TEACHERS’ SCAFFOLDING TALKS
AT CHILDREN’ S IMMERSION CLASSES

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Nowadays, the early education programs become a trend around the world. Many practitioners of childhood education set up preschool programs which offer various curriculum and methods of teaching. One of method of teaching is using foreign or second language as the medium of instruction because many parents believe that starting to learn foreign languages in childhood is better than in adulthood. Furthermore, the assumption of the importance of foreign language education in childhood is supported by some theories. The first is from Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) suggested by Lenneburg (1967) in which he suggests that there is a critical period, up to about 11 years of age, in which children are able to acquire languages. His hypothesis is that if language is introduced after this period, then it is extremely difficult for children to learn. This CPH has often been cited as one of the main reasons for starting teaching foreign languages early in the child’s schooling. Young children can learn a second language effectively before puberty because their brains are still able to use the mechanisms that assisted first language acquisition. The Critical Period Hypothesis holds that older learners will learn differently after this stage (Cameron, 2002: 13). Further support is from the study of brain activity patterns of early bilinguals. The study claimed that children who learn two languages at the same time from
infancy, differ from those of learners who begin learning a language after about 7 or 8 years of age (Kim et. al., as cited by Cameron, 2002: 14).

Based on the theories, many advantages are claimed for starting to learn a foreign language in childhood. In Indonesia, many practitioners of early childhood educations set up preschool programs that use English, the global and foreign language, as a medium of instruction to take advantage of young children’s natural capacity to pick it up.

However, there is a strong dilemma about how foreign languages are taught at schools. Ellis (1985: 151) mentioned types of educational settings and the characteristics of their interaction as follows:

1. the foreign language classroom. The focus is on language form rather than meaning and the second language unlikely to be used for classroom management or for genuine social purposes;
2. the second language classroom (e.g. ESL). The interaction will focus on form rather than meaning and the second language as a medium of instruction. L2 functions as a medium of instruction.
3. the subject classroom (i.e. learner is placed in a class with native-speaking children). The focus will be on meaning, rather than form.
4. the bilingual classroom where L2 learners receive instruction through both L1 and L2. Focus sometimes on form, sometimes on meaning.
5. the immersion classroom (i.e. where a class of L2 learners are taught through medium of L2). Focus will be on meaning in L2 subject lessons. The class of L2 learners are taught through medium of L2.

Therefore, based on Ellis (1985), it is clear that learning a second or foreign language through immersion differs from learning a second or foreign language as a school subject several times a week. Immersion pupils study school subjects through a foreign or second language.

In Indonesia, English which is learned as a foreign language in some schools can be one of school subjects or as a medium of instruction. If English
is learned at schools as a school subject, it means that English lesson is presented as a distinct subject. Typically, the English lesson is taught three to five times per week. However, if English is as a medium of instruction, it can be said that the students learn all of the subjects at schools with English as the medium of instruction. Typically, all of the subjects in most immersion language programs include Mathematics, Science, Social Studies and other subject areas are delivered in English. In an immersion language program, English, for example, as one of foreign languages in Indonesia, is not a subject lesson, rather it is a medium through which a majority of the school subjects are taught.

The curriculum of Sekolah Permata Bangsa in Semarang, for example, has English as the medium of instruction in which all of the school subjects are delivered in English. It can be said that the students study all of the school subjects including Language and Literary, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, Art and Craft, Health and Physical Education through the medium of English. Consequently, the students learn to understand, speak, read and write in English. The teachers speak only English throughout the teaching learning processes.

The above explanation about curriculum which is applied by Sekolah Permata Bangsa in Semarang, is one of the examples of popular form of foreign language immersion programs in which in Sekolah Permata Bangsa, students learn all of the subjects through the medium of a foreign language (English). It is based on the assumption that for young learners, language is
acquired most effectively when it is learned in a meaningful social context. In addition, the school curriculum offers the students opportunity to communicate with English as foreign language.

Besides applying a better curriculum for foreign language program, there are other important factors that the early childhood practitioners should pay attention to. Those factors include the characteristics of children as foreign language learners and children’s foreign or second language development. Those factors are fundamental for the practitioners of early childhood education programs. Foreign language preschool teachers, for example, should know the characteristics of children as foreign language learners because how preschool students learn differently from other learners. For the teachers references they can refer to the theories such as from Piaget, Bruner and Vygotsky as they have proposed some theories related to children language and cognitive development.

In addition, the teachers should adjust their talks based on children’s second language development so that the students understand the messages or knowledge which are delivered by the teachers. In addition, they should create activities which are suitable with children’s cognitive development. Therefore, the teachers can refer to the theory of stages of second language development in children by Snow and Tabor (1994). Based on Snow and Tabor (1994) in http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/pigs/pig22.htm (1994) argue that such children pass through four distinct stages. First, the child uses the home language, The second stage is the nonverbal period, The next stage
occurs when the child is ready to go public with the new language. And the last, eventually, the child reaches the stage of productive language use.

Other theories are theories about children language and cognitive development from the experts such as Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner. Their theories are beneficial for teachers to be used as guidance in providing lesson material and activities which are suitable with children’s development.

Based on Piaget’s theory for language learning, children are sense-makers, active learners and thinkers. They are constructing their own knowledge from working with objects or ideas (Cameron, 2002: 4). Therefore, we often see a child continually interacting with things around him or her, solving the problems presented by the environment through taking action to solve them, and then learning will occur. From this theory, the practitioners should create classroom environment equipped with many play tools that will offer opportunities for children to explore. In addition, to support students’ understanding, the teacher should use objects as examples because they think with concrete objects.

Besides learning from the environment, children also need other people because people play important roles in helping children to learn. Mainly, children learn through social interaction as Vygotsky has proposed in his sociocultural theory in which he suggested that social interaction plays fundamental role in the development of cognition. Children’s skills first appear through interaction between them and adult around them, and later appear on individual. In this way, Vygotsky sees learning and development as
a result of social interaction. The concept of interaction means joint activity; not only physical activity but also a high degree of mental activity as well. For example, when children learn to speak, they learn the language of their surroundings without any formal instruction. They learn to talk by participating in social activities with more competent members of the community. In other words, the children observe, listen, imitate, and participate while they are participating in playing or other activities with more capable members of the community. For example, when children are engaged in a family dinner time, they often heard a conversation among their members of their family. By hearing those conversation, actually the students learn the vocabulary and the grammatical patterns of the phrases in the conversation. Then, unconsciously they memorises words by words. For instance, when a child hear and see his father said to his mother “I’d like a banana please” and then the mother give him the banana to him and say “here you are” the child might understand which one is called a banana. The child will know the word “a banana” mean. Therefore, it can be concluded that children first experience language in social interactions in their immediate surrounding. Vygotsky calls this the "intermental plane." Children later "internalise" the words, sentences and the ways in which words and other symbolic systems are used by more experienced members of the community. Vygotsky called this process appropriation and proposes that this process forms the "intramental plane".(Madsen and Gudmundsdottir in http://eweb3.educ.msu.edu/literacy/papers/paperlr2.htm).
Therefore, Vygotsky’s main concern is that social interaction and social context. A World full of other people who interact with the children are essential in their cognitive development. Next, he points out the idea that potential for cognitive development is limited to certain time span, which he names “zone of proximal development (ZPD). ZPD is the area in which individual optimum learning can occur.

ZPD is defined as “the distance between the child’s actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky in [http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources_advising/pdf/capstone_bwic_klund.pdf](http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources_advising/pdf/capstone_bwic_klund.pdf)). In other words, full development during ZPD depends upon full social interaction. The range of skills which can be developed under adult guidance or collaboration with adult guidance or peer collaboration exceeds what can be attained alone. Therefore, people play important roles in helping children to learn, providing objects and ideas to their attention, talking while playing and sharing while playing, reading stories and asking questions. In wide range of ways, adult mediate the world for children and make it possible for them to get access to it. By the help of adults, children can do and understand more than they can on their own (Cameron, 2002: 7).

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that children learn to think, solve problem, ask question and try to make sense of things
around them when they have guidance, learning environment, intellectual and emotional support created by adults.

“Learning to do things and learning to think are both helped by interacting with adult. Vygotsky saw the child as first doing things in a social context, with other people and language helping in various ways, and gradually shifting away from reliance on others to independent action and thinking” (Cameron, 2002: 7)

Then, in foreign language learning, the teachers should be able to model, ask question and think in the foreign language so that they can help the students to acquire the language. The language used by the teacher in interaction with their students during the teaching learning processes from the very beginning until the end of the lesson can be good models for the students’ learning. Alwright and Bailey (1991: 122) also suggest that the interaction between the teacher and the students is very important in the teaching-learning processes. Teacher-students interaction plays a great role for the students in order to get comprehensible input because second or foreign language is acquired by processing comprehensible input, i.e. language that is heard or read and understood (Long & Freeman, 1991: 42). In other words, interaction with the teacher as more competent adult during the teaching learning process will be beneficial for the children’s language and cognitive development.

Consequently, teachers of foreign language learners should have very good language skills of the second or foreign language they teach because they provide the main language input for the students who may have limited exposure outside the classroom. They also need good interactions skills in order to use kinds of activities based and interactive method, which
are suitable for children. They also need to be able to adjust their language to the children’s level knowledge of the second or foreign language they learn so that they can provide feedback and rich of knowledge of culture to get children interested and understood.

Together with social interaction and comprehensible input, then Bruner developed this thought further and described the cognitive support that could be given to a child by an adult, or more capable peers, as scaffolding. Bruner also believed that teaching takes place most effectively through the provision of appropriate social interaction frameworks called scaffolding (Corden, 2000:10). Scaffolding, then, forms the third theoretical basis for foreign language programs.

Scaffolding is a kind of strategy that can be used for foreign language classrooms. In this strategy, the teachers provide scaffold or assistance through classroom interaction so that learners can accomplish the tasks with assistance and pass through their zone of proximal development or ZPD (Bransford et.al., as cited by Janne madsen and Sigrun Gudmudsottir in http://www.sv.ntnu.no/ped/sigrun/publikasjoner/ecerjm.html).

Therefore, students are guided and supported through learning activities that serve as interactive bridges to get them to the next level. In other words, students develop or construct new understanding by elaborating on the prior knowledge through supports provided by more capable person or the teacher. Therefore, the goal of education according to this strategy is to encourage students to become independent, self- regulating learners and a

All over the explanation above, it can be concluded that simply placing students in a second or foreign language environment in hopes that the students will learn it through the situation is not enough. The language must be used by the teachers in such a way so that the students understand their messages. To access the messages and new knowledge, students rely on context, knowledge of the world, and other clues including gestures, examples, illustrations and caretaker language. In addition, children’s understandings are tremendously achieved from guidance and assistance from the teacher and more capable peers while they are engaged in activities that are meaningfully and culturally relevant. Therefore, in the classroom, the teachers must offer strategies for making the teaching materials accessible for the children or students. One of the important strategy is scaffolding the lesson. It means, the teacher gives help, support and guidance for the students so that they can comprehend and understand the lesson materials and do their tasks by means of supportive teacher talk which can be called as the teacher’s scaffolding talk.

In addition, for the classroom setting, Wood (1998) suggested that teachers can scaffold children’s learning in various ways: to attend what is relevant, adopt useful strategies, remember the whole task and goals teachers can suggest, give verbal reinforcement, provide focusing activities, encourage
rehearsal, be explicit about organizations, remind, model, provide part-whole activities. Also classroom language and routines occurring everyday can provide opportunity for language development. They would allow the child to actively make sense of new language from experience and provide space for language growth, routines will open up many possibility for developing language skills (Cameron, 2002:8).

There are some duties that teachers have to do in giving lesson materials among others are how the teachers of immersion preschool program support the students’ understanding. How to make the students understand the material discussed and how to make them talking in class through the teachers’ scaffolding talks.

It is from this point. This study analyzes types of scaffolding talks the teachers of children immersion language program used in their teaching learning processes and kinds of speech functions performed by the teachers in their scaffolding talks.

1.2 Statement of the Problems

Concerning the background of the study above, I formulated the problem statements as the first step in conducting the research. The problems are stated as follows:

1) What types of scaffolding talks do teachers of children immersion program use in their classes?

2) What kinds of speech functions do the teachers perform in their teachers’ scaffolding talks?
1.3 Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study is to identify and then classify the teachers’ scaffolding talks by ways of describing:

1) The types of scaffolding talks the teachers of immersion program use in their classes.

2) The kinds of speech functions the teachers use in their teachers’ scaffolding talks.

1.4 Significance of the Study

It is necessary to investigate the topic based on the following assumed significances:

1) Theoretically, the study of teachers’ scaffolding talks can enrich reference in the area by providing more empirical evidence.

2) Pedagogically, the results of this study can be used by English teachers and immersion teachers especially those who teach children to apply scaffolding talks as their alternative teaching strategy in their teaching practice. I also hope that the result of this study will promote other research on scaffolding talks especially in language teaching and can find other effective types of scaffolding talks especially to be used at children foreign or immersion language classrooms.

3) In practice, the study might encourage teachers of foreign or immersion language learners understand types of teachers’ scaffolding talks in their classes.
1.5 Definition of Terms

1) *Teachers’ talks* are the talks produced by teachers of children immersion language learners which are related to the topic.

2) *Teacher’s scaffolding talks* in this study are teacher’s utterances which accompany his or her action in language classroom to provide scaffold or assistance for the students’ understanding and facilitate the learners’ ability to interpret new information and complete their tasks independently.

3) *ZPD* is the distance between the learners’ actual development level determined by their ability to accomplish the tasks independently and their potential development level determined by their ability to accomplish tasks under guidance of more capable person or teachers. In other words, the actual development refers to all functions and activities that a child can perform on his own, independently without the help of anyone else. On the other hand, ZPD includes all the functions and activities.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of a review of related literature. In this chapter, I acknowledge some current approaches and theories guiding foreign language teaching to children today. Therefore, in this chapter, I give an overview of theory and research relevant to children’s language learning. This chapter examined the views of Piaget, Vygotsky and Bruner who, with ideas reflected and contributed into the theories of children’s language and cognitive development, language learning and teaching.

Then the main point I present a review of theoretical concepts for the basis of the discussion of the types of scaffolding talks performed by the teachers and the speech functions they perform in their scaffolding talks.

All of the theoretical concepts are organized into the following subtitles: children’s language and cognitive development, teacher talk, scaffolding, teacher’s scaffolding talks in children foreign language classroom, speech functions in teacher’s scaffolding talks.

2.1 Children’s Language And Cognitive Development

2.1.1 Piaget’s View of Cognitive and Language Development

Piaget set up various experiments to ascertain how children thought in and about different situations and how they cognitively developed. It seems he was particularly trying to understand how, going
through life experiences, children solved problems and how this changed as they got older. His assumption was that children actively constructed knowledge from their experiences. Based on the results from this work, he suggested that children develop through specific stages. These stages are the Sensorimotor stage (from birth to 2 years). During the sensorimotor, infant and toddlers “think” with their eyes, ears, hands and other sensorimotor equipments. Therefore, children at this age are learning through interaction with the world around them. The next stage was the Preoperational Thought (from 2 to 6 years). At this age, according to Piaget, children acquire represent skills in the area of imagery. The next stage is, Concrete Operational Stage (from 6 to 12 years). Children at this stage are able to take into account another person’s point of view and their thought process being more logical, flexible, and organized. Then, they move to more abstract thought within the final stage, the Formal Operational Stage. At this stage, they are capable of thinking logically and abstractly (Silverthorn in http://chd.gse.gmu.edu/immersion/knowledgebase/theorists/constructivism/Piaget.htm).

