It’s Your Turn to Talk: Dialogic Teaching and Learning in French Immersion

by

Louise Doucet

B.G.S., Thompson River University, 2011
P.D.P., Simon Fraser University, 2012

A Project Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Education

Language and Literacy

Department of Curriculum and Instruction

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University of Victoria

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Supervisory Committee

Supervisory Committee

Dr. Ruthanne Tobin, Department of Curriculum and Instruction
Supervisor

Dr. Sylvia Pantaleo
Departmental Member
Abstract

In this project I discuss the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of language as the primordial socially-mediated learning tool. I review current empirical research of predominant discursive practices as well as the benefits and the implications of adopting a dialogic praxis. An overview of the current methodologies used in French immersion classrooms calls for enhanced teacher education opportunities for second language teachers in dialogic teaching and learning approaches. This project includes a professional development workshop for French Immersion junior secondary teachers that is based on the theory and literature reviewed in Chapter 2. I conclude with a reflection on the challenges I encountered, on the questions I pondered, and on the learning I experienced while completing my project. I also elaborate on the implications for further research into the field of dialogic teaching and learning in second language classrooms.
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Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I wish to thank and acknowledge my supervisor, Dr Ruthanne Tobin, who is an inspiration to me. I have often said that I would like to keep her in my pocket so that her pearls of wisdom can bejewel my teaching practices everyday. Her patience and encouragement have fuelled my Master’s journey. It was truly inspiring to work with such an exemplary teacher and supervisor. I would also like to thank Dr. Sylvia Pantaleo whose creativity and mastery of oracy truly kindled my interest in dialogic teaching and learning. I wish to acknowledge James Nahachewsky for introducing me to Paolo Freire and to the London Group. My praxis has been forever changed from reading their words. And finally, I would like to thank Dr. Deborah Begoray for her understanding and support during my challenges with the Writing course. Her flexibility in her instructional approaches was invaluable to my success.
Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work to my mother, Valerie Doucet who always believed that languages and education were the most valuable assets a person could possess. She inspired me to always do my best work and to look beyond the obvious. Also, my closest friend and loving husband Doug, who never fails to come to my rescue and who has always believed in me. His pride in my achievements has kept me going when times got tough. And to my two children, Claire and Jesson, who have always inspired my curiosity in how we learn and grow. I have loved, grown and learned so much from both of you.
Chapter 1

Personal Background

My journey through the Master of Education program was initiated by a professional enquiry pursued since beginning my career as a French immersion (FI) teacher. The quest to support my students in becoming critical thinkers focused my learning during the first term. I researched and completed a literature review on the subject of critical literacy, and reflected upon the implications for teaching and learning in a second language (L2) classroom. My advisors helped me discover the foundational works of Vygotsky, Bakhtin, and Freire. Thus a Socratic flame was kindled. Through the process of writing my first paper, I reached a deeper understanding of the importance of questioning my pedagogical assumptions about language acquisition and language use. I realized that restructuring my teaching approach based on current research would allow me to fine tune my instructional practices and better respond to my learner’s needs. I was most excited by an article written by Maren Aukerman (2012) and her research in the field of dialogic engagement in which she advised, that in order to remain true to the ideology of critical thinking, educators must decenter themselves as infallible authorities and remove themselves as the sage on the stage. I was also inspired by Pedagogy of the Oppressed by Freire (1970) and his statement that, “without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication there can be no true education” (p. 69). His epistemology impacted my teaching to such an extent that the following semester, I incorporated more opportunity for dialogue in my classroom.

Since completing my teaching degree, I have embraced socio-constructivism as a theoretical framework to guide my methods of teaching and learning. More recently, my
own educational experiences have underscored the interconnectedness of the cognitive and the social. Such experiences have enhanced my belief that the ways through which we know and come to know are mediated by specific social activities in which we use language as the most important tool. This realization has guided this project and has affirmed my conviction that a dialogic epistemology is essential to teaching and learning in the 21st century.

