educators in the faculty. I also did not have power and authority over the staff, which could have affected the data collection process negatively.

A second advantage of being an insider is that I spoke the same language, understood the local values, knowledge, and taboos, knew the formal and informal power structure, and obtained documents easily. Merriam et al. (2001, p. 411) also pointed out that insider researchers have the "ability to ask meaningful questions and read non-verbal cues," and the ability to "project a more truthful, authentic understanding of the culture under study". Knowing the culture of the setting helped me to give meaning to implicit messages and provide clarification. Therefore, I was less likely to stereotype and pass judgement on the participants because I was familiar with them and the research setting. Moreover, I could blend into the classroom without greatly disturbing the research setting.

Nevertheless, although there are advantages to being an insider researcher, I was also aware of the disadvantages of having familiarity, and role duality (DeLyser, 2001). First, having familiarity tends to lead to being too subjective and a loss of objectivity and the researcher's prior knowledge can lead to bias (DeLyser, 2001). With great familiarity, the perception of the researcher can be too narrow (DeLyser, 2001). This can lead to the risk of the researcher making biases and/or assumptions based on their prior knowledge and/or experience (DeLyser, 2001). To overcome this potential problem, I enlisted the help of a teacher educator in the

faculty who was not a participant in this study to co-operatively read and compare the original and translated interview data. The edited and translated transcripts of notes of the interview were also sent back to the interviewees for checking. Also, after collecting the Interview One data, I realised that the first participants gave less information and deferred their responses (such as Y*ou know what I mean* or *We talked about that before*) in the Interview Two data collection. This happened because the Interview Two questions repeated some questions from Interview One. I made sure that I gave the participants the opportunity to reflect on their perspectives with clarification questions, and began the interview two with a disclaimer, indicating that although I may have already discussed this with them before, it would be best if they could act as if they were talking about it for the first time (Chavez, 2008).

Given that I was both the researcher and a research participant, I was confronted with a role duality that could affect the data collection and interpretation in this study. I thus used rich thick description by collecting data that related to as many factors as possible that might impinge on the participants (Denzil, 1989). The data included audio-recordings during interviews, video-recordings during observation, and photo copies of the pre-service teachers' written texts and teacher educator's lesson plans. These multiple sources of data helped assure credibility in this study as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985). Moreover, Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended that the rich thick description should be used in order to establish transferability in qualitative studies because the findings of qualitative research are rarely transferable from one setting to another. In this research, rich thick description was used to report my findings. This method allows readers to compare the research setting and context, and decide which findings might be relevant to their contexts. In addition, I gained data from two classes that were taught by myself as a teacher educator who had more exposure to dialogic teaching and learning, and the teaching–learning cycle and by Cindy who had been teaching only in Thailand and was less exposed to the approach. Gaining data from two classes therefore could reveal data from different angles.

An outsider perspective allowed me to assume responsibility for understanding where I was positioned within the space and to explore how my status possibly affected the process of my research and the data (Dwyer & Buckle, 2009). I started collecting data from my insider perspective. I tried to make sense of what I had collected based on my 'native' view. The outsider view then was adopted to guide me to step back from the insider perspective in order to explain how the participants engaged in the classrooms and to analyse the data. My perspective as an outsider led me to establish some distance when interpreting data. My experience of studying abroad might have influenced me to have different personal perspectives, experiences, and values to the participants, and this experience was positioned as integral to the research.

ETHICAL ISSUES

Given that this research involved collecting data from human participants, it is important to discuss the ethical issues that related to the research process (see Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). In this section, I discuss ethical standards for protecting research participants by following Patton's "ethics checklist" (Patton, 2002). Patton's ethics checklist includes explaining the purpose of the research in an accurate and understandable way, keeping promises including those involving reciprocity, estimating and communicating potential risk to the participants and handling issues that arise, keeping to confidentiality agreements, obtaining informed consent from research participants, clearly communicating to the participants the process of data access and ownership of the data in an evaluation, considering any effects of conducting the interviews on both researcher and the participants, being aware of the go-to person(s) for advice while conducting the research, carefully planning data collection boundaries, and considering ethical frameworks, and ensuring respect and sensitivity of the participants. These issues were all considered in this research in order to show respect for the participants, protect

them from risks, and honor their contributions (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). The next sections elaborate ethical matters of specific concern in the process of conducting the research.

Obtaining Permission

I followed all the ethical procedures of Monash University and applied for and obtained the ethics approval from the university Human Research Ethics Committee. Then, official permission (see Appendix A) was obtained before entering the research setting by contacting the relevant personnel including the President of the university in Thailand, the Dean of the Faculty of Education, the Head of the EFL department, and the teacher educator who taught English Writing for Academic Purposes.

Autonomy, Privacy and Confidentiality

Another ethical concern in qualitative research that researchers need to seriously consider the principle of autonomy, which Hammersley and Traianou (2012, p. 80) have interpreted as "a right not to be researched". Hammersley and Traianou (2012) argued that qualitative researchers are required to obtain participants' consent to participate in the study and provide opportunity for them to be able to withdraw from an investigation at any point. In this research, on orientation day, a third party who was not an academic staff member in the same faculty was asked to explain the research and the reasons behind it to the third year pre-service teachers before beginning the course. It was explained that there was no extra work involved and no negative repercussion should they choose not to participate. The pre-service teachers who participated in the study were not evaluated and graded according to their participation in the study. Moreover, it was explained that the research process included two interviews for up to twelve pre-service teachers. Since the research population were adults, consent forms and explanatory statements (see Appendix B) were provided for the participants. The pre-service

teachers and teacher educators received an explanation of the study procedures to be used. They were also informed that they could withdraw from the research at any time. The consent form for pre-service teachers was written in Thai so that it was completely understandable to them. The participants who consented to participate in the study needed to fill in and sign in the consent from, and return a copy to the third party, who was not associated with this research. This was done in order to minimise coercion. The participants were also asked to keep a copy for themselves.

I was a teacher educator in the same Faculty of Education and university as the teacher educator who was invited to participate in this study. Because the teacher educator understood English very well, her consent form and explanatory statement were written in English. The teacher educator signed the forms and gave them back to me, and kept a copy of the form for herself. Maintenance of privacy and confidentiality was regarded as an extremely important aspect of this research. The participants were assured that all data would be confidential. They would be made available only to the researcher. In addition, their identities would be protected. Pseudonyms would be used in audio and video and the data would be presented without identifying them.

The issue of recruitment during orientation was a matter of ethical concern in terms of maintaining the privacy of the pre-service teachers because the other teacher educators who participated in this research was the one responsible for marking all of the pre-service teachers at the end of the course. Gall, Gall, and Borg's (2007) work suggested that the researcher should not give the teacher information about the identity of certain students because from that information the teacher may have expectations that can influence the teacher's future behaviour toward students. They additionally pointed out that researchers should minimise the number of individuals who know the identity of research participants (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). The

other teacher educator therefore was not involved in the recruiting process, and this meant that pre-service teachers' recruitment information was kept away from her. The pre-service teachers were also informed that I would not be marking or evaluating them, and that I was the only person who recruited the pre-service teachers and knew their identities.

Unequal and Pre-existing Relationships

An ethics issue that related to this research was the issue of teacher–student dependency (see National Health and Medical Research Council, 2014). The pre-service teachers participating in this research were third-year pre-service teachers. They started their first year when I took sabbatical leave to study in Australia. As I had never taught them before and would not be marking them, none of the participants had a pre-existing or dependent relationship with me. However, there were some ethical concerns about the other teacher educator being involved because she was responsible for assessing the pre-service teachers. To offset this, I informed the pre-service teachers in the explanatory statement that as a researcher and their teacher educator, I did not assess them either during the seven-week course or at a later date, and that their identity would not be shared with the other teacher educator. There was no evaluation in terms of score and grades as a result of participating in the teaching–learning cycle. It was also explained that there was no negative repercussion if they chose not to participate in the interviews and observations (see National Health and Medical Research Council, 2014). Moreover, I provided the participants with my contact details in the explanatory statement for future communication or for requesting the results of the study. The arrangement that was put in place to deal with the participants' distress in the case of adverse research results was reassuring the participants of the confidential procedure of the data collection. The data from observation and interview were kept in secure storage and only accessible to the researcher. Moreover, participants were also informed that they could withdraw from the project without penalty.

The issues of pre-existing relationships between the researcher and the teacher educator who participated in this research was another ethical concern. The teacher educator who in this research and I had professional ties because we were colleagues teaching in the EFL department of the Faculty of Education. Although I maintained social contact with the teacher educator, I did not have much professional contact with her because I was on leave for studying abroad and did not have an administration role in the faculty where the research site was located. I did not have power and authority over the teacher educator, which could affect her negatively. Moreover, the recruitment for the teacher educator in this research was voluntary. She consented to participate in this research and was informed that she was not evaluated according to her participation.

CONCLUSION

Based on an attempt to provide transparency in this study, this chapter has provided considerable details regarding the research design and the methodological choices made. This study was designed as a qualitative ethnographic case study in order to collect rich, thick data on Thai teacher educators' and pre-service teachers' engagement in the teaching–learning cycle, and the way they negotiate their understanding as teachers and students. Participant observation, classroom observation, and semi-structured interviews were used to collect the data. Relevant issues surrounding research trustworthiness and ethical consideration were also considered. The chapter also described the analysis procedure used to carry out data-driven findings.

Part Two: Findings of the Research

CHAPTER SIX
Teaching Approach and Content Choice

As pointed out in Chapter Four, I used the teaching and learning cycle as a way to encourage and investigate teacher–student and student–student dialogic interaction. I focused on the process of change in teacher and student identity, which I understood both as emerging through participation in particular practices and as discursively constructed.

The findings of this research have been divided into three chapters. In this chapter (Chapter Six), I discuss the findings that relate to how Cindy and I interpreted the teaching and learning cycle and dialogic interaction, and our subsequent choice of content. In Chapter Seven, I explain the kinds of teacher–student and student–student interactions that happened in the classroom while we were teaching this content. In Chapter Eight, I address the discursive construction of a teaching/learning identity by both the teachers (Cindy and myself) and the students (the pre-service teachers) both before and after engaging in lessons structured around the teaching and learning cycle for seven weeks. The objective in the final results chapter is to explore the change/lack of change in understandings related to dialogic interaction in the classroom.

In this Chapter Six, I explain my own experience with – and understanding of – the teaching and learning cycle and dialogic teaching and learning, and how I prepared Cindy for a new way of teaching. As I instigated the process, I start with a discussion of myself, then turn to Cindy.

In the first section, I discuss how we applied the stages in the teaching and learning cycle called building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text. These two stages are discussed together because the boundaries were blurred between our implementation of the two stages. Secondly, I go on to explore how Cindy and I implemented modelling and deconstruction of the text. In particular, I explore how we chose to teach language features of information reports in this stage. I emphasise the discussion of my focus on modelling in order to point out the language features and how they were used at the text-level, and Cindy's focus on presenting language features of the genre at sentence-level. Thirdly, I discuss how we implemented joint construction which we both saw as the way to prepare our students for independent writing. In the fourth section, I explore my focus on co-construction leading to independent writing, and Cindy's focus on teacher demonstration leading to independent writing. Fourthly, I explore the ways Cindy and I chose to engage our students in dialogic interaction. In this section, I specifically focus on the discussion of our chosen activities for engaging students in triadic dialogues.

TEACHING AND LEARNING CYCLE AND

BLURRED BOUNDARIES BETWEEN BUILDING THE FIELD

AND MODELLING AND DECONSTRUCTION OF THE TEXT

The setting in which I was conducting the study strongly influenced my appropriation of the teaching and learning cycle, and the way I explained the cycle to Cindy. As explained in Chapter Five, the study was conducted in an English Writing for Academic Purposes course in the second semester of the third year of teacher education. The focus of the course was the genre of information report, and the main aim of the course was to develop students' writing skills in this area. I decided to choose content that students had already learned in order to teach this genre, and consolidate the content at the same time. This content was EFL teaching

techniques, which the students had learnt (or were learning concurrently) in the first and second semester of the same year. Since the course focused on learning one particular genre, and one the students had already knew, I chose to adopt the four-staged teaching and learning cycle from Derewianka and Jones (2012, 2016), and Hammond (2001) as can be seen in Figure 4. The fact that I was recycling and reinforcing what had been previously learned rather than teaching something completely new created a blurred boundary between building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text in my class.
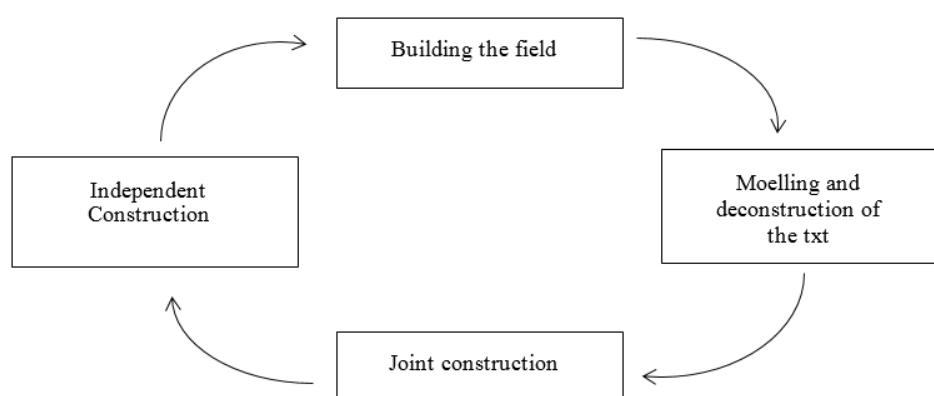
Figure 4. The Four-Staged Teaching and learning Cycle Used in this Study

(Adapted from Hammond, 2001 and Derewianka and Jones, 2012)

When preparing for the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle, I studied the ideas of social interaction through the lens of sociocultural theory, systemic functional linguistics, and the idea of register as shown in Chapter Four. However, I did not focus on using the idea of register to analyse the genre by chunking a clause or sentence in the text. Rather, I focused on applying the teaching and learning cycle to replace more traditional teacher-centred pedagogies. In this way, I was more interested in the idea of social interaction through dialogic interaction. I found that the teaching and learning cycle could be adapted to more traditional way of teaching in the Thai context. I adopted the traditional grammatical teaching approach

that was the normal way of teaching grammar in the Thai context. I thought about systems that helps dialogic interaction in classroom because I wanted to teach grammar in a more contextualised way but still in the way that Thai students could understand. Without bringing in the new idea of language teaching based on register, from my position, I thought that this way of teaching in the teaching and learning cycle would work in the Thai classroom.

Moreover, I reviewed the literature related to the application and critiques of the teaching and learning cycle (e.g. Rose & Martin, 2012; Hyland, 2009; Hammond, 2001). I saw that the explicit modelling can be a useful teaching method in the Thai context because it enables students to adapt and apply the model text that they have seen in ways that are meaningful to them. I also saw the importance of the idea of joint construction of the text as an effective way to engage students in active thinking that can lead students to independent writing performance. As a result, I chose to focus on these useful ideas in order to design the intervention (including lesson plans) in the particular Thai context, and the selection of teaching materials. The lesson plans and teaching materials such as handouts and worksheets will be provided and discussed later in this section.

I studied each stage and its purpose in the teaching and learning cycle from the literature (e.g. Feez, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2005; Rose & Martin, 2010; Derewianka & Jones, 2016) explaining that building the field is an essential stage in the development as discussed in Chapter Four. I realised that this way of thinking did not seem to fit with my context because the students already had knowledge of the content I wanted to cover with them – the teaching techniques and approaches for EFL. In addition, in this information report writing course, the students were not assessed on the knowledge of teaching techniques and approaches for EFL; rather, they were assessed on their writing performance in producing an information report. The context of the course influenced my decision to focus on teaching the information report

genre in terms of the purpose and structure of information reports and the language of reports in building the field, and to use the content of another course/subject to help teach in my course. I wanted to use relevant content but have a strong focus on language. Since my focus on building the knowledge of the field was a consolidation focus (and not a novel teaching point), I chose to use an information report text which talked about EFL teaching techniques (see Figure 5).

USING TALES FOR THE TEACHING OF VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR IN A PRIMARY EDUCATION ENGLISH CLASS

Telling stories has long been recognised as a powerful means of human communication. Narrative is probably the most common way of organising experience. Because of this, even very young children will know, implicitly, a lot about stories, what to expect, how to respond. This is an ability that the school should be able to draw on and build upon (Howe & Johnson 1992: 3). This paper will give reasons for using children's stories in a class of English.

Children enjoy listening to stories in their mother tongue. Storytelling is an ideal introduction to foreign languages as stories provide a familiar context for the child. Moreover, if teachers want to attract children's attention they must propose a motivating activity such as storytelling. Children start enjoying literature from an early age by the teacher's use of extensive reading of stories. They develop their literary competence –a combination of linguistic, socio-cultural, historical and semiotic awareness (Brumfit & Carter 1986: 18). Literature, in general, allows pupils to understand and appreciate cultures and ideologies different from their own. Consequently, children learn to respect other cultures and to be involved in them. In addition to this, storytelling provides contexts for talking, listening, reading, writing and other activities such as dance and drama. According to several critics[2], there are a number of reasons why teachers use children's stories.

– Stories are motivating and fun creating a desire to communicate. They develop positive attitudes and help children to keep on learning. Positive affective factors facilitate acquiring a second language. Children will learn better if they have a positive attitude towards what they are doing.

– Stories exercise the imagination. Children imagine sceneries, characters and so on about a story. For example, if they become personally involved in a story they can identify with some characters.

– Stories provide a rich resource for education about human societies, offering insights into life in many different communities and into complex cultures.

– Stories are a useful tool in linking fantasy and imagination with the child's real world. So children can make sense of their everyday life. Stories help children to understand the world and to share it with others. "Nine to twelve -year-olds are developing their ability to appreciate other viewpoints. At this age stories about family and friends should not only reassure children about themselves but also provide them with new insights into how other families and children cope with various situations. Children at this age enjoy stories that extend their experiences (Brumfit, Moon and Tongue 1991: 185). On the other hand, there is a need to make language learning easier for young children by relating it to their experience in everyday life.

– Stories are a way of getting children to learn for themselves. That is the case with the following:

• Reinforcing thinking strategies (comparing, classifying, predicting, planning etc.)

• Developing strategies for learning English (guessing the meaning of new words, training the memory etc.)

.

– Storytelling is a powerful way of helping pupils to learn in all areas of the curriculum. According to Howe and Johnson (1992: 5), the reason is that narrative is a universal way of organising events and ideas. Stories can be chosen to consolidate learning in school subjects across the curriculum, which is appropriate to the pupil's cognitive level. This is true with:

- Mathematics (telling the time, numbers and measuring).
- Science (animals, outer space, flowers, how seeds grow. . .).
- History (pre-historic animals, traditional holidays, understanding the passing of time) (in Jane Cross and others, 1994).

Using story telling is a motivating activity. The teacher of English fulfils most of the objectives for the English subject in Primary Education given by the Ministry. However, there are more reasons to use them in class. Stories exercise imagination and it is also a way of helping pupils to learn in all areas of their curriculum. However, it is not an easy activity. The teacher has to develop a number of skills to improve his/her storytelling. In addition, the children have to develop their concentrating and listening skills by means of the illustrations or while listening stage tasks. The teacher has to plan a number of story-based activities for his/her class. Children develop the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing, but with an emphasis on oral skills. Children do the activities autonomously so that cooperation among pupils is promoted and, consequently, the pupil-to-pupil interaction as well. They become autonomous in their own learning processes and children learn to learn for themselves.

Figure 5. A Text Used as a Model in Building the Field in My Class

(Adapted from Gómez, 2010)

In addition, when I chose authentic texts for teaching and modelling to my students how an information report is structured, I found that all of the authentic information reports that talked about EFL teaching techniques were long, written in academic language and had unclear organisational structure. I realized that using these texts could make it difficult for my students to learn the organisational structure of the genre for their own writing. Therefore, in order to model the structure of the genre more effectively, I decided to use a smaller information report text. I found a text as shown in Figure 6 to be suitable for modelling to my students the structural organisation of the genre, but it talked about other content that did not relate to teaching techniques.
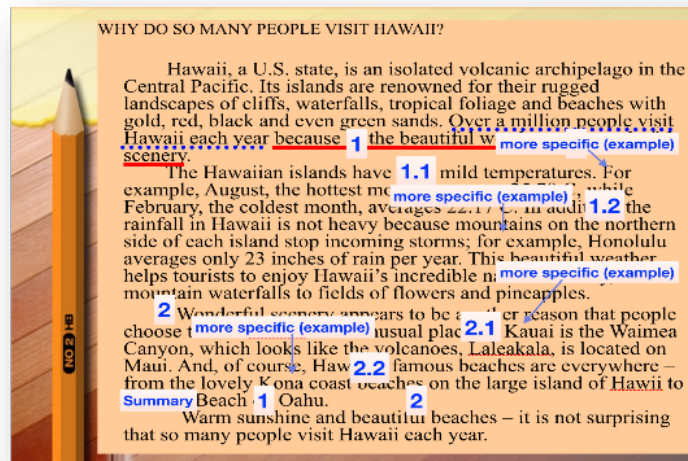
Figure 6. A Text Used for Modelling and
Analysing an Organisational Pattern in My Class (Source: Rooks, 1999)

I selected this text because it provided easy language, was short, and it had a clear structural organisation. Using this text was likely to help my students see the structure of an information report and understand how the content was organised and structured. I was also accustomed to using the PPP – a very common way of teaching in the English language classroom in Thailand, and the presentation phase to me was presentation of English language. Influenced by this teaching experience, I aligned the building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text with the Presentation phase. I chose to focus on presenting the content of the purpose, structure, and features of the information report text through firstly providing a handout which was taken from Chapter Eight: Information reports from Write Ways Modelling Writing Forms (Wing Jan, 2009), and then using a teaching techniques text for modelling in the stage of building the field. The handout that I used to explicitly present content is displayed in Figure 8. I chose to provide my students both the handout and authentic texts as a way to present the content because I realised that explicit subject content is important for Thai students. They can be accustomed to the teacher explicitly showing subject content for them before modelling using an example – a model text. I saw that this way of presenting subject content could help my students see and understand what I intended to teach them. My content focus in building the field is shown in my Week 1 lesson plan that is provided below.

Week 1

Topic:	Information report (Writing topic: EFL Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)
Teaching and Learning Focus:	Building the field and Modelling
Time:	Thursday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm
Material:	Handouts, power point slides, worksheet

Objectives:

The learners will

1. be introduced to the content of the writing topic that they will write about in the end of the course by connecting their previous knowledge/experience with the new knowledge presented in class
2. explore features of general cultural context
3. explore social context and social purpose of the genre of information report
4. develop knowledge about the language features (register) of information report text-type

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 – Engaging the learners to the writing topic (Time: 60 mins):

1. focusing on the content of the text by providing the learners with an information report that talks about the same topic as students are required to write about in the end of the course
2. having the learners tell each other what they knew about the topic
3. asking the learners to report back to the class in a formal way what their partners or groups said
4. summarising the information shared by the learners in the form of graphic outline on the whiteboard

Activity 2 – Reading a text for comprehension (Time: 90 mins)

1. giving learners an information report text for reading for comprehension and asking them to skim and scan the text
2. writing questions (before reading, and after reading) about the text for discussion on the white board
3. Asking learners to give some prediction about the text in order to answer the before-reading questions
4. having learners read the text and discuss in group
5. asking learner to report to the whole class about the answers of the after-reading questions
6. drawing learners attention to the vocabulary and technical terms in the text, and discussing with them about the meaning and synonyms
7. writing down the words presented during the discussion on the whiteboard in note form

Activity 3 –Introducing learner to information about the information report text-type (Time 60 mins):

1. displaying information about the information report text via PowerPoint presentation to show learners the features of information reports (the content was taken from Wing Jan (2009)
    1.1 social purpose of the text purpose, structure, and features through power point slides
    1.2 the relationship between words/vocabulary that are generally used in the information report text, and the purpose of the text
    1.3 the role and relationship between the readers and writer that affects language used in the text –formal and informal language
2 asking learners to explore register of the text that is used in the second activity and discuss in their group
3 discussing with students in each group by asking them questions about the relationship between the purpose of the text and lexical choices and type of language used in the text (formal, informal language)

Activity 4 –Reviewing important concepts and lessons (Time: 20 mins):

1. asking learners to summarise concepts and today's lesson
2. writing all the main information on the whiteboard in note form
3. discussing with learners about each topics

Figure 7. My Week 1 Lesson Plan

Information Reports

PURPOSE, STRUCTURE AND FEATURES

Information reports are used to organise and present factual information in a concise and accurate form within a specific top-level structure of listing and describing. Their cultural purposes are to:

- classify and describe
- compare and contrast
- record feelings and observations.

There are many different types of information reports, the structures and features of which may vary according to the subject or discipline area and the subject-specific information (see Table 8.1).