Based on the explanation above, It can be concluded that preschool children aged between 2 - 4 years old are learning through their experiences and interactions with objects in the environment.

“What happens on with concrete objects continues to happen in the mind, as problems are confronted internally, and action taken to solve them through. In this way thought is seen as deriving from action; action is internalized, or carried out mentally in the imagination, and this way thinking develop” (Cameron, 2002: 3)
Furthermore, from Piaget’s theory of development, it can be summarized that children are active learners and thinkers, sense makers. They are constructing their own knowledge by thriving with objects and ideas as we often see children are continually interacting with the things around them. They solve problems which are presented by the environment and then learning will occur through taking action to solve the problems. Therefore, the practitioners of early childhood educations should create classroom settings and activities as creating as possible so that they offer opportunities for children to learn. They should create the classroom environment interestingly and equipped with various educational play tools that attract students’ attentions. Furthermore, children explore and gain knowledge from their experience with objects.

In addition, Piaget argues that cognitive development and language acquisition are closely interrelated process. Toddlers develop an abstract knowledge about the world through experiences with objects around them and by observing the way one object is acted upon by another. This stage of development closely linked to the sensorimotor period from birth to around 18 months. (Goh and Silver, 2004: 14). In Piaget’s view, cognitive knowledge about the world is seen as precursor to language. Without cognitive development, there can be little or no language acquisition. In other words, language is the manifestation of a child’s developing cognition. Language is the means by which a child represents reality. This view often referred to as cognitive determinism: the development of language forms
governed by cognitive growth, that is, cognitive development before language. See figure 2.1 below.

**Figure 2.1 Cognitive Determinism**

![Diagram showing the relationship between experience with objects, cognitive development, and language.]

*Source: Goh and Silver (2004: 15)*

In Piaget’s view, language initially has internal function. Children first use language privately for ‘talking’ about the environment and their experiences and only later for social interaction. Based from the explanation, it can be concluded that children make an exploration with objects around them through activity provides the basis for cognitive development. In language learning this means that children are more likely to pick up language e.g. vocabulary, grammatical functions from participating in activities which require their use than being taught formally.

### 2.1.2 Vygotskian View of Cognitive and Language Development

Vygotsky stresses the important connection between cultural and social environments and language learning. Children learn a language in social interactions and use it for social purposes (Goh and Silver, 2004: 15).
Children’s cognitions are developed through their interaction with their parents and other people. Adults use language to teach children about their world by talking to them about everyday routines, naming objects together and teaching them about appropriate behaviors as it can be seen at Figure 2.2 below.

**Figure 2.2 Changing Relationships between Cognitive Development and Language**

![Diagram showing the relationship between interaction with the world and others, cognitive development, and language.]

Source: Silver and Gih (2004: 16)

Therefore, based on Vygotsky’s view, language is a means of influencing later cognitive development. In other words, through language used by themselves and the people around them, children learn to interpret new experiences that further develops their ability to think. For example, children who have some control over their language will initiate questions so as to make sense of things they see or hear; they also enjoy listening to stories and talking about characters in the stories. Next, by learning to use language, children in turn develop new ways of thinking about their experiences (Goh and Silver, 2004: 16).
Based on the explanation above, I conclude that Vygotsky’s main concern is that social interaction and social context. Other people, who interact with the child from birth onward are essential in their cognitive development.

Next, Vygotsky points out that the potential for cognitive development is limited to a certain span, which he names the ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development). It can be defined as “the distance between the child's actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance and in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, in http://ed-web3.educ.msu.edu/literacy/papers/paperh2.htm).

In addition, full development during ZPD depends upon full social interaction. Therefore, other people play important roles in helping children to learn, providing objects and ideas to their attention, talking while playing and sharing while playing, reading stories, asking questions. In wide range of ways, adults mediate the world for children and make it possible for them to get access to it. The ability to learn through instruction and mediation is characteristic of human intelligence. By the help of adults, children can do and understand more than they can on their own (Cameron, 2002: 6).

Actually, Vygotsky proposed the notion of Zone of proximal development (ZPD) to give a new meaning to “intelligence”. Instead of measuring intelligence by what a child can do alone, Vygotsky suggested that
intelligence could be better be measured by what a child can do with skilled help.

Therefore, it can be concluded that language and cognitive development are interrelated process. Cognitive development of a child is not solely determined by his or her innate factor. The language used by people around him or her in social interaction influences it. In the process of cognitive development, language is a crucial tool for determining how the child will learn how to think. Children’s involvement in the communication with people around them, especially with adults or more capable persons, for example with their parents or teachers creates opportunities for their learning process and significantly impacts their ways of thinking.

In classroom context, however, the teacher plays important roles in the learning process. How he or she provides help for the students, through language and the kinds of activities he or she provides for language learning will affect the student’s language and cognitive development. The activities that the teachers make should provide opportunities for the students to participate actively in the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

2.1.3 Bruner’s View of Cognitive and Language Development

1 Bruner notes “language is the most important tool for cognitive growth”. He investigates how adults use language to mediate the world for children and help them to solve problems. Talk that supports a child in carrying out an activity, as a kind of verbal
version of fine tuned help that has been labeled as “scaffolding” (Cameron, 2002: 8).

The concept of scaffolding is based on the work of Vygotsky and his model of zone of proximal development. He proposed that with an adult assistance, children could accomplish tasks that they ordinarily could not perform independently. (Topa, in http://ed-web3.educ.msu.edu/literacy/papers/paperlr2.htm)

Therefore, when scaffolding is provided within the zone pf proximal development, then learning is facilitated.

For the classroom settings, Wood (1998) suggested that teachers can scaffold children’s learning in various ways: to attend what is relevant, adopt useful strategies, remember the whole task and goals teachers can suggest, praise the significant, provide focusing activities, encourage rehearsal, be explicit about organization, remind, model, provide part-whole activities (Cameron, 2002). It can be seen at Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1 Teacher’s Scaffold in Children’s Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers can help to:</th>
<th>By:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attend to what is relevant</td>
<td>Suggesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Praising the significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Providing focusing activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adopt useful strategies</td>
<td>Encouraging rehearsal</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being explicit about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remember the whole task and goals</td>
<td>reminding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>modeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>providing part-whole activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Based on Wood (1998) in Cameron (2002: 9)*
2.2 Language Development in Foreign Language Preschool Children

Besides scaffolding the lesson, teachers also should pay attention to the language development of the bilingual preschool students because they should adjust their speech suitable with the level of their language development. For instance, when a teacher wants to ask questions he or she should use simple interrogative sentences and they only demanded short answers.

For children who are learning a second language sequentially, the development progression is somewhat different. Tabors and Snow in http://www.nceula.gwu.edu/pubs/pigs/pig22.htm (1994) argue that such children pass through four distinct stages:

1) First, the child uses the home language. When everyone around the child is speaking a different language, there are only two options to speak the language they already know, or to stop speaking entirely. Many children, but not all, follow the first option for some period of time (Saville-Troike, 1987). This of course leads to increasing frustration, and eventually children give up trying to make others understand their language.

2) The second stage is the nonverbal period. After children abandon the attempt to communicate in their first language, they enter a period in which they do not talk at all. This can last for some time, or it can be a brief phase. Although they do not talk during this time, children attempt to communicate nonverbally to get help from adults or to obtain objects.
Furthermore, this is a period during which children begin actively to crack the code of the second language. Saville-Troike (1987) noted that children will rehearse the target language by repeating what other speakers say in a low voice and by playing with the sounds of the new language.

3) The next stage occurs when the child is ready to go public with the new language. There are two characteristics to this speech is telegraphic and it involves the use of formulas. The first is telegraphic and it involves the use of formulas. Telegraphic speech is common in early monolingual language development and involves the use of a few content words without function words or morphological markers. For example, a young child learning to speak English may say "put paper" to convey the meaning, "I want to put the paper on the table." Formulaic speech refers to the use of unanalyzed chunks of words or routine phrases that are repetitions of what the child hears. Children use such prefabricated chunks long before they have any understanding of what they mean (Wong Fillmore, 1976).

4) Eventually, the child reaches the stage of productive language use. At this point the child is able to go beyond short telegraphic utterances and memorized chunks. Initially, children may form new utterances by using formulaic patterns such as "I wanna" with names for objects. In time, the child begins to demonstrate an understanding of the syntactic system of the language. Children gradually unpackaged their formulas and apply
newly acquired syntactic rules to develop productive control over the language.

2.3 Teacher Talk

Jane (1999) in http://www.mec.edu/mascd/docs/yedlin.htm states that teacher talk is foreigner talk in the classroom, the language classroom management and explanation, when it is in the second language. "Teacher-talk" is defined as speech used by teachers that is characteristically modified in four areas: phonology, lexis (consisting of morphology and vocabulary), syntax, and discourse.

Foreigner talk has both formal and functional characteristics. Long as cited by Ellis (1991: 133) labels these input and interactional features respectively. The features are two types: (1) those that involve simplifications within the grammatical rule structure of the language, and (2) those that involve simplification leading to ungrammatical speech. Interactional features consist of the specific discourse functions performed by the native speakers. Below the principle input and interactional adjustments which have been identified in a number of studies (e.g. Fergusson and Debose 1997; Hatch, Shapira, and Gough 1978; Long 1981; Artur et al. as cited by Ellis (1991: 135) are listed at Table 2.2 and 2.3 below.
### Table 2.2 Input Modification in Foreigner Talk

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Non-standard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pronunciation</strong></td>
<td>- Slowing down speech</td>
<td>- additional of vowel to final consonant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- separated words/syllable articulation.</td>
<td>- fewer reduced vowels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- More careful pronunciation (e.g. final stops released) heaver stress</td>
<td>- exaggerated intonation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Increased volume on the key words</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lexis</strong></td>
<td>- restricted vocabulary size.</td>
<td>- special lexicon of quantifiers, intensifiers, and modal particles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- difficult items replaced with more frequently occurring items</td>
<td>- Use of foreign or foreign sounding words (e.g. ‘savvy’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- fewer pro form (e.g. nouns preferred to ‘he’, ‘she’, ‘it’)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- repetition of words</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- use of analytic paraphrases (e.g. hammer: tool for hitting with”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- use of gesture (e.g. ostensive definition)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grammar</strong></td>
<td>- fewer constructions</td>
<td>- Omission of:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- overall shorter utterances length</td>
<td>- copula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- grammatical relations made explicit 9e.g. He asked to go (\rightarrow) He asked if he could go</td>
<td>- it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- co-ordination preferred to subordination</td>
<td>- do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- less verb modification</td>
<td>- verb inflections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- topic moved to the beginning of utterances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- fewer w-h questions more yes/no questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- more uninverted questions (e.g. You like John?)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- More ‘or-choice’ questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- More tag questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Ellis (1991: 135)*
Table 2.3 Interactional Modifications in Foreigner Talk

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>More ‘here-and-now’ topics</td>
<td>Native-speaker refers to objects/events which are contiguous</td>
<td>NS: What’s that you are wearing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More topic-initiating move</td>
<td>Native speaker starts a conversational topic by asking a question or making a comment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More confirmation checks</td>
<td>Utterances designed to elicit confirmation that a learner utterance has been correctly heard or understood.</td>
<td>NNS: I went to cinema. NS: The cinema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More comprehension checks</td>
<td>Attempts by the native speaker to establish that the learner is following what he is saying</td>
<td>NS: It was raining cats and dogs. Do you follow?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More clarifications requests</td>
<td>Utterances designed to get the learner to clarify an utterance which has not been heard or understood.</td>
<td>NNS: She very high NS: Sorry?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More self-repetitions</td>
<td>The native speaker repeats parts or the whole of his preceding utterance</td>
<td>NS: He got stuck in the window trying to get in. He got stuck.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More other-repetitions</td>
<td>The native speaker repeats part or the whole of the learners’ previous utterance without seeking confirmation.</td>
<td>NNS: I went to cinema. NS: Yeah. You went to the cinema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More expansions</td>
<td>The native speaker expands the learner’s previous utterance by supplying missing formatives or by adding new semantic information.</td>
<td>NNS: I wear sweater. NS: Yes. You’re wearing a red sweater.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shorter responses</td>
<td>The native speaker restricts the length of his response to a learner question or comment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ellis (1991: 15)
While Flanders (1963: 17) classifies teacher talk into seven categories as follows:

1. Accepts feeling. The teacher clarifies the feeling of the students in a nonthreatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative.
2. Praises or encourages. The teacher praises or encourages students’ action or behavior. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual, nodding head, and saying, “um hm?” or “go on” are included.
3. Accepts or uses ideas of student. The teacher is clarifying, building or developing ideas suggested by a student.
4. Ask questions. The teacher is asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student’s answer.
5. Lectures. The teacher is giving facts or opinions about content or procedure; expressing their own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.
6. Gives directions. The teacher gives directions, commands, or orders to which student are expected to comply.
7. Criticize or justifies authority. The teacher gives statements intended to change student behavior from non-acceptable to acceptable pattern.

According to Ellis (1986: 146), teacher talk in language lessons is broadly similar to foreign talk. Both promote communication and require adjustments in the language used. However, teacher talk normally occurs in one-to-many interactions where there is likely to be only limited feedback from a few students. On the other hand, foreigner talk occurs in one-to-one interactions where there is plenty of feedback from the learners. In classroom interaction, the language used by the teacher should consider the variables such as the topic of the conversation, the age of the participants (i.e. whether they are children, adolescent/ adults) and in particular, the proficiency of the learners.

When the teachers talk, they try to transform their ideas and knowledge concerning the topic discussion in the classroom. The teachers’
talk in teaching a lesson is very important. It has the role too. Through their talks, they expect to make students understand the lesson and when their students have difficulties in understanding the teachers’ talks, the teachers will help them by making a bridge to get the students understand. This occurs through the interactional activity and talks in the classroom because interaction is as a significant factor in language development (Swain, 1995 as quoted in Gibbons, 2002: 15).

The focus of the learning process is in the interaction. Thus, it refers to the importance of talk in learning. The classroom is viewed as a place where understanding and knowledge are jointly constructed between teachers and students, and when learners are guided or “appreciated” into the broader understanding and language curriculum and the particular subject discipline (Gibbon, 2002: 15). Referring to this idea, the role of teacher talks is seen as a medium in teaching a lesson. Furthermore, the teacher’s talk about language and text afforded children opportunities to understand and participate in academic discourse.

In addition, Jane in [http://www.mec.edu/mascd/docs/yedlin.htm](http://www.mec.edu/mascd/docs/yedlin.htm) mentions some features of supportive teacher talk in the classroom. They are as follows:

- the use of physical props, graphics, pantomime, and gestures to represent ideas and facilitate children's comprehension,
- references to previously shared experiences which serve as background knowledge for new concepts,
- discussion of word meanings and text structures within meaningful, applied contexts,
- self-repetition and paraphrasing used to make language more comprehensible and to draw attention to important vocabulary, language features, and language patterns, and
- Clarification and expansion of children's own oral and written language.

Supportive teacher talks are also called teacher’s scaffolding talk.

For the complete explanation about scaffolding, I have mentioned in the following discussion.