**Student-centered Dialogues in Second Language Acquisition**

Vygotsky (1987) posited that conversations occurring in and around learning activities have the potential to either extend or constrain the intellectual development of the individual learner. He added that “thought is not merely expressed in words: it comes into existence through them…thought finds its reality and form in language” (Vygotsky, 1987, p. 219). It follows that creating a learning environment within which learners are engaged in oral discourse is critical to their success in school (Alexander, 2006; Gee, 2015; Halliday, 1993; Mercer & Littleton, 2007). This tenet also holds true in a L2 classroom where students acquire language meaningfully when they are offered meaningful opportunities to use it. However, Swain (2005) bemoans the difficulties in promoting authentic language use in L2 learning settings, which are typically dominated by teacher discourse. Her research has contributed to a growing body of knowledge indicating that student-centered dialogues help solidify L2 acquisition as well as complex content cognition. It is evident that classroom conversations serve to augment communicative competency for all learners. Indeed, the importance of developing communication skills cannot be overstated.
Recently, communication has been highlighted both nationally and provincially as an essential 21st century skill. In a 2012 report, *Shifting Minds*, C21 Canada confirms that, “high level literacy skills, including strength in a person’s mother tongue with multilingual capacity is a definite asset” (p. 11). Communication is one of three core competencies identified in British Columbia’s New Curriculum draft (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2013). Communication is described as the set of student abilities used to impart and exchange information, experiences and ideas, and to explore the world around them (British Columbia Ministry of Education, Draft Curriculum, 2013). It is meant to occur in activities where students use thinking, collaboration, and communication to solve problems, address issues, or to make decisions. Yet the necessary paradigm shift required to change from a teacher-centered approach and welcome student voice in classrooms has been slow to emerge (Alexander, 2008; Nystrand, Wu, Gamoran, Zeiser, & Long, 2003). This situation is exacerbated in FI classrooms where a Chomskyan view of language acquisition continues to exist (Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007; Gass, Lee & Roots, 2007; Lantolf, 2006; Van Lier, 2004). Cognitive oriented theories and methodologies imbued in a deficit-based model ethically situate the learner as a nonnative speaker whose discourse is flawed. This perspective serves to isolate the student from the very language and culture he/she is attempting to learn (Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007; Gass, Lee & Roots, 2007; Lantolf, 2006; Van Lier, 2004).

**Curricular Connections**

As outlined in the British Columbia Ministry of Education curriculum materials (Français Langue Seconde Immersion M-7, 1997), the teaching of French in an immersion setting requires a communicative-experiential approach that focuses on the
purposeful use of language to perform real-life tasks, share ideas, and acquire information (p. 2). Pedagogical activities designed to meet these outcomes have the potential to address not only spoken language acquisition, but also to impact the quality and the complexity of written and multimodal linguistic representations, which have increasingly become part of what it means to be literate in the 21st century (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006). British Columbia’s draft curricular documents promoting 21st century literacies and methodologies are currently under discussion (British Columbia Ministry of Education, Draft Curriculum, 2013). Implementation of a competency-based approach, in which communication plays a significant role, is planned for the near future. It is anticipated that a stronger emphasis on 21st century competencies, taught through personalized learning and inquiry-based approaches, will incorporate communication, collaboration and critical thinking skills as the foundations of teaching and learning. The pursuit of a dialogic epistemology within this context serves to guide and support an invaluable teacher stance and appropriate instructional methodologies.

Project Overview

It is with these conditions in mind that I formulated two questions to address in this project.

What implications do dialogic teaching and learning approaches have for French Immersion teachers and learners? In Chapter 2, I define both dialogic teaching and learning as well as discuss current research in L2 acquisition. I present an overview of the learning outcomes identified for L2 immersion programs in British Columbia. Next, I discuss the prevalence of teacher-centered approaches in L2 classrooms and the resulting paucity of dialogic classrooms. I also posit an explanation of the relationship between this
shortage of discourse opportunities and diminished results in communicative competency for L2 learners. The review concludes by suggesting alternative methods and methodologies for implementation. This section also constitutes the primary focus for the professional development workshop I identified for teachers.

How may dialogic teaching and learning approaches be implemented in the FI context? Based on the literature review, I have developed a professional development workshop for French immersion teachers that I will hopefully present in both my own district and to a wider provincial audience. The workshop itself is based upon and moderated according to dialogic teaching and learning practices. As the facilitator, I will model and support dialogue, in order that participants may co-construct an understanding of dialogic teaching and learning, of its importance and of the benefits of adopting a dialogic teacher stance in their classrooms. I will provide descriptors of a dialogic teacher stance and steps to implementing classroom dialogue, including the explicit teaching of active speaking and listening skills. I will conclude with five classroom activities that can potentially support dialogic teaching and learning and that can be easily integrated across grades and subject areas. It is my hope that a 21st century dialogic teacher stance becomes a commonplace reality in FI classrooms across the province.

In Chapter 3, I provide the outline of the professional development workshop, a reflection on the workshop development process and on the implications for further research.
Chapter 2

Literature Review

In this chapter, I address the theoretical and practical underpinnings of dialogic pedagogy, as well as its implications for L2 teaching and learning from a socio-constructivist perspective. I discuss the seminal work of three of the foremost thinkers in the field of dialogue for learning: Lev Vygotsky, Mikhail Bakhtin and Paolo Freire. I also briefly review the theoretical and heuristic work undertaken by Michael Halliday, Douglas Barnes, Gordon Wells and Jean Paul Gee. I then define dialogic teaching and learning and provide current empirical research supporting the benefits and the implications of adopting a dialogic teacher stance. I describe the context of Canadian FI classrooms and the current research on L2 acquisition and use. I end the chapter with a discussion of the implications of adopting dialogic practices for FI teaching and learning, and a proposal for a professional development workshop designed to begin the process.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

“Thinking and discourse are the same thing, except that what we call thinking is, precisely, the inward dialogue carried on by the mind itself without a spoken sound” (Plato, Sophist, 263e as cited in Higham, Brindley, & Van de Pol, 2014, p. 87).