Table 8.1 Information reports

	Types of information
Scientific reports	Usually focus on two main categories of information—description of appearance and behaviour
Technological reports	Usually focus on two main categories of information—description of component parts and uses
Social Studies reports	Usually focus on information that includes description of aspects of people, places, history, geography, society or economy

Information reports include information about an entire class of things (living or non-living). This information may be processed, organised and conveyed in the form of some or all of the following: classifications, generalisations, descriptions and definitions, comparisons. Information reports include a logical sequence of facts that are stated without any personal involvement or bias from the author. They generally include some of the following structures and language features:

Structure

- a general opening statement to introduce the topic—often this involves a classification
- the main body of the report that includes a description of the aspects, features or characteristics of the subject of the report
- related information grouped in paragraphs
- topic sentences providing an indication of what is to follow
- paragraph content that elaborates on or supports the content of the topic sentence
- concluding information or a summary paragraph
- visual text is often used to support and extend the information in the printed text (for example, diagrams, maps, pictures)
- headings to signify structure, sections and content of the text (for example, title, subheadings)
- a list of resources and references if appropriate

Language features

- specialised vocabulary that allows for more information to be conveyed in fewer words
- sentences containing one or more facts
- variety of sentence types
- generalisations that apply to general class of things—rather than specific things
- formal and objective style of writing (few personal pronouns and greater use of relative pronouns)
- written in the third person
- descriptive language using factual and precise adjectives, and verbs and adverbs
- economical use of language including verbs to describe actions (for example, swims, speaks) or to link characteristics of the subject of the report (for example, Whales *are* mammals that live in the sea.)
- language of comparison (for example, compared with, smaller than, greatest, different from, like)
- definitions of uncommon or subject-specific terms
- timeless present tense generally used
- brackets to explain, clarify or add extra information

Table 8.2   At a glance—general grammar focuses for information reports

Word group focuses	**Sentences** Identify the subject of sentences—who or what each sentence is about. Identify what the subject was doing/did or is doing. Identify the main verb and remaining information in sentences. **Noun groups** The relationship of adjectives to nouns. The adjectives are closely tied to the noun and can't be separated from the noun that they are describing—e.g. *The four large wings ...* **Adjectival groups** • The relationship of adjectival phrases to the noun/s they are describing and the role and features of adjectival phrases—e.g. The flowers *at the top of the tree* ... The countries *near the Equator* • The relationship of adjectival clauses to the noun/s they are describing and the role and features of adjectival clauses—e.g. The lions *sitting in the shade* ... The areas *where earthquakes occur* ... **Adverbial groups** The relationship of verbs to groups of words that are used to add more information about the verb (adverbial phrases). These can refer to: Manner—e.g. Elephants drink *with caution.* Location—e.g. Elephants drink *at the water holes.* Time—e.g. Elephants drink *just before nightfall.* With whom or what—e.g. Elephants drink *with the herd.* Reason—e.g. Elephants drink with the herd *for safety reasons.*
Word focuses	**Nouns** • Subject specific/technical nouns—e.g. *proboscis, thorax* • Collective nouns—e.g. *swarm, herd* • General nouns that refer to classes of things—e.g. *wild animals, transport, tropical countries* • Pronouns—use of third person pronouns to refer to other nouns within the text—e.g. they, their, its, his **Adjectives** Used to describe appearance/characteristics that can be subject-specific/technical or common use • Comparative and superlative adjectives—formation—e.g. *big, bigger, biggest; heavy, heavier, heaviest* **Verbs** • Action verbs—*scampers, flies, hunts* • Present tense—formation—e.g. *eats, is using, swim* • Relational verbs used to classify or describe, e.g. ... *are insects.* ... *have six legs.* ... *is a carnivore.* **Adverbs** Used to add extra information to verbs • Manner—e.g. *easily, slowly* (How?) • Time—e.g. *yesterday, tonight* (When?) • Location—e.g. *inside, away* (Where?) • Accompaniment—e.g. *alone, together* (With whom or what?)

TEACHING FOCUSES FOR INFORMATION REPORTS

The purpose and structure of information reports

▶ Demonstrate how reports begin with a general opening statement or classification of the subject matter and then proceed on to descriptive writing that is organised into interrelated sections or series of paragraphs. Help children to identify the opening general statements in reports and the class of things to which they refer. They can write sample opening general statements for given topics; for example, for a particular animal or class of animals, a given country or people, a machine.

▶ Identify the paragraphs and their content. Use text mapping (see p. 115 for instructions) to help children identify paragraphs in reports and their content. Demonstrate paragraph writing and guide them towards using this writing convention in their own reports. Use bundling (see p. 131 for instructions) to assist children in writing paragraphs.

▶ Discuss the use of headings and/or topic sentences that signal the content of paragraphs. Help children identify and write topic sentences that introduce the paragraph. Mask the topic sentences in paragraphs and ask children to suggest suitable ones. Provide topic sentences and ask the children to suggest the sort of information that would be in the related paragraph.

▶ Help children identify the types of content that could be included in specific reports. Brainstorm the possible content of a report on, for example, a country, a machine or an animal. Provide guiding questions or headings to assist children to write appropriate reports. For example, a report on a country might have information about location, landforms, climate, people and language.

The language in reports

▶ The use of economical speech that does not include unnecessary descriptive devices; for example, irrelevant adjectives, adverbs, similes or metaphors. Help the children identify the descriptive words and phrases in reports and the aspect to which they refer.

▶ The use of personal pronouns is limited as reports are generally written in an objective and formal manner. Help the children identify the pronouns that refer to the subject of the report. Introduce the children to relative pronouns. List the personal pronouns that are generally not found in reports.

▶ The use of present tense to refer to ongoing actions or states. Locate and discuss the use of verbs in reports. Classify these verbs according to the actions to which they refer and note their formation. This may be an opportunity to explore auxiliary verbs.

▶ The use of specialised vocabulary that is specifically related to the topic. Encourage the children to locate this and to check the meanings of the words. Encourage children to use topic-specific terms in their reports.

> Information reports list and describe. Y charts, Cluster and Spider diagrams can be used before writing and during reading to organise information.

Figure 8. The Handout About Information Report Text Type Used in My Class
(Source: Wing Jan, 2009, p. 124)

As mentioned, I was influenced by the idea of the PPP that offers Presentation as an important stage. It is the stage in which students can gain all of the conceptual knowledge before starting to practice. I perceived that it was important to provide my students with sufficient time learning the content focus of the course (writing in English). Moreover, Feez's (2002) suggestion reinforced my understanding. Feez (2002) suggested that the teacher should devote enough time to building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text before beginning the task of writing. I decided to continue focusing on building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text in weeks 2 to 3 as can be seen in my lesson plan in Figure 9.

Lesson Plan

Week 2

Topic:	Information report (Writing topic: EFL Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)
Teaching and Learning Cycle Stage(s) Focus:	Modelling and Deconstructing the Text
Time:	Thursday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm
Material:	Handouts, power point slides, worksheet

Objectives:

The learners will

1. learn about language at the level of text, clause, group or phrase and words
2. explore choice of language features of the model text
3. investigate the organisational and structural pattern including text cohesion
4. explore functions of stages in the text

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 –Introducing learners to language features and their functions (Time: 90 mins):

1. showing learners the modelling text through PowerPoint presentation and giving them copies of the text
2. drawing learners' attention to the language features and their function, and showing them each language feature in the text by using different colored pens to highlight (asking learners questions and having them share their ideas during this stage):
   2.1 word group focuses: sentences, noun group, adjective groups, adverbial groups
   2.2 Word focuses: nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs
   2.3 fact and opinion
3. explaining each aspect of the language features and giving some examples
4. focusing on grammatical structures and vocabulary that are important in the text (or let the learners themselves decide on these features and teacher provides careful guidance and questioning)

Activity 2 –Teacher and students revising a paragraph (Time: 40 mins):

1. displaying a short paragraph by using OHP and giving learners copies of it
2. asking learners to point out sentence problems in the text and directing them to the problems in the text
3. asking learners for suggestion and discussing with them about the way to improve the text
4. working with learners to rewriting it

Activity 3 –Students revising a paragraph (Time: 90 mins):

1. explaining to learners about the purpose and direction of the activity
2. giving learners an informative text for revising
3. having learners work in their groups
4. visiting each group for jointly discussing with them and providing help, suggestions, and feedback
5. displaying the same text in front of the class by using OHP
6. after learners finished revising the text, asking them to share with the whole class, and asking them to explain
7. revising the text based on what the learners presented and pointing out what they did not mention
8. providing suggestions and explanation for the learners

Activity 4 –Reviewing important concepts and lessons (Time: 20 mins):

1. asking learners to summarise concepts and today's lesson
2. writing all the main information on the whiteboard in note form
3. discussing with learners about each topics

Lesson Plan

Week 3

Topic:	Information report (Writing topic: EFL Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)
Teaching and Learning Focus:	Modelling and Deconstructing the Text
Time:	Thursday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm
Material:	Handouts, power point slides, worksheet

Objectives:

The learners will

1. investigate the structural pattern and language feature of the model texts
2. deconstruct the model text

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 –Reading text for investigating language features and structure (Time: 90 mins):

1. displaying a model text in front of the class via OHP, and giving learners copies of the model text
2. giving enough time for learners to read the text and discuss with their peers
3. discussing with them the purpose of the text and its relationship with language use in the text (following the content of Wing Jan (2009) page 121-137)
4. drawing attention to text organisation and working with learners to mark each of the stages, by using highlighter and pen to write as a way to show them example
5. having learners to share their idea and opinion
6. drawing attention to text deconstruction by having learners to do text deconstruction in pairs or group, and asking them to share their ideas to the whole class, and asking them questions, and giving them feedback
7. pointing out the (using PowerPoint presentation to show them information and example):

Figure 9. My Week 2 and Week 3 Lesson Plans Focusing on Modelling and Deconstruction of the Text

There also appeared to be a blurred boundary between Cindy's implementation of building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text. This blurred boundary may have been influenced by the way I prepared Cindy for the teaching and learning cycle, and her understanding of teaching in the Thai context, which is based on PPP.

As I pointed out in Chapter Five about Cindy's background, I knew that she did not have experience with the teaching and learning cycle. Therefore, I tried to prepare her carefully according to my own understandings and interpretations based on the readings I had done and my experiences with learning in Australia. I started by leading her to genre-based pedagogy in order to build up her background knowledge of the ideas of text-based teaching and co-

construction of knowledge that underpinned it. Via email (from Australia before I returned to commence the fieldwork in Thailand), I also sent her resources taken from Rose and Martin (2012), the teaching and learning cycle from Feez (2002), and Gibbons (2009), and the information report from Wing Jan (2009).

After that I had three meetings with Cindy in person. I explained to her that the main focus within the teaching and learning cycle was on dialogic interaction. I explained to her about each stages of the teaching and learning cycle, and introduced her the way of teaching grammar in a more contextualized way by pointing out examples from Feez (2002), Gibbons (2009) and Wing Jan (2009). In addition, I also explained to her that my implementation of building the field was different from what was outlined in the resources that I had given her because the students in the writing course already had the knowledge of teaching techniques, or how we normally chose to teach the information report. To model for her, I then provided her with the brief course syllabus which was adapted from Feez (2002, p. 136-139) (see Appendix F), and lesson plans as can be seen in Figure 7 and Figure 9. I also pointed out that I chose to provide the students with authentic information report texts that talk about teaching techniques in order to show them how they can use the knowledge of teaching techniques that they gain from another classroom in their writing, and in order to utilise them as models for learning purposes and the structure of information reports.

During the second meeting, Cindy pointed out that building the field, and modelling and deconstruction of the text formed the stage at which she planned to show the content of the writing course before engaging the students in writing practice in joint-construction of the text. Although I did not explain this to her and mentioned the PPP while preparing her, Cindy seemed to align the Presentation phase of the PPP with building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text. We both appeared to understand that presenting and modelling

English language content in the first stage of teaching and learning is important for preparing students for practice (Tomlinson, 2011). Because my implementation appeared to be consistent with her understanding, Cindy agreed with my ideas of the implementation of building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text, and chose to use my lesson plans as the model for designing her lesson plans. As a result, as can be seen in Figure 10 and Figure 11 Cindy's choice of content in building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text was similar to mine.

Cindy also chose to recycle and reinforce students' existing knowledge of the field by reading authentic information report texts. An example of the authentic information report that was used in her class is shown in Figure 12. Like me, she also focused on teaching the content of the purpose and structure in building the field. She chose to explicitly present content to students by providing them with the handout of the information report that I showed her (Figure 8). Cindy's lesson plan for building the field, and an example of the chosen model texts are presented in Figure 12.

Cindy's Six-Week Lesson Plan

Lesson Plan

Week 1

Topic: Information report (Writing topic: EFL
                                                    Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)

Teaching and Learning Focus: Building the Field and Modelling

Time: Wednesday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm

Material: Handouts, PowerPoint presentation,
                                                    worksheet

Objectives:

The students will

1. be introduced to the content of the writing topic that they will write about in the end
   of the course by connecting their previous knowledge/experience with the new
   knowledge presented in class
2. explore features of general cultural context
3. explore social context and social purpose of the genre of information report
4. develop their language features (register) of information report text-type

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 – Course Introduction (30 mins)

1. Introducing students to the course
2. giving students copies of course outline
3. explain to students about the course outline

Activity 2 – Activating students' understanding and preparing them for the content of the
writing topic (Time: 120 mins):

1. informing the activity that students will carry out and telling them to hand in the
   worksheet in the end of the activity
2. providing students with an authentic information report text for reading for
   comprehension
3. asking student to predict visual, keywords, the title, or first sentence
4. reading the text with students, and translating the text into Thai with students
5. asking the students questions in relation to the content of the text
6. pointing out important information in the text and discussing with students about their
   related prior knowledge or experience
7. providing students with a worksheet containing questions about the text
8. allowing students to work in groups in order to read and answer the questions in the
   worksheet
9. after students hand in the completed worksheet, discussing with them about the
   answers of the questions in the worksheet

Activity 3 – Introducing students to features of the information report text (Time 90 mins):

1. providing students with a handout about the features of information reports (the
   handout was taken from Wing Jan (2009)
2. lecturing in front of the class about the information report text-type e.g. purpose,
   structure, and features through PowerPoint presentation
3. discussing with students about words/vocabulary that are generally used in the
   information report text e.g. giving some examples of technical terms
4. talking about the role and relationship between the readers and writer presented in the
   information report text-type e.g. showing the differences between formal and informal
   language, talking about the target reader of educational text (which is the writing topic
   that the PSTs will write about in the end of the course)

Figure 10. Cindy's Week 1 Lesson Plan Focused on Building the field

Lesson Plan

Week 2

Topic:	Information report (Writing topic: EFL Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)
Teaching and Learning Focus:	Building the Field and Modelling
Time:	Wednesday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm
Material:	Handouts, PowerPoint presentation, worksheet

Objectives:

The students will

1. learn about language at the level of text, clause, group or phrase and words
2. explore choice of language features of the model text

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 - Introducing students to the language features of the text-type (Time: 90 mins):

1. introducing students to grammar focuses through PowerPoint presentation
   a. grammatical forms: pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions, tense, types of sentence, and clause
   b. example of each grammatical feature
2. providing students with a worksheet about the language features and allowing the students to work on their worksheet in groups
3. after the students hand in the completed worksheets, discuss the answers with them in front of the class and showing the whole class the correct answers by using OHP.

Activity 2 – Distinguishing facts and opinions (Time: 60 mins):

1. using PowerPoint presentation to explain the concept of fact and opinion
2. giving students a worksheet and asking them to work in groups and hand in the completed worksheet in the end of the activity

Activity 3 – Investigation of language use in the text (Time: 60 mins):

1. giving students copies of an information report text
2. having students read the text in groups
3. asking students about choice of language use in the text – formal or informal
4. having students highlight unseen words/vocabulary in the text and find the meaning from dictionary
5. asking each group to share the unseen vocabulary and their meaning with the whole class
6. writing what students said on the whiteboard
7. asking students to find synonyms for the words and writing on the whiteboard in the form of graphic outline
8. discussing the formal and informal version of the vocabulary/words and their synonym

Activity 4 –Split dictation (Time: 60 mins):

1. explaining the purpose and direction of the activity
2. asking students to work in pairs and in pair, giving them two different versions (A and B versions) of a text
3. having them complete the text by dictating to their partners
4. asking learners to share their completed text
5. showing the completed versions, and discussing with them about the meaning and lexical choice

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Lesson Plan

Week 3

Topic: Information report (Writing topic: EFL Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)

Teaching and Learning Focus: Modelling and Deconstructing the Text

Time: Wednesday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm

Material: Handouts, PowerPoint presentation, worksheet

Objectives:

The students will

1. investigate the organisational and structural pattern including text cohesion
2. explore functions of stages in the text

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 – Reviewing week 1 and 2 lessons (Time: 10 mins)

1. asking students questions relating to their background knowledge about information report text-type in order to review week 1 and 2 lessons
2. reviewing the important points covered in week 1 and 2

Activity 2 – Introducing students to organisational and structural pattern of the text (Time: 90 mins)

1. using PowerPoint presentation for explaining about introduction, body, and conclusion
2. giving students a worksheet, and having students work in group
3. asking students to hand in the completed work sheet in the end of the activity

Activity 3 – Reading a text for deconstruction (Time: 90 mins)

1. giving students copies of an information report text type and worksheet containing questions in relation to writing techniques
2. having students read the text in group
3. asking students to share their answers, ideas, and opinions to the whole class
4. using OHP to display the text to the whole class, using highlight pens to show students the structure of the text, and discussing with them based on students' contribution
5. explaining and discussing with students about the functions of each part

Activity 4 – Investigate text unity and cohesion (Time: 60 mins)

1. giving students the handout about text unity and cohesion
2. displaying PowerPoint presentation about transition signals and cohesive devices
3. asking students questions, and discussing with students
4. giving students worksheet and asking students to hand in the completed worksheet in the end of the activity

Figure 11. Cindy's Weeks 2 and 3 Lesson Plans Focused on Modelling and Deconstruction the Text

Internet resources for writing

The Internet is a massive online database that gives users access to several hundred million multimedia documents, an overwhelming abundance which may make it seem like we are quenching our thirst for information by drinking from a firehose. This vast source of information has also changed many aspects of writing teaching. Not only does the Internet facilitate the modes of computer-mediated communication discussed in the last section, it also enables both teachers and learners to easily find and read online texts which provide (a) data for projects; (b) information, tasks, and materials for classes; (c) authentic language for analysis; and (d) a place for students to publish their work.

Perhaps the Internet's most widely used role is as a research source, providing students with data that they can use in writing assignments. Its vast stock of statistics and information provide a rich source of data on the environment, economics, literature, politics, current affairs, entertainment, pop culture, and so on which can be used in essays or writing projects. In addition to independent cyber searches, teachers can set guided information-gap tasks which require learners to treasure hunt for specific information. Thus, students can surf the Web or trawl specific Websites to collect information, about celebrities, travel destinations, and so on to complete a worksheet. Books by Windeatt, Hardisty, and Eastment (2000) and Dudeney (2000) provide a number of ideas for these kinds of Internet tasks. Figure 6.5, for instance, encourages students to analyze the content and style of different online newspapers.

Teachers need to be aware, however, that this immense retrieval potential of computers also offers opportunities for writers to construct texts from other texts without acknowledgment and even the chance to simply download complete essay-length responses to familiar assignment topics. Sites such as *Evil house of cheat* (www.cheathouse.com), *12,000 term papers* (www.12000papers.com), and *cheater.com* all distribute plagiarized papers. The battle has been engaged on the other side by sites such as *plagiarism.org* and *turnitin.com* which offer "document source analyses" of submitted papers, comparing them against millions of texts on the net and documenting similarities.

Are the headlines the same?	
Are there any photos to accompany the article?	
Are they the same?	
Are the captions to the photos different?	
Are the stories the same length?	
Is the beginning of the story the same in each newspaper?	
Is the conclusion the same?	
Does one story have more direct speech than the other?	
Are the same facts reported in both articles?	
Do the articles emphasize different aspects of the story?	
Is one article more "personal" than the other? Is one more "factual"?	
Is one article easier to understand than the other? Is the language easier?	

Source: Windeatt, Hardisty, and Eastment, 2000: 1.7.

Figure 6.5: Web-task writing awareness worksheet.

Reflection 6.9

What Websites are you familiar with which might serve as useful resources for a writing class? What genres or writing tasks could they assist students to complete?

An alternative way of exploiting this wealth of textual material is to collect and analyze the patterns of language it contains, drawing on journalistic, business, scientific, or academic texts as language corpora which can provide insights into written genres. There are excellent reasons for studying real data, and online editions of newspapers, magazines, and academic

Hyland, K. (2009). *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

papers make it fairly easy to collect large amounts of specific and relevant machine-readable English language texts, although copyright laws may complicate their long-term storage. A database of authentic writing of this kind can help us to understand features of written language and make these salient to our students. With the help of concordancing software (discussed below) it can also give the computer an informant role, allowing learners to see the ways in which language is typically used in their target genres.

In addition to the resources it contains for researching content and compiling corpora, the Internet is also a rich source of language learning materials and advice on writing. There are now hundreds of sites with quizzes, puzzles, grammar activities, and writing tips for L2 students. These sites generally offer an attractive interface and varied tasks and options for learning and interacting, although their use of multimedia is generally poor and many sites tend toward repetitive and mechanical exercises.

Among the most useful Websites for L2 writing teachers are the On-Line Writing Labs (OWLs) hosted by many university language centers or rhetoric departments. These sites often focus on academic writing, but typically have links to other sites. In addition to online information and tasks, OWLs may allow teachers to register and download handouts and tutor manuals. Some of the best of these sites are given in Appendix 6.1, and a list of over 200 U.S. writing centers can be found at the National Writing Centres Association (http://departments.colgate.edu/diw/NWCAOWLS.html). As with all sources of materials, however, teachers need to be sure of its accuracy and that they agree with its approach before recommending it to students. Figure 6.6 shows a screenshot from the Purdue University OWL, providing information on writing a research report.

Finally, the Internet provides an alternative outlet for students to publish their work. This gives them the satisfaction and pride of displaying their writing for a potentially enormous audience and encourages greater care in presenting their texts. Student magazines such as *Write Now!* are possible outlets for student writing, or Web-savvy teachers can set up class Web pages or encourage students to create their own sites to post their work. There are now numerous Websites that provide advice and examples to help new users create Websites, and several Internet Service Providers (ISPs – the

Figure 6.6: Advice on academic writing from The Purdue University OWL.

companies that provide Internet connections) offer free space to host these (see Appendix 6.1).

It is now almost as easy to create a Web page as to word process a document. While specialist Web editors such as *FrontPage* and *Dreamweaver* may have more features than most teachers want to handle, the editors supplied with Web browsers, such as *Netscape Composer*, allow writers to create Web pages quite simply and most word processors enable documents to be saved in Web-readable HTML format. It should be noted, however, that students and teachers need a reason to create a site, as the style and content of the pages that is posted will depend on this. If the page is going to be displayed for a restricted audience on a local area network, it is likely to be different than if work will be posted for anyone to see. Another consideration is whether only final copies of work will be published or also in-progress drafts for peer or teacher comment, providing online response forms for classmates or keypals to comment on the work (e.g., Kahtani, 1999). A further important point is that of copyright; although most teachers have assumed they can simply post their students' work on their Websites, it is perhaps more ethical, and legally more sensible, to get written permission from students first.

Figure 12. Cindy's Chosen Text Used as a Model
in Building the Field

Like me, Cindy chose to teach the organisational structure of the information report. When I showed her the materials that I planned to use in the class, I showed her the text that I used for teaching organisational structure (see Figure 6), and pointed out my rationale for using this text as I explained earlier. She then chose to use a model text that talks about different fields in order to show the structure at the paragraph level in an information report as can be seen in Figure 13.

Figure 13. Cindy's Chosen Text Used for Modelling and
Analysing Organisational Pattern

TEXT LEVEL CONTEXTUALISATION

In modelling and deconstruction of the text, I intended to use authentic information report texts to point out the language features and how they were used. I understood that this way of teaching language is teaching language in context or contextualised language teaching and is more effective than decontextualised language teaching. Based on my experience, decontextualised language teaching, which is the traditional language teaching approach in the Thai context (as presented in Chapter 2), focused on showing students grammatical rules, providing isolated sentences and expecting the students to understand how to apply their

knowledge to text-level exercises. As a result, the students had a good knowledge of grammatical rules and structures but they had trouble making grammatical choices in communicative contexts, including speaking and writing. I thus thought that the teaching and learning cycle that draws on contextualisd language teaching would be useful for helping my students to write. I chose to draw students' attention to the way English language, including grammatical items, was used in the text, working on the assumption that the students already had background knowledge of grammatical rules, and forms/structures. The students had already passed through the courses of English grammar fundamentals in their first year. In this section, I firstly explore how I implemented contextualised language teaching. Then, I discuss how Cindy chose to teach grammar in her class, and analyse why and what influenced her choice of the grammar teaching approach.

According to Derewianka and Jones (2012), teaching language in context relates to describing language in terms of the relationship between the forms of language and their functions, and dealing with language from the level of text through to the level of word and below, including the interaction between these levels. Influenced by this idea, I thus focused on providing opportunities for students to explore the relationships between the language features and their functions in an authentic information report, and teaching language in the way that made this relationship transparent. I adopted the idea of how to present the relationship between language features and their functions through text from Wing Jan (2009). As can be seen in Figure 14, the language features are drawn from the text in order to show forms, and explain their meaning and functions.
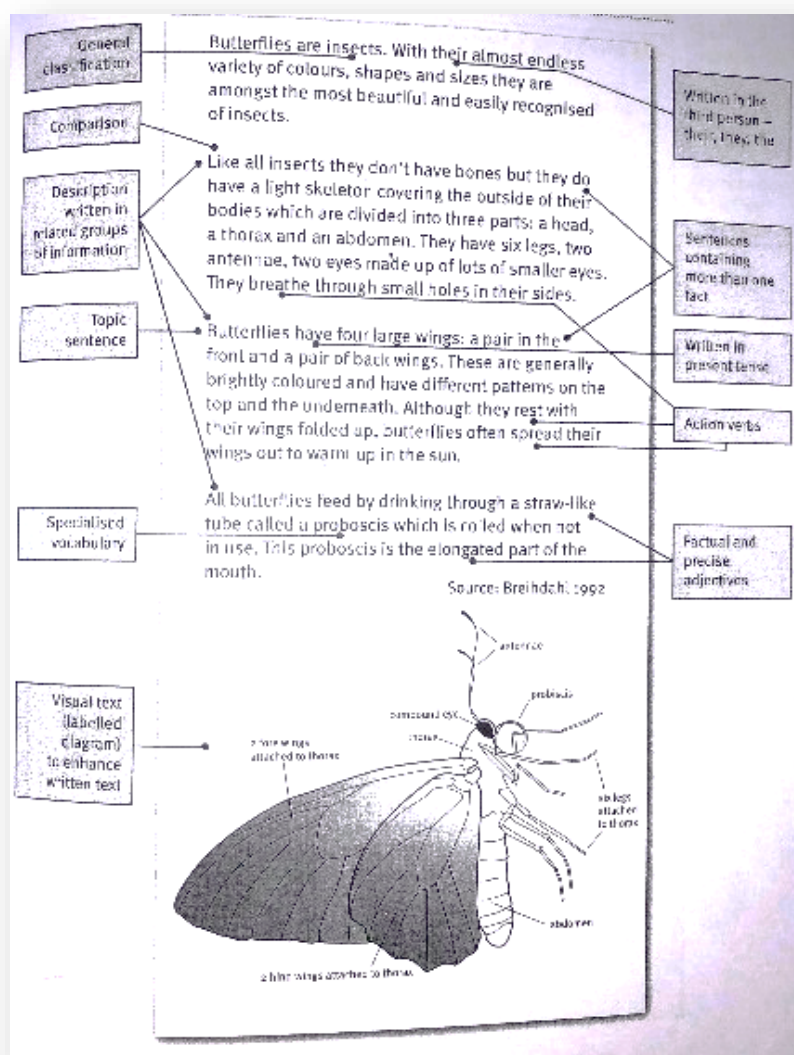
Figure 14. An Example of Teaching Language Features through Text in My Class
(Source: Wing Jan, 2009, p.123)

This idea of teaching language features influenced my grammar focus in the information report. As can be seen in Figure 15, I chose to display an information report in front of the class by using PowerPoint slides, then point out the grammatical features that appear in the text. This PowerPoint slide was used in Activity 1 of the Week 2 lesson plan (see Figure 9). I carefully chose the information report text that contains all the grammar foci for information reports.