### 2.4 Scaffolding

#### 2.4.1 The Definition of Scaffolding

There are many important definitions of scaffolding. Hammon and Gibbon (2001) look at the term “scaffolding” both literally and metaphorically. The term “scaffolding” literally refers to a structure that is temporarily placed around a new building while it is being constructed. Without the scaffolding, the building would not be able to stand on its own. When the new building is able to support itself, the scaffolding is then removed. Metaphorically, “scaffolding” is the temporary support that teachers provide learners as they expand their knowledge and gain new skills. When the learners have a secure understanding of the new knowledge or skills, teachers are then able to remove the scaffolding. This continual process will move the learner to higher level of knowledge.

Jerome S. Bruner, another famous psychologist, based his work on Piaget’s and Vygotsky’s theories in learning. Bruner was famous with his scaffolding and routines techniques. Scaffolding means talk that supports a
child in carrying out an activity, as a kind of verbal version of the five-tuned help (Cameron, 2001: 8). In addition, the idea of scaffolding is drawn from the work of Vygotsky and his model of the ZPD. Scaffolding in the classroom context, occurs in the interaction between a teacher and students or student and another student. The ZPD “…is the area between what a learner can do independently and what can be accomplished with the assistance of a competent adult or peer (Ellis, Larkin, et. al in http://tip.psychology.org/vygotsky.html.) Vygotsky believed that any child could be taught any subject effectively using scaffolding techniques by applying the scaffolds at the ZPD. In other words, when scaffolding is provided within the zone of proximal development, learning is then facilitated. The zone of proximal development varies for each child and is constantly changing.

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that scaffolding in educational setting originates from Vygotsy’s sociocultural theory and his concept of ZPD. According to sociocultural theory, children’s learning processes and their development take place in social contexts of the culture. Gibbon (2002: 8) argues that sociocultural theory sees human development as intrinsically social rather than individual. As individual’s development is thus to a significant extent a product, not prerequisite, of education_ the result of his or her social, historical, and cultural experience. As human beings, biologically we are all able to acquire language but what language we learn, how skillful we are at using it, and the purposes for
which we are able to use it are a matter of the social contexts and situations we have been in.

If we transfer this concept to language learning in classroom context, it can be said that the language used by the teacher during the teaching learning process and the kinds of activities applied for the learning process will determine the students’ language development. Based on the socio-cultural theory, learning process and students’ development will take place through interaction with more capable persons in socially and culturally based situation.

2.4.2 Characteristics of Scaffolding

There are many important attributes of scaffolding. Raphael and Hiebert (1996) in http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resourcespdf.pdf states that scaffolding must be supportive (assist learners to do what they could not do independently), adjustable (support can be added or leased), temporary (support will eventually not be needed). While Berk and Winsler (1995) in http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources.pdf include many attributes of effective scaffolding. The attributes are as follows:

- Joint problem solving, includes participating in an appealing and meaningful activity where reaching a goal is a joint effort.
- Intersubjectivity, is the common ground where the participants have shared understanding of the goal.
- Warmth and responsiveness, is when the adult is responsive to the needs of the child and is supportive and encouraging.
- Maintenance of appropriate ZPD. Keeping the child in the appropriate ZPD is the most important goal of scaffolding because that is where the greatest learning occurs.
- Promotion of self regulation, entails removing the scaffolding and allowing the child to work independently.
Then next O’ Conner et al., in

http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources_advising/pdf/capstone_bwicklund.pdf describe six scaffolding strategies:

1) open-ended questioning where the adult asks questions to elicit a response from the child, to describe things or events, to make predictions and to plan for the future, to make explanation, and to relate new knowledge to previous experience.

2) Provide feedback that is encouraging, evaluative, clarifying, acknowledging, informational, and interpretative.

3) The adult provides cognitive structuring which assists in problem solving and reasoning. This includes explicitly teaching rules and helping the child become aware of relationships between objects and events. It is also includes helping the child to sequence events and identify irregularities.

4) Holding in memory. In this strategy, the adult takes some of the responsibility for memory so that the child can concentrate on the activity. Adult can restate the goals, summarize what has already happened, and offer significant information that will be helpful to the child.

5) The adult can regulate the task by matching interest and experiences, rearranging an activity to make it more simple and concrete, or reducing the number of choices.

6) Provide direct instruction through modeling, suggesting the child, asking for a particular action, or completing the activity together.


According to McKenzie, the characteristics of scaffolding are:

1) Provides clear direction and reduces students’ confusion – Educators anticipate problems that students might encounter and then develop step by step instructions, which explain what a student must do to meet expectations.
2) Clarifies purpose – Scaffolding helps students understand why they are doing the work and why it is important.
3) Keeps students on task – By providing structure, the scaffolded lesson or research project, provides pathways for the learners. The student can make decisions about which path to choose or what things to explore along the path but they cannot wander off of the path, which is the designated task.
4) Clarifies expectations and incorporates assessment and feedback – Expectations are clear from the beginning of the activity since examples of exemplary work, rubrics, and standards of excellence are shown to the students.
5) Points students to worthy sources – Educators provide sources to reduce confusion, frustration, and time. The students may then decide which of these sources to use.
6) Reduces uncertainty, surprise, and disappointment – Educators test their lessons to determine possible problem areas and then refine the lesson to eliminate difficulties so that learning is maximized.
7) Delivers efficiency
8) Creates momentum

2.4.3 Types of Scaffolding

While investigating the role of scaffolding, Roehler and Cantlon (1997) in http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/pdf identified five types of scaffolding. They are as follows:

1) Offering explanations

The first type of scaffolding was explanations. Explanations are explicit statements adjusted to fit the learners’ emerging understandings about what is being learned (declarative or prepositional knowledge), why and when it will be used (conditional or situational knowledge), and how it is used (procedural knowledge) (Duffy, Roehler, Meloth & Vavrus, 1986; Paris, Lipson & Wixson, 1983).

2) Inviting student participation

The second type of scaffolding was inviting student participation. In this type of scaffolding, learners were given opportunities to join in the process that was occurring. After the teacher provided illustrations of some of the thinking, feelings or doing that was needed to complete the task, the learners had opportunities to fill in the pieces that they knew and understood.
3) Verifying and clarifying student understandings
In the third type of scaffolding, teachers checked the students' emerging understandings. If the emerging understandings were reasonable, the responses were verified. If the emerging understandings were not reasonable, the teacher offers clarification.

3) Modeling of Desired Behaviors
The fourth type of scaffolding was modeling. Modeling was defined as a teaching behavior that showed how one should feel, think or act within a given situation (Duffy, Roehler & Hartmann, 1988). It included think-aloud modeling where the learners were shown an illustration of how to feel or think as they progressed through a task. A school activity in which participants were deciding what is important in a book chapter and where a teacher thinks aloud during a lesson about the reasoning that is used was an example of think-aloud modeling. Modeling also included talk-aloud where the learners were shown how to act by the designated teacher talking about the task as it is completed. A school activity where a teacher talked about picture clues in a story but did not talk about the reasoning that is needed to understand the story was an example of talk-aloud modeling. Finally, performance modeling was where the learners were shown how to complete the task with no think-aloud or talk-aloud about the performance or the progress toward doing the complete performance. The school activity where the teacher reads silently as the students read silently were examples of performance modeling. In this type of modeling, the teacher physically demonstrated reading and the enjoyment of the reading material by laughing, smiling, etc. (See Roehler and Duffy, 1991) for a more detailed explanation of the types of modeling).

4) Inviting Students to Contribute Clues
The fifth type of scaffolding was one where several students contributed clues for reasoning through the issue or problem. In this form of scaffolding, learners were encouraged to offer clues about how to complete the task. Together, the teachers and students verbalized the process.

In addition, there are also three types of scaffoldings which have been identified as being especially effective for second language learners.

They are as follows:

1) Simplifying the language: the teacher can simplify the language by shortening selections, speaking in the present tense, and avoiding the use of idioms.
2) Asking for completion, not generation: the teacher can have students choose answers from a list or complete a partially finished outline or paragraph.
3) Using visuals: the teacher can present information and ask the students to respond through the use of graphic organizers, tables, charts, outlines, and graphs.

2.5 Scaffolding Applied in Classroom Interaction

I described the types of scaffolding talks the teachers performed from the beginning to the end of the teaching sections and then I elaborated with the application of the micro teaching skills from Turney et al. (1983). They are included explaining, basic and advanced questioning, reinforcement, and introductory procedure and closure. The complete discussions are as follows.

1) Explaining

Explaining is one way the teacher tells pupils something. In “telling”, the teacher organizes lesson content so that pupils is exposed to the content in planned and controlled sequenced’ (Hogg and Foster, 1973: 15) as cited by Turney et al., 1973: 15). A teacher explains to provide an answer to a “why?”, “what?”, or “how?” questions in such away that understanding becomes evident. In explaining, teacher is doing more than coping with a particular curriculum topic. The teacher should consider the principles of explaining when he or she plans and presents explanations in the classroom. There are six main components of skills that the teachers have to master. They are raising key questions, promoting clarity, using
examples, forming connections, making emphasis, and monitoring feedback. (Turney et al., 1983: 38-43)

2) Basic and Advanced Questioning

Based on Turney et al., there are nine components of the skills of questionings as follows.

a. Structuring

During the lesson, the teacher may also structure the discussion by giving specific information relevant to the task either immediately before or after a series of questions.

b. Phrasing – Clarity and Brevity

To facilitate responding by pupils, questions should be phrased in words that are appropriate to the level of development of the students. Additionally, question should be phrased economically.

c. Re-directing

When the teacher wishes to maintain attention to one question, and to invite several pupils to respond, the technique of re-direction may be used. Having posed a question for the whole class the teacher may select pupils to respond in turn by naming them (verbal re-direction) or by pointing, nodding or smiling (gestural re-directing).

d. Distributing

Questions are should be directed, as general rule, to the whole class so that all pupils are encouraged to feel responsible for forming answers.
e. Pausing

The teacher should pause for a few seconds after asking questions of the whole group and before requesting a particular child to respond.

f. Reacting

The enthusiasm and warmth, which a teacher shows in reacting to pupil’s answer, will often be an important determinant both of that pupil’s further participation in the lesson and the participation of other pupils.

g. Prompting

A further aspect of the way in which a teacher respond to a pupil is the strategy adopted when the pupil fails to articulate an answer, or gives inadequate answer. By rephrasing the same questions in a parallel fashion, the teacher may help the pupil avoid difficult words, and thus complete the task successfully. Pupils are may also assisted with simpler questions relevant to the original task.

h. Changing the level of Cognitive Demand

As well as preparing key questions which vary the level of cognitive demand, teachers may also find it easier to ask higher order questions when they have source materials such as graphs, document and apparatus of various kinds to which pupils are able to refer in answering these questions.
3) Reinforcement

There are types of reinforcement as follows:

a. Verbal reinforcement

Verbal reinforcements are in the form of teacher praise, attention, encouragement and approval.

b. Token Reinforcement

Token reinforcement done by the teacher includes giving stars, ticks, stamps or points may be effective with young children. Positive and discriminating written comments on a pupil’s work appear to be more appropriate with older pupils.

c. Praise Linked With token Reinforcement

Examples of this kinds of reinforcement such as giving chart recognition (a star next to pupils’ names, offering monetary rewards such as five cents for one test passed, fifteen cents for two and so on.

d. Proximity and Contact Reinforcement

A teacher may increase the impact of praise for performance and achievement by moving amongst pupils, sitting and standing with them, and displaying direct interest in their work and efforts by employing what is referred to “proximity reinforcement”.

However, in this thesis I only analyzed verbal reinforcement.

4) Introductory Procedure and Closure

Introductory Procedure and Closure encompass skills involved in opening or bringing to a close teaching-learning encounter. The
component of Introductory Procedure and Closure includes gaining attention, arousing motivation, structuring, making links, reviewing and evaluating.

a. Gaining attention

At the beginning of a teaching episode, the teacher needs to attract and then holds the attention of pupils. To gain pupils’ attention, are briefly as follows:

- Teacher variation of gesture or position, eye contact and voice, use of pauses or clear focusing comments all serve to attract attention, stimulate interest and convey meaning, providing many ways to start a lesson.

- The use of various modes of communication broadly categorized as visual, aural and tactile provides stimulus that gain attention, arouses curiosity, and can lead to thinking and learning. Audio-Visual aids provide a concrete basis for conceptual thought and of themselves general interest.

b. Making Link

For introductory procedures and for Closure, making links involves recalling concepts or skills that already known to pupils in order to aid understanding and retention of new or unfamiliar material. The concern of this section in with specific teacher’s behaviours which set a context for treating material by referring back to what was learned or experienced at some point in the past. The two aspects of
making links which will be considered are recalling concepts and highlighting familiar ideas.

c. **Reviewing**

In the period when lessons are ending, reviewing to a close, reviewing relates to moves initiated by the teacher that will ensure that treated material is consolidated for pupils, so that the main concepts are recalled, looked again, re-emphasized and remembered.

d. **Evaluating**

In the closing stages of a lesson, evaluating encompasses moves made by the teacher to obtain information as a basis judging whether the lesson goals are have been achieved, and for deciding what will happen in subsequent lesson.

e. **Structuring**

In a broad sense, structuring involves the teacher-setting context for what pupils will do subsequently in a lesson. Dalis (1970) as cited by Turney *et al.*, 1983: 81) states that for the introductory procedures the teacher could structures by establishing goals, giving directions and outlining content. When a teacher structures by establishing goals, pupils are given an indication why they will be involved in a particular lesson. Meanwhile, giving directions occurs when a teacher indicates to pupils how they will be working in particular ways throughout the lesson.
2.6 Speech Function in the Teachers’ Scaffolding Talks

Halliday as cited by Eggins and Slade (1997:180) said that wherever someone uses language to interact one of the things they are doing is establishing a relationship between the person speaking now and the person who will probably speak next. Therefore, when people carried out a conversation, what they actually exchange is the commodity. In fact, there are two kinds of commodity being exchange namely good-and services and information. In other word, he said that dialogue is a process of exchange involving two variables namely:

1) a commodity to be exchanged: either information or goods and services
2) roles associated exchange relations either giving or demanding.

This also applied in the classroom context in which learning and teaching in the classroom predominantly take place through interpersonal communications between teachers and students. Then communication is at the heart of classroom processes while there are dialogues between teacher and students and there is any move in dialogue involves a choice between the speech roles of giving or demanding, the commodities of either goods and services or information, and the exchange role either initiating or responding. Roles associated exchanged either giving or demanding such as when the teacher is giving information to the students.

Therefore, according to Halliday (1994: 68) the interaction called a dialog is a process of exchange involving two variables: speech role or speech function in an exchange and the commodity being exchanged. The
speech roles can be differentiated into two basic types: giving and demanding. While the commodities being exchanged are goods or services and information. It can be seen at Table 2.4 below.

**Table 2.4  Speech roles and commodities in the interaction**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role of Exchange</th>
<th>Commodity Exchanged</th>
<th>(a) Goods-and-services</th>
<th>(b) Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) giving</td>
<td>Offer</td>
<td>Would you like this teapot?</td>
<td>Statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>He’s giving her teapot.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Demanding</td>
<td>Command</td>
<td>Give me the teapot!</td>
<td>Question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>What is he giving her!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: based on Halliday (1994: 69)*

Form Table 2.4 above, it can be seen that when we are giving information such as in the utterance “He’s giving her teapot”, the speech function we produce is one which is called ‘statement’. When we are giving goods and services, the speech function we use is one which is called ‘offer’, like in the expression “Would you like this teapot?”. When we are demanding goods and services, the speech function we produce is called ‘command’ like in this expression “Give me the teapot?” The last, when we are demanding information, our utterances we produced called ‘question’.