Dialogic teaching and learning can be traced back to Socrates who, through incisive questioning, provoked his followers to inquire and to reason for themselves. The Socratic method of eliciting discussion among students garnered increased interest in the latter part of the 20th century as educators embraced a more socio-constructivist approach to teaching. Propelled by the work of Russian theorist Lev Vygotsky, this epistemological shift has resulted in an emerging field of research that underscores the importance of
dialogue in educational methodologies. Vygotskian (1978) sociocultural theory of mind provides the foundational underpinnings to the research on dialogic teaching and learning. Vygotsky posited that the development of all cognitive processes are mediated and that language is one of the most essential mediating tools. He argued that the use of speech builds upon itself, extending thinking and generating new thoughts throughout the process of each linguistic event. Vygotsky surmised that thinking is derived from the interface between the learner and his environment, and more specifically, that language develops as a result of this social interaction (Smagorinsky, 2007). The consequent cognitive experiences in turn contribute to an ever more complex, culturally mediated and individualized way of thinking, of viewing the world and of making meaning.

From a Vygotskian perspective, educational institutions provide a unique setting where individuals construct meaning, and by extension, themselves. Vygotsky (1978) proposed that an essential feature of learning is that it creates the zone of proximal development; that is, learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child’s independent developmental achievement. (p. 90)

Vygotsky provided a valuable model for learning and teaching with his concept of the zone of proximal development. For educators, the great practical significance of this developmental zone results from its potential in supporting emerging abilities. A common application of the theory includes the concept of instructional scaffolding, a process of
controlling the aspects of a given task which are beyond the learners’ capacity, thereby enabling them to focus on the more easily learned elements involved in the task. A second application involves reciprocal teaching where interactive dialogue between the educator and the students is used to model and guide teaching and learning. Both parties share the teacher-learner role which, according to Vygotskian epistemology, underscores both social interaction and scaffolding as essential in the learners’ skill development. Another important theoretical application highlights peer collaboration as an inherently powerful method of enhancing learning. The overall pedagogical emphasis and desired outcome consists of transforming what a learner can do today in cooperative activity into what he can do tomorrow independently. The use of language is paramount in these learning activities. Vygotsky believed that the act of speaking continually shapes and reshapes cognition as learners communicate, either internally or externally, the meanings they have acquired or are still trying to make.

Russian contemporary Mikhail Bakhtin (1984) complements and extends Vygotsky’s work on the link between dialogue and higher mental processes. He also regarded social interaction as an opportunity for learners to collaborate and share ideas in order to derive meaning and co-construct knowledge; as he noted, “truth is not born nor is it found inside the head of an individual person, it is born between people collectively searching for truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction” (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 110). Bakhtin posited that words are not learned from dictionaries or vocabulary lists, but rather from conversing with others and that words learned in this manner carry the accumulated meaning of its users.
Bakhtin’s (1984) work contributes two important educational ideas. The first highlights the principle of responsiveness whereby an individual’s utterances or words are viewed as a response to another speaker’s utterances, and in this discursive event, a complex chain of dialogic utterances occurs. He enhances this suggestion with his second principle of multi-voicedness, or polyphony, illustrating that any single utterance contains more than the speaker’s individual voice, but rather is imbued with an array of voices representing the perspective of others who have spoken it before. The meaning of the word has therefore been created by multiple voices, each with their own interpretation of the word. Words, according to Bakhtin (1986), are in and of themselves replete with dialogic overtones. During heteroglossia, listeners’ and speakers’ voices merge in dialogue and new emergent thoughts are formed. From a Bakhtinian perspective, dialogue creates heteroglossia, a phenomenon essential for knowledge construction. He believes that discussions build language skills by fostering all three language learning processes – listening, speaking and negotiating meaning – whether practicing academic language or building everyday vocabulary word by word.