Figure 15. An Example of the Material Used
to Teach Language Features in My Class

I chose to emphasise the grammatical features that were significant in and associated with writing information reports such as the use of pronouns and the limited use of personal pronouns, verbs, present tense, prepositions, and conjunctions. Then, I planned to provide the students with exercises for practicing the use of grammar knowledge. I chose a cloze activity taken from an information report text that had words deleted. The cloze activity was shown in Figure 16.

Figure 16. The Cloze Exercise Worksheet Used in My Class

In order to prepare Cindy for teaching language in the teaching and learning cycle, I provided her with artefacts as I pointed out earlier in this chapter. I also provided her with the artefact of the information report which was taken from Wing Jan (2009) with the example of how teaching language features through text could be achieved as shown in Figure 14. However, I did not emphasise the concept of contextualised language teaching during the preparation stage because I assumed that she would pick up the approach for teaching language when reading about genre-based pedagogy and the teaching and learning cycle from the artefacts I had provided her with. Perhaps because of the lack of explicit focus, Cindy employed the traditional grammar teaching approach common in the Thai context. Her chosen approach to teaching grammar thus appeared to be more decontextualised.

Cindy chose to start using PowerPoint slides for presenting and describing grammatical rules, and forms of grammar used in information reports such as pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions,

tenses, types of sentence, and clauses. She displayed the way to apply these grammar items at the sentence level by pointing out the functions of the grammatical items in sentences as can be seen in Figure 17. After that, Cindy provided the students with the opportunity to practice applying the knowledge of grammar that they had learned about by giving them cloze exercises as can be seen in Figure 18.
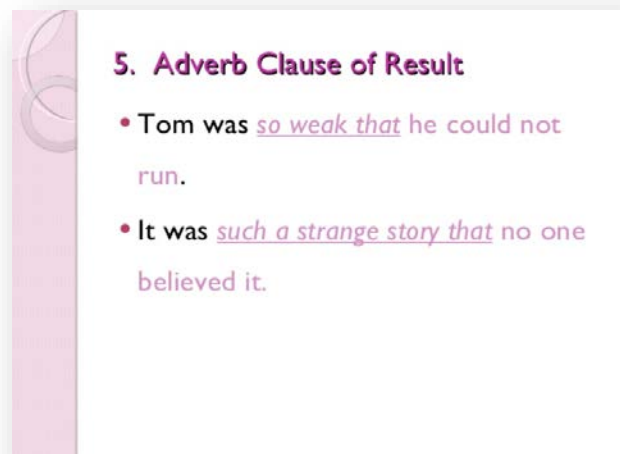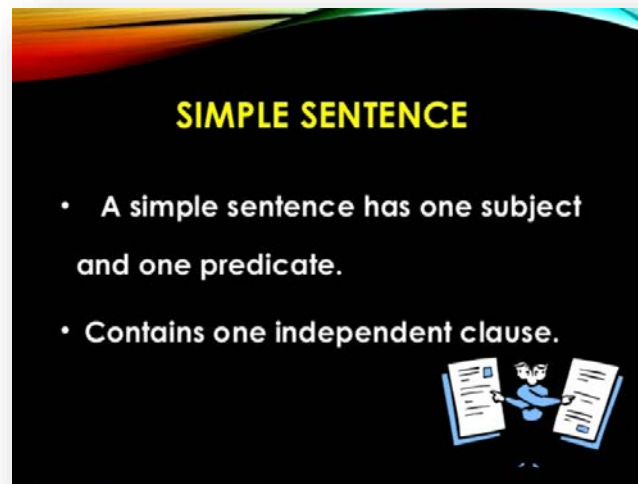
Figure 17. Examples of Cindy's Materials Used to
Teach Language Features

. Complete the following thesis statements by adding subtopics to them. Be sure to check your sentences for parallel form.

1. A computer is necessary for college students for three reasons: _____

2. Students have a difficult time taking notes in class due to _____

3. Successful politicians have the following qualities: _____

4. A generation gap¹ exists in my home because of _____

5. To survive a major disaster such as an earthquake requires _____

Form compound sentences by adding another independent clause to the following independent clauses. Be sure to write a complete clause containing a subject and a verb. Circle the coordinator and add punctuation. The first one has been done for you as an example.

1. The college campus is located in the center of the city, (so) it is very easy to get there by public transportation.

2. According to the Big Bang Theory, the universe began expanding about 13.7 billion years ago and _____

3. Does the universe have an outer edge or _____ ?

4. Scientists predict that intelligent life exists somewhere in the universe but _____

5. Mars probes have photographed rocks with water markings on them yet _____

Which coordinator would you use to connect the two clauses in these sentences? Write either *but* or *yet* in the blank space.

1a. Too much sun damages the skin, _____ many people still do not use sunscreen.
 b. Too much sun damages the skin, _____ too little sun also causes health problems.

2a. The company's sales increased last year, _____ its profits declined.
 b. The company moved its marketing division to Phoenix, _____ the operations division stayed in Boston.

3a. Population growth has slowed in most developing countries, _____ it has not slowed enough to avoid serious problems.
 b. The fertility rate in India has decreased from 6 to 3 births per female. _____ India's population is expanding at the rate of 18 million per year.

Figure 18. Cindy's Cloze Exercises

JOINT CONSTRUCTION AS PRACTICE FOR INDEPENDENT WRITING

My implementation of joint construction was influenced by the concept of co-construction of knowledge that underpins the interaction focus within the teaching and learning cycle. I understood that the dialogic interaction between teacher and students was a way to provide students with an opportunity to practise writing an information report text. It is the stage that links the conceptual knowledge of English and writing and how such knowledge is used to write a text. In this stage, students are stimulated to apply knowledge of the field and information report text in practice under close teacher supervision. As I stated earlier in this

chapter, I understood the traditional teaching approach to writing to lack a focus on assisting students to connect the knowledge of language features to how to apply it to practice. I thus saw joint construction as a useful approach for enabling students to see this connection, and then to be able to write by themselves. For me, joint construction of the text was similar to the Practice phase of PPP, and Independent writing was then the Production phase. By allowing students to practise, I saw that they had more experience in contributing to the construction of an information report text, and could become more skillful in writing the information report before producing the text independently. In this section, I explore my implementation and appropriation of joint construction of the text as a way to help students practise in preparation for Independent writing. Then, I discuss how Cindy implemented the Joint construction of the text, and what may have influenced her choice of implementation.

Influenced by Feez (2002), Humphrey and Macnaught (2011), Gibbons (2009), and Rose and Martin (2012), I tried to engage students in active participation in the activity of joint construction of the text. As can be seen in my Week 5 lesson plan in Figure 19, I chose to encourage students to brainstorm with me and to contribute ideas about what to write by asking questions. I allowed the students to firstly contribute their ideas in Thai, then I and the students together translated those ideas into English. During the translation, I also planned to encourage the students to suggest English wording while I scribed on the whiteboard, and suggested/discussed with them how the wording might be improved. In doing so, I aimed to link what they knew about teaching techniques, and how to put that knowledge in English by drawing on their knowledge of language features that we were going to cover in the modelling and deconstruction of the text. After finishing the joint construction of the text, the students reread the whole text again before collaboratively revising the text. The dialogue involved in how I and students interacted in this activity is presented in the next chapter.

Lesson Plan

Week 5

Topic:	Information report (Writing topic: EFL Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)
Teaching and Learning Cycle Stage(s) Focus:	Modelling and Joint Construction
Time:	Thursday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm
Material:	Handouts, power point slides, worksheet

Objectives:

The learners will begin to contribute to the construction of whole example of the information report text

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 –Reviewing important concepts and lessons of week 4 (Time: 20 mins):

1. asking learners to summarise concepts and the lesson of week 4
2. writing all the main information on the whiteboard in note form
3. discussing with learners about each topics

Activity 2 –Skeleton text (Time: 90 mins):

1. giving learners copies of an information report text for reading
2. having them read the text in groups
3. giving them skeleton text based on the text they have read earlier
4. having them write up the skeleton text into the coherent text
5. asking learners to share their text with the whole class
6. adding to learners' ideas by eliciting through questioning
7. acting as scribe and guide by suggesting wording or discussing with them how the writing might be improved

Activity 3 –Joint constructing a text (Time: 120 mins)

1. explaining the purpose and direction of the activity
2. writing the title of the text for joint construction on the whiteboard
3. encouraging learners to contribute ideas by asking questions
4. acting as scribe and guide by suggesting wording or discussing with them how the writing might be improved

5. writing on the whiteboard, and rereading what has been written, reorganising ideas, improving wording, making correction to grammar, and showing learners how to paraphrase and summarize information
6. by the time the writing is completed, reminding learners about the process of writing: reread and revise the draft
7. working with students to revise the writing

Figure 19. My Week 5 Lesson Plan

I saw joint construction of the text as an important step and thus emphasised joint construction activities when preparing Cindy for encouraging dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle. In the meeting with Cindy, I explained to her the meaning of co-construction

of knowledge between teacher and student, and the role of the teacher and students in joint construction. I pointed out that in joint construction the teacher and students work together through intensive interaction. To engage students in joint construction, the teacher shares responsibility with students by diminishing his/her contribution by trying to increase the students' contribution. To prepare Cindy for the joint construction stage, I only focused on explaining to her about the concept of this stage, and on providing a model of joint construction activities, but I did not relate this stage to the practicing phase in the PPP.

Similar to me, it seemed that Cindy also saw joint construction as the stage that allows students to practice. After presenting the necessary conceptual knowledge in building the field, and modelling and deconstruction of the text, as can be seen in Figure 20, she aimed to focus on information report-writing practice, and chose to start with a joint construction activity. However, her choices for the implementation of the joint construction activity appeared to be different from mine. Based on my experience, teachers in the Thai context take a dominant role in presenting the knowledge, and demonstrating practice, while students take the role of receiver of knowledge or listener. This idea of teaching and learning may have influenced Cindy to adopt teacher modelling rather than teacher scribing. She chose to demonstrate writing an information report in front of the class, and to explain the process of writing rather than to elicit contributions from the students.

Figure 20. Cindy's Week 5 Lesson Plan

INTERACTIVE CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES AND IRF TRIADIC DIALOGUE

In this section, I explore how I prepared interactive activities as contexts for Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) triadic interaction to promote a more dialogic interaction in the writing course. I also describe how I planned to implement teacher questioning, and wait time as the ways to stimulate students to be more active in the classroom. Moreover, I also explore how I prepared Cindy for dialogic interaction, and how she chose to implement it.

As pointed out earlier, I intended to change the ways of teaching and learning writing in this course. The teaching approach that was normally used in this course relied on transmission-

based teaching. It focused on acquisition of abstract knowledge that students are provided with about English language and students are expected to then be able to apply the knowledge in practical contexts. Based on my experience, this way of teaching could not help students to apply English language knowledge to the writing of a whole text. Therefore, I decided to find a more effective teaching approach for this course.

Studying the idea of the teaching and learning cycle as discussed in Chapter Four, I found that within the cycle the key idea of helping students to learn effectively is co-construction of knowledge. I thus adopted dialogic teaching practice from a continuum of classroom talk practices (Edward-Groves, Anstey, & Bull, 2014), and this was the catalyst for the study. I found that the teaching and learning cycle focuses on engaging students in interactive classroom activities as a way of promoting the process of co-construction between teacher and students. Therefore, I followed this idea when planning classroom activities, and adopted IRF triadic dialogue as the pattern of classroom talk practices because this triadic dialogue focuses on the role of the teacher as co-constructor of knowledge by initiating discussion with students through questions, allowing students to contribute ideas through responses, and providing feedback and follow-up questions for elaboration.

In order to create a dialogic context for the IRF interaction to occur as suggested by the resources (i.e. Gibbon, 2009; Hammond 2001), I adopted interactive activities such as working in groups and pairs to put together jumbled sentences, fill out skeleton text, and engage in text comparison. These activities are open-ended and thus are different from drill practice activities which had commonly been used in this writing class. For instance, jumbled sentences as shown in Figure 21 required the pre-service teachers to sequence sentences from a text into a coherent text and add transitional words. A skeleton text as can be seen in Figure 21 presents the overall outline of a text, and some parts and requires students to complete the text. Text-comparison

is, as it suggests, a comparison between an information report text-type and other example/s of different text-type/s regarding structural patterns, parts, and their functions. I planned to engage my students in doing these activities in groups of 3 to 4 people. By using these activities, I expected that the students to work collaboratively in the group, and to come up with different ideas for discussion with me. Therefore, I as a teacher could use this opportunity to engage students in IRF. In Figure 21, the activity required student to correct the sentences and paragraph as well as reorder each sentence into an appropriate chronological order. In Figure 22, two paragraphs were provided – an introduction and a conclusion. The activity expected to correct the paragraphs and add the body of the text.
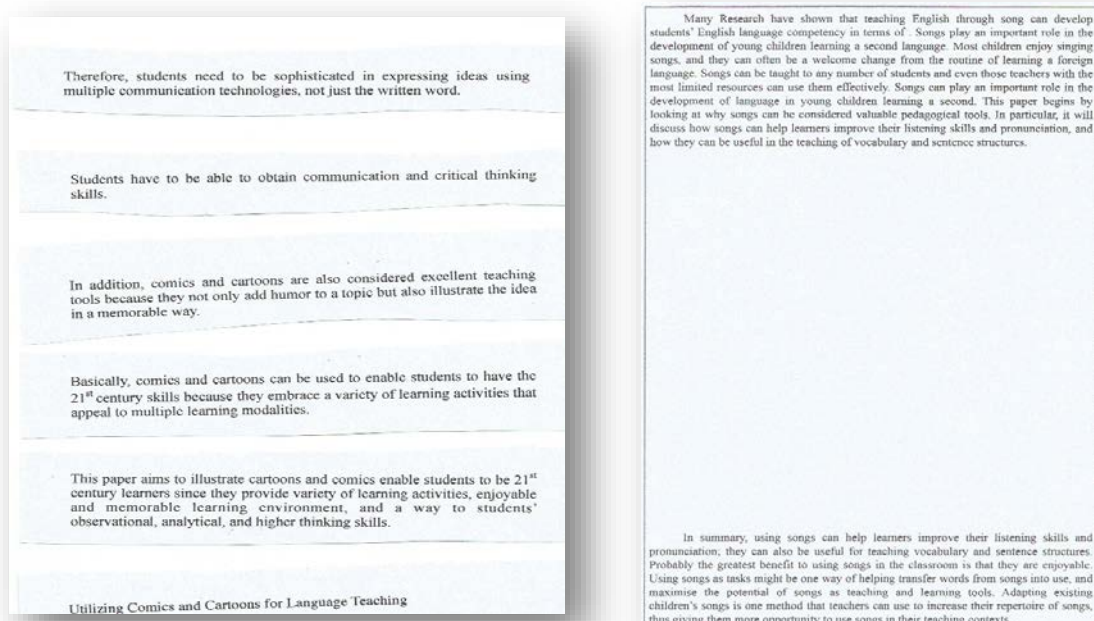
Figure 21. Jumbled Sentences (left) and Skeleton Text Worksheet (right) Used in My Class

Sunday, 14 June, 1942

On Friday, June 12th, I woke up at six o'clock and no wonder, it was my birthday. But of course I was not allowed to get up at that hour, so I had to control my curiosity until a quarter to seven. Then I could bear it no longer, and went to the dining room, where I received a warm welcome from Moortje (the cat).

Soon after seven I went to Mummy and Daddy and then to the sitting room to undo my presents. The first to greet me was *you*, possibly the nicest of all. Then on the table there were a bunch of roses, a plant, and some peonies, and more arrived during the day.

I got masses of things from Mummy and Daddy, and was thoroughly spoiled by various friends. Among other things I was given *Camera Obscura*, a party game, lots of sweets, chocolates, a puzzle, a brooch, *Tales and Legends of the*

**Using Drama as an Effective Method
for Teaching Elementary Students**

Using drama to teach in the elementary classroom gets students involved and gives them the power to have a key role in their education. Jeffrey D. Wilhelm, who wrote the article, "Drama is Imagining to Learn: Inquiry, Ethics, and Integration through Drama," writes, "Through drama, students became a part of the learning process rather than mere observers or inactive receptacles of the rich experience of learning; in this way, their learning was deeper, more sustained, and infinitely more complex" (Wilhelm, n.d.). This paper will demonstrate the validity of using drama to teach students and the elementary curriculum. Through research of the arts, drama in particular, and a close look at how people learn, one can attest that teaching using drama can enrich the classroom environment.

Drama is the act of using the imagination to become someone or something other than yourself. It can take one any place to any period of time. It is only limited by the imagination, the participants' fear of risking, or the leader or teacher's set limitations. Richard Courtney, a professional in the area of drama in education defines drama as, "The human process whereby imaginative thought becomes action, drama is based on internal empathy and identification, and leads to external impersonation". Courtney believes also that "life is a drama." Humans are always acting and improvising. When we meet someone for the first time, we improvise our conversation. Life has no script written for us, however, we can use role-play to practice the anticipated situation.

Figure 22. Text Comparison Activity in My Class

To promote active engagement in IRF, I was influenced by the resource as provided in Chapter 3 to use different types of teacher questioning along with wait time to help stimulate my students to talk, and to be more active, because based on my experience in the Thai context, I knew that my students would not push themselves to talk or discuss with me (see Chapter 3 for more information about classroom questions and wait time). I planned to use different questions to stimulate my students to contribute ideas and to elaborate on their ideas. I planned to use simple questions such as display questions in the I turn to initiate topics for discussion. Then I chose to use a long wait time – more than 10 seconds. I expected that by giving students sufficient time, they would have time to engage in processes of thinking, and could provide thoughtful responses, Finally, I planned to follow-up my students' responses by using open-ended questions such as referential questions and metacognitive questions. I understood that these questions could engage my students in reflective thinking, and could effectively prompt them to elaborate their ideas. By engaging students in interactive activities and IRF triadic dialogue, and implementing these strategies, I expected that my students would become more active. I explore my actual implementation of these strategies and my engagement with my students in IRF in the next chapter.

To prepare Cindy for dialogic interaction, I described the concept of dialogic interaction and IRF to her, and provided her with the same resources that I used to prepare myself. I showed her the interactive activities and the materials (Figure 21 and Figure 22) that I planned to use in my class. Then, I emphasised that these kinds of activity are important for establishing dialogic interaction with students. Next, I introduced her to the idea of IRF by focusing on using questions to initiate discussion, and to follow-up student responses in the F turn. I gave her the example of an IRF teacher–student dialogue taken from Lin and Lo's (2016) study to model how classroom questioning could be implemented. I also suggested to her the strategies including the use of questions with different functions and wait time to stimulate active student participation in the same way as I prepared myself, and described how I planned to do this in my class.

By looking at Cindy's lesson plan as can be seen in Figure 23, I found that Cindy planned to bring in both normal ways of doing classroom activities in the Thai context and interactive classroom activities that were suggested by me. By bringing in normal classroom activities, she focused on providing her students with worksheets, and requiring them to individually complete the worksheets and to submit them at the end of the class as can be seen in the ==green highlights== in Figure 23. For example, she planned to get her students to work on cloze exercise worksheets, and the worksheets that contained lists of questions to be answered as shown in Figure 24. By bringing in new classroom activities, she planned to engage her students in discussion as can be seen in the areas with the ==yellow highlighting== in Figure 23. In the next chapter, I explore how Cindy implemented the idea of dialogic interaction between teacher and students, and how she applied the strategies of teacher questioning and wait time while engaging in the IRF.

Lesson Plan

Week 1

Topic:	Information report (Writing topic: EFL Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)
Teaching and Learning Focus:	Building the Field and Modelling
Time:	Wednesday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm
Material:	Handouts, PowerPoint presentation, worksheet

Objectives:

The students will

1. be introduced to the content of the writing topic that they will write about in the end of the course by connecting their previous knowledge/experience with the new knowledge presented in class
2. explore features of general cultural context
3. explore social context and social purpose of the genre of information report
4. develop their language features (register) of information report text-type

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 – Course Introduction (30 mins)

1. Introducing students to the course
2. giving students copies of course outline
3. explain to students about the course outline

Activity 2 – Activating students' understanding and preparing them for the content of the writing topic (Time: 120 mins):

1. informing the activity that students will carry out and telling them to hand in the worksheet in the end of the activity
2. providing students with an authentic information report text for reading for comprehension
3. asking student to predict visual, keywords, the title, or first sentence
4. reading the text with students, and translating the text into Thai with students
5. asking the students questions in relation to the content of the text
6. pointing out important information in the text and discussing with students about their related prior knowledge or experience
7. providing students with a worksheet containing questions about the text
8. allowing students to work in groups in order to read and answer the questions in the worksheet
9. after students hand in the completed worksheet, discussing with them about the answers of the questions in the worksheet

Activity 3 – Introducing students to features of the information report text (Time 90 mins):

1. providing students with a handout about the features of information reports (the handout was taken from Wing Jan (2009)
2. lecturing in front of the class about the information report text-type e.g. purpose, structure, and features through PowerPoint presentation
3. discussing with students about words/vocabulary that are generally used in the information report text e.g. giving some examples of technical terms
4. talking about the role and relationship between the readers and writer presented in the information report text-type e.g. showing the differences between formal and informal language, talking about the target reader of educational text (which is the writing topic that the PSTs will write about in the end of the course)

Lesson Plan

Week 2

Topic:	Information report (Writing topic: EFL Teaching Techniques in the 21st Century)
Teaching and Learning Focus:	Building the Field and Modelling
Time:	Wednesday 8:00 am – 12:00 pm
Material:	Handouts, PowerPoint presentation, worksheet

Objectives:

The students will

1. learn about language at the level of text, clause, group or phrase and words
2. explore choice of language features of the model text

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Activity 1 - Introducing students to the language features of the text-type (Time: 90 mins):

1. introducing students to grammar focuses through PowerPoint presentation
   a. grammatical forms: pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions, tense, types of sentence, and clause
   b. example of each grammatical feature
2. providing students with a worksheet about the language features and allowing the students to work on their worksheet in groups
3. after the students hand in the completed worksheets, discuss the answers with them in front of the class and showing the whole class the correct answers by using OHP.

Activity 2 – Distinguishing facts and opinions (Time: 60 mins):

1. using PowerPoint presentation to explain the concept of fact and opinion
2. giving students a worksheet and asking them to work in groups and hand in the completed worksheet in the end of the activity

Activity 3 – Investigation of language use in the text (Time: 60 mins):

1. giving students copies of an information report text
2. having students read the text in groups
3. asking students about choice of language use in the text – formal or informal
4. having students highlight unseen words/vocabulary in the text and find the meaning from dictionary
5. asking each group to share the unseen vocabulary and their meaning with the whole class
6. writing what students said on the whiteboard
7. asking students to find synonyms for the words and writing on the whiteboard in the form of graphic outline
8. discussing the formal and informal version of the vocabulary/words and their synonym

Activity 4 –Split dictation (Time: 60 mins):

1. explaining the purpose and direction of the activity
2. asking students to work in pairs and in pair, giving them two different versions (A and B versions) of a text
3. having them complete the text by dictating to their partners
4. asking learners to share their completed text
5. showing the completed versions, and discussing with them about the meaning and lexical choice

Figure 23. Example of How Cindy Used Worksheets (green highlight),

and Discussion Activities (yellow highlight)

Figure 24. An Example of Cindy's Worksheet

CONCLUSION

The findings presented in this chapter relate to how Cindy and I chose to implement the teaching and learning cycle and to engage our students in dialogic interaction. These findings have revealed how Cindy and I negotiated our understanding of the teaching and learning cycle and can be used to analyse how we see ourselves as teachers – our identities as teachers. Moreover, these findings inform us about the context in which classroom interaction occurred, which is explored in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Teacher–Student and Student–Student Classroom Interaction

To study identity as emerging through participation in situated practices as well as bein discursively constructed, it is necessary to consider individuals' behaviours or how they engage in particular interactions (Greeno & The Middle School Mathematics Through Application of Project Group, 1998; Hand & Gresalfi, 2015). In this chapter, I focus on classroom interaction in the seven-week course in relation to teacher–student and student–student interaction.

This chapter consists of two sections. In the first section, I explore teacher–student interaction in whole-class and group work, focusing in particular on the triadic dialogues that Cindy and I adopted when interacting with our students in whole-class and group work interactions. Since these triadic dialogues comprise three types of teacher engagement in interaction, namely, (1) asking learners questions, (2) allowing learners' responses, and (3) giving feedback or evaluating, I present each part of the interaction in subsections that deal with initiation through questioning, student response, and feedback and evaluation. In the subsection of student response, I focus on wait time because this was the main strategy that we used to encourage student response. In the second section, I use the same format to discuss student–student interaction in group work in my class and in Cindy's class.