In conclusion, any move in dialogue involves a choice between the speech role of either giving or demanding, the commodities of either goods and services or information, and the exchange role of either initiating or responding to (Eggins, 1994: 215). Several of the primary choices have been more delicately described e.g. offering goods and services may be speaker oriented (May I get you some coffee?) and addressee oriented (would you like a coffee?). Demanding goods and services can be done inclusively
(Let’s read a book) or exclusively (Read it!). Demanding information can be querying (Who wrote it?) or questioning (Is it by Henry James?). Information involves a choice between opinion (He should stop smoking) and fact (He quit last week), and responding moves can be either supporting (Yes, that’s right) or confronting (No, you wrong there).

To describe the speech functions performed by the teachers, I need to analyze the grammatical structures chosen by the teachers because there is correlation between the semantic choice of the speech function and the grammatical structure typically chosen to realize it. For example, when teachers performed statement speech function, they actually use a particular grammatical structure, which is declarative clause. When the teacher wants to ask question to the students, he or she use imperative clauses. Therefore, the speech functions performed by the teachers are realized through the mood structure (Eggins, 1994: 152).

2.7 Mood Types

At the clause level, the major patterns which enact roles and role relations are those of mood, with the associated subsystems of polarity and modality. Mood refers to patterns of clause type, such as interrogative, imperative and declarative (Eggins and Slade, 1997: 74)

According to Gerot and Wignel (1995), mood consists of two parts: the Subject and the Finite. In other words, mood is realized by the position of
the Subject and Finite in the clause. There are some mood types indicated in Figure 2.3 below.

**Figure 2.3 Mood Types**

![Mood Types Diagram](source: Gerot and Wignel (1955: 38))

From Figure 2.4 above, it can be seen that the grammatical category that is characteristically used to exchange information is the indicative and declarative.

### 2.7.1 Indicative Clause

Within indicative category, the characteristic expression of a statement is the declarative and that of question is the interrogative. Within the category of interrogative, there is a further distinction between yes-no interrogative for polar question and Wh-interrogative for content question. The followings are further discussion of declarative, Polar and Wh-interrogative.
a. Declarative

Declarative clauses can be identified as clauses in which the structural element of Subject occurs before the Finite element of the clause (Eggin and Slade, 1997: 85). Examples of declaratives are as follows:

*The car had four bicycle wheels*

b. Polar Interrogative

Polar interrogative also known as yes - no interrogatives, can be identified as clauses where the Finite elements occur before the Subject. Here are examples of polar interrogatives adopted from Gerot and Wignel (1995: 38)

*Did Henry Ford build his first car in the back yard?*

c. Wh – Interrogative

Wh-Interrogatives consist of a w-h-question word, e.g. who, what, which, when, where, why, how, in what way, what reason, etc. The purpose of the w-h-word is to probe for a missing element of clause structure. For example, when probes for a circumstantial Adjunct; who probes for the subject; and what probes for either subject or the complement of a clause. Wh -interrogatives set up an expectation that the answering clause will fill out (give content to) the missing element of clause structure.
The followings are examples of Wh questions adopted from Gerot and Wignel (1995: 39).

*Who built a car in his backyard?*
*What did Henry Ford built?*

### 2.7.2 Imperative Clause

The other type of mood is imperative. Halliday (1994) explained that it has different system of person from the indicative. Imperative typically do not contain the elements of Subject or Finite but consist of only predicator, plus any of the non-core participants of Compliment and Adjunct. The followings are examples of imperatives adopted from Eggins and Slade (1997: 88).

*Look at the man coming up the hill*
*Get yourself a degree!*
CHAPTER III
METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

I conducted descriptive qualitative research. It was descriptive because it described systematically the facts and the characteristics of a given population or area of interest, factually and accurately (Isaac and Michael 1971: 18).

This was a qualitative study because the data were collected in the form of words rather than numbers. The data collected were rich of descriptions about people, talks, places that would be difficult to explain with statistical procedures as in quantitative research. The data will cover the transcriptions of the teacher talks during the teaching learning processes. Miles (1984: 5) states that qualitative data are a source of grounded, rich description and explanations of processes. With qualitative data we can preserve chronological flow, assess local causality, and descriptive fruitful explanation.

In this study, I analyzed the teachers’ talks particularly the teachers’ scaffolding talks and speech functions performed in their scaffolding talks during the teaching learning processes. Concerning the study of this research, I attempted to describe the types of the teachers’ scaffolding talks and the speech functions performed in their scaffolding talks.

3.1 Description of the Location of Data Collection.

The data were collected at a kindergarten classes of Sekolah Permata Bangsa. This school is one of the National Plus Schools in Semarang, established in June 2000 and is located at Jl. Raung 16, Semarang.
In Sekolah Permata Bangsa, Semarang, the students learn all of the school subjects included Mathematics, Science, English, Social Studies, Information Technology, Health and Physics Educations through the medium of a foreign language (English). In other words, the lessons and the instructions during the teaching learning processes and any other activities at school are delivered in English.

The teachers in this school were one expatriate teacher from Australia and six local teachers. The former had teaching experience of more than ten years teaching young learners, while the local teachers had only experienced teaching for about five years and all of them had English studies of their educational background.

3.2 Subjects of the Study

The subjects of the study were one kindergarten native-English teacher from Australia and two local teachers at Sekolah Permata Bangsa in Semarang in the academic year 2006/2007. The foreigner teacher had more than ten years’ experiences of teaching children in her country. The local teachers have English studies as their Educational Backgrounds and approximately they have five years experiences in teaching English for children.

3.3 Time for Obtaining the Data

I took three teachers as the sources of my data. The data were taken in these periods:
Teacher A : November 21\textsuperscript{st} 2006 and November 28\textsuperscript{th} 2006  
Teacher B : November 23\textsuperscript{rd} 2006 and November 28\textsuperscript{th} 2006  
Teacher C : November 21\textsuperscript{st} November 2006 and November 23\textsuperscript{rd} 2006  

Each teacher was recorded twice so that there are six recordings. The data were classified based on good recording that I was be able to analyze the data. Meanwhile unclear data were disposed. Therefore, I only used data from two recordings of classroom discourse of Teacher A, one recording of Teacher B and one recording of Teacher C.

3.4 The Process of Obtaining the Data

The data collection activities conducted through several stages:

1) I fulfilled some formal administrative procedures including getting the school principal’s permit to collect data by doing classroom observation at the school. I also contacted one native speaker who taught at this school and asked permission to record her English classes.

2) As soon as the permit was given, then the schedule of the classroom observation was decided. The principal only recommended me to record the classroom interaction with tape recorder rather than video recording because of some reasons. After that, she took me to the classrooms that I wanted to observe and introduced me to the teachers and students.

3) I myself conducted the observation in the classroom by audio recording the teacher – students’ spoken interaction that happened during the lesson. The audio recorder was equipped with small microphone then I
put it on the teacher’s collar in order to have clear voice of the teacher. During the process of recording, I observed and made notes of what the teacher and students did during the interaction. The notes covered how the teacher prepared the setting of the classroom, descriptions of the action or activities which the teacher and students did during the lesson, and interaction between teacher and students, and interaction among students.

4) The recorded data were played several times and transcribed the transcription was also accompanied with the notes made. For this particular study, the transcriptions focused on the teachers’ scaffolding talks.

3.5 Techniques of Data Analysis

The analysis of the data was done through some stages:

1) The spoken interaction between the teacher and students were first transcribed into written form in order that I was able to analyze them easily. As this study focused on the teachers’ scaffolding talks, the students’ talks were not analyzed in details.

2) Then the teachers’ talks were analyzed whether they belong to scaffolding talks or not based on the characteristics and types of scaffolding suggested by some authors mentioned in the previous chapter such as:

- Using open-ended questioning where the adult asks questions to elicit a response from the child,
- Providing feedback that is encouraging, evaluative, clarifying, acknowledging, informational, and interpretative.

- Provide direct instruction through modeling, suggesting the child, asking for a particular action, or completing the activity together.

- Offering explanations

- The adult provides cognitive structuring which assists in problem solving and reasoning. This includes explicitly teaching rules and helping the child become aware of relationships between objects and events.

3) Then, the teachers’ scaffolding talks were typed in italic.

4) Next, I identified types of the teachers’ scaffolding talks based on the types of scaffolding by Rohler and Cantlon (1997) (in http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources_advising/pdf/capstone_bwicklund.pdf). They are as follows:

a. Offering explanations

b. Inviting students’ participation

c. Verifying and clarifying student understandings

d. Modeling of Desired Behaviors

e. Inviting Students to Contribute Clues

5) Then, those teachers’ scaffolding talks were further analyzed with the micro teaching elements by Turney et al. (1983). Below are the micro teaching skills from Turney et al. (1983).

a) Explaining
b) Basic and Advanced Questioning

c) Reinforcement

d) Introductory Procedure and Closure

6) Next, the mood structures of the teachers’ scaffolding talks were identified by using the theory proposed by Gerot and Wignel (1995) in order to find out the speech function performed by the teacher, I analyzed the grammatical structures chosen because the speech functions performed by the teachers are realized through what is called mood structure. Therefore, I used the types of mood suggested by Gerot and Wignel (1995: 38). So in this technique, I categorized whether the teachers’ scaffolding talks were categorized as Indicative Clause or Imperative Clause. Within indicative category, the characteristic expression of a statement is the declarative and that of question is the interrogative. Within the category of interrogative, there is a further distinction between Yes-No Interrogative for polar question and Wh - Interrogative for content question. Imperative typically do not contain the elements of Subject or Finite but consist of only predicator, plus any of the non-core participants of Compliment and Adjunct.

6) Then the speech function performed by the teacher in their scaffolding talks were described further following the categories suggested by Halliday (1994). They are as follows:

a. Statement, whether statements giving fact or opinion

b. Question, whether question demanding fact or opinion
c. Command demanding goods-and services

d. Offer giving goods and services

7) The categorization was made into table and written analysis as the interpretation.

The table is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Teacher’s Scaffolding Talks</th>
<th>Speech Functions</th>
<th>Giving</th>
<th>Demanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
S = Statement  G-S = Goods and Services
Q = Question    I = Information
O = Offer       F = Fact
C = Command     O = Opinion

3.6 Techniques of Data Interpretation

Techniques of Data Interpretations were done through some stages as follows:

1) The first step of interpreting the data is describing the classroom context concerning the topic of the lesson and the activities provided by the teachers clearly.

2) After that, the data collected were then interpreted based on the review of literature mentioned in chapter two.
3) Then, the data interpretation was done to find out the types of teachers’ scaffolding talks use at children language immersion classrooms and the kinds of speech function performed in the teachers’ scaffolding talk.

3.7 Unit of Analysis

The unit of the analysis of the study is clause since this study aims at describing the types of teachers’ scaffolding talks and the kinds of speech functions they performed in their scaffolding talks.
CHAPTER IV

FINDING AND INTERPRETATION

In this chapter, I present the findings and interpretation of the data into two parts. The first, I examined the type of scaffolding talks performed by the teachers. The analysis yielded five different types of scaffolding designed to assist students to gain conceptual understanding. The second part, I examined the speech functions performed by the teachers in their scaffolding talks.

4.1 The findings of the types of the teachers’ scaffolding talks

From the data studied, all of the teachers used most of the types of scaffolding. The findings and the interpretations of the data analysis of the teachers’ scaffolding talks can be outlined as follows.

4.1.1 Teacher A (at first observation)

The subject of this class was science. The topic of the lesson was about insects. From the data studied, the purpose of the lesson was giving the students knowledge about kinds of animals that were categorized as insects such as a grasshopper, a bee, a butterfly, an ant and about their physical characteristics such as they have six legs, wings, and most of them can fly. While giving the explanation about insects, the teacher used miniatures of insects as the examples of insects to support her explanation. In addition, the teacher used scaffolding as realized in her talks in order to make the students understand the topic discussion.
There were two sections in the lesson. The first one was presentation section in which the teacher gave explanation about the topic and the rest was activity section in which the teacher gave cutting activity to the students. In this activity, the students have to make a butterfly from a paper after the teacher has modeled how to do it.

In the presentation section, not only the teacher dominated the classroom discourse but also the students participated in the discussion by the support from the teacher. The teacher supported the students by her scaffolding talks. For instance, she offered explanation, invited their participation by asking series of questions. Therefore, spoken interaction between the teacher-students occurred throughout the teaching learning processes.

The students participated actively because they were very enthusiastic because the topic was interesting and the students have already been familiar with the material, as they might have seen kinds of insects in their surroundings. Before starting the lesson, the teacher made the students ready and then asked them to sit on a carpet while they were listening to the teacher’s explanation.

From the data studied, it could be seen that the teacher used scaffolding talks as their teaching strategy. The followings are the types of scaffolding talks performed by the teacher:

1. Offering explanation.
2. Inviting students’ participation
3. Verifying and clarifying students’ understandings.

This includes:

- Making thinking visible, as in think-aloud, showing what someone thinks about the process at a given moment.
- Generating questions and comments as in talk aloud, for example when the teacher shows how to perform by talking through the steps.
- Inviting students to contribute actively. Learners are encouraged to contribute clues in order to complete a task and to articulate their understandings of task.

Here are the discussions of the scaffolding talks performed by the teacher.

4.1.1.1 Offering Explanation

The first type of scaffolding talks performed by the teacher was offering explanations. The teacher used this type of scaffolding mostly in the presentation section.

Explanations are explicit statements adjusted to fit the learners' emerging understandings about what is being learned (declarative or prepositional knowledge), why and when it will be used (conditional or situational knowledge), and how it is used (procedural knowledge) (Roehler and Cantlon 1997) in

[http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources_advising/pdf/capstone_bwicklund.pdf](http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources_advising/pdf/capstone_bwicklund.pdf)
The teacher did explanation mostly in the presentation section. From the data studied, the teacher also applied some of the components of explaining from Turney et al., (1983) such as raising key questions, promoting clarity, using examples, forming connections, making emphasis, and monitoring feedback.

For instance, in the beginning she gave key question like in this excerpt “can you tell me what animal is this? (the teacher held a miniature of a butterfly)” in which it would be focus of the topic of the explanation and share frame of reference. Then the teacher promoted clarity by stating or explaining what was being learned for today’s lesson so that the students have clear ideas about the material they were going to learn. In other words, both teacher and students shared the same purposes in the teaching learning process as we could see in the following excerpts:

“Today we are not talking about animal but today we will talk about the animals which are insects.”

“Now, we are going to talk about insect. Like this…” (the teacher held the miniature of insect)

From the excerpt above, the teacher explained that at the time they were going to learn about insects not other species. She hoped that the students could have clear understanding about the animals that were categorized as insects. To state the goal the teacher used declarative sentences. In addition, the teacher has applied the components of explaining from Turney et al., (1983) in which she used miniatures of insects as the real examples. And she used Piaget theory of children cognitive development in
which students aged 3-4 years old were still in the sensorimotor period. In this period, the students learn with their sensorimotor equipment so that they really need real objects as the real example to be learned.