Paolo Freire (1970) also believed that words are essential and that only dialogue is capable of generating critical thinking. He stated that “without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication there can be no true education” (Freire, 1970, p. 69). Freire was highly critical of the traditional model of education whose methodology dictates a static role for both teacher and learner. Referring to this system as a banking model of education, Freire bemoaned the role of the student as an inactive participant in his own learning, simply a vessel to be filled with someone else’s truth. Additionally, in this traditional role, the educator is static. He is the sole holder of
knowledge and the agent who will convey his knowledge to students. In this setting, the teacher acts as the sage on the stage, transferring his omniscience to his compliant student through non-interactive activities. Freire’s philosophy of dialogue as a horizontal relationship calls for a reformed educational model that could resolve the existing contradiction between teacher and student.

The social reconstruction and critical pedagogy model, which has ensued from Freire’s (1970) work, attempts to blend students’ natural curiosity about real life issues with an awareness of social justice and equity. Through the explicit teaching of critical literacy, learners are encouraged to discover their own world, to research real world problems and to uncover and perhaps even address inequities. Learners actively build their own knowledge in a highly social context where language mediates their learning. This teaching and learning practice results in a paradigm shift of classroom roles. No longer are students listening to learn and teachers talking to teach. Students become teachers and speakers, even experts in their field, while teachers listen and learn from their students. In Freire’s model, both parties act as co-constructors of knowledge. In Freire’s world and in his words, a structure that does not allow dialogue must be changed. Dialogic teaching and learning offers a methodology to precipitate such a change.

Gordon Wells (1999) embraces the changes engendered through this dialogic praxis. Also rejecting the banking model of knowledge, he surmises that its most serious problem is in “treating knowledge as some thing that some people possess” (Wells, 1999, p. 63). He believes there are inherent dangers in viewing knowledge as a commodity that can be transmitted between individuals, and quantified for assessment purposes. He maintains that this perception supports a transmissionary pedagogy where classroom
dialogue is undervalued. Influenced by Vygotsky’s work, Wells adheres to a social constructivist view of education and calls for approaches to learning and teaching that are both collaborative and exploratory within which language is used as the primary mediating tool. His epistemological stance is further influenced by the work of linguist Michael Halliday (1993) who suggested that “language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experience becomes knowledge” (Halliday, 1993, p. 94).

Halliday’s (1993) language-based theory of learning and his seven functions of language contribute an essential element to the concept of dialogically mediated education. He considers language and learning as two interrelated semiotic processes where learning to mean serves to “expand one’s meaning potential” (Halliday, 1993, p. 113). His work is of particular importance to educational research as it underlines the link between individual linguistic systems and socially mediated linguistic events. He believes that schools act as a perfect venue for language learning, learning through language and learning about language, suggesting that as “children learn language, they are not simply engaging in one type of learning among many: rather they are learning the foundations of learning itself” (Halliday, 1993, p. 93).

Douglas Barnes (1992), paraphrasing the words of James Britton (1983) that “reading and writing floats on a sea of talk” (p. 11), contended that learning did as well. Influenced by Vygotsky’s ideas on thought and language, he was particularly interested in the ways in which speech unites the social and the cognitive. Barnes (1992) wished to contribute to the emerging field of curriculum theory, underscoring the importance of utilizing “an interactive model of teaching and learning” (p. 9). He posited that when students are learning something new, talk is a vital element in their construction of new
understanding. Not only do they use language to communicate about the new curricular content, but also discourse is the means through which they formulate knowledge and then “relate it to their own purposes and view of the world” (Barnes, 1992, p. 19). Thus, when students are working on understanding through exploratory talk, they are reshaping their old knowledge to accommodate the new. Barnes believed that students should not only be allowed to, but also actively encouraged to use exploratory talk. As their understanding develops through language, students are more able to converse about their new learning. They can then more easily explain their new understanding, using a type of final draft talk. According to Barnes, this talk is typically more fluent and presentational in nature, as students relate what they have come to know through a more assured and confident discourse.

Jean Paul Gee (2015) also elaborates on discourse, presenting a distinctive perspective on language and literacy centered on Discourse with a capital D. He defines Discourse as an identity kit, a certain way of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, and speaking, and in essence, a way of being in the world (Gee, 2015). He surmises that Discourses “are all about how people get their acts together, to get recognized as a given kind of person at a specific time and place” (Gee, 2015, p. 166). He distinguishes between Discourse and discourse, the latter describing a verbal interaction or a sequence of utterances between people. Gee specifies that there are various types of Discourse. Primary Discourse is acquired through our initial socializations as infants and toddlers, the language that identifies people initially as belonging to a specific cultural and socioeconomic group. Secondary Discourses are added throughout people’s lives, as they gain membership in outside institutions such as schools and community groups. Gee
suggests that schools have a unique responsibility in enabling all students to learn a secondary Discourse, ones that can lead to their future success in life. Gee posits that Discourses are mastered through acquisition, and not by direct instruction. He purports that a secondary Discourse result from enculturation into the social practices of a given group. It is built through scaffolded and supported interactions with those people who have already mastered the Discourse through a process of mentoring and modeling. His theory contributes two significant ideas to educational models. First, it highlights the importance of a dialogic model of teaching and learning in enabling students to grow their Discourses and discourses. It also underscores the significance of dialogic mentoring and modeling in an L2 classroom.