Extracts from teacher–student dialogues and student–student dialogue are provided in this chapter in order to demonstrate my findings. The original dialogues are nearly all in Thai, but I decided to provide the translated version, which is in English, in this chapter and provide the Thai version, which is the original, with English subtitles in Appendix E. In some dialogues, Cindy, the pre-service teachers and I used English words or statements. These

words/statements are in capital letters in order to denote the difference. In the extracts, I refer to myself as Pin. The pre-service teachers who consented to being interviewed in the study are referred to by their given pseudonyms (see Chapter Five) because findings from observations and participant observations reported in this chapter are cross-referenced with interview findings in the next chapter. The pre-service teachers who consented to being observed but were not interviewed are referred to as PST(s) or group member(s).

TEACHER–STUDENT INTERACTION

My Interaction with Students in Whole class and
Group Work through Triadic Dialogues

As pointed out in the previous chapter, I was attempting to change teaching and learning in a writing course to be more dialogic. I tried to engage myself and my students in IRF triadic dialogue in both whole-class and group work activities by focusing on questioning to stimulate them to think and talk. I used the I turn in particular as a way to stimulate students to start thinking and talking about conceptual knowledge that they learned, while I used the F turn as a way to encourage deeper thinking by enabling reasoning. In doing so, I understood that I was providing more opportunities for students to think and talk. In addition to using classroom questioning. I also adopted other strategies to increase students' voice, such as providing more wait time for students. I adjusted my teaching by explicitly informing my students how to participate in dialogic teaching and learning. I found that student participation, and response in both whole-class and group work activities at the end of the course appeared to be more active than at the beginning of the course.

During Weeks 1 to 2, I initiated dialogue with questioning in both whole-class and group work interaction in order to involve my students in discussion and encourage them to contribute their ideas. I used different types of questions including display questions, and metacognitive questions (i.e., Fusco, 2012; Pagliaro, 2011). As stated in Chapter Three, using different kinds of questions was understood to enable learners to become aware of their own thinking and engage them in building their cognitive skills. In Weeks 1 to 3 of the course, I started to initiate teacher–student dialogue by using display questions because I was concerned that asking opened-ended questions straightaway might cause discomfort and silence in the classroom. After observing in the first weeks that the students were becoming more familiar with participating in teacher–student discussion, I then used metacognitive questions to initiate conversation and more complex, longer responses from students (e.g., Wu, 1993).

In Extract 1, taken from whole-class interaction in Week 2, I used display questions (blue highlight) to initiate student responses as can be seen in Turns 01, 03, 05, 09 and 11. In this way, display questions were used as a warm-up for a more dialogic discussion. From Weeks 4 to 7, I started to engage my students in metacognitive questions in both whole-class, and group work interaction. However, display questions still played a large role in my initiation of whole-class discussion in these weeks. Extract 2, taken from Week 5 whole class interaction showed that I asked metacognitive questions (green highlight) in Turns 01 and 03 in order to guide students into metacognitive thinking.

01	Pin:	Now, have a look at the first paragraph. It is the introduction of the text. Can you tell me, what the function of INTRODUCTION is?
02	PSTs:	[Silent]
03	Pin:	Can you tell me what the function of introduction is?
04	A PST*:	It tells us about the topics that the writer is going to write about.
05	Pin:	Well done. The introduction consists of two parts, a few general statements to attract the reader's attention and a thesis statement. Now can anyone tell me which sentence is the main idea of the text?
06	A PST:	It is in line 3.
07	Pin:	This is very close to the main idea of the text but it is not specific enough.
08	A PST:	What about this one in line 4?
09	Pin:	That's right. The main idea of the text is 'THERE ARE FIVE STEPS OF...' Let's look at this paragraph, do you see any specialised language features that are used in the information report?
10	PSTs:	[silent]
11	Pin:	Pad, do you want to give it a try?
12	Pad:	No PERSONAL PRONOUNS?
13	Pin:	That's right. Why is that?
14	Pad:	I think it is because this text is formal.
15	Pin:	Good. It is an academic text that is written in an objective and formal manner. Can you identify any pronouns that refer to the subjects used in this report?
16	Sib-ed:	There is THEY in line 2 of the second paragraph.
17	Pin:	Good. The writer uses THEY as a way to refer to?
18	Sib-ed:	STUDENTS?
19	Pin:	Well done.

*Note: PST refers to pre-service teacher. Yellow highlight indicates referential question which will be discussed in Feedback in Whole Class and Group Work.

Extract 1. My Interaction with Students in Whole Class in Week 2

01	Pin:	First of all, I want you to look at the title of the text then tell me what the title told you about the content of the text?
02	A PST:	I think ...HOW TO USE AESOP'S FABLES TO TEACH ENGLISH.
03	Pin:	Good. Does anyone agree with your friend?
04	Kaow:	[raises her hand]
05	Pin:	Why do you think the content is mainly about 'HOW TO'?
06	Kaow:	Because the writer used the word 'using'.
07	Pin:	Why do you think the word 'USING' relates to 'HOW TO'?
08	Kaow:	I think 'USING' refers to some action of using something for a specific purpose.
09	Pin:	Very good. Now let's read the text and tell me if the writer actually talks about HOW TO USE AESOP'S FABLES IN THE CLASSROOM.

Extract 2. My Interaction with Students in Group Work Interaction in Week 5

Metacognitive questions played a larger role in my group work interactions with students than display questions because I understood that discussion in small groups provides opportunities for students to be more interactive than in the whole class. As can be seen in Turn 1 of Extract 3, adopted from group work interaction in Week 3, I initiated the discussion by asking metacognitive questions. The question itself seems to be a comprehension question but my purpose of using this kind of question was not to check students' knowledge but to promote students' deeper thinking by stimulating them to analyse the context in order to identify the meaning of the word, and to analyse the purpose of the writer.

01	Pin:	What do you think the writer means by "the paradox of education?
02	PSTs:	[Silent]
03	Pin:	Can anyone tell me?
04	A PST:	Contradictory in education.
05	Pin:	Good. Does anyone agree with your friend?
06	PSTs:	Yes.
07	Pin:	Sib, can you tell me how you know the meaning of this statement?
08	Sib:	READING BETWEEN THE LINES. In line 4, the writer said that ...
09	Pin:	Yes. Well done. Sometimes the writer implies the meaning of his statement within the same paragraph. Why do you think the writer chooses to imply the meaning?
10	PSTs:	[silent]
11	Pin:	Any idea?

Extract 3. My Interaction with Students in Group Work in Week 3

Student Response in Whole Class and Group Work

Influenced by Edwards-Groves, Anstey, and Bull (2013), Feez (2002), and Hammond (2009), I understood that asking more open-ended questions, and engaging students in interactive activities was a way to make space for students to actively interact in the classroom. Moreover, influenced by Rowe (1986) and Pagliaro (2011), I understood that 5-7 seconds wait time is a way to give sufficient space for students to think in order to be able to respond. Although I tried to use more open-ended questions to guide students' knowledge construction, and used discussion activities, they still hesitated to respond and to contribute ideas. As can be seen in Extract 3 taken from Week 3, some of my students in my class were silent, some still seemed to be hesitant, and some merely provided a short response without reasoning or support.

Given my past experiences, I concluded that my students did not understand dialogic teaching practices, and this was why they chose to stay silent. This conclusion was in agreement with the study of Bao (2014) and Bista (2011). They found that the mismatch between students' expectation of learning style and what the teacher actually does in classroom can cause

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discomfort with the teacher's style, and can lead to students' silence. In response to this problem, I decided not to implement dialogic teaching exactly like what I read from the resources (see Chapter 3 and Chapter 6), and decided to provide students with more scaffolding in order to lead them towards the new way of interacting. In Week 3, I then explicitly informed my students about my expectation of how they would participate in lessons: more student voice, active listening to teacher and peers, an equitable way of relating, and more reasoning, hypothesising and thinking aloud. I also thought about increasing my wait time to give students more space to think for rehearsing, and consolidating ideas. When I did this in Weeks 4 to 7, students' responses seemed to improve inasmuch as they talked more in class and appeared to be more active than what they had been in Weeks 1 to 3 of the course.

My students, including Pad, Kaow, Sib, and Sib-ed volunteered to answer and ask questions in class. In Extract 4 taken from whole-class interaction in Week 4, for example, Sib raised his hand to ask me a question (Turn 01), and Pad raised her hand to answer a question (Turn 05). In Extract 5 taken from group work interaction in Week 4, my students showed their readiness to respond to all kinds of questions including display questions (blue highlight), and referential questions (yellow highlight). However, they still seemed to be hesitant or stayed silent when I asked metacognitive questions (green highlight in Extract 6).

01	Sib:	[Raises his hand]. I read a text that you gave us and found that the writer sometimes used past tense but sometimes he used present tense with verbs of attribution. Can you tell me which tenses I can use with these verbs?
02	Pin:	Good question. The PRESENT TENSE is used when?
03	A PSTs:	When we write some information that is based on our perspective
04	Pin:	That's right. We use PAST TENSE when we make statements by ourselves as a writer or when we refer to theories. What about past tense? When should we use past tense when writing an information report?
05	Pad:	[Raises her hand.] When we want to write about the other research.
06	Pin:	Yes. You are correct. The PAST TENSE is used when we report or describe the information of past research.

Extract 4. My Interaction with Students in Whole Class in Week 4
(Focusing on Student Response)

01	Pin:	Let's look at this paragraph, do you see any SPECIALISED LANGUAGE features that are used in the information report?
02	PSTs:	[silent]
03	Pin:	Pad, do you want to give it a try? [waits more than 10 seconds].
04	Pad:	No PERSONAL PRONOUN?
05	Pin:	That's right. Why is that? [waits more than 5 seconds]
06	Pad:	I think it is because this text is formal.
07	Pin:	Good. It is an academic text that is written in an OBJECTIVE and formal manner. Can you identify any PRONOUNS that refer to the subject of this report? [waits more than 10 seconds].
08	Sib-ed:	THEY in line 2 of the second paragraph.
09	Pin:	Good. The writer uses THEY as a way to refer to?

Extract 5. My Interaction with Students in Group Work in Week 4
(Focusing on Student Response)

In my class during Weeks 5 to 7, I gave longer wait time – more than 10 seconds. They sometimes stayed silent for 5-7 seconds before answering my questions. When students gave a correct or a wrong response, I asked follow-up questions, and also gave them time to think

and prepare their responses (see Turn 07 in Extract 6). Because I used referential questions and metacognitive questions as follow-up question, I understood that the students needed a long wait time to think and consolidate their ideas. In the case that they were silent for longer than 10 to 15 seconds, I offered my ideas during the wait time in order to give them a model and demonstration to use as a guideline to construct their own answers (see Bao, 2014). Then I repeated the question again. An example of my practice can be seen in Turn 03 in Extract 6 taken from Week 5.

01	*Pin:*	*Do you agree or disagree with your friend to put the word "MOREOVER" here? [waits longer than 10 seconds]*
02	*PSTs:*	*[silent.]*
03	*Pin:*	*For me, I agree with putting the word here but the word has been used for many times already. What do you think? [waits longer than 10 seconds]*
04	*A PST:*	*I think we can use SYNONYMS.*
05	*Pin:*	*Do you agree or disagree with her? [waits longer than 10 seconds.]*
06	*Pad:*	*I agree with her. I think we can use 'ADDITIONALLY'.*
07	*Pin:*	*Very good. Do you know any other synonym? [waits longer than 10 seconds]*
08	*Pad:*	*FURTHERMORE?*
09	*Pin:*	*Good one. What else? [waits longer than 10 seconds.]*
10	*A PST:*	*ADDITIONALLY*
11	*Pin:*	*That's right. Do you know why we should use the synonym? [waits longer than 10 seconds.]*
12	*PSTs:*	*[silent]*
13	*Pin:*	*Jed, can you help us?[waits longer than 10 seconds.]*
14	*Jed:*	*I am not sure.*
15	*Pin:*	*That's alright. Can anyone help her? [waits longer than 10 seconds.]*
16	*Sib-ed:*	*To avoid repetition?*
17	*Pin:*	*Exactly. In this case for example ...*

Extract 6. My Interaction with Students in Whole Class in Week 5
(Focusing on Student Response)

From Weeks 5-7 I found that most of the students in my class including Jed, Sib, Kaow, and Pad seemed less hesitant to answer metacognitive questions; they did not stay silent as long as in the earlier weeks, and also provided longer responses than in the previous weeks as they elaborated, and gave reasons for their answers. For instance, in Extract 7 from a Week 5 group

work interaction, in Turn 04 Jed provided a response, and elaborated why she thought the title was too broad. In Turn 10, Sib provided a reflective answer, and rational support for why he thought this title was appropriate for the text.

01	*Pin:*	Do you think the TITLE is good enough to be the TITLE of the text?
03	Pin:	Why do you think the title is not good for the text?
02	*Jed:*	*No, I don't think so.*
04	*Jed:*	*I think the title is too broad. It doesn't tell us what the content is going to be about. We can't guess about the content by just reading the title.*
05	*Pin:*	*Interesting.* Would you like it to be a SUMMARY?
06	*Jed:*	*No.*
07	*Pin:*	Why?
08	*Jed:*	*Because it is too long for a title.*
09	*Pin:*	What could be a good title for this text?
10	*Sib:*	*I think…INTERNET RESOURCES FOR DEVELOPING STUDENT WRITING SKILLS IS A GOOD TITLE FOR THIS TEXT CONTENT OF THIS TEXT IS ABOUT USING SOCIAL MEDIA AS A SPACE FOR ENGAGING STUDENTS IN WRITING.*
11	*Pin:*	*I agree with you. That's a very good point. So, let me conclude: the TITLE of a text should not be too long but specific enough for the reader to guess about the content.*

Extract 7. My Interaction with Students in Group Work in Week 5
(Focusing on Student Response)

Feedback in Whole Class and Group Work

In the class, I tried to focus on using open-ended questions such as referential questions, and metacognitive questions as follow-up questions in both the whole class and my interaction with groups. In doing that, I hoped to expand the triadic dialogue in order to engage students in deeper thinking. Pinzón-Jácome, Lozano-Jaimes, and Dueñas-Angulo (2016) support this

point. They asserted that initiating questions in the feedback sequence can promote a more logical and thoughtful student response that helps deepen students' understanding, stimulate students' reflective thinking, and connect conceptual knowledge to the real world.

For example, in Extract 2 from a whole-class interaction I used referential questions ==(yellow highlight)== to encourage Kaow to support his factual claim with reasons. Similarly, in group work interaction I also used both referential questions to elicit rational support for student responses, and metacognitive questions to elicit students' opinions. For example, in Extract 3 I used metacognitive questions in Turn 03 and referential question in Turn 07, and Turns 03, 05, 07, 09 in Extract 7. I found that asking follow-up questions in the F turn could lead my class toward more dialogic interaction because the students were influenced to develop from what they had been thinking. This is especially clear in Extract 15 on page 169, and is the kind of interaction in which students extended their responses in a meaningful way, which was more conspicuous in Weeks 5-7.

Cindy's Whole Class and Group Interaction with Students through Triadic Dialogues

The findings from observation revealed that dialogic interaction between Cindy and her students in group work was of less priority. As discussed in the previous chapter, her choices of group work activities were cloze exercises, and worksheets. This choice of activities seemed to cause limited dialogic interaction between the teacher and students. Although she planned to engage her students in discussion during the group work activities as can be seen in the lesson plans, the pattern of interaction in group discussion appeared be IRE in which she chose to ask open-ended questions to get students' responses as correct or incorrect, and aimed at checking students' memorisation of information.

The findings also revealed that Cindy's whole class interaction with students changed during the course. Cindy engaged her students in the discussion activities written in her lesson plans (see Chapter Six). In Weeks 1 to 2 I observed that she tried to engage her class in dialogic interaction. She used the F turn as a follow-up on students' responses by asking questions. She also adopted the strategy of using questions as a way to increase more student participation, and to position them as active thinkers. Thus, although she did not implement wait time as a strategy to engage students, her facilitation of interaction appeared to be more dialogic than the traditional way of teaching and learning in the Thai context.

However, in contrast to my own experience, Cindy's interaction with students in whole class activities appeared to grow less dialogic in Weeks 3 to 7 than in Weeks 1 to 2. In the later weeks, she appeared to position the students as primarily receptive because she reduced the space for students' contribution, and provided less room for student talking by using more closed-ended questions, and simply evaluating students' responses as correct or incorrect. In what follows, I explore both Cindy's whole-class and group work interaction with her students. I will discuss how Cindy engaged in group work interaction through IRE, and in whole class interaction through IRF by exploring how she used questioning to initiate the interaction, and how she used the Evaluation or Feedback turn. Then, I will explore the change in her interaction by investigating the extent to which Cindy changed her interaction to be less dialogic or how she (re)engaged in IRE.

Initiation through Questioning in Whole class and Group Work

In Weeks 1 to 2, Cindy seemed to implement classroom questioning as a strategy to stimulate her students to talk and discuss with her in class as suggested by the artefacts (i.e., Fusco, 2012; Pagliaro, 2011) that I provided. Similar to me, she tried to engage her students to talk by using simple questions to initiate the conversation with her students. She used display questions in

order to get students' contributions so that she could elaborate or ask her students inferential questions to engage them in providing elaboration or contributions in the next turns. In doing that, it seemed that Cindy tried to encourage her students to make connections between the conceptual knowledge and their own ideas (see Fusco, 2012). She was observed to use this pattern of asking questions in most of the discussion activities. For instance, Extract 8 taken from Week 2 shows Cindy's use of display questions highlighted in blue, and a referential question highlighted in yellow. In this case, display questions were used to gain factual information, and to help establish the factual foundation on which the students could base their inferences.

01	Cindy:	Can anyone tell me what the information report is?
02	PSTs:	[silent]
03	Cindy:	Can you tell me? [points at a PST]
04	A PSTs:	A text that aims to inform us of some information.
05	Cindy:	Good. The INFORMATION REPORT text is used to present FACTUAL INFORMATION in concise and accurate form. It includes a logical sequence of FACTS. Do you know what fact means?
06	PSTs:	[Silent]
07	Cindy:	What is FACTS? [points at a PST]
08	A PST:	It isn't based on personal judgment?
09	Cindy:	Well done. FACTS means the statement without any personal involvement or bias from the writer. The purpose of this genre is indicated by structures and language feature. Now, let's have a look at the language features of information reports. Now look at this passage: Can you see SPECIALISED LANGUAGE FEATURES?
10	PSTs:	[silent.]
11	Cindy:	Song? Can you tell me?
12	Song:	All the verbs are in PRESENT TENSE?
13	Cindy:	Song, can you tell your friends some examples of those verb
14	Song:	For example, in lines 1-2, we can see 'USES, LEARN, TEACHERS, APPLIES, and IS.
15	Cindy:	Yes. They are all PRESENT TENSE. What else? [points at a PST to answer the question.]
16	A PST:	It was written in THIRD PERSON?
17	Cindy:	Good. Why do you think the writer used THIRD PERSON? [points at the same PST].
18	A PST:	Because the writer wants to make it sound OBJECTIVE.
19	Cindy:	So the writer uses only the THIRD PERSON. He doesn't use PERSONAL PRONOUNS because the THIRD PERSON gives the reader the sense of neutral and impersonal. PERSONAL PRONOUNS make the text sounds SUBJECTIVE, personal.

Extract 8. Cindy's Interaction with Students in Whole Class in Week 2

Similar to me, Cindy tended to understand that Thai students are not accustomed to discuss with the teacher in the classroom, and already knew that her students may have difficulties in contributing ideas in the classroom. Thus, she used display questions as a warm-up for dialogic discussion.

In Weeks 3 to 7, I observed that Cindy's implementation of classroom questioning as the way to initiate interaction was different from Weeks 1 to 2. Display questions still played a large role in Cindy's classroom questioning but her purpose in using questioning was observed to change. It seemed that she asked questions to elicit facts or content-specific information in relation to English language knowledge that she had taught in the Presentation phase. As can be seen in Extract 9 taken from Week 3, and Extract 10 taken from Week 4, Cindy did not use display questions as a warm-up for further elaboration as she had done in Weeks 1 and 2; rather, she seemed to have been checking and evaluating students' memorisation of conceptual knowledge.

01	Cindy:	*What do you think could be the MAIN IDEA of this excerpt?*
02	PSTs:	*[silent]*
03	Cindy:	*The MAIN IDEA for this one is …Cartoons and comics are considered as a good media for teaching English. Now let's have a look at the next excerpt. What should be the MAIN IDEA? Ha, can you tell me??*
04	Ha:	*I think…THERE ARE MANY ADVANTAGES IN USING ROLE PLAY TO DEVELOP STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILL.*
05	Cindy:	*Good but this MAIN IDEA is too broard. The text talks about both ADVANTANGES and DISADVANTAGES.* *The MAIN IDEA should be "THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF USING PLAYS TO DEVELOP STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILL".*

Extract 9. Cindy's Interaction with Students in Whole Class in Week 3

01	Cindy:	Now. What we are going to do is – we have talked about this before – developing student's speaking skill through role play. This time I want to focus on the reasons to use role play in teaching ENGLISH FOR EFL learners. Let's start from writing the main idea of our text. Role play activities are an effective way for developing students' speaking skills in EFL CLASSROOOMS because the activities make learning seem more like play than like work, help get students to look at the material they are learning in a new light, and help students develop real-world communicative skills. Now, can you see that there are 3 POINTS that we are going to write about?
02	PSTs:	Yes.
03	Cindy:	Great. Now, let's start with the introduction. As we saw in the model text, the writer started with a few general statements to attract our reader's attention. I would start from writing about the purpose of LEARNING EFL, and then the problem of teaching speaking. [She started to write on the whiteboard] ONE OF THE MAIN PURPOSES OF LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES, PARTICULARLY ENGLISH, WHICH HAS BECOME THE LINGUA FRANCA IN MANY PARTS OF THE WORLD, IS THE ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE EFFECTIVELY WITH OTHER USERS OF THE TARGET LANGUAGE. TEACHING TO COMMUNICATE IN REAL EVERYDAY SITUATIONS IS VERY OFTEN NEGLECTED AND STUDENTS HAVE LITTLE CHANCE TO PRACTICE ORDINARY LANGUAGE IN CLASS. THEREFORE, TEACHERS OUGHT TO PROVIDE LEARNERS WITH OPPORTUNITIES TO IMPROVE THEIR SPEAKING SKILLS. Now, I am going to put the MAIN IDEA that we wrote before here.

Extract 10. Cindy's Interaction with Students in Whole Class in Week 4

As shown in Extract 10, Cindy seemed to provide less opportunity for students to talk or to contribute ideas. She asked yes-no questions to check if the students followed what she was teaching. This pattern of whole-class interaction occurred most of the time in the classroom, in particular in Weeks 3 to 7. Similar to research reported by Edwards-Groves, Anstey, and Bull (2013), Cindy appeared to fall back on the monologic teaching practice which is frequently used in the Thai context. Teaching–learning in this context is regarded as one-way transmission of knowledge in which the teacher is the centre of knowledge, and students are responsible for complying (Noom-ura, 2013; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015).

Cindy's engagement in group work interaction with students was similar to her engagement in the whole class in Weeks 3 to 7. Authentically dialogic interaction between Cindy and her students was not evident. As explained earlier, Cindy required students to complete the worksheets in groups. For example, in Extract 11 taken from Week 2 group work interaction Cindy provided her students with a worksheet which contained a list of questions (Figure 24 on page 146). Cindy allowed her students to work in their group for 20 to 30 minutes without her intervention, then she visited each group. She read students' answers on the worksheet, and started to ask questions. The questions that she used were taken from the worksheet as can be seen in Turn 01, Turn 05, and Turn 07 of Extract 11.

01	Cindy:	Let me have a look at the question number 3 in the BEFORE READING part. Does the TITLE of the text remind you of anything you have experienced before?
02	Sam:	Yes.
03	Cindy:	Can you explain more?
04	Sam:	When I was in high school, a teacher used games in English class.
05	Cindy:	Good. You should write what you just told me. You need to answer the questions with a reasoned explanation to support your point. [reads the worksheet.] And also this question 'What questions would you like to ask the writer before you read the text?
06	PSTs:	[silent.]
07	Cindy:	Can anyone tell me? After you read the title, what questions come to your mind?
08	PSTs:	[silent.]
09	Cindy:	For example, DO YOU THINK THIS TEXT IS WRITTEN FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS OR STUDENTS?

Extract 11. Cindy's Interaction with Students in Group Work in Week 2

01	Cindy:	Well, what do you think about this statement? Is it FACT or OPINION?
02	PSTs:	[silent]
03	Cindy:	Hok, can you tell me?
04	Hok:	I think it is FACT.
05	Cindy:	Yes. That's right. How do you know that it is FACT?
06	Hok:	Because…[pauses].
07	Cindy:	Is it because there is reference to other research and it does not contain any value words?
08	Hok:	Yes.

Extract 12. Cindy's Interaction with Students in Whole Class in Week 2

Although dialogic interaction between Cindy and her student in groups was not clearly evident most of the time, I found that Extract 11 showed that Cindy was still trying to be more dialogic. The questions Cindy used in Extract 11 show that she was trying to stimulate students to talk, for example in the questions in Turns 03, 07 and 09. Extract 12 also shows that Cindy used this kind of scaffolding during the teacher–student interaction in the whole-class activities as can be seen in Turns 01, 03 and 07.

As pointed out earlier, it was unclear whether Cindy had adopted wait time as a strategy to accommodate the students' silence like I did, as she paused only 2 to 4 seconds after asking questions. Instead of using a long wait time, she chose to give more scaffolding to the questions or answered the question herself (Turns 01 and 09 in Extract 12, and Turns 01 and 07 in Extract 13) to help her students fill the silence. In this way, Cindy also seemed to understand her students' learning style and the difficulties that her students might experience with the dialogic approach to teaching and learning.