While in the activity section, the teacher also gave explanation about the purpose of the activity they would like to perform. In other words, the teacher stated that they would like to perform an activity like in the following excerpts below.

“Now, we are going to make a butterfly”

“So we are going to make a butterfly”

From the excerpts above, it could be seen that while stating the goal, the teacher used declarative sentences with futurities. She hoped that students will understand that they were going to do a particular task “making a butterfly” and after the teacher’s explanation, then the students did their tasks independently.

In presentation section, to support her explanation in presenting the teaching material, the teacher used miniature of insects as the real examples. The teacher was bringing objects for the students’ attention and understanding. This strategy is suitable with Piaget’s theory of development in which children in this class who were still two years old were still in the sensory motor period. During the sensory motor stage, children think with their eyes, ears, hands and other sensorimotor equipment. Therefore, the teacher used the miniatures of insects to give clear examples of insects. Explanation supported by using real objects as examples was a good strategy
to make the explanation understandable for the children or students. The students were constructing their knowledge from working with objects.

Other explanation found from the data studied was the teacher’s explanation about insects including kinds of animals which were categorized as insects and their physical characteristics. In giving such explanations, the teacher used strategy from Turney et al., in which as the explanation unfolds, the teacher will raise subsidiary key questions that will help, guide and sequence the explanation, promote pupil involvement in the presentation and most importantly stimulate pupil thinking and the development of understanding (Turney et al., 1983: 39). From the data studied, the subsidiary questions are as follows.

“In an insect is an animal who has six…?” (The teacher pointed to legs part of the miniature of a grasshopper).

“And most of them can…?” (The teacher mimed fly action)

Based on the excerpts above, she tried to make the students understand by their own understanding through the use subsidiary key questions. The questions were in the form of incomplete statements. Then it can be said that the teacher gave series of subsidiary key questions in presenting the material in order to support students’ understanding and facilitate the students to think and participate in the lesson discussion.

4.1.1.2 Inviting Students’ Participation

The next type of her scaffolding she has performed was “inviting students’ participation”. The teacher invited students’ participation by questioning the students.
For the purposes of examining the role of questions in the classroom, three kinds of questions are distinguished. They are procedural, convergent and divergent. Procedural questions have to do with classroom procedures and routines, and classroom management. Convergent and divergent questions are designed to help students master the content of a lesson. Convergent questions encourage similar student response or responses which focus on a central theme. These responses are often short answer, such as "yes" or "no" or short statements. Divergent questions, however, encourage diverse students to engage in higher-level thinking. They encourage students to provide their own information rather than to recall previously presented information (Richard and Lockhart, 1994: 186-187).

Other explanation found from the data studied was the teacher’s explanation about insects including kinds of animals which were categorized as insects and other characteristics. In giving such explanation, the teacher used strategy from Turney et.al. in which the explanation unfolds the teacher would raise subsidiary key questions that would help, guidance and sequence the explanation, promote students’ involvement in the presentation and importantly stimulate students’ thinking and the development of understanding. (Turney et al., 1983: 39). From the data studied, the subsidiary questions were as follows:

“An insect is an animal which has six….?" (the teacher points to the leg of the miniature of a grasshopper)
From the excerpt above, the teacher tried to make the students understand by their own understanding through the use of subsidiary key questions. The questions above were in the form of incomplete statements. Then it can be said that the teacher gave a series of subsidiary key questions in presenting the materials in order to support students’ understanding and facilitate students to think and participate in the lesson discussion.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the teacher gave support to the students by using gestures which were supported her talks such as when she asked the students “An insect is an animal who has six…?” the teacher supported the students by holding “legs” part of the miniature of a grasshopper so that the students would come up with the answer “legs”

Then the teacher invited students’ participation by asking students a question “Most of them can….?” (The teacher mimed flying action). By using her gesture of miming action, the teacher has supported the students to come up with the answer “fly”. After that, the teacher rephrased the answer like in this excerpt “Yes fly. But not all of them. But most of them can fly”

Next, when the teacher intended to give examples of insects, she did not directly explain that grasshopper is an insect, say for example “grasshopper is an insect” but she preferred to ask question to stimulate students’ thinking. For example, she asked the students questions with simple open-question like in the following excerpts below.

“What is this?” (The teacher held up a miniature of a lady bug)
“What is it?” (The teacher held up a miniature of a bee)
“What is everybody?” (The teacher held up a miniature of an ant)
Those kinds of questions like the excerpts above are categorized as convergent questions since they engaged students in the content of the lesson and only demanded short responses. Those questions were suitable with the students’ ages and grade level of the class because those questions were formed of simple interrogative sentences. Based on the data studied, while the teacher was asking questions about kinds of insects, she used object (miniature of insect) as a clue for the answer. This kind of activity could be a support for learning the spoken language because the students will know the vocabularies of the names of various insects.

Then, to engage students in the content of the lesson, facilitate their comprehension, and promote classroom interaction, the teacher used convergent and divergent questions.

In convergent questions, the teacher only demanded a short response from the students in which it would become the central theme like in the following excerpt the teacher hoped that the students would answer it with the word “insects” which referred to the main topic they would like to discuss for the lesson.

“can you tell me what animal is this?” (the teacher held up a miniature of grasshopper)

From the excerpt above, the teacher demanded a short answer that would focus on the topic discussion because actually the answer of the question “can you tell me what animal is this?” which was “insect”. Insect was the central theme of the topic discussion. Then the teacher gave statements to explain that they were going to discuss about insects.
However, while there were not any students answer her questions, she pointed students to respond in turn by naming them such as in the following excerpts the teacher pointed one student to answer her question.

“Akil, how to write the date?”
“What is it Ibra?” (T held a miniature of a fly)
“Wina, what is it?” (T held a miniature of a fly)
“What else is Akil?” (T held a miniature of a fly)
“Okay, What else David?”
“Where are the legs, Mathew?”

Based on the excerpts above, the teacher verified the question by selecting students by pointing them to respond to the questions, giving as many as possible the chances to contribute ideas.

4.1.1.3 Verification and clarification of students’ understandings

After the teacher asked questions, she had the responses from the students. After that, the teacher reacted or gave feedbacks such as acknowledging a correct answer, indicating an incorrect answer, praising, expanding or modifying students’ answers, repeating, summarizing or criticizing the students’ answers.

Teacher’s feedbacks by acknowledging correct answers were in the following excerpt:

“Good!”
“Yes!”
“Okay, very good!”

Based on the excerpts above the teacher gave comment by offering praise and encouragement such as using the words “good”, “yes”, “very
“good” to reinforce the students’ responses. They were categorized as verbal reinforcement.

Most of the time, the teacher repeated the students’ correct answers as the strategy in giving feedback like in the following excerpts:

“Yes legs.”
“Yes. Lady bird”.
“Yes, it’s a bee, Buz buz buz”
“Lady bug. Good!”
“Grasshopper. Good!”
“Yes ant.”

From the excerpts above, the teacher firstly gave verbal reinforcement such as by using the words “yes”, “good” before or after she repeated the students’ answers. In my interpretation, the teacher wanted the students to hear the answers repeatedly so that the students can memorize them. Based on the excerpt above, the was giving students chances to listen repeatedly and memorize the names and characteristics of the insects such as “lady bug”, “bee”, “grasshopper” by repeating the answers “lady bug”, “bee”, “grasshopper” so that those vocabularies become familiar for the students.

Meanwhile, there were the teacher’s feedbacks by using the students’ answers to solve problems.

“Yes fly. Not all of them. But most of them can fly”
“Yes. Lady bird and lady bug are the same. OK. Fly”
“Ok. There is a lady bird”

Here are the teacher’s feedbacks by agreeing and asking for elaboration like in the following excerpt:

“Bee. What else?”
Based on the excerpt above, the student’s answer was correct, then the teacher agreed on the student’s answer by repeating it, and then the teacher elaborated her response by asking more questions like by asking “what else?”

4.1.1.4 Modeling the desired behavior

In the activity section, students were ready to do their tasks supported by the teacher’s scaffolding talks. In this section, the teacher used the third type of scaffolding “modeling the desired behaviour”. It means, the teacher modeled the appropriate thinking or working skills in the classroom so that the children could observe and create a mental picture of an understanding for the appropriate thinking or working skills (Roehler and Cantlon 1995). From the data studied, the teacher gave talk-aloud modeling where the students were shown how to act by the designated teacher talking about the task as it was completed. It was realized when the teacher said the procedures of how to make a butterfly from a paper. While the teacher talked aloud the procedures, she also used performance modeling in which while she was talking the step-by-step procedures in making a butterfly, she also showed how to do it by physically demonstrated the procedures like in the following excerpts below.

“Before I show how to make it, turn over the folding paper” (The teacher demonstrated by folding the paper)

“Put the scissor and the cut along the black spot” (The teacher demonstrated by cutting along the black spot)
“Do not cut along the dotted line. Okay...
“Look at this first!”
“This is the folding paper.”
“If you have finished cutting the folded paper, you can open it. Then you see!”
“And then there is a straw and open this at the antenna and put it like this.” (The teacher demonstrated the action)

From the excerpts above, the teacher used imperatives. Imperatives did not contain of subject or finite but consist of only a predicator. The omissions of subjects were caused that all imperatives are implicitly addressed to the addressee. In this case, imperatives clauses were addressed to the whole students in class. In this case, imperative clauses used by the teacher functioned as the teacher’s instruction. It means the teacher gave step by step instructions through modeling in the form of imperatives. From the excerpts above we could see that the instructions that the teacher’s performed contained of simple verbs such as “put”, “cut”, “open” to provide direct instruction through modeling, asking particular actions such as “Put the scissor and the cut along the black spot” or “....and open this at the antenna and put it like this.”

While through suggesting, she suggested the students to color the butterfly to make it nicer as shown in the following excerpts:

“To make it nice you can color it first!”
“Color it here and color it here! Ok”

In addition, the teacher’s modeling in the making and doing processes of the tasks would offer opportunities for the students to understand the process of doing and finishing the tasks and support for the
use of foreign language. For instance, in the activity section, the teacher used materials such as paper, scissors, straw, etc. And then the teacher turned this into an opportunity for using the foreign language meaningfully. While the teacher was explaining about the materials they were going to use such as: “butterfly”, “folding paper”, “straw”, “scissors”, and “dotted line” she showed the students those materials available and telling their names in the foreign language.

Then the teacher modeled with performance modeling in which she physically did how to make a butterfly while giving step by step instructions verbally. By those teacher’s modeling, the students observed the process and built up an internal conceptual model. When the process is displayed in this way, it was also possible to imitate it.

The process of modeling can be concluded that, firstly the teacher did it. In other words, the teacher physically modeled how to perform a new or difficult task, such as how to make a butterfly from a paper. For example, the teacher have completed making a butterfly and "talked aloud" the activity as she described the step by step procedures how to make a butterfly from a paper.

Then the students did it. It means, after the teacher had modeled the activity by talking aloud modeling, then the students did it independently. This is the independent practice stage where individual students could demonstrate their task mastery (e.g., successfully making their own butterfly from paper).
4.1.2 Teacher A (at second observation)

The subject of the class was social studies. The topic of the lesson was about “classroom rules”. The purpose of the lesson was giving material such as kinds of rules that should be applied in the classrooms. Then the teacher also broke the topic into sub-topic “magic words”. Magic words are words or phrases used in certain attitude. Such as the phrase ‘thank you’ should be used if we received something from anyone else, we should say “thank you”. The other magic words are “sorry”, “excuse me”, “good bye” etc. In this term, the teacher should give knowledge to the students about in what circumstances or situations the students use those kinds of magic words. Therefore, the teacher needed particular teaching strategy to make the students’ understand, and to foster students’ thinking and understanding about those concepts or terms. From the data studied, the teacher used teacher’s scaffolding talks as her teaching strategy to foster students’ thinking and understanding.

There were two sections in the lesson discussion. The first was presentation section and activity section.

From the data studied, I can see that the teacher used teacher’s scaffolding talks in their teaching strategy. The followings are the types of scaffolding talks performed by the teacher.

1. Offering explanation
2. Inviting the students’ participation and interests.
3. Modeling the desired behaviour
This includes:

- Generating questions and comments as in talk aloud, for example when the teacher shows how to perform by talking through the steps.
- Inviting students to contribute actively. Learners are encouraged to contribute clues in order to complete a task and to articulate their understandings of task demands.

4. Inviting students to contribute clues

5. Verifying and clarifying students’ understanding

Here are the discussions of the teacher’s scaffolding talks performed by the teacher.

4.1.2.1 Offering explanation

The teacher used this type of scaffolding “offering explanation” both in the presentation or activity sections. Explanations are explicit statements adjusted to fit the learners' emerging understandings about what is being learned (declarative or prepositional knowledge), why and when it will be used (conditional or situational knowledge), and how it is used (procedural knowledge) (Roehler and Cantlon (1997) in http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources_advising/pdf/capstone_bwicklund.pdf

In the beginning of the presentation section, the teacher gave explanation about what was being learned for today’s lesson so that the students have clear picture about the knowledge they were going to learn.
Both teacher and students share the same goals in the teaching learning process as we can see in the following excerpt the teacher stated the goal:

“Today we will talk about our classroom rules”

Based on the excerpt above, it could be seen that the teacher used conditional sentences in order to explain the purpose of the lesson. In addition, the teacher stated the purpose of the lesson by stating the statement like in the following excerpt below.

“If we don't have a rule in our class so later you will not be shouting in the class”

Then it was helpful to ask oneself simple question about what might be important of the topic. Like in the following excerpt, the teacher formulated a single question which seems to embody the overall purpose for the explanation.

“We have a rule right?”
“...So that we have the rules in our class. OK!”

For emphasizing her explanation, the teacher used a chart as a teaching aid. By using the chart, she gave example about kinds of classroom rules.

4.1.2.2 Inviting students’ participation

While the teacher was doing explanation in the presentation section, she also performed the second type of the scaffolding, “inviting students’ participations” by questioning the students in order to motivate them to think. This kind of strategy can be also useful to foster students’ understanding. For instance, the teacher wanted to make the students know
kinds of “magic words” and their usage, the teacher invited students’ participation by asking series of questions to the students like in the following excerpts above.

“And then when you get something from your friend, so what will you say?”

“Then when you tap to somebody’s feet, what will you say?”
“And before you go home, what will you say everybody?”

Based on the excerpts above, the teacher wanted to elicit the appropriate ‘magic words’ that the students should use in appropriate situation in their everyday life. For instance, the students should say the magic word “thank you” for somebody who gives them something or helps. They should say the magic word “sorry” for somebody who is being hurt by them. When the teacher wanted the students came up with the ‘magic words’ “thank you”, she assisted the students by giving prompt question as illustration, “when you get something from your friend, so what will you say?”. Based on the question, by giving an illustration by saying “when you get something from your friend, so what will you say?” the teacher hoped that students could answer with the magic word “thank you”. Also when the teacher wanted the students come up with the word “sorry”, she invited students participation by asking prompting question as illustration “Then when you tap to somebody’s feet, what will you say?”

Those excerpts above were the way how the teachers scaffold the lesson. She tried to assist the students to grasp the concepts of ‘magic words’ by presenting illustration of situation then give a chance to the
students to think. For instance the teacher gave illustration by saying, “...when you tap to someone’s feet, then the teacher asked “so what will you say?”, she hoped that the students will answer with the magic word “sorry”.