**Dialogic Teaching and Learning**

The above theoretical and conceptual frameworks provide the groundwork for the ensuing discussion in which I define dialogic teaching and learning in its most current iteration. I review and discuss the research into dialogic approaches, with a focus on the resulting empirical evidence supporting the benefits and the implications of its use. I then address the pedagogical context of Canadian French Immersion classrooms and present the rationale for adopting a dialogic teacher stance in French Immersion classrooms.

**Dialogic teaching and learning defined.**

“Education with inert ideas is not only useless, it is above all things, harmful” (Whitehead, 1929, p. 38).

Throughout the 20th century, educational reformists have extolled the importance and the benefits of dialogic teaching and learning. Dewey (1938) summarized this belief quite succinctly stating that, “educators cannot start with knowledge already organized
and proceed to ladle it out in doses” (p. 82). Instead, he proposed a child-centered model of education limiting the simple transmission of factual information and procedures. He argued that students should assume an active role in their learning through dialogue and inquiry. As is evident by the previous discussion on Freire’s belief about language and learning, he shared Dewey’s epistemological stance regarding the importance of including students as active participants in their own learning. Freire (1970) maintained that a dialogic praxis enabled students to build and act upon their own ideas rather than simply “consuming those of others” (p. 100). More recently, Rupert Wegerif (2013) has described dialogic pedagogy as “education for dialogue as well as through dialogue in which dialogue is not only treated as a means to an end but also treated as an end in itself” (p. 33). He suggests that dialogue be thought of as a way of opening, widening and deepening the discursive space, the Bakhtinian space where alternate perspectives can be explored through multiple voices, and the Freirian space that results from the tension created through dialogue from the juxtaposition of critical reflection and social action.

Alexander (2008) adds to this ontological discussion summarizing that dialogic teaching can be defined by its orientation to knowledge and knowing. This epistemology is foundational to the social and interactional practices occurring in dialogic classrooms today where recent empirical studies have uncovered some key distinguishing characteristics (Alexander, 2008; Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Lam, 2012; Lee & Johnston-Wilder, 2011; Littleton & Mercer, 2013; Nystrand et al., 2003; Wilkinson, Reninger, & Soter, 2010).

In general terms, a dialogic approach involves both the teacher and the students. It requires the co-construction of meaning within a co-constructed discursive environment
where authority and control is shared equally among the participants (Alexander, 2008; Freire, 1970; Wells, 2007). Dialogue is often initiated through open questioning and its main objective consists in collectively formulating reasonable hypothesis, judgments and conclusions that are intended to contribute to the entire group’s learning (Alexander, 2008; Littleton & Mercer, 2013; Walton & Macagno, 2007). Intersubjectivity underlies this communicative practice where agreement is not necessarily desired or achieved, but where respect for the opinion of others stands out as a non-negotiable component of classroom talk. As a result, the teacher treats “students as potential sources of knowledge and opinions, and in doing so complicates expert-novice hierarchies” (Nystrand et al., 2003, p. 140). Within this collaborative structure, shared roles and responsibilities emerge for both teachers and students.

As the primary facilitator and the most knowledgeable participant, the teacher plays a central role in explicitly teaching, modeling and supporting dialogic practice and engagement in the classroom. Described as “an artful performance rather than a prescribed technique” (Renshaw, 2004, p. 7), dialogic teaching is not a thetic methodology, but rather results from a dialogic teacher stance (Alexander, 2008; Gee, 2015; Nystrand et al., 2003; Vygotsky, 1987). A dialogic stance is evidenced through both patterns of instructional delivery and purposeful decisions on content presentation and methodology (Boyd & Markarian, 2011; Nystrand 2006; Soter, Wilkinson, Murphy, Rudge, Reninger, & Edwards, 2008). Specific characteristics are ascribed to this approach (Alexander, 2006, 2010; Shor, & Freire, 1987). Freire (1987) suggests that a dialogic teacher uses humour and a conversational voice rather than a didactic one, that he models and expects active speaking and listening skills during classroom dialogue, and
that he creates a safe classroom environment where every student’s voice can be heard. The dialogic teacher encourages students to elaborate on their responses and defers to other opinions even when asked for his own (Aukerman, 2012; Alexander, 2006; Shor & Freire, 1987). He often refers to students’ previous utterances, using uptake and revoicing to underscore the importance of their discourse and elicit further discussion. He builds on previous classroom talk, answering prior questions or alternatively posing new authentic questions in an effort to link prior knowledge to the current discussion (Anderson et al., 2001; Lobman, 2010; Rojas-Drummond & Mercer, 2003; Rojas-Drummond, Torreblanca, Pedraza, Vélez, & Guzman, 2013; Vygotky, 1978). Aukerman (2012) surmises that this approach allows the students’ voices to merge with others and, through this process, learners discover underlying social constructs, other meanings, and hidden voices on their own. Oral and textual authority is thus removed from the teacher and placed squarely on the students.