Cindy's students' responses in whole-class work from Weeks 1 to 7 appeared to be similar to those of my class in Weeks 1 to 3. They were observed to be hesitant to respond to Cindy and to contribute ideas. Moreover, their responses appeared to be short and lack elaboration as can be seen in Extract 4 taken from student–teacher interaction in the whole class interaction of Week 1. Students in Cindy's class and my class tended to have the same understanding of classroom participation. This idea of teacher as the source of knowledge in class – or monologic teaching – seemed to influence them to be silent and obedient (Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015).

01	*Cindy:*	*Have you finished reading the CONCLUSION?*
02	*PSTs:*	*Yes.*
03	*Cindy:*	*Now, can anyone tell me what it is about?*
04	*PSTs:*	*[silent].*
05	*Cindy:*	*Song, can you tell me what the CONCLUSION is about?*
06	*Song:*	*About…what the writer has talked about in the BODY part.*
07	*Cindy:*	*Well done. Conclusion is a SUMMARY of the main POINTS discussed in the body. Can anyone see other information in the CONCLUSION?*
08	*PSTs*	*[silent].*
09	*Cindy:*	*A PST, can you tell me?*
10	*A PST:*	*Suggestion?*
11	*Cindy:*	*Good. Besides the RESTATEMENT OF THE THESIS STATEMENT, the writer also gives us a suggestion. When writing your text, you can also use this technique or you can write about CONTRIBUTION but do not talk about any new TOPIC in CONCLUSION.*

Extract 13 Cindy's Whole-Class Interaction in Week 2 (Focusing on Student Response)

Students' responses in group work interactions were similar to student responses in the whole class interaction. As can be seen in Extract 13 taken from Week 2, in Turn 04 and 08, the students were reluctant to respond. Therefore, Cindy called their names to answer her questions, and reformulated the question as can be seen in Turns 05 and 09. Then they

responded with specific content information without contributing further or elaborating. In Turn 11, Cindy took on the role of elaborating on her students' answers.

Feedback

Cindy's implementation of Feedback in whole class at the beginning of the course was different to what she did at the end of the course. Similar to me, in Weeks 1 to 2, she seemed to try to engage her students in dialogic interaction by using follow-up questions in the feedback turn. In Weeks 3 to 7 Cindy appeared to change her teaching style, reverting to what she normally did. She provided evaluation as feedback. As can be seen in the part with the <mark>yellow highlight</mark> in Turn 17 of Extract 8 (on page 160), she asked a referential question as a follow-up question to encourage her students to elaborate their responses with reasoning. Then, she provided evaluation and elaboration as feedback.

In Weeks 3 to 7, Cindy's interaction with her students in the feedback turn appeared to be less dialogic than in Weeks 1 to 3. She did not use follow-up questions but she provided explicit redirection and corrected students' mistakes as can be seen in Turn 05 of Extract 9 (on page 161), or provided verbal rewards for students' correct answers as can be seen in Turn 11 of Extract 13, and Turn 05 of Extract 14.

01	Cindy:	*How many parts are there in this text?*
02	PSTs:	*[silent].*
03	Cindy:	*There are 3 parts - INTRODUCTION, BODY OF CONTENT, and CONCLUDING PART. And, Can you tell me how many TOPICS there are in the body of content?*
04	Sam:	*3?*
05	Cindy:	*Good. There are 3 TOPICS. The first one is here. It is about …Use your pen to underline it. And, the second one is …*

Extract 14 Cindy's Interaction with Students in Whole Class in Week 4

In this section, I discuss how the students (the pre-service teachers) in my class and in Cindy's class interacted with each other in the group work activities that were presented in Chapter Six. In my class, student–student interaction in the end of the course appeared to be different from at beginning of the course. In Weeks 1 to 3, my students seemed to focus on displaying knowledge but in Weeks 4 to 7, they started to co-construct knowledge with each other in group work. In Cindy's class, I found that there was lack of change in the way they interacted with each other. The students seemed to rely on displaying knowledge from Weeks 1 to 7. I have divided this section into two subsections. In the first subsection, I explore how my students engaged in co-construction of knowledge, while in the second subsection, I investigate how students in Cindy's class engaged in displaying knowledge.

Student–Student Interaction in My Class as Co-construction of Knowledge

When preparing my teaching before the course started, I thought that by engaging my students in interactive activities (as discussed in the last section of Chapter Six), they would understand their role as active learners who actively participated in discussion and co-construction of knowledge with other students. However, I found that my students did not take on the role as I expected. They were on task but their interaction seemed to be aimed at display of knowledge. They asked closed-ended questions to get correct answers in order to complete the task. Therefore, I decided to go into each group to model for them how to lead the discussion by initiating the discussion by myself. Then, I found that my students still did not understand the purpose of my modelling. They still did not initiate discussion but waited for me to start the group discussion for them. As can be seen in Extract 15, which was taken from Week 2, I assisted my students to initiate group discussion. Then, a student in Turn 02 started to ask a display question (in the yellow highlight) in order to seek correct answers. In this way, I

observed that this Student was still focused on initiating interaction for displaying knowledge rather than for construction of knowledge.

01	Pin:	Let's start from looking at this paragraph. Do you think the information provided in the text makes sense? If not, how can we change it to be more comprehensible? [stays in the group for 3 minutes before leaving the group]
02	A group member1:	Does anyone see anything for revising?
03	A group member2:	Yes, the third sentence of the third paragraph. I think we should put 'for example' at the beginning of the sentence.
04	Jed:	I think we should use FOR INSTANCE.
05	A group member2:	Just choose one because they mean the same thing.
06	A group member3	I found it. In the first paragraph, line four…change from PAST SIMPLE TENSE TO PRESENT TENSE.
07	A group member1	OK. What else?

Extract 15. Student-Student Interaction in My Class in Week 2

A group member refers to a student who did not consent to be interviewed.

As I realised that they had not understood the role in which I had tried to position them by engaging them in interactive activities, I decided to use explicit explanation regarding what I expected them to do in group work in Week 4. I decided to use explicit explanation again regarding student–student interaction in group work because I found that it had helped improve student responses in teacher–student interaction. I explained that I expected them to participate in discussion and that each group member should at some stage try to initiate the discussion in order to engage others to contribute ideas based on the tasks. I focused on explaining to them how to take lead to initiate discussion for co-construction of knowledge through different types of questions such as display questions, referential questions, and metacognitive questions, how to provide responses in an elaborative way in order to share ideas with others, and how to

extend the discussion by using follow-up questions to negotiate knowledge and understanding in order to gain better solutions for the tasks.

As a consequence of the explicit explanation, student–student interaction in Week 4 improved. The students did not wait for my presence to help start the discussion. They initiated the group discussion by themselves, and I observed that they started to initiate the discussion by asking for others' opinions. They also started to share their ideas, ask open-ended questions, and respond with elaboration and support. For example, students in my class including Jed, Kaow, Sib-ed, and Pad used metacognitive questions (example in the green highlight) to initiate discussion in order to elicit their peers' opinions as can be seen in Extract 16 taken from Week 4. A student member (1) used metacognitive questions in Turns 01 and 04 after contributing ideas in order to check whether other students agreed or disagreed with her ideas. Then, in Turn 02, another group member (2) provided a response with reasoning to support her point.

01	A group member 1:	I think this part should go in here because it provides all the three main points. Do you agree with me? Or what do you think?
02	A group member2:	I agree with you. And, this part can go under it because it talks about HOW TO USE ROLE PLAY IN THE CLASSROOM.
03	A group member3:	Me too. But what about this part? It also talks about the three main topics
04	A group member 1:	I think that it should be CONCLUSION. What do you think?

Extract 16 Student-Student Interaction in My Class in Week 4

In weeks 5 to 7 in particular I observed that their engagement seemed to be more co-constructive in dialogic interaction. My students seemed to follow the pattern of group discussion as I had explicitly explained to them. They provided responses with the aim to explain their points, and to share their understandings and construct understandings with their peers. For example, in Extract 17 adopted from the Peer Review Activity in Week 7, each

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student was required to work in a pair or a group of three people in order to read a peers' written work, and to give feedback as well as to discuss the way to improve the writing. In Turn 01, Jed started the discussion by using a metacognitive question (in green highlight) to investigate her partner's thinking (a group member). In Turn 02, a group member provided responses with elaboration and reasons to support his claims.

01	Jed:	*What do you mean in these sentences?*
02	A group member:	*I wanted to give some IMPLICATION but I was not sure how to write it. I put the IMPLICATION there because I think it is important and I want to expand this point later in the next section.*
03	Jed:	*Well, I don't really understand when reading these sentences. Let's put it this way [revises her peer writing].*
04	A group member:	*Yes. I think it sounds better. What about here [pointing at the part on her written text]?*
05	Jed:	*I think it is understandable. I don't think you need to change anything. Oh, don't forget to change the VERB here to past tense here.*
06	Jed:	*Why?*
07	A group member:	*Do you remember what the teacher said? It's because you refer to the past research as the teacher told us.*

Extract 17 Student-Student Interaction in My Class in Week 7

Moreover, they also used questioning to follow-up others' ideas in order to brainstorm, and negotiate their ideas and understanding. I observed that they started to engage in a deeper discussion. They extended the discussion by asking referential questions to follow-up others' responses. In this way, I found that the pattern of student–student interaction in group work in my class during weeks 5 to 7 seemed to be similar to IRF perhaps because of the way I had explicitly scaffolded how they were to talk to each other. For example, in Extract 18 taken from group work in Week 6 the students in the group including Sib-ed did not only accept their peers' responses but also encouraged their peers to share deeper ideas of why and how.

01	A group member 1:	*Do you think we should change this PART?*
02	Sib-ed:	*I think so too. It sounds a bit weird but* ==*why do you think we should change it?*==
03	A group member 1:	*No, it does not sound right. I think we should RESTRUCTURE this PART because it is not in logical order.*
04	A group member 2:	*I agree with you. I think we should put the MAIN IDEA in the beginning of the PART.*
05	A group member 1:	==*Which one should be the MAIN IDEA?*==
06	Jed:	*This one. It is broad enough to be a MAIN IDEA.*
07	Sib-ed:	*Oh yes. I understand now. What you want to do is to move from MAIN POINTS to SUPPORTING IDEAS in more specific ways.*

Extract 18 Student-Student Interaction in My Class in Week 6

Student–Student Interaction in Cindy's Class as Displaying Knowledge

Interaction among students in Cindy's class was more limited, partly as a result of the classroom activities. I found that teacher's choice of classroom activities appeared to be one of the causes of limited student–student interaction. As discussed in Chapter Six, Cindy chose to focus on providing a worksheet and requiring her students to complete the worksheet. Her students hence followed this requirement, focusing on working on their worksheets, and displaying what they knew in order to complete the worksheet. They worked in parallel on their worksheets, and talked to each other so that it looked like they were sharing their ideas but they did not engage in discussion for co-construction of knowledge.

Students initiated the conversation in their group by asking questions. This manner of initiation seemed to be similar to the initiation stage of triadic dialogues. However, the questions that they used were closed-ended questions and display questions. These questions were used in order to elicit correct answers to complete their task. The students displayed their knowledge by providing answers to the question without support and without asking for others' opinions

or reasoning. In this way, student–student dialogue appeared to lack knowledge-sharing in order to negotiate ideas and understandings between group members.

This type of engagement can be seen in Extract 19 taken from Distinguishing Fact or Opinion in Week 1. Cindy required her students to work in groups of 4 to 5 people to complete the worksheet and submit it at the end of the class. The worksheet that was used in this activity is shown in Figure 25.

Fact or Opinion

1. Teaching English through songs is an interesting method for developing students' listening skills.
2. Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) refers to teaching the English language to students with different first languages.
3. Communicative language teaching (CLT) emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language.
4. In Thailand, English proficiency is particularly low when compared to other Asian countries.
5. Cartoons and comic strips can be used from beginner level to advanced level for a variety of language and discussion activities.
6. Good cartoons amuse children so much that they literally absorb both visual and audio information as sponges.
7. The newer cartons have great animations that literally amaze the viewers and take us into the magical world of fairy tales.
8. In teaching English as a foreign language, the novel plays a vital role in developing and enhancing the language skills because in the novel the full range and variety of the English language is displayed with concrete examples of writing skill in action.
9. Role-play activities can be a lot of fun however a class full of shy students may be reluctant to participate so it is important to know your students.
10. I would recommend to shake up your role play activities by putting your students in bizarre situations, offering them weird personalities to portray and planting seeds of peculiar themes of conversation.

Figure 25. Cindy's Worksheet Used in the Distinguishing Fact or Opinion Activity

While individually working on the worksheet, students initiated conversation by asking display question in order to check other students' answers as can be seen in Turn 01 of Extract 19. Then, in Turn 02, a group member (2) took a response turn by providing the answer. After that, Song (in Turn 03) who was one of the members of the group

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asked group member 2 to provide a rationale, and in Turn 04 she rationalised her response. In this way, I saw that their conversation looked like IRF because Turn 03 seemed to be a follow-up question. However, I found that the purpose of asking the question was not to co-construct understanding and knowledge, but to check whether or not the answer provided by group member 2 was accurate before deciding to write down the answer on the worksheet. This type of engagement is especially clear in Extract 20.

01	*A group member1:*	*Do you think this one is FACT?*
02	*A group member2:*	*No, it's OPINION for sure.*
03	*Song:*	*Why?*
04	*A group member2:*	*Because of this word. [points out the word in the worksheet]*
05	*Song and other group members:*	*[write down the answer on their worksheet.]*

Extract 19. Student-Student Interaction in Cindy's Class in Week 1

01	*A group member1:*	*I can't finish the first part. What about you?*
02	*All group members:*	*No*
03	*A group member1:*	*Did anyone get the answer for the first one?*
04	*Neung:*	*I got it. The answer is BUT and the second one is YET.*
05	*A group member2:*	*Ok. What about the second one?*
06	*Ha:*	*I have the answer for the third one. It is 'HOWEVER'.*

Extract 20. Student-Student Interaction in Cindy's Class in Week 4

Moreover, similar to my students in Weeks 1 to 3, I also found that students in Cindy's class seemed to wait for Cindy to participate in their groups. After completing their worksheets, they looked for Cindy, or some students raised their hand in order to inform Cindy that they had completed the tasks. Then Cindy participated in her students' group work, and initiated questions as I discussed in the section on Teacher–Student Interaction in Whole-class and Group Work in Cindy's class. I observed that the students in every group seemed to talk more

with Cindy to display what they knew as a way to allow Cindy to check or evaluate their knowledge or answers on the worksheets.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I explored how Cindy, the pre-service teachers and I engaged in the new approach of dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle, and how we positioned ourselves as teachers and students. Cindy and I used triadic dialogues with students in the teaching and learning cycle, and made efforts to engage our students in interaction. I also investigated how students interacted or did not interact with each other. In particular I explored our engagement in each sequence of the triadic dialogue including questioning, student responses, and feedback. The findings presented in this chapter inform how we appropriated or resisted this new approach based on how we understood teaching and learning, and can be used for analysing how we positioned ourselves as teachers and students.

CHAPTER EIGHT

Negotiating Identities as Teacher and Student during Participation in the Teaching and Learning Cycle

In the previous two chapters, I detailed Cindy's and my appropriation of the teaching and learning cycle, and our subsequent engagement with dialogic interaction, along with our students' engagement, in a seven-week English writing course. In this chapter, I analyse findings from interviews conducted before and after the seven weeks. (Lack of) change in participants' teacher and student identity positions after our trialling of the teaching and learning cycle is the focus. As discussed in Chapter Three, I understand identity to be intrinsically related to the way an individual engages in a particular social activity. In this activity, the individual appropriates new ideas through the negotiation of existing ideas. The ways ideas are appropriated (rather than simply the ideas themselves) then serve as motivation for his/her action (Holland & Lachicotte, 2017).

I divide this chapter into three sections. In each section, I discuss change and lack of change in participants' understandings of teacher and student roles after the teaching and learning cycle was implemented in the seven-week course. The first section concerns Cindy's understanding of her role as a teacher, the second section, my own, and the third section, the pre-service teachers'. In each section, I explore participants' past experiences of teaching and learning as influences on how we came to understand teacher and student positions. Finally, Cindy's and my positioning in the course was found to have a conspicuous effect on the students' positioning, and vice versa. In the third section, I start with a particular focus on the positioning of the pre-service teachers in Cindy's class and my class before engaging in the seven-week course. Then, I discuss the lack of change in the pre-service teachers' uptake of dialogic teaching and learning in Cindy's class. After that I discuss the pre-service teachers' changes of

uptake of learning in my class during the teacher–student whole-class interaction, and in student–student group work interaction.

CINDY'S NEGOTIATION OF HER TEACHING
AND LEARNING IDENTITY

Cindy's teaching and learning identity appeared to be very strongly connected to her experience of teaching and learning in the Thai context. She was found to be enthusiastic in her desire to learn different ways of teaching and was happy to engage with the teaching and learning cycle, but her past experiences were found to impede her uptake of dialogic interaction in the classroom. A particularly influential teaching identity appeared to be that of transmitter of knowledge, and her students' unresponsiveness to a more interactive style also influenced her reversion to a more transmissive style later on in the seven-week course.

In the first interview (henceforth referred to as Interview 1), Cindy reported that she had been exposed to teaching and learning only in the Thai context. The Thai tradition of relying on transmission of knowledge for teaching and learning appeared to influence her understanding of the role of teacher (see Noom-ura, 2013). In the interview, Cindy pointed out her enjoyment of studying with a teacher who presented the content in front of the class, and explained everything to her. She stated that this way of teaching successfully assisted her in understanding the content of the subject: the clarity of the explanations followed by practice appeared to be the main benefits of the approach for Cindy:

> *"[…]When I studied in high school, there was one teacher who made me feel comfortable with studying English…[…]She firstly displayed and explained everything such English grammar in the way that easy to understand, and wrote example as a way to show how to use grammar or vocabulary in sentences…then she gave student exercises for practising the knowledge…I think her way of teaching sounds simple but it worked because my English academic result improved, and that made me like English more."*

<div align="right">(Cindy, Interview I)</div>

In contrast, Cindy pointed out an unpleasant learning experience when studying English with teachers who compelled her to talk in class. In the quotation below, Cindy explained that the lack of presentation was demoralising, and it may have been the lack of prescribed boundaries around the questions that caused her some anxiety:

> *"[…] I didn't like to study English especially studying with native speakers because they did not present the subject content as the first step of teaching but frequently asked questions in classroom. I felt discouraged, and embarrassed."*

<div align="right">(Cindy, Interview I)</div>

Nevertheless, even though Cindy's position on interactive teaching was not entirely positive, she was enthusiastic in trialling a different approach that could potentially help her innovate in her teaching. As discussed in the previous chapters, she aimed to create a collaborative classroom environment by adopting IRF triadic dialogue with the use of teacher questioning, and follow-up questions.

> *"The teaching and learning cycle is quite new to Thai students because it focuses on teacher–student interaction. I think it is very interesting way of teaching and learning […]."*

<div align="right">(Cindy, Interview I).</div>

This adoption of IRF combined a transmissive style of teaching with a space for more controlled interaction. In Interview I, Cindy pointed out that she did not plan to engage her students in student–student interaction through group discussion because she did not want to

cause unpleasant learning experiences, and group discussion was not an expected way of practising for her students. This reflected her own unpleasant experiences with less-structured interaction, as evidenced in the earlier quotation. Therefore, she only focused on engaging her students in whole-class interaction, and chose to give her students worksheet tasks in group work, as evidenced by the findings in Chapter Six and Chapter Seven, and by the quotation below.

> *"[...]I think using too much discussion made the students feel uncomfortable and can cause fussiness...So I think the students prefer to do like kind of worksheets in group as a way to practise rather than participate in group tasks. [...] they expected to be examined by me in order to test out their understanding of the subject content. So, [...] using worksheet is the best way that I can meet their expectation [...]."*

(Cindy, Interview I).

Although Cindy was initially open to the new interactive teaching approach, her experience in the seven week course led her to understand that the approach was not suitable for the course because it took too much time and impacted on the core purpose and content of the course. For Cindy, the core purpose was found to be the presenting of content that students needed to learn:

> *"[...] it was time consuming. I could not heavily rely on students' contribution and on teacher–students interaction because I have to deliver all the knowledge indicated in the curriculum. In this course description of this course require myself to teach the pre-service teachers certain grammatical forms and structure as well as content knowledge about how to write information report text. I didn't have much time for focusing on teacher-student interaction [...] opening opportunities for students to involve during the teaching period was risk taking as it brought about unpredictability. I found that there was run-on discussion that did not relate to the content knowledge that I wanted to teach."*

(Cindy, Interview II).

The issue did not appear to be a lack of understanding regarding how to engage the students in dialogic interaction, at least whole-class IRF, but that she saw it as a distraction from the key

objectives of the class: to explain particular structures to the students and give pre-service teachers time to practise these structures.

Cindy's (decreasing) implementation of the teaching approach also appeared to be reinforced by her students' assumed identity position as recipients of knowledge. In Interview II, she reported that implementing dialogic teaching and learning caused students to be uncomfortable and confused. On the strength of this, she decided to revert to a more explanatory, transmissive way of teaching as evidenced by the findings of Cindy's change in the previous chapter.

> *"[…] during the course, I found that my students was confused and stayed silent. I could see that they were uncomfortable because I asked them many questions, and because I did teach them the ways they used to. [..] I think this approach [text-based scaffolding] was not suitable for them."*
>
> (Cindy, Interview II).

Her uptake of joint-construction activities evidenced the kinds of adjustments she made. In order to make the activities suitable for her students, she demonstrated how to write a text in front of the class instead of asking for student contributions:

> *"I change joint-construction activity to align with my students' learning style. Asking for students' contribution could cause students confusion, and anxiety, and it could take longer time to finish writing the whole text so that I chose to write a text on the whiteboard by myself in front of the class. […] I think the students felt more confident and certainty when they see whole written text in front of the class"*
>
> (Cindy, Interview II).

Cindy seemed to try to offer her students a designated body of knowledge (ready-made knowledge). Cindy seemed to look at teaching and learning through the lens of her past experience as a student, and her experience as a teacher. Her student identity as recipient of knowledge, and her teacher identity as transmitter of knowledge were likely to inform the

understanding of student position in her class, and thus determined her teacher identity in this writing course and her uptake of particular ways of teaching.

MY NEGOTIATION OF MY TEACHING AND LEARNING IDENTITY

My learning experiences in Thailand and Australia and my teaching experiences in Thailand informed my understanding of learning and teaching. My learning experience in Australia influenced me to think about changing teaching and learning in the Thai context to be more interactive. Similar to Cindy, my understanding of students' positioning of themselves as recipients of knowledge – informed by my knowledge of Thai students' learning experiences – influenced me. However, given my commitment to the kind of learning I had experienced in Australia, I attempted to explain my positioning to my students as a way to improve their engagement in dialogic teaching and learning.

As discussed in Chapter Five, I had been exposed to two different educational contexts – Thailand and Australia. My identity as a teacher was influenced by both contexts, given that I saw the role of teacher as co-constructor of knowledge – an understanding I had appropriated in Australia, and saw the process of teaching as the PPP – a way of teaching and learning I was exposed to in Thailand. My understanding of the PPP and its relationship to the teaching and learning cycle was discussed in Chapter Six. In this Chapter, I will focus on my understanding of the role of teacher as co-constructor of knowledge.

In the teaching and learning approach I experienced in Thailand, the teachers did all the talking, and students took notes and followed the teachers. Similar to Cindy, I saw teachers as the source of knowledge or the transmitter of knowledge:

> *"When I was in high school, I liked the teachers who taught all the content knowledge, then gave students worksheet for practising knowledge because I thought that I gain a lot of new knowledge and got chance to test out my understanding before the lesson finished. I think that this way of teaching works well. I felt more comfortable than studying with native speaker teachers they encouraged students to talk, and I did not like to show my idea in the class."*

<div align="right">(Pin, Interview I)</div>

In Australia, I experienced different teaching approaches and styles emphasising co-construction of knowledge as a way to acquire knowledge. The role of teacher in this context was to encourage students' active role in their learning, and to provide scaffolding as necessary to assist students' active engagement. Situated in this context, I had to adjust my learning to be compatible with the new context.

I did not understand the way of teaching and learning in the new context, and thus I was confused, and did not know how to participate in classes. It took me one semester to start to understand the teaching and learning style, and participate more actively in classes. I later found that being an active student who contributed ideas and interacted with teachers and other students helped me to understand conceptual knowledge faster, and be able to connect knowledge with practice:

> *"[…] in Australia, the teachers only initiated the topic and allowed students to discuss and talk about the topic. They challenged the students by asking questions, and asked more questions in order to get the students expand their ideas and knowledge, and to use or link to theories or concepts that they have learned to support their points […] I did not like it because it was not something that I was familiar with, but when I knew the pattern of their teaching, I discussed more, and at the same time listened to other classmates more so that I can develop my understanding very well […] I think communicative between teacher and student with the purpose of supporting students' understanding of new knowledge is very important."*

<div align="right">(Pin, Interview I)</div>

This experience motivated me to adopt dialogic teaching and learning to use in the Thai context because I saw it to be an effective teaching approach. I thus wanted to try to follow the dialogic teaching approach as suggested by the resources as shown in Chapter Three.

However, when teaching in the class, my students appeared to be having the same difficulties as I did when I first came to study in Australia. As a result, I reflected on my understanding of dialogic teaching, together with my understanding of the nature of teaching and learning in the Thai context. Based on my experience, and what I had previously enjoyed as a student, Thai students like to have clear explanations and then space to practice. This reflection led me to provide an explicit explanation of the idea of dialogic interaction as explained in Chapter Seven.