In addition, the excerpts above are categorized as convergent questions because they do not require the students to engage in higher level of thinking in order to come up with respond but only focuses on the recall of previously presented information since the students have already known about magic words in ‘classroom rules’ in lesson part one. When the teacher asked those questions, she hoped that the students could answer them because they referenced to the students’ experiences or to an event in their own lives.

4.1.2.3 Modeling the desired behavior

The teacher used this type of the scaffolding talk, “modeling the desired behaviour” in the activity section. In the activity section, the teacher provided pictures that illustrate students’ attitudes in the classroom. Each picture illustrated the students’ attitudes in the classroom in which do the students in the picture obey the classroom rules or not. If the answer is ‘yes’, it means that the students in the pictures obey the classroom rules. If the students in the picture showed that they disobey the classroom rules, the students should circle the word “No”. In this kind of activity, the teacher should give clear explanation of the procedures and about the concept of the words “Yes” and “No”.

Firstly, the teacher explained the concepts of “Yes” or “No”, she thought out aloud the concept like in the following excerpts below.

“…..when you see the word “yes” (The teacher spells Y-E-S), what does it say?”

Then, the teacher clearly stated about the activity the students would like to perform so that the students understood the activity that they would like to complete as the following excerpts:

“Now I have some worksheets.” (The teacher held the worksheet and showed to the students, and explained to them)

“There are five pictures, and when you see this words (The teacher wrote down the word yes), what does it say? Y- E-S (The teacher spelled the word yes), what does it say?”

“And when Miss L writes No (The teacher wrote on the board and spelled the word No), What does it say?”

In those excerpts above, the teacher thought out aloud the task in which the students were shown how to do the task in their work book.

4.1.2.4 Inviting Students to Contribute Clues

Then the teacher performed the fifth type of scaffolding “Inviting Students to Contribute Clues”. In this form of scaffolding, learners were encouraged to offer clues about how to complete the task. Together, the teachers and students verbalized the process like in the following excerpts below. Here are the excerpts:
Based on the excerpt, the teacher offered clues by asking question, “The students are listening to the teacher, yes or no?” and by asking the question such as “To keep the playground clean and tidy, yes or No?” hoping that student’s understand the instruction that they should answer whether with “yes” if the statement is true or “No” if the answer is not true.

4.1.2.5 Verifying and clarifying understanding

The teacher used this type of scaffolding by providing feedback after the students gave responses to the teacher’s questions. Then the teacher reacted or gave feedbacks such as with various strategies such as acknowledging a correct answer, indicating an incorrect answer, praising, expanding or modifying students’ answers, repeating, summarizing and criticizing.

When the students came up with correct answers, the teacher acknowledged that a student’s answer was correct by saying “good”, “yes”, “that’s right”. In addition, the teacher also complimented a student for the answer by saying “yes, that’s good!” or compliment the answer and mentioned the name of the student who correctly has answered it such as “that’s good Akil”.

\[ T \colon \text{“The students are listening to the teacher, yes or no?”} \]
\[ S \colon \text{“Yes”} \]
\[ T \colon \text{“Ok, So you circle the word Yes”} \]
\[ T \colon \text{“And number two: students are helping to keep the playground clean and tidy.”} \]
\[ \text{“To keep the playground clean and tidy. Yes or No?”} \]
\[ S \colon \text{“Yes”}. \]
\[ T \colon \text{“So circle the words Yes”}. \]
The next strategy in giving feedbacks performed by the teacher was agreeing the students’ answer by giving verbal reinforcement such as “yes” or “that’s right” and then repeating the students’ answers without any elaboration such as in the following excerpts below:

“Excuse me, that’s right!”
“Yes. Sorry”
“Yes...Thank you”
“Yes...five magic words.”

Based on the excerpts above, the teacher wanted the students to hear the new words by repeating them so that the students can memorize the words.

Only repeating the answer without using words such as “good” or “yes” like this excerpt the teacher only repeated the student’s answer:

“Please....”
“Sorry....”

Based on the excerpts above, the teacher wanted the students to hear the new words by repeating them so that the students can memorize the words.

Here are the teacher’s feedbacks by agreeing and asking for elaboration like in the following excerpt below the teacher wanted the student to elaborate the answer by asking him more question:

“Yes right, knock the door. And say?”

4.1.3 Teacher B (the first observation)

The subject of the class was social studies. The topic of the lesson was about “good habits at school part II”. The aim of the lesson was
providing the students knowledge about kinds of good habits which should be applied in school environment. The good habits in the classrooms included good habits to make their classrooms happy, safe and clean.

There were two sections in this classroom discourse, presentation section and activity section. In the presentation section, the teacher give input or material to the students about good habits at classrooms they should do in order to make their classroom happy, safe and clean. How to make the classroom happy included: “do not make other people sad”, “no body shouting in the classroom”. How to make the classroom safe included “do not play with scissors”, “do not play with the electricity”, “do not rock your chair”, “do not pock your pencil to your friend”.

To support the teacher’s explanation, she used a chart as a teaching aid in which the title of the chart was “good habits”. In the chart, there are some pictures which contain the sequence story of a bear doing its everyday activities. At this section, the teacher talked more compared to the students.

From the data analysis, I conclude that the teacher used scaffolding talks. The followings are the types of scaffolding talks performed by the teacher:

1. Offering explanation
2. Inviting students’ participation
3. Modeling the desired behaviour
4. Inviting students to Contribute Clues
5. Verifying and clarifying students’ understanding
Here are the discussions of the scaffolding talks performed by the teacher.

4.1.3.1 Offering Explanation

In the beginning of the teaching, the teacher attracted students attention by asking them to get ready for the lesson like in the following excerpt: “are you ready?”. The excerpt is categorized as procedural question as this question has to do with classroom management and routines functioning to get the students ready at the beginning of the lesson. Other procedural question was like in the following question: “Now are you ready to work on your workbook?”. This question was usually asked by the teacher to make the students ready on the next activity.

The first type of scaffolding the teacher has performed was “offering explanation”. Explanations are explicit statements adjusted to fit the learners' emerging understandings about what is being learned (declarative or prepositional knowledge), why and when it will be used (conditional or situational knowledge), and how it is used (procedural knowledge) (Roehler and Cantlon (1997) in http://www.hamline.edu/gse/academics/resources_advising/pdf/capstone_bwicklund.pdf

In the beginning of the lesson, the teacher made a link between the last or previous lesson with the lesson like in the following excerpt below:

“So last Monday when we talked about our classroom rules, and then we have discussed that, I will say give me five whenever we see our classroom getting very noisy.”
“OK before we continue to that lesson I will show you some good habits. But these ones are some goods habits that you can do at home.”

Based on the excerpts above, the lesson was the continuity of the previous lesson. This was good habits at school part II. And the teacher made link and added new knowledge but familiar to the students’ life, “good habits at home”. This idea might have got from the assumption that the students have been familiar with habitual activities at their home. Then the teacher made link to the up coming topic “good habit at school”. Besides having good habits at home, the students should also have good habits at school. So it can be concluded that for the introductory procedures, the teacher used making links. Making links involves recalling concepts or skills which are already known to the students, in order to aid understanding and retention of new or familiar material.

And in the activity section, the teacher explained about what they were going to perform like in this excerpt: “So we are going to discuss about classroom rules in this page, OK.”

When explaining about good habits at home, the teacher used a chart as a teaching-aid to emphasize her explanations as shown in the following excerpt below:

“There are some pictures there”

The charts contains of pictures of the sequences story of a little bear doing its everyday activities. Then the teacher referred to the pictures and also asked them to look at it while explaining by using imperative sentences
in order to make them understand about the teacher’s explanation by looking at the pictures like in the following excerpt below:

“Let’s go through the pictures there.”
“So these are the goods habits that happen at home”

Based on the excerpts above, the teacher explained to the students about general “good habits” that people usually do at home because in my interpretation the teacher made connections at the beginning, for example, reference to the students’ experience in their everyday life as the teacher provided explanation about good habits at home. While making explanation about good habits at home, the teacher used a chart contained pictures of the sequences story of a little bear doing its everyday activities. Therefore, the teacher used the second type of scaffolding “modeling the desired behavior” by talking aloud the pictures clues of the story that was needed to understand the story.

The teacher also gave the students explanation by giving examples and making conclusions like in the following excerpt below:

“So if you keep everybody happy, don’t make them sad then you keep your classroom happy too.”

The teacher prompted the students to recall what the little bear does in his daily activity. Then she raised key questions; a key general question can focus and promote understanding the concepts. This excerpt below was the key question:

“When you can do that at home like this one, like what do you think the little bear do at this picture?”
However, there weren’t any students answering the question, then she pointed one student to answer like in the following excerpts below:

“What does he do Mario?” and rephrased her questions with:

“What is he doing?”

Hopefully, the student could answer it then the teacher continued her explanation by stating feedbacks. In other words, the teacher continued explaining by providing an explanation about the little bear’s daily activities and relating those daily activities to the students’ daily activities and why those activities were important for them to do those particular activities.

“Brushes his teeth before when he wakes up and when he goes to bed and takes a bath and then he asks mom to cut his nail to make it tidy and clean”

“and then wash hands before you eat”

“And then do not seat too close while watching television”

4.1.3.2 Inviting Students’ Participation

Then the teacher used the third type of scaffolding, “inviting students’ participation”, to motivate them be active in their lesson discussion. In this type of scaffolding, the teacher framed questions that will assist students to develop their understanding of material and assist them to contribute to the lesson’s development. In this way, students were given opportunities to participate in the process that was occurring. After the teacher provided illustrations of the ideas, the students had opportunities to share their ideas. For this purpose, the teacher used a strategy such as asking questions to the students. After the teacher provided information, “And that
one (T pointed to the picture) do not eat too many snack, like what your Mom said at home.” Then she asked the students questions to give them opportunity to share their ideas: “Does your Mom tell you that you do not eat too many snack?”

After that the teacher invited students’ participation by questioning the students. It can be seen in the following excerpts below.

“Because if you eat too many snack and then your Tammy will be full before you have your meal”

“And then your teeth will be unhealthy”

“Because you eat so many sweets and salty snack”

“And then here (T points the picture) save water and electricity”

“And this one, remember to put your things away after using it”

Based on the excerpts above, the teacher explained the students about the reasoning by using cause and effect conjunctions such as ‘because’ and ‘and then’.

After all she talked aloud the picture clues of the task then made a conclusion like in the excerpt below.

“So this is part of the good habits that the little bear have at home”

Then she asked key questions again to link with the lesson discussed.

“But how about at school? Do you think you need to have good habits at school?”

Based on the excerpt above, the teacher implicitly wanted the students to go through the main topic “good habit at school”. The question on the excerpt above is categorized as convergent question in which it focused on the central theme. This question only needs short answer, “yes”
or “no” short statement. This kind of question did not require students to be engaged in higher-level thinking in order to come up with response but only to focus on the recall of previously presented information.

Meanwhile, the teacher also used explanation to explanation about the reason or “why” and “when” like in the following excerpt:

“Don’t play using scissors.

“Scissors only for cutting activity while we have craft and art or maybe you need to cut your snack.”

“When you need to open your snack than you have difficulty to open your snack, you can use any scissors.”

Based on the excerpt above, the teacher made explanation about “why” (or the reason) and “when” (the suitable moment) the students can use scissors because those reasons connected to the sub theme of the lesson “how to keep our class safe” in which one of the way to keep the class safe was the students were not allowed to play with the scissors.

Then again, the teacher framed questions which will assist students to develop their understanding of the material and assist them to make contributions to the lesson’s development. Like in the following excerpts:

“What are your good habits at school?”
“When do you think your class is happy?”

This excerpt above was also categorized as convergent question in which the teacher started the lesson by asking the convergent questions above to led the students into the main topic.
Then the teacher asked rapid sequence of convergent questions to help them develop vocabulary and to encourage whole-class participation before moving to other activities. The followings are kinds of the convergent questions asked by the teacher:

“Is that good habit?”
“Hitting friend, do you think is a good habit, JJ?”

Convergent question was also used to foster the mastery of vocabulary by asking Wh question like this excerpt:

“What is safe?
“What is listen?”
“What is kind?”
“What is hand?”

The teacher asked the question above many times. For the first time she asked questions to the whole class, but there were not any students come up with the answer the teacher recalled particular students to answer like in the following excerpts:

“What is safe Mario?”
“Yes Yova, what is safe?”
“What is safe Hansen?”

Finally, the teacher gave prompt questions like in the following excerpt:

“Save means no body….?(She acts kicking)

Despite asking convergent questions, the teacher also asked divergent questions like in the following excerpts:

“What you can and cannot do to keep you safe?”
“What will happen if you rock your chair while you sit on it?”
“and what happen if you keep playing with your table? you push it, you push it back and ward?”
Those excerpts above were categorized as divergent questions in which they encouraged diverse students’ responses which are not short answers and which require students to provide their own information.

4.1.3.3 Verifying and clarifying Students’ Understanding

The next types of the teacher’s scaffolding talks performed by the teacher was verifying and clarifying students understanding. Therefore, the teacher used feedback as the strategy. Providing feedback to learners on their performance is another important aspect of teaching. There are strategies in giving feedback on content done by teacher. The first was feedback by acknowledging the correct answer. In this strategy, the teacher indicated that a student’s answer was correct by saying like in the following excerpts:

“All right,
“All right! Good work!”
“Yes”
“No, if the answer is ‘no’

The teacher also used verbal reinforcement by using the words “very good”, “that’s good” like in the following excerpts:

“Very good Alistia!”

“That’s good Hansen! If you nice and quite you can finish your work quickly, right Hansen?”

Other kind of feedbacks that the teacher performed was repeating the students’ answer like in the following excerpt:

T : do not play with?
However, most of the strategies the teacher used in giving feedback was repeating the students’ answers like in the following excerpts:

T : So how to keep your class happy?
S : do not make other people sad.
T : Do not make other people sad.
Is that including your teacher?"

The teacher used strategy of feedbacks by expanding or modifying a student’s answer. It means the teacher responded to a vague or incomplete answer by providing more information, or rephrasing the answer in the teacher’s own sentences as shown in the following excerpts:

T : What is the safety rules being broken?
S : do not rocking the chair
T : do not rock the chair

From the excerpt above, we can see that the teacher was rephrasing the answer in the teacher’s own sentences.

If the students gave an incorrect answer, the teacher indicated that a student’s answer is incorrect by saying for example like in the following excerpt:

T : Do you think the boy is sitting properly on his chair?
S : Yes.
T : Yes? But look! Two legs of his chair is going up and he is not sitting straight. This boy is rocking his chair.
T : Do you think that rocking his chair is safe for him?

Based on the excerpt above, when the student answered with incorrect answer, the teacher gave prompt statement by saying, “Yes? But
look! Two legs of his chair is going up and he is not sitting straight. This boy is rocking his chair” to indicate that the students have incorrect answer and needs to rethink again. Then the teacher rephrased the first question into, “Do you think that rocking his chair is safe for them?” In order to get the correct answer for the students.