Purposeful dialogic interactions have the potential to provide holistic and embedded scaffolds within which cognitive and developmental transactions can unfold, thus enabling what Alexander (2008) refers to as scaffolded dialogue (Littleton & Howe, 2010; Mercer & Littleton, 2007; Rojas-Drummond et al., 2013; Vygotsky, 1987). As such, the dialogic teacher continually assesses students’ growing understanding while consistently valuing their prior knowledge as worthy additions to the classroom contexts (Alexander, 2008; Aukerman, 2007; Boyd & Galda, 2011). As an epistemology, the dialogic stance so richly infuses academic conversations that it shapes the “illocutionary force of the talk and the discourse space” (Boyd & Markarian, 2011, p. 516). From a social constructivist perspective, the teacher’s and learners’ transformed and
transformational roles recognize learners as active participants in the teaching-learning process (Alexander, 2008; Vygotsky, 1987). Not only do the students and teachers interact through dialogue, but they also inter-think, a moniker describing what Littleton and Mercer (2013) view as the ability to think creatively and productively together.

In order to support dialogue and inter-thinking, educators use particular patterns of talk while simultaneously determining the subject of talk. Recent research (Alexander 2006; Aukerman 2007, 2012; Boyd & Markarian, 2015; Littleton & Mercer, 2013) demonstrates that an instance of classroom dialogue does not necessarily engender learning and that dialogic teaching cannot solely be based on isomorphic questioning patterns, or on the dichotomy of open versus closed questions. Closed questioning is often associated with classroom approaches where traditional patterns of discourse predominate. In these oral sequences, the teacher initiates an exchange by posing a closed-ended question. Students bid to reply with the correct response, an act that Barnes (1992) called slot-filling. The teacher then evaluates the answer and another round of what has been termed initiation-response-evaluation (I-R-E) begins (Cazden, 2001; Mehan, 1979). I-R-E has been widely criticized for contributing to an educational model that subsumes learning to a collection of facts to be recalled as needed, an educational model resembling the banking model which Freire bemoans. I-R-E also serves to reinforce the role of the teacher as the holder of knowledge and as the authority in the classroom.

Empirical studies have documented the prevalence of I-R-E recitation as the dominant mode of whole classroom discourse (Alexander, 2006; Cazden 2001; Mehan, 1979; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur, & Pendergast, 1997;
Nystrand et al., 2003; Wells, 2007). Additionally, regardless of the evidence of their cognitive and social benefits, meaningful academic discussions rarely occur in secondary classrooms where high stakes testing and subject-based curriculum exert a strong influence on the teachers’ stance (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran, 2003; Dull & Morrow, 2008; Nystrand et al., 2003). In a study of the effects of instructional strategies on achievement in Grade 8 Social Studies and English classes, Gamoran and Nystrand (1991) found academic discourse occurred on average less than one minute per day. A more recent study confirmed these findings, adding that classroom discussions were dominated by question and answer recall formats (Nystrand et al., 2003). In the Grades 8 and 9 classes Nystrand and his colleagues (2003) studied, 85% of each class day was devoted to a combination of lecture, I-R-E exchanges, recitation, and seatwork while discussions took 50 seconds per class in Grade 8 and less than 15 seconds in Grade 9. Small-group work and peer discussions were rare. I-R-E exchanges occupied 30% of class time in Grade 8 classes and 42% of Grade 9 classes. I-R-E instructional practices require students to regurgitate memorized facts and do not encourage elaborated conversations. As a result, learners are constrained to a responsive role that limits opportunities for practicing communication strategies. Bakthin (1986) contrasted dialogic discourse, which kindles a dynamic transformation of understanding through socially mediated language events, with official monologism, which purports to contain ready-made truths. Wells (2007) further elaborated that monologic discourse “assumes no expectation of a rejoinder; all that is required is comprehension and acceptance” (p. 256).