> *"I found that [these strategies] were not enough to make students become more dialogic. I did not see any obvious change. […] the students have no idea about this kind of teaching, they don't how to engage and respond. I think they were not familiar with the teaching and learning style that I tried to do. […]. Thanks to my experience, I found that explicit explanation […] could be an effective way to help them understand. […] and it actually worked very well."*

> (Pin, Interview II)

Similar to Cindy, I found that my uptake of dialogic teaching was influenced by the students' positioning of themselves as recipients of knowledge and thus as unresponsive. However, we negotiated our understanding of teaching in the Thai context in different ways because we had different experiences and different pre-existing understandings of the role of a teacher.

THE PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' NEGOTIATION OF TEACHING
AND LEARNING IDENTITY

In this section, I start the discussion of the pre-service teachers' thoughts on teaching and learning before engaging in the seven-week course. Similar to Cindy and myself, the pre-service teachers' learning experiences – in Thailand – appeared to be influencing their teaching and learning identity positions. I discuss these positions, then I explore the pre-service teachers' experiences of learning at the beginning (Weeks 1 to 3) of the seven-week course. In particular, I discuss what they thought about the new way of teacher–student whole-class interaction, and student–student group work interaction. After that I explore how the pre-service teachers in Cindy's class talked about their engagement after Cindy reverted to her former teaching approach, and how the pre-service teachers in my class talked about their engagement in teacher–student whole class interaction, and student–student group work interaction after my explicit explanation. In particular, I discuss how the pre-service teachers negotiated their understanding of teaching and learning in the course and whether or not this influenced their discursive identities, or the teaching and learning 'stories' they told about themselves in interviews about teacher and learner roles.

In Interview I, the pre-service teachers in both classes reported that they had been exposed to the teaching and learning only in the Thai context. Similar to Cindy, they therefore appeared to be constructing their identity based on the understanding of teaching as transmission of knowledge, and learning as receiving knowledge. This understanding seemed to influence their preferences of teaching and learning style, and their expectation of what teachers are supposed to do in the classroom. All six pre-service teachers in Cindy's class, and all six in my class reported in Interview I that they liked to study with teachers who explained content, because this way of teaching enabled them to gain a lot of knowledge. To be able to receive knowledge, they listened and took notes. They also pointed out that presenting or explaining content was good teaching practice. For instance, three pre-service teachers in Cindy's class stated that:

"Teachers should take the main role in presenting students with concept and content knowledge […] to get a lot of knowledge in class, I need to be a good listener […] do not talk or interrupt"

(Song in Cindy's class, Interview I)

"I like the teachers who teach all the content knowledge as the first step of teaching before allowing students to practise"

(See in Cindy's class, Interview I)

"I don't like the classes when the teacher just got in class and asked us to answer questions. […] good teachers should give students knowledge by explaining content. […] good students should listen to the teacher carefully, take notes, and follow what the teacher said […]"

(Hok in Cindy's class, Interview I)

Similar to the pre-service teachers in Cindy's class, representative comments from the three pre-service teachers in my class appear below:

"I like the teachers who show all the content knowledge on the PowerPoint slides because I know exactly what the teacher wants me to learn and it is easy for me to grasp the points' content knowledge […]"

(Pad in Pin's class, Interview I)

"I liked to study in a translation class because the teacher was very good at teaching. […] she showed all the content on the PowerPoint slides, and waited for the students to finish taking notes. She explained very well and gave examples."

(Jed in Pin's class, Interview I)

"I like the teachers who used games in classroom as classroom activities but I also think that spending too much of the classroom period on playing games is wasting time. […] games are fun but I don't gain any knowledge […]. It would be better if she [the teacher] taught the content before playing games."

(Sib-song in Pin's class, Interview I)

This was the understanding of teaching the pre-service teachers brought with them when learning in the seven-week course. All of the six pre-service teachers in Cindy's class, and all

of the six in my class reported in Interview II that they had experienced a new way of teaching that was different to what they had expected in the course.

In terms of teacher–student whole-class interaction, all of them drew attention to the way that Cindy and I tried to get them to talk by asking questions, and this way of teaching made them felt uncomfortable and confused because they felt embarrassed to talk, and did not know how to respond. For instance, two pre-service teachers in Cindy's class, and two pre-service teachers in my class stated that:

> *"I really had no idea what to do when the teacher asked questions so I tried not to make eye contact with her. […] I was afraid that she would pick me."*
>
> (Song in Cindy's class, Interview II)

> *"[…] I knew the answers. Her questions were not that hard but I did not want to talk or express my ideas. I am shy to talk."*
>
> (See in Cindy's class, Interview II)

> *"[…] I didn't like her way of teaching at the beginning of the course [weeks 1 to 3]. I didn't know if she wanted to check my knowledge or she actually wanted to hear my thinking, so I just stayed silent."*
>
> (Kaow in Pin's class, Interview II)

> *"I was confused at the beginning. I was not familiar with talking or discussion with a teacher. I didn't like it."*
>
> (Sib in Pin's class, Interview II)

Moreover, four of the pre-service teachers in my class also commented on their experiences of group discussion during weeks 1 to 3 of the course. They stated that they did not like group discussion because they did not seem to gain knowledge from discussing with others students in group. I interpreted this view to be influenced by their positioning of the teacher as the source of knowledge and student as recipient of knowledge. Some illustrative quotations appear below:

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"[…] The teacher always asked us to discuss in the group. She spent a long period of time on allowing the students to discuss in groups. I didn't gain any knowledge from talking in a group. […] I would choose to spend all this time in the classroom on listening to the teacher."

(Sib, in Pin's class, Interview II)

"At the beginning, I didn't like group discussion. […] I rather wanted to learn from the teacher not the classmates."

(Jed, in Pin's class, Interview II)

"At the beginning, I didn't like group discussion. I didn't think that group discussion is productive. We just pretended to discuss and to share ideas but we did not gain any knowledge from this kind of activity."

(Sib-ed, in Pin's class, Interview II)

"[…] talking in groups, and listening to other students couldn't help me improve my understanding. I was thinking that the teacher was the one who knew everything, so why did she ask us to find out things by ourselves."

(Sib-song in Pin's class, Interview II)

In addition, one of the pre-service teachers in Cindy's class also commented about group discussion in my class. He pointed out that:

"I heard that the other class always participated in group discussion, and presented their ideas to discuss with the teacher. I think I am so lucky that I studied in this class […] I don't like group discussion, and I don't like presenting my ideas in front of the class. It is embarrassing."

(Song in Cindy's class, Interview II)

As can be seen from all the statements on this page, the pre-service teachers did not seem to enjoy studying in the course due to the interactive teaching and learning in both whole-class and group work. The friction between what they experienced in the course, and their identity or their pre-existing understanding of teaching and learning seemed to cause resistance (see Wertsch, 1998) in the pre-service teachers.

Influenced by the concept of appropriation in Chapter Three, I interpreted students' silence or non-responsiveness in class as students' resistance (see Chapter Seven). This interpretation was in agreement with the study of Bao (2014) who found that the mismatch between students' expectation of learning style and what the teacher actually does in the classroom can cause discomfort, and can lead to students' silence and/or reticence. This resistance appeared to influence Cindy to revert to her old teaching style (in Week 3), and influenced me to adjust my dialogic teaching as discussed earlier (in Week 3).

In Interview II the pre-service teachers in both classes were especially asked to talk about their thoughts or experiences in Weeks 3–44 of the course. These weeks were when Cindy started to revert her teaching back to the more traditional way, and I started to provide my students with explicit explanation. All of the six pre-service teachers in Cindy's class showed their preference for Cindy's way of teaching after she reverted. For example Neung, Sam, and Ha stated that:

> *"I preferred her teaching in the later weeks of the course because the teacher explained more than asked […]."*
>
> (Neung in Cindy's class, Interview II)

> *"I like how she taught us in the middle of the course […] it was so clear to me to understand."*
>
> (Sam in Cindy's class, Interview II)

> *"In the beginning of the course, I think there was too much classroom discussion but in the later weeks, the teacher focused on teaching. I like this way more […]"*
>
> (Ha in Cindy's class, interview II)

However, in my class, five pre-service teachers pointed out that after my explicit explanation regarding the purposes of discussion and the ways to do it (in Week 3), learning in this course

was more enjoyable, and less stressful, without a complete reversion to traditional Thai ways of teaching. For example Sib-song, sib, Pad, and Sib-ed stated that:

> *"[…] I like it that she explicitly told us what she expected from us so that we knew what to do."*
>
> (Sib-song in Pin's class, Interview II).

> *"I was more confident when the teacher told me what to do and how to do. […] so, I knew how to meet her requirements and expectations. It was easier than letting students guess what to do."*
>
> (Sib in Pin's class, Interview II)

> *"It was like a guideline to me. It [explicit explanation] made things easier. […] because she explained. I know how to do it. I felt more confident to talk and discuss in the class."*
>
> (Pad in Pin's class, Interview II)

> *"When I knew what the teacher expected me to do […], I started to talk in class […] especially, in the writing together activity [joint-construction activity], I started to present my ideas. […]."*
>
> (Sib-ed in Pin's class, Interview II)

In particular, it appeared that students in my class were beginning to see the benefits of the co-construction of knowledge between teacher and student as we engaged in the joint-construction activity. I found that all six students in my class saw that my help and support in the joint-construction activity could help their English language learning. For instance, Hok, Kaow, Sib, and Sib-ed stated that:

> *"[…] I found this activity very useful. […] because she [the teacher] told us not to worry about grammar so I could present my idea in English. And, she edited it".*
>
> *(Hok in Pin's class, Interview II)*

> *"I liked this activity because it allowed me to test my own understanding. […] I could present my idea, and the teacher gave me feedback, and suggestion for a better one".*
>
> *(Kaow in Pin's class, Interview II)*

"It [the activity] is very helpful. […] I could learn about the English language when other classmates presented their ideas in Thai, and the teacher translated them into English. […] I could use these when I write."

(Sib in Pin's class, Interview II)

"[…] I like it that we can present our ideas in Thai, then she [the teacher] helped us translate them into English. I learned a lot about language features from this activity, and I can use that language in my own writing."

(Sib-ed in Pin's class, Interview II)

Therefore, it seemed to be that students in my class were appropriating the idea of co-construction of knowledge between the teacher and students and this positive engagement also improved their participation in this activity as can be seen in Chapter Seven.

The positive engagement and their confidence also appeared to extend to group work. All six pre-service teachers in my class mentioned that they were more at ease after the explanation. They also reported that it was fun and led to more motivation to talk. For example, Kaow, Pad, Jed, and Sib-song stated that:

"I knew how to discuss in groups and that made me feel more confident to talk. […] group discussion was more fun."

(Kaow in Pin's class, Interview II)

"It made me talk more because I knew that she did not want to check my knowledge but just wanted to listen to my ideas."

(Pad in Pin's class, Interview II)

"When I knew how to participate in group work, I had more fun and I did not feel shy anymore […] because I knew this was how the teacher wanted me to do it, […] it made me feel more confident."

(Jed in Pin's class, Interview II)

"I felt more confident to talk in a group […] because I knew what the teacher wanted and I knew how to do it. […]. I got the knowledge of how to discuss, and this knowledge made me talk more in the group."

(Sib-song in Pin's class, Interview II)

Moreover, three students pointed out that they used my teacher-student interaction in the whole-class activities as the model for their group work discussion. This is because they thought that it was the right way of discussion (student-student interaction as IRF was shown in Chapter Seven)

"When the teacher explained to us what and how she wanted us to do in the class, I and my group were in agreement that what she explained was what she did during teaching. So, we imitated her discussion pattern because we thought that it was what she wanted us to do."

(Hok in Pin's class, Interview II)

"I tried to ask questions to follow up my friends' response as the teacher did. […] because I believed that what she did was the right thing to do".

(Sib-ed in Pin's class, Interview II)

"I and my friends [in group] followed what the teacher did when teaching. […] and the teacher liked our group discussion".

(Sib in Pin's class, Interview II)

It appeared that my students (Hok, Sib-ed, and Sib) connected their understanding of dialogic interaction and their experiences in the classroom in relation to their engagement in teacher-student interaction in order to use it as the model for their own practices. Thus, it was likely that students in my class were beginning to appropriate the idea of interactive engagement in student-student group work interaction and use it in their reports of positive engagement, and this was reinforced in observations of this engagement (see Chapter Seven).

The scaffolding did dictate how the students understood dialogic interaction, however. As a result of my explicit modelling they saw dialogic interaction through the same lens that I did. I saw that because of the explicit explanation, my students came to understand and would be able to adopt dialogic interaction in group work (as can be seen in Chapter Seven) faster than I did (as pointed out earlier). Therefore, I found that the explicit explanation of the new teaching approach is an important additional scaffolding that can be added at the beginning of a lesson in order to assist students to appropriate the idea of interactive learning.

Although I witnessed my students' positive engagement in group work, it was still unclear that they saw the benefits for their learning of the co-construction of knowledge between student and student. It seemed to be that they adopted dialogic interaction because they wanted to meet my expectations, which I had explicitly described and modelled to them rather than structuring the dialogic interaction to fit their learning situation themselves. As can be seen in the quotations on page 190 and 191, all students (Hok, Jed, Pad, Kaow, Sib, Sib-ed, and Sib-song) in my class mentioned that because they knew what their teacher (myself) required them to do, therefore they decided to follow the teacher's requirement. According to Grossman, Smagorinsky, and Valencia (1999), I understood that my students appropriated the surface features of the dialogic interaction but they had not yet appropriated the conceptual underpinnings, and had not yet achieved mastery of the idea of dialogic interaction. They still have not yet grasped what they could gain from this way of interaction, which informs and motivates the use of the dialogic interaction. Therefore, they have not made independent use of this mode of interaction, as one of the pre-service teachers pointed out in the interview two that:

> *"…now I know it [dialogic interaction], I can apply this pattern of group discussion in other classes when the teachers in other classes require me to talk more in groups."*
>
> *(Sib in Pin's class, Interview II)*

Hence, I saw that the teaching and learning identity position of students as co-constructor of knowledge had not yet been consolidated in their discursive identities. Considering my own experience, these identity positions may have changed, given more time.

CONCLUSION

The findings presented in this Chapter related to Cindy's, the pre-service teachers' and my own process of change or lack of change in our identities as teachers and students during our participation in the teaching and learning cycle. These findings revealed how we came to understand teaching and learning or how we negotiated our identities before engaging in the seven-week course. Moreover, the findings in this chapter also revealed how we renegotiated our understanding of teaching and learning when participating in dialogic teaching and learning and how this helped cause a (lack of) change in our engagement as presented in Chapters Six and Seven. Moreover, the findings presented in this chapter are used to support discussion about the concepts of identity construction, mediation, and appropriation in the next chapter.

Part Three: Discussion of the Findings

CHAPTER Nine

Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter, I review the major findings of the study, and discuss conceptual issues found in the process of change (or lack of change) in identity or the uptake of different ways of teaching and learning. In particular, I look at the process of introducing dialogic interaction to a Thai teacher education class via the teaching and learning cycle from a sociocultural perspective. Moreover, I address the limitations of this study, indicate directions for further research, and point out the implications of this study.

I have divided this chapter into four sections. In the first section, I provide a summary of major findings of the research, revisiting the research questions, then restating the major findings in response to these. In the second section, I discuss the findings, including the usefulness of the constructs of appropriation and mediation for understanding scaffolding in the Thai teacher education context. I also discuss the usefulness of the kinds of scaffolding implemented in the study. I then address the actual process of change in classrooms and the use of explicit construction as scaffolding. In the third section, I identify the possible limitations of this research, and directions for further studies, while in the fourth section, I provide an account of the implications of the study at both the theoretical and practical levels.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

This section summarises the major findings of this study. The research focused on the process of change (or lack of change) in uptake of a different way of teaching and learning that emerged through teacher and student participation in the teaching and learning cycle in a Thai teacher education English language writing course. The research questions are shown in below.

1. How do Thai pre-service English teachers and their teachers engage with the teaching and learning cycle in a seven-week English writing course?

2. How do they discursively construct themselves as teachers and learners before and after the seven-week course?

In order to address the research questions, I have divided the summary into two parts. The first part responds to the first research question, and summarises Cindy's, the pre-service teachers', and my own engagement in the teaching and learning cycle. The second part responds to the second research question, and summarises the way Cindy, the pre-service teachers, and I discursively constructed our uptake of different ways of teaching and learning.

Engagement in the Teaching and Learning Cycle

As Thai teacher educators, Cindy's and my uptake of teaching using the teaching and learning cycle were context-sensitive and differed from the cycle suggested by Feez (2002), Rose and Martin (2012), and Gibbons (2009). In my appropriation of the cycle, for example, I blurred the boundaries between the stages of building the field and modelling and deconstructing the text. I adopted this approach because the core business of the writing course was to teach English language writing, and the students already had knowledge about the writing topic, or content from a different class. I therefore understood the *building the field* stage to have occurred already. My approach influenced Cindy, who used similar content in her lessons. We

also both set up the teaching and learning cycle in a Presentation-Practice-Production format, but Cindy chose to do this independently of my decision to structure learning in this way. Very familiar with PPP, we understood that the modelling and deconstructing of the text were the segments of the cycle in which the teacher presents content knowledge and prepares students for practice (joint construction), which in turn leads to production (independent writing).

An important point on which Cindy and I differed was our approach to presenting language in the modelling and deconstruction stage. I attempted to adopt the contextualised language teaching suggested by the teaching and learning cycle. However, Cindy seemed to resist it, and adopted a more decontextualised traditional language teaching approach. Where I tried to use longer texts to point out language features and their functions that related to rules and structures students had previously learned, Cindy focused on explaining grammatical rules and sentence-level applications.

In the joint construction phase, Cindy and I approached teacher–student interaction within the activities in different ways. In my class, I encouraged students' suggestions, and I understood my role to be a responsive one. This interaction allowed me to negotiate understanding with the students, and I was able to lead them to apply what they knew. On the other hand, Cindy adopted teacher demonstration of writing a text in front of the class in the 'joint-construction' activity. Her students could then follow her modelling and that allowed them to see the process of writing an information report text. This was different from a fully-formed model in that she did the writing herself in front of the students, but students did not have input into the process.

During the pedagogical modification, Cindy and I both chose to engage students in dialogic interaction through Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF). The triadic dialogue allowed us to initiate discussion by asking questions in order to stimulate students to respond, and to provide

feedback and follow up student responses in order to encourage them to discuss and negotiate understandings. I also adopted different types of questions and wait time as strategies to stimulate students' active participation. Cindy initially appropriated this idea of interaction, but after she tried to engage her students in IRF, she perceived her students to be uncomfortable and anxious and thus (re)adopted a pattern of Initiation-Response-Evaluation.

The findings indicated that engaging the pre-service teachers (Cindy and my class) in IRF alone did not stimulate them to take a more active role in the classroom, perhaps because this interactional pattern was different from the normal way of teaching and learning in the course. Cindy and I tried to stimulate the pre-service teachers to take the role as active learners or contributors. However, the students seemed to be hesitant to participate, and stayed silent. When they were compelled to answer the questioning (the I turn), they were found to focus on providing factual information without support or elaboration. Similar to pre-service teachers' engagement in teacher–student interaction, the pre-service teachers in both Cindy's class and my class did not engage in student–student dialogic interaction in group work. They focused on answering individually and displaying knowledge in order to complete (and show completion of) the tasks.

Negotiation of Identities in the Teaching and Learning Cycle

Cindy and I engaged in the new way of teaching from different points of view. I decided to engage in dialogic interaction via the teaching and learning cycle because I had seen the benefit of this teaching approach to learning through my own learning experience. However, Cindy had not had this experience, though she was interested in trying a new innovative teaching approach. Our learning experiences affected the way we constructed our understanding of teaching and learning, and this understanding appeared to affect the way we appropriated the teaching and learning cycle. In the case of Cindy, she had been exposed to learning only in the

Thai context where teaching and learning were viewed and practised as transmissive and organised as PPP. Thus, after trying to implement a dialogic teaching approach, she understood that it was not a priority. Therefore, she decided to revert to her previous, more teacher-centred, approach.

In my case, I had experienced learning in both Thailand and Australia. I understood dialogic teaching to be an effective way of teaching through my experience in Australia but, similar to Cindy, through my experience in Thailand I also saw PPP as the way to sequence teaching. Therefore, I tried to engage my students in dialogic interaction with me, but viewed the teaching and learning cycle as fitting with PPP. My past Thai learning experience further helped me to see the pre-service teachers' difficulties with dialogic teacher–student interaction, and led me to provide in the middle of the course an explicit explanation of such interaction, based on my understanding of Thai students' expectations of their teacher.

Similar to Cindy, the Thai pre-service teachers were exposed to a transmissive teaching approach in Thailand, and this experience appeared to guide their understanding of teaching and learning. This understanding created an expectation that the teacher would be the source of knowledge in the classroom. The pre-service teachers seemed to focus on receiving knowledge from Cindy and me and gaining factual information in order to complete tasks during student–student interaction in group work.

The pre-service teachers' positioning was found to influence Cindy's and my negotiation of the teacher's role in the teaching and learning cycle, and this was found to be reciprocal. The pre-service teachers did not participate in IRF as Cindy and I expected, and so we decided to change the way we engaged in the class. Cindy chose to revert to her transmissive teaching, and her students reported their satisfaction with this. I decided to guide the pre-service teachers

in how to participate in whole-class and group-work discussion. Once they understood the purpose and saw examples of ways of participating, the pre-service teachers seemed to accept the role of active learners in class and this acceptance caused a change in their engagement in the teaching and learning cycle. Nevertheless, in their later discursive constructions of teaching and learning, they still positioned 'good' teaching as monologic, or one-way.

DISCUSSION OF MAJOR FINDINGS OF THIS RESEARCH

The major findings that were summarised in the previous section are now discussed according to the theoretical framework of this research and the Thai context. The discussion in the first section relates to the usefulness of the sociocultural constructs of appropriation and mediation for understanding scaffolding in the process of teaching and learning. In the second section, I address the way to bridge the Thai context to the true dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle. In the third section, I discuss the actual process of change in Cindy's, the pre-service teachers' and my uptake of dialogic interaction.

The Usefulness of the Constructs of Appropriation and Mediation

for Understanding Dialogic Interaction in the Thai Teacher Education Context

In Thailand, studies have focused on the outcome of the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle for improving students' English writing ability (Chaisiri, 2010; Kongpetch, 2006; Krisanachida, 2005; Lerdpreedakorn; 2008; Srinon, 2009; Wisootruchira, 2002; Yavasope, 2002). However, the main focus in these studies was on the outcome rather than the process. This study was thus designed to add to the literature by exploring this dialogic process via the idea of scaffolding – how this is done, the reasons behind it, and the students' responses

to it. The sociocultural constructs of appropriation and mediation were a very useful frame for understanding scaffolding in this way.

The process of identity construction relates to individuals' negotiation between the new ideas gained from participating in a new social activity and existing ideas gained from their past social activity. As a result of this negotiation, individuals create their own ideas, understandings and/or practices that may be different from the original sources (Holland & Lachicotte, 2017). In this research, teachers' and students' appropriations were found to be strongly influenced by their experiences in the contexts, and these contexts mediated the construction of identity or understanding. Mediation and appropriation complement each other when they are being used to analyse teaching and learning environments because these concepts together allow a more holistic picture of how scaffolding actually takes place in the classroom. In this study, the interrelation between appropriation and mediation indicated that scaffolding is co-constructed in the sense that scaffolding can only act as scaffolding when teachers and students are able to access it and this has to do with their understandings of how teaching and learning takes place. Appropriation of new ideas and how these interact with already existing ideas is therefore an important element in the uptake of scaffolding from a sociocultural perspective.

The concepts of appropriation and mediation allowed me to see the layers of appropriation – teachers' appropriation (regarding Cindy and myself), and students' appropriation (the pre-service teachers) as they related to explicit mediation in the form of scaffolding. Teachers who can understand and use the full conceptual underpinnings of a tool (e.g., explicit mediation – dialogic interaction), and can make use of the concept suitably in situations and for solving problems (as implicit mediation) are more likely to influence the deeper degree of appropriation of students. For example, the findings of this study revealed the differences in

the degree of Cindy's and my implicit mediation. In my case, I had appropriated the idea of dialogic interaction in the Australian context but I had not actually taken this idea into account. During the course, I realised that what was implicitly mediating my experience needed to be available as explicit mediation for Cindy and the pre-service teachers. Hence, I offered this idea to my pre-service teachers in week three. It appeared that they responded positively. Therefore, it is useful to consider the constructs of appropriation alongside mediation in relation to the contextual experiences of teachers and learners, since this can help the process of change or help reveal the reason for lack of change.

Bridging the Thai Context to the Teaching and Learning Cycle

My idea of conducting this research was to introduce innovative ways of teaching using dialogic interaction and genre-based pedagogy underpinned by systemic functional linguistics in the Thai context. However, these ideas of teaching are still new and seem to be foreign in the Thai context. As discussed in Chapter One and Chapter Two, the classroom interaction in the Thai context appeared to rely on transmission of knowledge from a teacher to students (Chayanuvat, 2003; Hayes, 2008; Wiriyachitra, 2002). Teachers take the role of the source of knowledge and students take the role of recipients of that knowledge (Chayaratheee & Waugh, 2006; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006; Teng & Sinwongsuwat, 2015). Moreover, the normal ways of English language teaching in Thailand rely on decontextualized ways of teaching. However, the language teaching approach in the teaching and learning cycle focused on context, and therefore emphasised the function of language. Most descriptions of language that are normally found in English language teaching contexts form a range along a line or continuum between form-focused, which is at the left end of the continuum and function-focused, located at the right end of the continuum. There is a wide gap between the views of language in traditional and functional language teaching. I thus saw that it might be hard to bring totally new ideas – dialogic interaction and genre-based pedagogy based on systemic functional linguistics – to the teaching of language in the Thai classroom. It appeared to be impossible that the Thai

teachers and students would immediately be able to understand and change the ways they interacted in the classroom and the ways they taught and learnt language. These new concepts might be too difficult to comprehend or too foreign to fit into the Thai teachers' and Thai students' understandings. Therefore, in this research I tried to bridge or mediate the Thai context to nudge it towards working effectively with these two new ideas.