Other ways to give feedbacks to incorrect answer done by the teacher was indicating that a student’s answer is incorrect by saying ‘No, it’s not part of the safety in the classroom’ like in the following excerpt:

\[\begin{align*}
T &: \text{What else?} \\
S &: \text{Take your bag} \\
T &: \text{Take your bag?} \\
& \quad \text{No, it’s not a part of the safety in the classroom.}
\end{align*}\]

However, besides indicating the incorrect answer, the teacher gave the students the correct answer as we can see in the following excerpts below the teacher said “He is not playing. He is sitting on his chair”. To indicate that the student came up with wrong answer by using negative statement and the teacher corrected the answer by herself.

\[\begin{align*}
T &: \text{So what is the boy doing?} \\
S &: \text{Playing} \\
T &: \text{What is he laying? He is not playing. He is sitting on his chair}
\end{align*}\]

4.1.3.4 Modeling of Desired Behaviors

The first type of modeling is making thinking visible or think out aloud modeling. In this process, participants think through their emerging understanding of the process out loud as attempts were made to solve the problem or issue. In this form of scaffolding, teacher used think out aloud
modeling to do the process. In addition, learners were encouraged to do the same. This process is difficult and usually occurred after a number of students have contributed clues.

The fifth type of scaffolding was performed by the teacher where several students were invited to contribute clues for reasoning through the issue or problem. In this form of scaffolding, learners were encouraged to offer clues about how to complete the task. Together, the teachers and students verbalized the process.

“*I will explain to you how to do the exercises on your workbook*”
“*Okay now please open fifty!*”
“*It’s on page fifty.*”
“*Now look at page fifty!*”
“*Please look at it!*”
“*Now look at the new vocabulary*”
“In the blue box, what picture can you see?”
“What is the boy doing?”
“But what is he playing with?”
“Is the boy sitting on his chair?”
“Do you think he sits properly on his chair?”
“do you think that rocking his chair is safe for him?”
“*Now look at the title on the top!*”
“It says Classroom rules *(She writes ‘classroom rules on the board)*
“So we are going to discuss about classroom rules in this page OK
“*Number one: What is the safety rule is being broken?*
“If you look at the boy, what is the classroom rules that he has broken?
“No he is not breaking the chair but the rule.
“What is the rule?
“What is Miss Agustin say when the boy play..
“Yes. Do not rock the chair.
“Yeah. So that’s the classroom rule is do not rock the chair. *(T writes it on the board)*
“So what is the classroom rules being broken everybody? For this picture?
“Okay you have to write down the classroom rule on this line OK.”
An earlier conversation about classroom rules continued with the teachers showing how to contribute ideas. The teacher invited participation by contributing a clue. Then the students connected the clue. In order to make the students understand the instruction of the activity in their workbooks, the teacher assisted the students by giving step by step instructions. The teachers showed how to perform by talking through steps while asking for a particular action. However, she also asked the students to contribute clues and participate on the tasks. The teacher often asked questions for the completing to the task. It helped the students understand the way the tasks should be completed. The excerpts above show how the teacher talked through steps while asking students to complete their task. In the lesson on the next day, students began to take the responsibilities for contributing clues by answering the teacher’s questions.

4.1.4 Teacher C

The subject of the class was English. The topic of the lesson was about “classroom rules”. In the classroom discourse, the teacher wanted to make up a narrative or story about classroom rules together with the students. The teacher tried to encourage the students to make their own story up with her support and they were encouraged by the teacher to be active in giving ideas. Therefore, the teaching learning process happened in this class like a joint – problem solving in making up a narrative.
Key features of narrative were organization of events in time, the intentional actions of participants, cause and effect, and the resolution of problems, often through some surprising event (Cameron, 2002: 54).

In this classroom discourse, spoken interaction dominated the class activity because what actually happened was much more interactional, and in the form of a teacher and students’ conversation, directed largely by teacher questions because the teacher wanted the students to participate in creating the story.

From the data analysis, the types of scaffolding talks performed by the teacher are:

1. inviting students’ participation
2. inviting Students to Contribute Clues.
3. offering explanation.
4. verifying and clarifying students’ understanding

Here is the discussion of the teacher’s scaffolding talks performed by the teacher during the teaching learning process.

4.1.4.1 Inviting Students’ Participations

The first type of scaffolding that the teacher performed was inviting students’ participations because at the beginning of the teaching learning process, the teacher did not directly explain the material. The teacher invited the students’ participations by asking them questions about the previous lesson.
Therefore, the first scaffolding made by the teacher was inviting students’ participations. In this type of scaffolding, the teacher used particular strategy such as using open-ended questioning where the teacher asked questions to elicit a response from the child, to describe things or events, to make predictions and to plan for the future, to make explanation, and to relate new knowledge to previous experience.

Teacher’s questions to ask about the previous lesson or experience related to the new knowledge with previous experience were shown in the following excerpts below:

“What did we talk about last week?”
“Were you talking about rules with Ms. Agustin as well?”
“Yeah we’re talking about rules.”

Then the teacher linked to relate new knowledge to previous experience are shown in the following excerpt:

“Ok this week we’re going to learn more about rules, more weeks, Rules”

Sometimes, the teacher’s questions were not answered by one student who were in charge. If the students could not answer her question or kept silent without giving any responses, she could get more responses for the same question from the other students. The way the teacher redirecting the question was by rephrasing the question in order to make it clearer as when the teacher asked a question such as “What is another good rule?” but none of the students answered the questions. Then she rephrased and elaborated her question like this “What is another good rule that you’ve been talked about with Ms. Agust?” And also in this excerpt “What did we
talk about in English last week?”, then she changed her question into “What were we doing in English last week?” so that after that the students hopefully answered it. The teacher tried to make her question to be simpler and shorter so that the students could answer like this excerpt “What happened in the very beginning of our spooky ghost story?”, because nobody came up with the answer she changed the question into “What happened in the beginning?”. But the students still kept silent so that she changed her question again into “Where did our characters go? Hansen, Raphael, and Mario?” and “Where did the characters go in the first story, in the first, in the beginning?”, and after all they could answer her question.

4.1.4.2 Inviting Students to Contribute Clues

Again, on the explaining sections the teacher used types of scaffolding “inviting students’ participations” and “inviting students to contribute clues” because the teacher’s plan was to generate extended talk in the form of making narratives. In this scaffolding, the teacher used particular strategy such as using joint problem solving. The teacher and students worked together to create a story entitled classroom rules. For example, the teacher gave ideas to the flow or sequence of the story, the students were asked to create the story starting from the beginning until the end.

The teacher suggested information or ideas to be added to the compositions of the story in order to motivate and help the students
participated in creating the like in the following excerpts below, the students were encouraged to offer clues about how to complete the story together, the teachers and students verbalized the process.

“I wonder, I wonder since you so good in writing story could we write story about classroom rules...?”

“What about if we write a story about a little girl named Kerry and a little girl named Agustin?”

“What are they doing in the beginning?”

“Are they in a preschool but where they at?”

“Where the story begins?”

From the excerpts above, the first strategy done by the teacher was motivating a narrative for the students by saying, “I wonder, I wonder since you so good in writing story could we write story about classroom rules...?”. Then she suggested them by saying “What about if we write a story about a little girl named Kerry and a little girl named Agustin?”. And then the teacher provided questions to suggestions to help the students keep the sequences of action going by saying like this excerpt: “And we write it that they are in a preschool and the don’t know about the rules. After that, the teacher continued asking students’ participation in organizing the events in place and time by asking, “Where were they in the story?” like the excerpt above. Then the teacher decided the participants or actor in the story and their actions by saying “So we have Kerry, little Kerry and little Agustin and they were in preschool and they don’t know the rule”. Then the teacher continued keeping the sequence of action going by asking question with Wh-questions to elicit ideas such as “what are they doing in the
beginning?” or “where are they at?” and continued the action going, decided the cause and effect and the resolution of problems by using connectives so, then, when, because, or but to construct cohesive narrative, and the resolution of problems like in the following excerpts below:

“Then what happen?”
“What happen then next Ronan?”

From the excerpts above, we could also see that the teacher invited the students to contribute clues to continue the action going by motivating the students to participate in organizing the events by themselves. Then the teacher kept inviting students to contribute clues by providing questions to motivate the students to create the reason and the cause and effect why the next event happened to the characters like in the following excerpts below:

“They begin to fight, why?”
“So they begin fighting”

“They are fighting because they’re naughty. They don’t know the rules”

“If they knew the rules, what would happen?”

From all of the excerpts above the teacher had successfully provided scaffolds for the students in making up the story as it can be seen from the excerpts above, the students have created a story with its features including an opening, introduction of characters, description of the setting, introduction of a problem and series of events with the support done by the teacher.
Then the teacher and the students verbalized in deciding cause and effect of the events like in the following excerpts below, the teacher used Wh- questions the questions:

\[
\begin{align*}
T &: \text{They begin to fight. Why?} \\
S &: \text{yeah. I don’t know} \\
T &: \text{who knows?} \\
S &: \text{me} \\
T &: \text{why did they begin fighting?} \\
S &: \text{They are naughty. Because they are naughty} \\
T &: \text{Are they naughty?} \\
& \quad \text{What is that mean naughty?} \\
& \quad \text{They did not know the rules?} \\
S &: \text{yes} \\
T &: \text{Oh. So they begin fighting (T draw the illustration)} \\
& \quad \text{Are they happy now?} \\
S &: \text{No} \\
T &: \text{No they’re not} \\
& \quad \text{And they’re fighting because they’re naughty.} \\
& \quad \text{They don’t know the rules.} \\
& \quad \text{If they knew the rules, what would happen?} \\
S &: \text{Not fighting and then he crying.} \\
T &: \text{So then the teacher comes (T draws the illustration)} \\
& \quad \text{Then what happened?} \\
& \quad \text{Do you think they still fight or they stop fighting?} \\
S &: \text{still fight.} \\
T &: \text{Do you think at the end they stop fighting?} \\
S &: \text{(not clear)} \\
T &: \text{Elita’s say at the end that they stop fighting.} \\
& \quad \text{Does everybody agree with this ending?} \\
& \quad \text{Do you think that this is a good ending?} \\
S &: \text{Yes} \\
T &: \text{I love good endings.} \\
& \quad \text{Should we end that way that they stop?} \\
& \quad \text{So the end, are they happy again?}
\end{align*}
\]
S : Yes.

From all of the excerpts above the teacher had successfully given support to the students in making up the story from the beginning until the end. As it can be seen from the excerpts above that the students have completed the story and its features including an opening, introduction of characters, description of the setting, introduction of a problem and a series of events, the resolution of the problems, and closing.

4.1.4.3 Verifying and Clarifying Students’ Understandings

After the students gave responses to the teacher’s question, the teacher gave feedback by verifying if the answers were reasonable. If the responses are erroneous, the teacher offered clarifications and gave positive verbal reinforcement if the response were corrects, or paraphrased their answers or asked the other students to answer her question if the student cannot answer the question or answer the question with the additional answer as elaboration.

We can see the teacher’s verification and clarification of students’ understandings by the teacher in the following excerpts below:

“Yeah we’re talking about rules”
“Quite. Very nice!”
“Good, A shouting rules, a talking rules”

“Yes JJ was the ghost. And he said to everybody in the story. Right?”

“Yes, last week you read story about cheese please but you made a story about a spooky monster.”
“Yes, they run, run, run.”
“Yes, you wrote a wonderful story!”
“OK. They are in their desk (T draws the illustration).

Those excerpt showed that the teacher gave feedback by answering with paraphrasing students’ answers because in my interpretation the teacher wanted the students understand the sequences of the story.

The final feedback given by the teacher after the students’ responses has shown in the following excerpts below:

“That's a very-very good ending.”

The excerpt above was the teacher’s feedback by giving verbal encouragement because the students have successfully created a story till good endings.

4.2 The Speech Functions Performed in Teachers’ Scaffolding Talks

In this part, I present the speech function analysis of the Teacher’s scaffolding Talks and their interpretations.

4.2.1 Teacher A (First Observation)

In the data analysis, we can see that the speech functions performed by the teacher are:

- ✓ Statement Giving Facts (24 clauses)
- ✓ Statement Giving Opinion (1 clauses)
✅ Question Demanding Facts  (14 clauses)
✅ Question Demanding Opinion  (10 clauses)
✅ Offer Giving Goods And Services  (0 clauses)
✅ Command Demanding Goods And Services  (12 clause).

Here is the discussion of the speech functions performed by the teacher:

4.2.1.1 Teacher’s Statement Giving Factual Information

In this classroom discourse, the teacher used statement giving facts for the following purposes:

1. to state the topic of the lesson, such as:
   - “Today we will talk about our classroom rules”
   - “Now, I have this chart. And this chart is talk about the courtesy. Courtesy means rules.”

2. to explain the lesson
   - “Rules are very important”
   - “It’s very noisy if we don’t have rules because everybody talks”
   - “We write it that they are in a preschool and they don’t know about the rules. (T drew the illustration on the white board)”
   - “So we have Kerry, little Kerry and they were in a preschool and they don’t know the rules”

3. to state the procedures of the activity the students should do
   - “Ok, this I will say the words and then you will circle the words Yes or No.”

4. to provide the students feedback, such as:
   - “Yes right, knock the door.”
   - “Yes right! And writing”
   - “Yes..five magic words.”
4.2.1.2  Teacher’s Statement Giving Opinion

The teacher used statement giving opinion to reinforce the students through positive verbal reinforcement, such as:

- “Yes, that’s good!”
- “Good!”

4.2.1.3  Teacher’s Question Demanding Facts

The teacher used mostly question demanding factual information rather than demanding opinion information because the teacher asked the last students’ experiences to review factual information. For example, she asked the last activities the students have performed and with simple grammatical form such as Wh- questions and Yes/No questions because the students at this age still produce limited language production so that they have limitation in giving their opinion. The excerpts below are the teacher’s question in demanding factual information:

- “What did you learn at school?”
- “Did you learn playing at school?”
- “Did you learn English at school?”
- “Did you learn about classroom rules at school?”
- “The students are listening to the teacher, yes or no?”
- “To keep the playground clean and tidy, Yes or No?”

4.2.1.4  Teacher’s Question Demanding Opinion

Meanwhile the teacher also wanted to make the students participate in the classroom discourse. For this reason, the teacher used question demanding opinion information like in the following excerpts:

- “What else?”
- “And before you go home, What will you say everybody?”
- “And when you want to go inside the classroom, what will you say?”
- “And when you drink what will you do?”

To ask the students’ understanding, the teacher asked, “Do you understand everybody?

4.2.1.5 Teacher’s Command Demanding Goods and Services

There is an activity in this class. The teacher used command demanding goods and services to make the students do the activity like in the following excerpts:

- “Ok Everybody sit down please!”
- “Ok, So you circle the word ‘Yes’!”
- “So circle the words Yes!”
- “Ok, now everybody. Put your name on top of the page!”
- “Look! Like this. Put here. My name is….