At times, educators adhere to a monologic model, believing in its potential to quickly assess student understanding and to manage classroom behaviour. This
transmission model of discourse acts as the default pattern for some teachers (Alexander, 2008; Aukerman, 2012; Cazden, 2001). Further, some teachers perceive academic conversations as risky undertakings. Open-ended questions and unencumbered thinking in action can elicit unpredictable responses. Therefore, some educators are reluctant to relinquish control so that students can take the stage and hold the reins of learning. As discussed previously, discursive education relies on a transformed and transformational, respectful relationship between teacher and learner. According to Freire (1970), it is through dialogue that “the teacher-of-the-students and the students-of-the-teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with student-teachers...The teacher is no longer merely the one who teaches, but the one who is...taught in dialogue with the students, who in their turn while being taught also teach” (p.53). The repercussions for instruction are that the quality of student learning is closely linked to the quality of classroom talk. But how might educators shift the classroom dynamic, allowing meaning-making to be co-constructed between and through both teacher and learners?

Current research suggests that a repertoire of teaching talk is essential in creating a dialogic classroom and that a combination of discursive strategies including rote, recitation, instruction, exposition combined with discussion and scaffolded dialogue is required (Alexander, 2008; Aukerman, 2007; Boyd & Markarian, 2015; Littleton & Mercer, 2011; Scott, Mortimer, & Aguiar, 2006). Dialogic teachers utilize the whole spectrum of these strategies to create and support both academic conversations and the zone of proximal development. As Boyd and Markarian (2015) have discovered, “dialogic teaching is not defined by discourse structure so much as by discourse function” (p.272). Alexander (2010) suggests a repertoire of grouping methods by which educators
can address the discourse structure: whole class teaching, teacher-led group work, student-led group work, and one-to-one dialogue involving either a teacher-student or between pairs (p. 3). Discourse functions are best defined by Halliday (1973) who created a model that identifies functions for language use while recognizing the importance of language to the development of learners and learning. His model not only applies to the sequential process of early language acquisition, but also is equally relevant in educational settings as language learning becomes ever more academic, complex and refined. Dialogic teaching and learning incorporates all seven language functions in classroom discourse. Halliday’s framework holds even further relevance when addressing L2 acquisition later in this chapter.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Language</th>
<th>Description of the Function</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>Language used to get things done, to satisfy one’s needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulatory</td>
<td>Language used to control other’s behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional</td>
<td>Language used to form and maintain relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>Language used to express thoughts, opinions and emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imaginative</td>
<td>Language used to express creative and often fantastic thoughts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heuristic</td>
<td>Language used to seek knowledge, to question, and to learn about language itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informative</td>
<td>Language used to convey information, to explain</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Alexander (2010) also described functions of dialogic classroom talk and provided the following five comprehensive talk descriptors:

1) collective talk, where teacher and learners address learning tasks together, in groups or as a class, but not in isolation,

2) reciprocal talk, where teachers and learners listen to one and other, sharing ideas and
considering alternatives,

3) supportive talk, where all participants voice their ideas freely, without fear of embarrassment or failure, and help each other to reach common understandings,

4) cumulative talk, where teachers and learners build and elaborate on their own and on each other’s ideas, chaining them in coherent lines of thinking and enquiry,

5) purposeful talk, where teachers plan and facilitate dialogic teaching with particular educational goals in mind (p. 4).

Alexander posits that these various types of talk will naturally result in uptake where ideas are discussed, analyzed, and elaborated upon by students, in embedded scaffolding, in handover as students assimilate new learning, and in the gradual release of responsibility (Alexander, 2008) where students assume an integral role in both teaching and learning. Additionally, the functions of talk serve three main purposes: “as a cognitive tool which children come to use to process knowledge; as a social or cultural tool for sharing knowledge amongst people; and as a pedagogic tool which one person can use to provide intellectual guidance to another” (Mercer, Wegerif, & Dawes, 1999, p. 96). The notion of dialogue as a learning tool arises from the work of Vygotsky and Bakhtin, but it is also supported by current research which confirms that thinking and communicating are intricately intertwined, and that an increase in dialogic interactions is commensurate with an increase in learning and thinking (Alexander, 2008; Aukerman, 2012; Lee, 2006; Mercer & Littleton, 2007).

**Empirical Research - The Implications of Dialogic Teaching and Learning**

“Dialogic interactions harness the power of talk to engage children, stimulate and extend their thinking, and advance their learning and understanding” (Alexander, 2008, p.
Schools are very crowded places where the preeminent instructional tool is talk. Learning in this socially-mediated context places incredible emphasis on the ability of learners to communicate their ideas to others as well as to collaborate through dialogue. It is essential to learning that the members of a class achieve shared meaning and intersubjectivity. Current curricular reforms seek to underscore the principles of socially-mediated learning as a means to promote higher order thinking in all subject areas. The Draft Curriculum (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2013), has identified three core competencies, communication, thinking, and the personal and social, that are embedded in every subject area and evident in the learning standards. The communication strand comprises the set of abilities that are required to discuss, to explore and to exchange experiences and ideas. The thinking strand speaks to the transformation of subject-specific content into new understandings through the use of creative and critical thinking skills as well as through metacognitive awareness and habits of mind. The personal and social strand recognizes that learning is a socially-mediated activity that contributes to student identity and to their sense of purpose in the world. These three competencies are interrelated and are an integral part of learning across the grades and across subject areas. Educators are encouraged to support learners’ use of thinking, collaboration and communication not simply as an end, but also as the means to learn.