In order to bring the idea of dialogic interaction into the classroom in the Thai context, I decided to bridge the Thai context through the form of IRF. I believed that IRF could make the classrooms in the Thai context more dialogic because it allows for the traditional role of teacher in eliciting students' contribution. I found that IRF seemed to be able to help move the transmissive classroom in the Thai context toward a more dialogic classroom. This is because Thai students' epistemologies still relied on the teacher as the source of knowledge in the class. Teacher-led classes are hence still an important mediation for Thai students. The study's findings on the usefulness of IRF support the findings of other studies that explored the implementation of IRF in the Asian contexts (Butterfields & Bhatta, 2015; Lin & Lo, 2016; Ozemir, 2009; Waring, 2009). Therefore, IRF can be used to guide the Thai EFL teachers' and students' understandings towards the idea of using dialogic interaction in the classroom. Later on, when the Thai teachers and students become more familiar with dialogic interaction in classrooms, the idea of dialogic interaction with less teacher domination of the classroom talk can be used (Lemke, 1990).

I adopted the traditional language teaching approach that focused on teaching grammatical elements according to the syntactic category (nouns, verbs, adverbs, or subject, object) in the teaching and learning cycle. However, I appropriated it by integrating the traditional language teaching approach and contextualised language teaching. Feez (2002) supported this point as she pointed out that teachers can adopt the traditional ways of language teaching in modelling

and deconstructing the text but also relate the language features such as grammar to the text-type, the social purpose, and the meaning of the (mostly authentic) texts. I saw that doing this could help bridge or mediate the Thai context to shift language teaching and learning away from the decontextualised traditional language teaching, and draw it closer to the idea of systemic functional linguistics in a genre-based pedagogy.

Furthermore, most of the core business and evaluation of English subjects in the Thai context focuses on the knowledge of grammatical structures. Thus, I saw the importance of bridging the divide by using the teaching and learning cycle in addition to the normal approach to language teaching. In order to do that, the teachers can still use the traditional way of teaching English grammar. At the same time, the teacher can use model texts, and lead students to investigate the functions of the particular grammatical structures, and how they were used at the text level. When the teacher educators and the pre-service teachers become familiar with language teaching in this contextualised way, the idea of bringing in functional language analysis as conducted by Schleppegrell, Greer and Taylor (2008) and Derewianka and Jones (2012) can be introduced as the second step.

The Capacity to Accommodate PPP and IRF

Scaffoldings in this study related to two types: designed-in and point-of-need. The main designed-in scaffolding was the teaching and learning cycle, and this was aligned with PPP. The teaching and learning cycle was used as the frame for dialogic interaction, or scaffolding at the point-of-need. As shown in the research findings, the process of teaching in the teaching and learning cycle was aligned with the PPP, and IRF was adopted as a procedure supporting dialogic interaction. Applying the idea of the teaching and learning cycle to PPP, and using IRF triadic dialogue as dialogic interaction in the Thai context were found to be useful in that

they were able to help guide Thai teachers and students to a new way of English language teaching.

PPP

Traditionally, the PPP approach relates to decontextualized English language teaching that focuses on a sentence level theory of language or the teaching of language as isolated elements or chunks (Harmer, 1996; Lewis, 1996; Richards & Rogers, 2001; Willis, 1990). However, the findings of this research showed connections between PPP and the teaching and learning cycle, which is underpinned by the idea of contextualised language teaching of genre-based pedagogy. The ideas of language teaching in the teaching and learning cycle and the PPP teaching method seemed to fit well with one another. These findings supported the idea that teaching and learning English within the PPP could be more contextualised through the use of authentic texts, the focus on the functions of language in relation to text at the partial- and whole-text levels (see Harmer, 1996; Criado, 2013). Using the teaching and learning cycle in a way that links to the PPP can benefit the Thai ELT teacher because a new idea can be developed on what is already understood as appropriate in terms of teaching.

Based on the findings of this research, Cindy and I saw the ideas of building the field and modelling and deconstruction of the text to be similar to P1. However, we brought in contextualised language teaching by using texts. This idea contributed a new way of teaching in the P1 in that P1 did not need to rely on teacher explanation or lecturing about writing in a decontextualized way, but could be more contextualised through modelling of the text and deconstructing text. This idea has also been supported by Criado (2013) and Harmer (1996) as they proposed a version of the PPP that includes authentic texts as model texts for teaching language in context. I found that my students were able to see how particular language forms

and features were used at text-level, which enabled them to link this knowledge to their own writing practice (see Feez, 2002; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Moreover, this study showed the connection between joint construction of texts and the practice stage or P2 of the PPP. PPP is always regarded as a form of a transmissive teaching method. The traditional version of PPP emphasises the role of teacher as transmitter of knowledge, and the role of students as receivers of knowledge (Tomlinson, 2011). Therefore, the practice stage or P2 concerns non-interactive activities (Tomlinson, 2011). However, this study indicated that the PPP could be implemented in a more interactive manner through placing the activity of joint-construction of the text in the practice or P2 phase. This finding is consistent with Criado's (2013) idea regarding increasing students' active role in P2 by getting them to practise using the language that they learned in the P1 stage through joint-construction activities. In addition, Criado (2013) further found that the teacher can make the process of teaching and learning in the PPP less rigid. This idea appeared to be in agreement with the ideas of Hyland (2004), and Rose and Martin (2012), who suggested that the process in the teaching and learning cycle is flexible. The teacher can make a decision to move back and forth within the cycle in order to provide suitable support for students (Hyland, 2004; Rose & Martin, 2012). However, for Cindy and me, the teaching and learning cycle in this study still remained relatively inflexible, perhaps because of our familiarity with a particular form of PPP.

Furthermore, this study showed that PPP can also be implemented in a dialogic way by adopting IRF as point-of-need or micro-scaffolding. This study found the link between the PPP and IRF triadic dialogue, and the benefit of the interplay of PPP as designed-in scaffolding and IRF as point-of-need scaffolding. This point is discussed in the following subsection.

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IRF

I chose to adopt IRF as the form of dialogic interaction because it had been adopted as one questioning method in the teaching and learning cycle (Gibbons, 2006; Hammond, 2001). It provided me with clear directions for the practical pattern of dialogic interaction, and opportunities for integrating other scaffolding strategies such as turn-taking, classroom questioning, and wait time into real classroom practice. However, this previous research did not suggest that dialogic interaction should be considered in relation to IRF. As pointed out in Chapter Three, the concept of IRF still relies on the teacher dominating the classroom talk by using questions to lead students to respond rather than allowing students to present, negotiate, and elaborate ideas and knowledge in class by themselves (Lemke, 1990; Van Lier, 1996). Nevertheless, there has been some debate about whether or not IRF necessarily limits students' learning opportunities and their opportunities for contribution because within IRF teachers dominate the classroom talk through directing, eliciting, and evaluating (Cullen, 2002; Lemke, 1990; Van Lier, 1996). Although IRF triadic dialogue did not seem to offer genuine teacher–students talk and equal opportunities for teacher–student participation, I found that this kind of triadic dialogue was useful for the Thai context because it acted as a mediating bridge to Thai teaching and learning practices. Through it dialogic interaction proved accessible to both myself and my students (but less so to Cindy).

Moreover, the results of this study also point to the usefulness of the clear interaction structure of IRF. These results support the study of Edward and Westgate (1994) as discussed in Chapter Three. A clear interaction pattern can help teachers and students who are not familiar with dialogic teacher–student interaction, particularly in the Thai context or similar contexts, to understand the pattern of turn taking, and to provide a concrete role for teachers and students. It therefore can support both teachers' and students' flow of talk and their taking up of the right to maintain the floor in classroom conversation, thus creating a smooth and unembarrassed flow of teacher–student dialogue.

In order to make the teaching and learning in the teaching and learning cycle effective, the teacher and students need to engage in the process of co-construction of knowledge (Gibbons, 2009; Hammond, 2001) In this way, the teaching and learning cycle offers a space for dialogic interaction (Hammond, 2001). Just as I saw the similarity between the teaching and learning cycle and the PPP, I also saw that IRF could be adopted as point-of need scaffolding within the broader designed-in scaffolding of PPP. The implementation of IRF within the PPP appeared to benefit both the teacher and students.

Through the interplay of PPP and IRF as scaffolding, the teacher could work intentionally to support students' knowledge of language and understandings of its use. The study of Hammond (2001) is in agreement with this point as she pointed out that through the macro-level scaffolding, the teacher designed the plan for building and developing new vocabulary resources, sequencing and linking strategies, and understanding of the genre conventions. This macro scaffolding or designed-in scaffolding shaped and linked the micro scaffolding or point-of-need scaffolding, given that having a clear goal in mind with an understanding of the linguistic demands, the teacher is able to see and take opportunities for teaching and learning as well as to choose suitable assistances that could build the particular students' abilities needed to achieve the intended outcome.

By adopting IRF in the PPP, the context in which IRF occurs has its own purpose and direction. Therefore, the combination of IRF with a more traditional form of scaffolding can increase the likelihood that students will take on the new ideas, and independently apply them in other contexts. This was evident in the second interview with the pre-service teachers in my class. After the joint construction activity, the pre-service teachers in my class started to see the benefits of the co-construction of knowledge in helping them to understand language features of the information report genre. Hammond (2001) also supported this point, stating that

providing students with only designed-in scaffolding may help students to gain only surface knowledge from this kind of scaffolding. This surface knowledge is the kind of knowledge that is based on immediate application, and is quickly forgotten (Hammond, 2001). In the other words, the designed-in scaffolding may be inadequate to lead students to appropriate the new knowledge (Hammond, 2001). Students seem to need more point-of-need scaffolding from teachers to take them along a particular path in their thinking that helps them gain deep knowledge, which is the type of knowledge that is appropriated and connected to other knowledge to construct understandings of new concepts or ideas (Hammond, 2001). Through the complementary use of the two kinds of scaffolding, both pre-service teachers and teacher educators are more likely to develop in students a conscious sense of achievement and autonomy. Thus, based on the finding of the change in the PSTs of my class and the related literature as presented earlier, I saw that the use of IRF triadic dialogue can potentially lead to the change in Thai teachers' and students' epistemological perspectives so that they can adopt more co-constructive understandings and practices of knowledge building.

Explicit Explanation for Engaging Thai Students in Active Classroom Participation

Nevertheless, providing designed-in scaffolding such as interactive classroom activities/tasks in the teaching and learning cycle, and point-of-need scaffolding in the form of IRF triadic dialogue seemed to be inadequate to mediate students' adoption of dialogic interaction in this study. However, teachers should adopt a variety of strategies to clarify students' understanding and inform their ways of practice (see Hammond, 2001) such as providing explicit explanations. This idea was influenced by the notion of dynamic assessment (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Rivera et al., 1999). Based on this notion, teachers have an important role as responsive assistants who observe students' current level of understanding in order to adjust and choose the most suitable assistances for students in order to help them to achieve the goal of learning (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Rivera et al., 1999). For example, in this research context, the pre-service teachers did not have any experience of how teacher–student dialogic interaction works,

and it would have helped to provide at the beginning of the course additional assistance or instruction regarding the new way of classroom participation. When the students were engaging in dialogic interaction with their teachers, they started to develop metacognitive awareness of the learning functions of talk as co-construction of knowledge and an appreciation or consolidation of its potential value as a tool to gain knowledge, as shown in Chapter Eight.

Moreover, this study also implied the important role of teachers in instructing, guiding, and encouraging student–student dialogic interaction in order to lead them to understand the value of group discussion/talk because this kind of student–student interaction is not a common feature of group interaction in the Thai context. The findings revealed that setting students in interactive activities or joint tasks did not mean that they would collaboratively work or discuss as groups. Rather, the students merely sat together, working in parallel, and talked to each other about their individual work. These findings indicated something important about the nature of students' group-work practice in the Thai context. Without the explicit instruction of how to be dialogic in the classroom, the students could not successfully implement dialogic interaction in groups. They did not know and understand what was required, and what would constitute good, effective discussion. They might not have been able to see group discussion activities as an important component of the lessons, and therefore they did not value it. This finding means that students in such settings need to be taught about dialogic interaction in groups within the scope of the curriculum subject and then to be encouraged to apply the knowledge as a way to show them the functions of dialogic discussion/talk as a tool for learning so they can appreciate it. This way forward would require promoting student–student dialogic interaction as a way of learning in the classroom at the level of teachers' practice, and this would need to be inscribed in the policies of educational institution.

Furthermore, this study also showed that the way the teacher (myself) discussed matters with students influenced how they understood dialogic interaction, and how it could be implemented in their group work. For example, a group of the students in my class adopted the way I used questions in the whole-class interaction. As the findings showed, the use of explicit instruction regarding the concept of dialogic interaction, and ways to engage in dialogic interaction was able to help students appropriate the idea of dialogic interaction and improve their participation in both whole-class and group work activities. This means that the manner of teacher–student interaction can influence how students engage in student–student dialogic interaction.

This process of change of the pre-service teachers' uptake of learning appeared to be in agreement with the transformation of explicit mediation into implicit mediation (Leontiev, 1981). Identity development or transformation starts from the stage where individuals are not yet capable of using the available tools provided in a new social interaction. Therefore, external tools are used when individuals overwhelmingly rely on the available external mediation. If dialogic interaction is considered in this way, the actual scaffolding tool may itself be in need of external mediation.

The Actual Process of Change in the Classroom

As pointed out earlier in this chapter, the ways that Cindy, the pre-service teachers, and I engaged in the writing course were context-sensitive. The context in terms of past learning and teaching experiences influenced our teaching and learning identities. Moreover, I found the connection between Cindy's, the pre-service teachers' and my past and current teaching and learning experiences. These experiences impacted our subsequent uptake of teaching in the teaching and learning cycle.

The findings revealed that a process of change towards more dialogic forms of interaction may take time in the Thai context. If a teacher, such as Cindy, has no positive experience in learning with this kind of interaction, and has role models who are admired because of their ability to explain (rather than facilitate), it may be difficult to continue with the approach in the face of student resistance. My positive learning experience with dialogic interaction in the Australian context and my investment in collecting data for this research led me to resist the students' resistance, and attempt to explain to them what this new way of interaction entailed.

The pre-service teachers' non-responsiveness in the classroom appeared to be occurring as a result of their lack of experience in studying in active or dialogic classrooms. Therefore, they also seemed to lack understanding of both what they were supposed to do in dialogic interaction and why the dialogic interaction was beneficial. Without guidance from the teachers in terms of an explanation of the conceptual knowledge and samples of the ways dialogic interaction could be practised, it seemed to be hard for the pre-service teachers to appropriate this new idea of interaction. These findings were in agreement with the contentions of Mercer and Howe (2012), who pointed out that teachers often assume that students will know exactly what to do when a teacher asks them to discuss a topic or talk and work together to carry out talk. Students are left to somehow work out what is required and what constitutes good, effective discussion but they rarely succeed in doing so. Therefore, students need to be taught about the function and value of talk for learning. Hand and Gresalfi (2015) and Calabrese-Barton et al. (2013) also asserted that teachers' practices that involve providing clear and particular arrangements of interpersonal and information resources can increase students' engagement with an activity in terms of what students come to learn and how they come to see themselves in relation to the activity.

POSSIBLE LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

AND DIRECTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Possible limitations of the research are also acknowledged. In this section, I discuss the limitation of this research and then provide suggestions for further research that could arise out of the limitations.

Limitations of the Research

The first limitation relates to the length of time over which the study was conducted. The second limitation concerns generalisation, and the third limitation of this research relates to the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle.

The first limitation that was found in this study relates to the short period of fieldwork time. Due to the limited time of my PhD course and funding, I designed a period of only seven weeks to collect the data. With only seven weeks of observations in each class, the findings may not capture an entire important process of change of the teaching/learning identities. The data collection period may not have been sufficient for all participants to develop apparent changes in their identities. For instance, after engaging in the teaching and learning cycle for two to three weeks, the change in teachers' uptake of teaching and in the pre-service teachers' uptake of learning in the class was beginning to become clear in week five of the seven-week course. This means that only the beginning of change was captured. In order to capture the important changes of identities or effective uptake of teaching and learning, spending a considerably longer time in fieldwork could be useful, and is likely to bring about richer research results.

The second limitation of this research concerns generalisation. While some of the findings of this research supported the generalisability of the findings of other studies. I am cautious in

making claims about the generalisability of my findings to other classrooms. My objective was to explore, describe, and interpret the intricate interconnectedness of mediation and appropriation that influence (lack of) change of identity, or the uptake of different ways of teaching and learning in the teaching and learning cycle. The participants of my study included only two Thai teacher educators, and twelve Thai pre-service teachers who taught and learned in a teacher education course in Thailand. Due to the relatively small number of research participants and the study having a specifically situated context, the study did not aim at revealing the ways the teachers' and students' identities could be seen as general characteristics in Thailand. It also did not aim at making specific recommendations for generalisations about the exploration of teacher and student identities in other contexts with different sociocultural backgrounds. Lincoln and Guba (1989) suggested that qualitative researchers only provide the details and descriptions needed for other research to make a transfer of the information gained from a certain context. It is the responsibility of the reader to transfer, with caution, the findings gathered from one study and apply them to a similar situation or group.

The third limitation of this research relates to the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle in this research. As pointed out in Chapter Four, I used the teaching and learning cycle as a way to encourage and investigate teacher–student and student–student dialogic interaction. I was able to explore the process of change in teacher and student identity, which I understood both as emerging through participation in particular practices and as discursively constructed. Therefore, this research did not aim at promoting the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle in classroom but at examining the processes of change when implementing dialogic interaction in the Thai teacher education classroom. I believe that this study can powerfully promote reflective practice and improve the understanding of what actually happens in the classroom.

This study points to the importance of understanding the process of change in identity or the uptake of different ways of teaching and learning. Future research directions include use of dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle in further research, and broader development of the teaching approach. Even though the reader may use his/her own decisions to determine how further research can be developed from this study, I offer some directions for future research that developed from the present study.

As the findings showed, change of identity is a slow process, and more longitudinal studies are needed in order to gain an in-depth understanding and/or a more holistic picture of the process. Future research could implement the teaching and learning cycle with dialogic interaction in all of the English language writing classes in the EFL teacher education course. Then the researcher could investigate in a longitudinal way how dialogic interaction is introduced and implemented in a teacher education course by following the pre-service teachers from the beginning stage of their engagement in the dialogic interaction in the first year of the teacher education program until the last year of the program. In doing this, the researcher could investigate the (pre-existing) understandings of teaching and learning that they bring with them, and the process of change (if any) in their identities and uptake of learning as a result of engaging in dialogic interaction in different stages of their studies. According to the sociocultural perspective, the information and tools applied in social activities become the means for development in the complex volitional behaviour of individuals (Holland & Lachicotte, 2017). Further research might also investigate the pre-service teachers' uptake of teaching English language writing during their practicum placement in order to see the connection between change in their identities and their uptake of teaching practices. In doing such a longitudinal study, the researcher could observe how teacher identity develops over time as the pre-service teachers move into their teaching careers.

Further research could also focus on the possible influence of student–student dialogic interaction on students' appropriation of their learning in groups. As the results of this research showed, the teacher–student interaction influenced the ways that both teacher and students appropriated their teaching and learning in the class. For example, teachers responded to students' resistance and both the response and the resistance were developed based on their past experiences with teaching and learning. Thus, teaching and learning was not unidirectional. This non-unidirectional feature also indicates that there may be the influence of student–student interaction on students' or pre-service teachers' uptake of their engagement in group work. For example, students (pre-service teachers) responded to their peers' resistance of dialogic interaction in group discussion. Possible research could include a process-oriented investigation focussed particularly on student–student dialogic interaction which is important for learning identity change. The possible questions may be: 'After the introduction of pre-service dialogic interaction for group work, how do pre-service English teachers understand or engage in group discussion? How do they discursively construct themselves as learners before and after the classes? and To what extent (if any), does the student–student dialogic interaction help promote the learning of the students involved? This perspective in the process of identity construction in classroom, I would suggest, requires further analysis and research because the findings may promote and facilitate the implementation of peer discussion in formal education in the Thai context.

Finally, the focus of this study did not show how classroom dialogic interactions might shape the development of English language writing skill or underpin effective learning of English language writing. Therefore, the inclusion of the interconnections of students' identity, classroom participation, and the development of English writing outcomes in a pre-service teachers' English writing class may be a way of expanding research in the area of the process of teachers' identity construction. For example, the possible research may focus on the analysis of the implementation of dialogic interaction for stimulating change of identity or uptake of

learning of Thai pre-service teachers, and the development of their English writing outcomes. As the findings of this research showed, the pre-service teachers realised the benefits of the co-construction of knowledge between the teacher and students. This realisation impacted their participation and increased their active engagement or participation. Based on studies conducted by Theberge (1994) and Tatar (2005), it was found that active participation of students in the classroom is important for the purpose of achieving effective learning and plays an essential role in the success of education. These findings seem to indicate potential areas for further research into the relationship between students' learning identity and their learning achievement. Bringing these ideas together, the change of learning identity or uptake of a more active learning, and the development of writing skill as a learning outcome could be developed. The examination of this interconnection would increase the complexity of the study, but would also be useful in getting a holistic view of the process of learning in the classroom.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY

The findings of this study provided a framework for understanding the process of change in identities or uptake of particular teaching and learning practices through the constructs of mediation and appropriation. The research also showed the findings regarding the relationship between learning experiences and understandings of teaching and learning that influence the construction of teacher identities. These findings may be considered significant for both theory and practice in the area of teacher education. Therefore, I divide this section into two subsections. In the first subsection, I address the implications at a theoretical level, and in the second, I will provide the practical implications.

Theoretical Implications

The first implication relates to the usefulness of the constructs of appropriation and mediation in the process of change. Since this study's purpose was achieved through the development of its theoretical framework of identity construction using sociocultural theory perspectives, the framework was able to provide a map for changing identity or uptake of teaching and learning. This study pointed out the usefulness of thinking about dialogic interaction in relation to the process of change, as guided by the constructs of appropriation and external-internal mediation. This means that if scaffolding is understood as external mediation, there would have to be taken-for-granted internal mediation on the part of the teacher that needs to be made explicit to students in order for students to appropriate new ways of learning. This study drew attention to how scaffolding itself needs to be scaffolded and the time that may be required for this.

The second theoretical implication relates to the limited use of dialogic interaction in the teaching and learning cycle. This study worked with the relationship between the teaching and learning cycle and dialogic interaction. However, the implementation of the teaching and learning cycle may not always bring about dialogic interaction in classroom, if the teacher does not understand how to facilitate dialogic interaction. This is evident in the findings of this research. For instance, Cindy implemented the teaching and learning cycle. She expressed in the interview that this teaching approach is very useful and applicable in teaching and learning. However, I found that there was a difference between what she knew and understood about the teaching and learning cycle, and how she implemented it in the classrooms. She seemed to skip the most important part in the cycle, such as co-construction of knowledge through transferring the main role to students or increasing students' responsibility in the joint construction activity and reducing her role to teacher acting as scribe and guide. The theoretical implication of this research finding is that teachers' lack of understanding of dialogic interaction possibly impedes the interpretation of the teaching and learning cycle.

Third, there is an implication relating to IRF triadic dialogue that this might limit students' view about dialogic interaction. As this study showed, there is a relationship between IRF and dialogic interaction. As discussed earlier, IRF appeared to be useful for the context of study because it allows the teacher to lead the discussion or stimulate students' active engagement. The findings of this study also implied the importance of making dialogic interaction explicit for the students. However, explicitly teaching or explaining the idea of dialogic interaction to students might confine students' understanding of this kind of interaction to IRF alone. This is evident in the findings of this research. I provided the pre-service teachers in my class with an explicit explanation of IRF as a form of dialogic interaction, and gave them an example. Moreover, during the classroom hours, I adhered to the sequence of IRF in order to create dialogic interaction between teacher and students in my class. These actions influenced how the pre-service teachers in my class constructed their understanding of dialogic interaction. For example, the findings in Interview Two revealed that some of the pre-service teachers in my class connected their understanding of dialogic interaction to what I had explicitly explained to them about IRF and their experiences in participating in IRF with me in the class. As a result, they imitated the way I initiated the discussion in the I turn, and followed-up response in the F turn of IRF because they understood that this action was the right way to achieve dialogic interaction in the discussion activity. It is, of course one way, but not the only way.

Practical Implications

On a practical level, first, this research showed that changing identity or the uptake of teaching and learning takes time. This is because teaching identity has been shaped over a long period of time. Past learning experiences appear to exert a strong influence on the way that teacher educators and pre-service teachers construct their understandings or identities regarding teaching and learning. Therefore, positive learning experiences appear to have a crucial role in the process of teachers' identity construction. Both teacher educators and pre-service teachers may need positive learning experiences with dialogic interaction before they start to see

teaching and learning in a different way. Otherwise, they may quickly revert to monologic practices or resist, which acts as a passive kind of coercion for the teacher educator encouraging him/her to revert to traditional teaching behaviours.

Second, the aspect of identity as pointed out above has significant implications for the teaching practice in education programs. The objectives of teacher education programs could focus on building positive learning experiences for the pre-service teachers. To do this, the programs may reconsider the implementation of pedagogical approaches that promote dialogic interaction in classroom to teach the pre-service teachers in this manner from the beginning to the latter of their teacher education programs. In this longer process, the pre-service teachers can develop their experiences of learning through dialogic interaction in their early years of teacher education. Then, these learning experiences would be reinforced during the time that they are learning pedagogical approaches in the teacher education program. In doing that, pre-service teachers can develop their experience of learning in the dialogic teaching and learning approach from the early years of their teacher education, which may influence them to gradually develop their teacher identities regarding dialogic teaching and learning. However, this attempt may be challenging in the Thai context as this study indicated that the teacher educator who lacked the experience with and understanding of dialogic teaching and learning seemed unable to successfully provide scaffolding for the process of learning based on the idea of dialogic interaction. Therefore, the idea of slowly bridging the Thai teacher educator and pre-service teachers as discussed earlier in this chapter represents an important process.