4.2.2 Teacher A (the second observation)

Based on the analysis, the speech functions performed by the teacher in her scaffolding talks were:

- ✓ Statement Giving Facts (57 clauses)
- ✓ Statement Giving Opinion (1 clauses)
- ✓ Questions Demanding Facts (25 clauses)
- ✓ Questions Demanding Opinion (10 clauses)
- ✓ Command Demanding Goods and Services (16 clauses)
- ✓Command Demanding Facts (1 clause)

Here is the discussion of the speech functions performed by the teacher:
4.2.2.1 Teacher’s Statement Giving Facts

Starting the lesson, as usual, the teacher asked the students about the day and the date first. Then the teacher opened the lesson discussion by stating what they will learn today like in the following excerpts:

- “Today we are not talking about animal but today we will talk about the animals which are insects.”
- “Now, we are going to talk about insects Like this...(T hold toys of insects)”

Those excerpts are the teachers’ statements in giving facts. In the presentation section, the teacher used statement giving facts information to state about the topic in the lesson discussion. In addition, the topic was about “the insect” so that all of the teacher’s explanation based on the factual knowledge or information, for examples like in the following excerpts:

- “Dragon fly is also an insect you know”
- “Because the dragonfly has wings”
- “The bee cannot suck the blood, only mosquito will do that”

For clearer explanations about the insects, the teacher used toys of insects (the miniature of insects)

- “And there is wings but cannot open, close, and this is its body (The teacher held the toy of a bee),”
- “And this is the antenna (T held the toy and touch its antenna)”

Other purpose of the teacher’s statement giving factual information in this classroom discourse is while the teacher gave feedback to the students’ responses or answers like in the following excerpts:

- “Yes, legs!”
- “Yes. Lady bird and lady bug are the same. OK.”
- “Yes. Lady bird.”
- “Not Christmas card!”
4.2.2.2 Teacher’s Statement Giving Opinion

Meanwhile, the teacher also gave verbal reinforcement to the students by using statement giving opinion like in the following excerpts:

- “Good!”
- “Okay, very good!”
- “Yes!”

4.2.2.3 Teacher’s Questions Demanding Facts

The next type of speech functions performed by the teacher in this classroom discourse was the teacher’s questions whether question demanding factual information or opinion information but there isn’t any teacher’s question in demanding good-and services. The teacher asked students to get the factual information because those questions like in the following excerpts need factual answers.

- “So…. What day is it today everybody?”
- “Tuesday starts with the letter?”
- “So what is it?
- “What is it everybody?”
- “What is it everybody?”
- “What is it everybody?”

Those questions, however, are suitable with the language development of children in this age because students study with real objects and related to their surroundings. They also learn with simple grammatical forms.

4.2.2.4 Teacher’s Question Demanding Opinion

Besides the teacher’s questions demanding factual information, she also asked questions to make the students participate in the lesson’s
discussions. Types of the teacher’s questions categorized as teacher’s question demanded opinion because the teacher needs students’ opinions rather than factual information like in the following excerpts:

- “Now, what do you think the weather today?”
- “Why ant is also insect? Because?”
- “What else Akil? What else?”
- “Okay, What else David?”
- “Bee, What else?”
- “Do you think that butterfly is an insect or not?”

4.2.2.5  Teacher’s Command Demanding Goods and Services

The next speech function performed by the teacher in this classroom discourse was commanding speech function. The teacher used command demanding goods and services. The teacher used this type of the speech function in the purpose of giving step by step procedures for the students in conducting or finishing their task or activity like in the following excerpts:

- “Okay, if you are all ready, please sit on the floor!”
- “Let’s start with how many legs does the dragon fly have!”
- “Now, look at the eye...eye and antenna! (T hold the toy and wanted the S to take a look)
- “Turn over the folding paper!”
- “Put the scissor and then cut along the black spot”.
- “Do not cut along the dotted line, Okay...”
- “Look at this first! Look at this first boys.”
- “If you have finished cutting the folded paper, you can open it.”
- “And then, there is a straw and open this at the antenna and put like this”
- “To make it nice you can color it first”
- “Color it here and color it here Ok”

4.2.2.6  Teacher’s Command Demanding Facts

I also found teachers question demanding facts such as in the following excerpt below.
“Ok, now mention one by one our magic words this week!”

4.2.3 Teacher B (at First Observation)

Based on the analysis, the speech functions performed by the teacher in her scaffolding talks were:

- Statement giving facts (89 clauses)
- Statement Giving Opinion (17 clauses)
- Questions Demanding Facts (97 clauses)
- Questions Demanding Opinion (60 clauses)
- Demanding Goods and Services (2 clauses)
- Command Demanding Goods and Services (60 clauses)
- Command Demanding Fact (5 clauses)

Here is the discussion of the speech functions performed by the teacher in her teacher’s scaffolding talks.

4.2.3.1 Teacher’s Statement Giving Facts

As the class was discussing a topic about “good habits in the classroom” and the teacher used pictures to stimulate the students’ understanding and gain students’ participation on the discussion, the teacher made more statement giving facts rather that statement giving opinion information.
The statements giving facts performed by the teacher were used for the following purposes:

1. to start with the previous knowledge that the students already know
   - *Ok, before we continue to that lesson I will show you some good habits.*

2. to explain the lesson by telling the students about the pictures, like:
   - *But this one is some good habits that you can do at home.*
   - *So this pictures start at night*
   - *So these are the good habits that happen at home*
   - *The good habits that makes you stay happy and stay health, when you can do this at home like this one, like the little bear do at this picture*
   - *And then here (T pointed the picture) save water and electricity*
   - *And this one, remember! Put your things away after using it.*
   - *So those are good habits that the little bear have at home.*

3. to deliver new knowledge to the students
   - *The good habits that makes you stay happy and stay health, when you can do this at home like this one, like the little bear do at this picture*
   - *So those are good habits that the little bear have at home*
   - *And then your teeth will be unhealthy.*
   - *Because you eat so many sweets and salty snack*

4. to provide feedback for the students, such as:
   - *Yes, when you write with the marker on the white board when you have finished you rub it with the dasher*
   - *OK, this is fifteen*
   - *Not rocking the chair, but the rule.*
   - *Yes. Do not rock the chair*

5. reinforce the students through positive verbal reinforcement, such as:

   *Very good Alista!*

### 4.2.3.2 Teacher’s Statement Giving Opinion

The teacher used statement-giving opinion when she wanted to give suggestions to the students like in the following excerpt below.
“You have to keep the distance, not too far but have to keep the distance”

4.2.3.3 Teacher’s Questions Demanding Facts

Teacher’s questions demanding facts dominated the classroom discourse. She performed this kind of speech function for the following purposes:

1. to invite students’ participation by asking them about certain actions that the students have done (students’ experience)
   - Do you sit too close to the television when you watch movie?
   - Does your Mom tell you that you do not eat too much snack? Too many snack?
   - And yesterday what had happened to all of you?

2. to ask students’ understanding about certain meaning
   - What is safe means?
   - What is sticker?
   - Which sticker do you mean?
   - OK Hansen, what page is that?
   - What is hand?
   - And what is kind?

3. to ask the students to mention their ideas
   - And then, how to keep your class happy?
   - Do you know why?
   - What else?
   - How about your chair and your desk?
   - How to read this one everybody?
   - Do you think he’s fighting?
   - Why is it unsafe?

4. to check students’ understanding
   - All right. So today what has we learned?
   - What has we learned everybody?
   - And what are the rules that we have learned today?
4.2.3.4  Teacher’s Question Demanding Opinion

Teacher’s questions demanding opinion were functioning as an activator, to make the students be active delivers. Questions like in the following excerpts were used to engage the students in the classroom interaction.

- Do you think you need to have good habits at school?
- So what are your good habits at school?
- Al right, do you think that biting your friend is a good habit?
- Yes.. What will happen if you rock your chair if you seat on it?

4.2.3.5  Teacher’s Question Demanding Facts

The teacher used question demanding facts when she wants to elicit true information from the students like in the following excerpt below.

“And yesterday, what had happened to all of you?”
“What is safe, Mario?”

4.2.3.5  Teacher’s Command Demanding Goods and Services

The teacher performed command demanding goods and services to show the students how they should do to complete the task like in the following excerpts:

- Okay now please open fifteen!
- Look! Please look at the blue box!
- Look carefully and think what is the boy doing?
- Now look at the title on the top!
- So, let’s read together!
- Now everybody puts your pointer!. Pointer!
- Okay Now, you have to write down the classroom rules on this line ok!
- Please write the day and the date first!
- Write down twenty three!
- Please copy this one on the first line!
- Please keep your work on the line!
- I want you to write down this one: Do not rock the chair!
Yes. So now you write the rule do not rock the chair on this line!

I also found one teacher’s command demanding opinion, when the teacher asks one of the students to answer her request.

So Hanson, tell me how to keep our class clean!

4.2.4 Teacher C (at first observation)

In the data studied, we can see that the most frequent speech functions performed by the teacher were:

- statement giving factual information (48 clauses)
- statement giving opinion information (10 clauses)
- question demanding factual information (36 clauses)
- question demanding opinion information (64 clauses)
- question demanding goods and services (1 clause)
- offer demanding opinion (2 clauses)
- command demanding goods and services (1 clause)

Here are the discussion of the Speech Functions performed by the teacher:

4.2.4.1 Teacher’s Statement giving Facts

In this classroom discourse the teacher used statement giving factual information for the following purposes:

1. to state the topic of the lesson, such as:

   - This week we’re going to learn more about rules, more weeks, Rules
   - So, this week, I think you’re going to talk about rules
- And it’s about little Kerry and little Agustin and they’re sitting in the classroom beside each other

2. to give feedback to the students’ answers

- Yeah we’re talking about rules
- No, we read our story please but we wrote a story about something last week
- Yes we wrote two stories about Ronan and Alita
- Yes, last week you wrote story about cheese please but you made a story about a spooky monster

4.2.4.2 Teacher’s Statement Giving Opinion

Meanwhile, the teacher used statement giving opinion information for the following purposes:

1. Reinforce the students through positive verbal reinforcement, such as:

- Listen. That’s right!
- Good!
- Good, a shouting rule, a talking rules
- Yes, you wrote a wonderful story
- Nice JJ, Thank you very much.
- very good!

4.2.4.3 Teacher’s QuestionDemanding Facts

The teacher used questions demanding factual information when she reviewed the last lesson and asked the students to participate by questioning them with series of questions.

1. to review what the teacher had given previously, such as:

- What did we talk about last week?”
- What is another good rule that you’ve talked about with Ms. A?
- What were we doing in English last week?
- So who were the characters of the first story in a Ronan and Alita?
- What happen in the very beginning of our spooky ghost story?
- Where were the in the middle?
4.2.4.4 Teacher’s Question Demanding Opinion

However, teacher used question demanding opinion for the following purposes:

1. to gain students participation on the discussion on the topic lesson, in this lesson the teacher wants to construct story about classroom rules based on the idea from the students, like in the following clauses:

- “What are they doing in the beginning?”
- “Where are they?”
- “Are they in a classroom? In the bath room? In the play yard?”
- “Why did they begin fighting?”
- “Are their desks in front of the other or beside the other?”
- “Then what happen? Then what happen”? Ronan?
- “Do you think that the teacher say “please Mr. Ronan and please Miss. Adlin, could you please tell little Kerry and little Agustin about the rules?”
- “Do you think what will happen in the next story?”
- “How do you think the story end?”

4.2.4.5 Teacher’s Question Demanding Goods and Services

Teacher’s question demanding goods-and-services is also found in this classroom discourse. The purpose was to ask the students to do something like in the following:

“Can you hand in the pointer to somebody else?”

4.2.4.6 Teacher’s Command Demanding Facts

The teacher use command in demanding fact to ask the student to state his/her answer to the teacher’s

“Show me what’s the give me five!”
4.2.4.7 Teacher’s Command Demanding Goods and Services

The teacher gave command in demanding goods and services to ask the students to do something like in the following excerpt below.

“Show me the beginning!”

“Take the pointer and show me the beginning of the story!”
CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents the conclusions and pedagogical implications of the study based on the data analysis and data interpretations in chapter IV.

5.1 Conclusions

From the findings and interpretations presented in the previous chapter, I can make the following conclusions.

1) The types of Scaffolding Talks Performed by the teachers

All of the teachers in this study used scaffolding starting from the beginning to the end of the class. The types of the scaffolding talks the teachers performed are offering explanation, inviting students’ participation, verifying and clarifying students’ understanding, modelling desired behaviour, and inviting students to contribute clues. The teachers gave explanation to various purposes. The purposes included to state the topic of the lesson, present the material being discussed, state the step-by-step procedures of the task or activity the students are going to perform. The teachers invited students’ participation by asking the students a series of questions or using incomplete statement to elicit responses from the students. The teachers also used questions to check students’ understanding. To provide equal opportunities for the students, the teachers used re-directing technique by asking the same questions to some
students. In other words, the teacher posed the questions to the whole class and then to individual by calling names. After the students had answered the teachers’ questions, the teachers verified and clarified those answers by giving feedback. Kinds of feedbacks the teachers performed were giving positive verbal reinforcement to motivate the students, accepting and paraphrasing the students’ responses or agreeing and asking the other students to elaborate the previous answers. The teachers often repeated the students’ answers in order to give model of the target language. Self-repetition and paraphrasing were used to make language more comprehensible and to draw attention to important vocabulary, language features, and language patterns. Meanwhile the teacher’s modelling the desired behaviour performed by the teachers were think-out aloud modelling and performance modelling in which the students were shown how to do the activity in the workbook by giving step-by-step instructions. Type of scaffolding, Inviting students to contribute clues, however, rarely used by the teachers.

2) The Speech Function performed by the Teachers in Their Scaffolding Talks

The speech functions performed by the teacher in their scaffolding talks are statement giving fact, statement giving opinion, question demanding fact, question demanding opinion, question demanding goods and services, command demanding goods and services. The teachers, however, rarely performed an offer.
The teachers’ statements giving fact performed by the teacher for the following purposes: to start with the previous knowledge that the students already know, to explain the lesson by telling the students about the pictures, to deliver new knowledge to the students, to provide feedback for the students, and to reinforce the students through positive verbal reinforcement. Meanwhile, the teachers performed statement giving opinion when they were going to give verbal reinforcements to the students’ responses.

The teachers performed questions demanding facts or opinion for the various purposes: to invite students’ participation by asking them about certain activity that the students have done (students’ experience), ask students’ understanding about certain meaning and check students’ understanding.

Meanwhile, the teachers performed question demanding opinions to make the students be active in giving their ideas. Question demanding opinion were used to motivate the students to be engaged in the classroom interaction.

Teachers used command demanding goods and services to give direct instructions about how to do the tasks or activity. Besides, I also found one teacher’s command demanding opinion was performed when the teacher asked one of the students to answer her request.
5.2 Pedagogical Implications

1) The teachers performed five types of scaffolding successfully. By using scaffolding talks, the teachers have supported students’ learning. They made the students to perform their tasks independently. However, there was other aspect to be considered. The teachers should not repeat questions too quickly. If a teacher asked unanswered questions in a quick, rather than a single question followed by student respond, their learning can be broken down. Then, the teachers should not answer their own questions too often because the teachers themselves frequently answer questions they have posed, before the student had adequate opportunity to respond. To avoid this practice the teachers should give pupils time to think and time to contribute their ideas.

2) The teachers should vary their speech functions when scaffolding the lesson. When the teachers want to make the students participate in the discussions, they can use incomplete statement to elicit students’ responses rather than using too many series of questions that will make the students feel like being interrogated.

3) The practical implication about how teachers should use scaffolding effectively are: first of all, teachers must predict where students may have difficulties and then structure the lesson using appropriate strategies. Second, the new knowledge is presented through modelling, using various teaching aids such as pictures, miniatures, charts, and realia. Third, teachers invite students’ participation by providing open-ended questions.
Fourth, teachers develop guided practice that began on an easier level and then become progressively more difficult. Teachers provide ideas, suggestion, and hints when students struggle. Fifth, teachers provide direct feedback as well as self-checking procedures. Then, students will become more responsible while the scaffolding is gradually diminished. Finally, students are provided with independent practice time as a whole class, then individually with other students or teacher assistance completely and independently.
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