Third, this study also provides a practical implication for using the PPP to bridge the traditional ways of teaching and learning using dialogic teaching and learning. As the study revealed, the traditional ways of Thai traditional teaching and learning such as monologic teaching in the PPP had a powerful impact on the way that Thai teachers and students interpreted, and took up

dialogic teaching and learning. Consequently, they did not appropriate the new way, or did not appropriate it to its fullest effect because dialogic teaching and learning, which is regarded as an innovative teaching approach in the Thai context, was seen as too foreign and inconsistent with the teachers' and students' views of teaching and learning. Therefore, in order to help the teacher and students appropriate the new idea, the PPP, which is a familiar teaching approach and constitutes pre-existing knowledge, can be used to guide their understanding or create new knowledge about dialogic interaction. In other words, the PPP can be used as scaffolding or explicit mediation in the process of change to help the teachers, and students to appropriate a new way of teaching. This can be done by integrating dialogic teacher–student interaction in each stage of the PPP.

CONCLUSION

The contribution that I have made by doing this research is to make transparent the process of bringing in a new type of teaching approach in the Thai context. I attempted to show the reality of the process by providing critical reflection. I explored and reported how the teaching and learning cycle was introduced and taken up by the Thai teacher educators and pre-service teachers. This research has shown that introducing a new way of teaching and learning, which is different from the existing ideas or understanding of teaching and learning of Thai teachers and students, could be a slow process, and it is perhaps unfair to expect Thai teachers and students to suddenly change their teaching and learning. This is because the uptake of the teaching approach is context-sensitive. Pre-existing understandings of the way of teaching and learning 'should' be done appeared to have strongly influenced how the new ideas of teaching and learning were appropriated. In this research, I have shown how the approach of the two teacher educators who had similar formative experiences with English language learning varied as a result of the depth of their experiences with a different kind of learning approach.

However, even though a teacher educator can be exposed to different teaching approaches as an adult (in a different setting), returning to the traditional context and implementing changes can require a lot of thought around bridging, both for teacher educators and pre-service teachers.

I realised that in reality it is very difficult to bring a system or approach of teaching and learning that has been designed in another context or setting into Thai classrooms, or at least it is difficult to implement it in the same way as it is suggested in the books. This is because the identity regarding teaching and learning is constructed based on past experiences and it is hard to suddenly change. Therefore, I saw that it is necessary to slowly bridge or mediate the experiences of both the teachers including myself and the students so they can move towards appropriating the new idea of teaching and learning in the teaching and learning cycle. This study has shown how context responsive mediation of teaching and learning experiences drawing on the idea of dialogic interaction and systemic functional linguistics in the teaching and learning cycle informed change in English language teaching and learning of pre-service teachers in Thailand. I believe that the focus of making visible the process of introducing and implementing the teaching and learning cycle with the idea of dialogic interaction and systemic functional linguistics can inform the organisation and planning of successful ways to improve and change the English language education system in the Thai context.

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APPENDIXES

Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee

MONASH University

Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Research Office

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

This is to certify that the project below was considered by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Committee was satisfied that the proposal meets the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* and has granted approval.

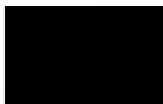|	
Project Number:	CF15/4205 - 2015001780
Project Title:	Engagement and Identity Negotiation in Dialogic Teaching and Learning in Thai English Language Teacher Education
Chief Investigator:	Dr Marianne Turner
Approved:	From: 15 December 2015 To: 15 December 2020

Terms of approval - *Failure to comply with the terms below is in breach of your approval and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.*

1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, <u>if relevant</u>, before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation.
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must include your project number.
6. **Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel):** Require the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. **Future correspondence:** Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. **Annual reports:** Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. **Final report:** A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. **Monitoring:** Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. **Retention and storage of data:** The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Nip Thomson
Chair, MUHREC

cc: Ms Pintipa Seubsang

Explanatory Statement and Consent Form for Pre-service Teachers

MONASH University

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

Project Title: *Engagement and Identity Negotiation in Dialogic Teaching and Learning in Thai English Language Teacher Education*

Project Number:

Chief Investigator's name: Marianne Turner
Department of Education, Monash University
Phone: -
email:

Student's name: Pintipa Seubsang
Phone:
email:

You are invited to take part in this study. Please read this Explanatory Statement in full before deciding whether or not to participate in this research. If you would like further information regarding any aspect of this project, you are encouraged to contact the researchers via the phone numbers or email addresses listed above.

Why were you chosen for this research?

You were chosen for this research because you are studying in English as foreign language Teacher Education and you enrolled in an English Language Writing course.

The aim/purpose of the research

This research proposes to implement a text-based approach to scaffolding the teaching of written English language in the Thai context of English language teaching and learning. This study then aims to obtain information about the beliefs of Thai English language lecturers and Thai pre-service English teachers on the teaching and learning of written English language.

Possible benefits

The research has the potential to explore ways that teaching and learning English language can be scaffolded the Thai context. There are no direct benefits for people who take part in the study.

What does the research involve?

Your participation in class will be video recorded. You may also be invited to participate in an audio recorded interview in the first and fifth week of the course.

1 of 3

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MONASH University

How much time will the research take?

The observation will take 5 weeks of the course but will occur during class time. The two interviews will take approximately 20 minutes each at the first week and the fifth week of the course. The interview will take place at your convenience.

Inconvenience/discomfort

There is no foreseeable risk of harm or side-effects.

Payment

No payment will be made for participation in this study.

You can withdraw from the research

Your participation in the interviews and observations of this study is completely voluntary. There are no penalties for refusing to participate. No course privileges will be denied if you decline to participate. Also, the participation in this study will not affect your overall grades. If you agree to participate in the study, you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits. If you participate in the interview, you may withdraw from this aspect of the study prior to giving your final consent to the interview transcript. If you withdraw from the observation of the study, your footage will not be used or looked.

Confidentiality

Your answers and records will be kept strictly confidential. Your names will be known to the researcher only. However, confidentiality will be ensured in any publications through the use of pseudonyms and the avoidance of any identifying characteristics.

Storage of data

Data collected will be stored in accordance with Monash University regulations, kept on University premises, in a locked filing cabinet for 5 years. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Use of data for other purposes

Data will only be used for this study.

Results

If you would like to be informed of the aggregate research finding, please contact **Pintipa Seubsang** on email: **pseu1@student.monash.edu**

Complaints
Should you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of the project, you are welcome to contact the Executive Officer, Monash University Human Research Ethics (MUHREC):

Executive Officer
Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Room 111, Building 3e

Research Office
Monash University VIC 3800

Tel: ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮
Email: ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮
Fax: ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮

Thank you.

Marianne Turner

CONSENT FORM

Pre-service teachers

Title: *Engagement and Identity Negotiation in Dialogic Teaching and Learning in Thai English Language Teacher Education*

> **Note: This consent form will remain with the Monash University researcher for their records.**

I, (please print)_____understand I have been asked to take part in the Monash University research project specified above. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the Explanatory Statement, which I keep for my records.

I consent to the following:	Yes	No
1. Being interviewed twice by the researcher, should I be invited.	☐	☐
2. Being observed in the English writing classroom over a 5-week period by the researcher	☐	☐
4. Having the interviews audio-recorded.	☐	☐
5. Having the observation video-recorded.	☐	☐

Please write your email address below if you have consented to being interviewed:

_____

and

I understand that my participation in the interviews and observation is voluntary, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can withdraw at any stage of the project without reason or penalty or disadvantaged in any way.

and

I understand that the participation in this study will not affect to my overall grades.

and

I understand that any data that the researcher extracts from the observations and interviews for using in reports or published findings will not, under any circumstances, contain names or identifying characteristics without my signed consent below.

and

If I participate in the interview, I understand that I will be given an audio record or a transcript of the data concerning me for my approval before it is included in the write up of the research.

and

If I participate in the observation, I understand that I will be video recorded over 5 week period

and/or

I understand that I may ask at any time/prior to publication and prior to my giving final consent on the transcript for my data to be withdrawn from the project

and/or

I understand that no information I have provided that could lead to the identification of any other individual will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party

and

I understand that data from the observations and interview will be kept in secure storage and accessible to the researcher. I also understand that the data will be destroyed after a 5 year period unless I consent to it being used in future research.

and

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I do/do (circle one) not give permission to be identified by a pseudonym in any reports or publications from the project.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

MONASH University

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

Lecturers

Project Title: *Engagement and Identity Negotiation in Dialogic Teaching and Learning in Thai English Language Teacher Education*

Project Number:

Chief Investigator's name: Marianne Turner
Department of Education, Monash University
Phone:
email:

Student's name: Pintipa Seubsang
Phone:
email:

You are invited to take part in this study. Please read this Explanatory Statement in full before deciding whether or not to participate in this research. If you would like further information regarding any aspect of this project, you are encouraged to contact the researchers via the phone numbers or email addresses listed above.

Why were you chosen for this research?

You were chosen for this research because you are teaching English language writing for pre-service English teachers.

The aim/purpose of the research

This research proposes to implement a text-based approach to scaffolding the teaching of written English language in the Thai context of English language teaching and learning. This study then aims to obtain information about the beliefs of Thai English language lecturers and Thai pre-service English teachers on the teaching and learning of written English language.

Possible benefits

The research has the potential to explore ways that teaching and learning English language can be scaffolded the Thai context. There are no direct benefits for people who take part in the study.

What does the research involve?

Your participation will consist of two audio recorded interviews. You will be asked about teaching and learning written English. Your interviews will take place at your convenience. The study also involves classroom observations and video recording.

How much time will the research take?

The observations will occur during class time, so they will take no extra time. All lesson plans for the 5-week text-based intervention will be prepared (and explained) by the researcher. The observations will take place during the class. The interviews will take approximately 20 minutes in the first and fifth week of the course.

Inconvenience/discomfort

There is no foreseeable risk of harm or side-effects.

Payment

No payment will be made for participation in this study.

You can withdraw from the research

The participation in the interviews and observations of this study is completely voluntary. There are no penalties for refusing to participate. No course privileges will be denied if you decline to participate. Also, the participation in this study will not be evaluated. If you agree to participate in the study, you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits. If you participate in the interview, you may withdraw from this aspect of the study prior to giving your final consent to the interview transcript. If you withdraw from the observation of the study, your footage will not be used or looked.

Confidentiality

Your answers and records will be kept strictly confidential. Your names will be known to the researcher only. However, confidentiality will be ensured in any publications through the use of pseudonyms and the avoidance of any identifying characteristics.

Storage of data

Data collected will be stored in accordance with Monash University regulations, kept on University premises, in a locked filing cabinet for 5 years. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Use of data for other purposes

Data will only be used for this study.

Results

If you would like to be informed of the aggregate research finding, please contact **Pintipa Seubsang** on email: **pseu1@student.monash.edu**

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Should you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of the project, you are welcome to contact the Executive Officer, Monash University Human Research Ethics (MUHREC):

MONASH University

Executive Officer
Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Room 111, Building 3e
Research Office
Monash University VIC 3800

Tel:
Email:
Fax:

Thank you.

Marianne Turner

CONSENT FORM
Lecturers

Title: *Engagement and Identity Negotiation in Dialogic Teaching and Learning in Thai English Language Teacher Education*

Note: This consent form will remain with the Monash University researcher for their records.

I, (please print)_____understand I have been asked to take part in the Monash University research project specified above. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the Explanatory Statement, which I keep for my records.

I consent to the following:	Yes	No
1. Teaching the 5-week intervention proposed by the researcher.	☐	☐
2. Being interviewed twice by the researcher.	☐	☐
3. Having my classes observed.	☐	☐
4. Having the interviews audio-recorded.	☐	☐
5. Having the classroom observation video-recorded.	☐	☐

and
I understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can withdraw at any stage of the project without reason or penalty or disadvantaged in any way.
and
I understand that any data that the researcher extracts from the observations and interviews for using in reports or published findings will not, under any circumstances, contain names or identifying characteristics without my signed consent below.
and
If I participate in the interview, I understand that I will be given an audio record or a transcript of the data concerning me for my approval before it is included in the write up of the research.
and
If I participate in the observation, I understand that I will be video recorded over 5 week period
and/or
I understand that I may ask at any time/prior to publication and prior to my giving final consent on the transcript for my data to be withdrawn from the project
and/or
I understand that no information I have provided that could lead to the identification of any other individual will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party
and
I understand that data from the observations and interview will be kept in secure storage and accessible to the researcher. I also understand that the data will be destroyed after a 5 year period unless I consent to it being used in future research.
and
I do/do (circle one) not give permission to be identified by a pseudonym in any reports or publications from the project.

Signature: _____

Interview Questions for Pre-service Teachers

Interview Questions for Pre-service Teachers

(6 PSTs)

Pre-instructional Interview

1. How long have you studied English?
2. Have you been to an English-speaking country? If so, for how long and did you study there? Have you lived/ studied in any other countries? For how long?
3. Think about three English language teachers you've had during your years of studying English. What do you think they did well? What do you think they could have improved? (If participants don't mention teachers at a particular level, prompt them to talk about it - ie What about English language teachers at university? At primary school?)
4. How do you think English language writing should be taught?
5. Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language teacher (in your opinion)?
6. Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language student (in your opinion)?

Post-instructional Interview

1. Think about three English language teachers you've had during your years of studying English. What do you think they did well? What do you think they could have improved? (If participants don't mention teachers at a particular level, prompt them to talk about it - ie What about English language teachers at university? At primary school?)
2. How do you think English language writing should be taught?
3. Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language teacher (in your opinion)
4. Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language student (in your opinion)?

* The post-intervention interview questions will repeat questions 3,4,5,6 from the pre-instruction interview and will use types of participant engagement during classroom observations as prompts for further discussion (ie I noticed that you...in class. Can you tell me about that?). In the lecturer interview, the lecturer and the researcher will ask each other (and subsequently answer) the same questions.

Interview questions for the lecturers

Pre-instructional Interview
1. How long have you taught English?
2. Have you been to an English-speaking country? If so, for how long and did you study or teach there? Have you lived/ studied in any other countries? For how long?
3. Think about three English language teachers you've had during your years of teaching English. What do you think they did well? What do you think they could have improved?
4. How do you think English language writing should be taught?
5. Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language teacher (in your opinion)?
6. Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language student (in your opinion)?

Post-instructional Interview

1. Think about three English language teachers you've had during your years of teaching English. What do you think they did well? What do you think they could have improved?
2. How do you think English language writing should be taught?
3. Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language teacher (in your opinion)?
4. Can you summarise the characteristics of a good English language student (in your opinion)?

* The post-intervention interview questions will repeat questions 3,4,5,6 from the pre-instruction interview and will use types of participant engagement during classroom observations as prompts for further discussion (ie I noticed that you...in class. Can you tell me about that?). In the lecturer interview, the lecturer and the researcher will ask each other (and subsequently answer) the same questions.

APPENDIX D

Observation Protocol (Field Note)

Part 1 Pre-observation General Information

Lecturer:	Class:
Date:	Time:

Observer:
Unit:
Purpose(s):
Expected outcome(s):
Material used: *(textbook, handouts, worksheets, overheads, audio, video, pictures, realia, etc.):*

Part 2 Classroom Activity 1

Location:

Purpose(s) of activity:

Type of activity:

☐ Same individual task *(lecturer, discussion, independent seat work, cooperative groups, partners, worksheet)*
group discussion

☐ Multi project (with teacher assistance)

Brief Description of Activity:

Product of Activity:

Part 3 Performance

PART 4: OBSERVATION FOCUS: OVERALL CLASSROOM INTERACTION

most learners off task ————————	most learners on task
learners interact with each other around non-academic or procedural issues ————————	learners interact with each other around content issues
learners are hesitant to enter into the discussion/activity ————————	learners actively and enthusiastically participate in the discussion/activity
teacher as source of knowledge ————————	facilitator
questions/comments/ seek memory/ facts ————————	questions/ comments/ seek comprehension/ opinion
teacher talks ————————	learners talk
teacher provides reasoning ————————	teacher helps learners reason through thinking process
learners determine facts to answer questions ————————	learners collect and manipulate information in order to answer questions
closed questions ————————	Open-ended questions
teacher seeks facts ————————	teacher seeks learners understanding
learners do not use evidence to support claims ————————	learners use evidence to support claims
learners talk only to teacher ————————	learners talk to one another

An Example of the Extract in Original Thai Version with English Subtitle

01	Pin:	[Thj] มาเริ่มกันเลยดีกว่า นักศึกษาลองดูที่ย่อหน้าแรกกันค่ะ ย่อหน้าแรกของบทความนี้คือ introduction ไหนบอกอาจารย์หน่อยค่ะว่าหน้าที่ของบทนำคืออะไร
		[Eng] Now, have a look at the first paragraph. It is the introduction of the text. Can you tell me, what the function of introduction is?
02	PSTs:	[Silent]
03	Pin:	[Thj] ใครบอกอาจารย์หน่อยค่ะว่าหน้าที่ของบทนำคืออะไร
		[Eng] Can you tell me what function of introduction is?
04	A PST:	[Thj] บอกเราเกี่ยวกับผู้เขียนต้องการนำเสนอเกี่ยวกับอะไร
		[Eng] It tells us about the topics that the writer is going to write about.
05	Pin:	[Thj] ดีมากค่ะ บทนำประกอบด้วย 2 ส่วน นั่นก็คือ ส่วนที่ใช้ดึงดูดความสนใจผู้อ่าน ที่เป็นข้อมูลบทนำทั่วไปเกี่ยวกับเนื้อเรื่อง และส่วนที่ 2 คือ ส่วนของ ใจความหลัก หรือส่วนที่พูดถึงเนื้อหาเฉพาะเจาะจง คราวนี้บอกอาจารย์หน่อยค่ะว่าประโยคไหนเป็นใจความหลักของบทความนี้
		[Eng] Well done. The introduction consists of two parts, a few general statements to attract the reader's attention and a thesis statement. Now can anyone tell me which sentence is the main idea of the text?
06	A PST:	[Thj] บรรทัดที่ 3 ค่ะ
		[Eng] It is in line 3.
07	Pin:	[Thj] ประโยคนี้ดูแล้วใกล้เคียงกับ main idea แต่ว่ามันยัง ไม่ชี้เฉพาะเจาะจงพอ
		[Eng] This is very close to the main idea of the text but it is not specific enough.
08	A PST:	[Thj] แล้วบรรทัดที่ 4 หล่ะคะ
		[Eng] What about this one in line 4?
09	Pin:	[Thj] ถูกต้องค่ะ ใจความหลักของบทความนี้คือ 'there are five steps of ...' คราวนี้มาดูที่ย่อหน้านี้ มีใครเห็น specialized language ที่เอาไว้ใช้กับ information report ไหมคะ
		[Eng] That's right. The main idea of the text is 'there are five steps of ...' Let's look at this paragraph, do you see any specialized language features that are used in the information report?
10	PSTs:	[silent]
11	Pin:	[Thj] แปค ลองตอบอาจารย์หน่อยค่ะ
		[Eng] Pad, do you want to give it a try?
12	Pad:	[Thj] ไม่มี personal pronoun รึเปล่าคะ
		[Eng] No personal pronoun?
14	Sib-ed:	[Thj] ถึงนักเรียน รึเปล่าคะ
		[Eng] The student?

COURSE SYLLABUS
(Adapted from Feez, 2002, p. 136-139)

Topic	Week	Units of Work	(Alternative) Activities
Writing Information Report Text	1	1. Talking and discussing about English Language teaching techniques and possible innovations 2. Reading for comprehension about techniques for enhancing learners' English language competency 3. Exploring information report text	*Building* the context activities (developing knowledge of the topic/content focus): 1. Focusing on the information or content of the text that the learners will eventually write as an approach to prepare learners for potential linguistic, cultural, or conceptual difficulties and to activate learners' prior knowledge and understandings e.g. the activity begins with small group or pair-share activity that foster learners to talk about their experience relating to English teaching techniques in their own experience. 2. Providing learners with an informative text relating to the topic they will write about as a way to develop their knowledge about the topic and encouraging the learners to skim and scan reading activity in a small group or pair. The teacher encouraging learners to discuss what they read and agree, then share with the class, and teacher writes up learners' idea about fact from the text in the note form on the whiteboard. Learners work in a group or pair and then share the results with the whole

				class through semantic map or graphic organiser about the learners' known fact about the topic.
				3. As learners working with a text as a small group or pair work, revealing the social purpose of the text: such as using margin questions and identifying paragraph parts eg a topic sentence that presents the **main idea** of the paragraph, a number of sentences that support or add to the main idea, a final sentence that often points forward to the content of the next paragraph (learners identify the part of the paragraph, perhaps using different colour pens to mark each part)
				4. Introducing learners to register of the text as an approach to establishing roles that learner need to develop to function fully as critical readers by beginning with questioning the text in terms of: **3.1 Field building:** knowledge and vocabulary associate with the topic of the text eg. focusing on the patterns of language and on their meanings within the text (scaffolding a detailed reading helps showing learners to understand how meaning relates to the language of the text), identifying a sentence, making sure learners know its position in the text, paraphrasing the meaning using language the learners will understand, asking learners to locate and read the words in the text that represent the meaning of the paraphase

			and then underline them, elaborating on the meaning of the wording with accepting, affirming, and expanding on learners' responses, discussing any significant phases or words (how certain language create certain effects of how it affects the reader). **3.2 Establishing tenor:** representing/discussing the roles and relationship between reader and writer in terms of power including knowledge and expertise and contact and emotional charge (eg why has this text been written who is the reader for whom this text is intended, Whose perspective is represented in this text?, What is not talked about in this text?) **3.3 Establishing mode:** representing/discussing distance between reader and writer in term of time and space between the social activity and the language e.g. considering the channel of communication for this text type (why does the writer choose this language features to communicate with the reader?, What other ways are there to write about this topic?)
	2	1. Presenting texts 2. Talking about language features	*Modelling/deconstructing the text activity:* 1. answering the before-reading questions (e.g. what do you expect to find out in this text? how do you know what the text is about?) and prediction activities (see activity in week 1) 2. drawing learners' attention to text by beginning with reading a model text and discuss

| | | | about its purpose, organisational structure or shape of the text and the function of each stage e.g. learners in pairs do a text reconstruction of parts of the report, where they sequence jumbled sentences into coherent text (placing text in position), and giving names to stages, or identifying from a range of texts those which are the same text type and those which are not. |
| | | | 3. drawing learners' attention to the language features and their functions |

3.1 text unity:

    3.1.1 with whole class, using a coloured pen /highlighter to:

        - join lexical things and relate to stages/ subtopics

        - circle connections and relate to stages

        - link reference chains and relate to stages

    3.1.2 using cloze and substitution activities to focus on cohesive devices

    3.1.3 using matching and substitution activities antonyms, synonyms

3.2 clause grammar

    3.2.1 learners sequencing jumbled groups and phases into clauses noting different possibilities and their effects on meaning

    3.2.2 focusing on grammatical structures and vocabulary that are important in the text (or let the learners themselves decide on these features and teacher provide careful guidance and questioning) by using the model text as a cloze

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exercise to focus on language features, making the gaps in relation to the grammatical features e.g. verb groups, noun, prepositional phases

3.3 group/words

   3.3.1 presenting parts of the noun group, verb group, prepositional phase as required

   3.3.2 learner sequencing jumbled words into groups

   3.3.3 learners clozing out parts of group

3.4 Graphology

   3.4.1 integrating spelling activities into vocabulary building activities

   3.4.2 using outlined blocks and learner placing sections of text on appropriate block (or skeleton text)

4. after-reading activities (group/pair work or whole class): eg 4.1 having learners represent the information of the text as a graphic outline (eg information summary) 4.2 using cloze activities (allowing plenty of time for learners to discuss the reasons for their choice with other or in a whole class discussion). 4.3 sentence reconstruction (cut up sentences of the text into individual words and have learners resemble them)

5. teacher making summary for or reminding learners these characteristics by working with learners writing the characteristics as a chart that can displayed the overall features of the texts in front of the class.

</td></tr>
</table>

		3,4	1. Modelling text 2. Talking about language feature 3. Writing together	*Modelling/deconstructing the text activity:* 1. showing learners and teacher discussing with learners the purpose —to present factual information on a topic (eg pre-reading questions) 2. drawing learners' attention to the organisational structure and discussing function of each stage (eg using skeleton text) 3. focusing on grammatical structures and vocabulary by letting learners themselves decide on these features and teacher provide careful guidance and questioning (eg cloze activity, jumbled words, sentence reconstruction) 4. learners working in pairs doing a text reconstruction: sequencing jumbled sentences into coherent text 5. using digtogloss to provide another model of the text 6. using model text as a cloze exercise, making gaps in relation to the grammatical features or vocabulary *Joint construction of the text activity:* 7. drawing learners' attention to the stages of the writing process — preparing to write, drafting, conferencing, editing, prof-reading 8. using information gap activities to construct a text 9. using innovating on text: using the text as basis, maintaining the key structures but rewrite it with different content 10. with whole class, learners and teacher together

			editing the text and compare draft to the models
	5,6	Writing together	*Joint construction of the text activity:* 1. teacher and learners designing on the topic for joint writing activity 2. learner working in a small group/pairs to brainstorm ideas about the writing e.g. role play of text in group 3. learner presenting/ giving suggestion and contribute ideas while teachers scribing 4. together teacher and learners discussing how the writing can be improved as a class or in groups, editing a draft text: teacher and learners together discussing the overall structure of the text, suggesting more appropriate vocabulary, considering alternative ways of wording an idea, and work on correcting grammatical mistakes, and spelling (time for explicit focus on grammar in functionally ways) 5. teacher works with learners rewriting a draft on the whiteboard 6. comparing with the model text
	7	Independent writing	*Independent construction of text activity:* 4. reminding learners about the process of writing 5. learners write their own texts (individually) 6. learners and/or teacher assess the draft, noting strengths, clarifying meanings and making suggestions for further improvement in conferences, whole class

			presentations or peer discussion
			7. learners editing proofreading draft and preparing final draft for presentation