Dialogic learning and teaching inherently includes and supports these three competencies. The classroom itself can offer an egalitarian social structure where discourse authority is shared among the members. Students can acquire essential life
skills as they participate in turn-taking, in negotiating meaning, in supporting their opinions and in building consensus. A dialogic framework highlights classroom discourse as the means to learn, yet its importance to learning is often understated or unacknowledged (Alexander, 2008; Applebee et al., 2003; Dull & Morrow, 2008; Elizabeth, Ross Anderson, Snow & Selman, 2012; Nystrand et al., 2003; Wells, 2007). Current empirical research provides extensive data establishing the effectiveness of classroom dialogue in promoting group problem solving, improved reasoning skills, and higher levels of individual achievement (Applebee et al., 2003; Dull & Morrow, 2008; Lam, 2012; Lee & Johnston-Wilder, 2013; Michaels, O'Connor, & Resnick, 2008; Nystrand et al., 2003; Polman, 2004; Wells, 2007; Wells & Arauz, 2006) and highlights its contribution to the development of higher-order thinking skills and to a deeper understanding of subject matter (Murphy, Wilkinson, Soter, Hennessey, & Alexander, 2009; Reznitskaya, Kuo, Clark, Miller, Jadallah, Anderson, & Nguyen-Jahiel, 2009; Schwarz, Neuman, & Biezuner, 2000; Wegerif, Mercer, & Dawes, 1999). Dialogic teaching and learning has been shown to increase learners’ capacity for communication and collaboration by providing the means to acquire and share ideas (Lee, 2006; Lee & Johnston-Wilder, 2013). Participation in classroom dialogue provides benefits at all grade levels and is directly associated with an increase in student learning and academic achievement at both the elementary and secondary level (Applebee et al., 2003; Aukerman 2012; Dull & Morrow, 2008; Lam, 2012; Lee & Johnston-Wilder, 2013; Nystrand et al., 2003; Pinnell & Jaggar, 2003; Polman, 2004; Soter et al., 2008). For example, during a year long observational analysis in a Grade 2 classroom examining dialogic engagement, Aukerman (2012) observed that even younger students become
intrinsically aware of the multiple perspectives and the sociologically and ideologically-based opinions and implications evident in the texts they read and in the discussions that ensued. In this study, the teacher adopted a dialogic stance and students were provided with ample opportunities for discussion about their reading. The teacher also refrained from evaluating the students’ perspectives and ensured that all students understood that their opinions were valued and valuable. Aukerman (2012) proposed that, “pedagogies oriented toward critical literacy as dialogic engagement can offer intentional space for the unfolding of social heteroglossia” (p. 45).

A dialogic approach also encourages the unfolding of student voices across subject areas and is essential in decentralizing the teacher as the sole authority and holder of knowledge. A two year long study in a Grade 6 Mathematics class conducted by Nathan, Kim, and Grant (2009) equated dialogic teaching with a reduction in teacher I-R-E and a commensurate increase in student participation and in the co-construction of mathematical ideas. According to a case study conducted by Lee and Johnston-Wilder (2013) in a Grade 8 classroom, a dialogic teacher stance as well as collaborative, dialogic and dynamic activities, were central in promoting and sustaining higher order mathematical thinking. Supported by field notes and video sequences, Polman (2004) conducted a discourse analysis of teachers’ and students’ verbal interactions which underscored that student-directed dialogic inquiry in a heterogenous Grades 9 to 12 Science classroom not only contributed to better learning outcomes, but led to a significant increase in student engagement. Dull and Morrow (2008) uncovered similar results from their multiple case observational study in a secondary Socials Studies classroom where dialogic teaching was directly linked to higher order critical thinking
skills. Their research data indicated that dialogic questioning particularly benefitted students from lower socio-economic backgrounds by providing them an academic discourse that is necessary in advocating for their needs and their rights. Participation in dialogue has been shown to increase students’ academic register, thereby contributing to a useful secondary Discourse and to improved literacy development (Clark, 2007; Gee, 2015).

Academic classroom discussions has been directly linked to improved literacy development. In a meta-analysis of 42 studies, Murphy et al. (2009) examined the effects of classroom discussions on students’ comprehension of texts. The researchers included only reports of empirical studies containing quantitative data in the assessment of discourse including measurements of teacher talk, student talk and student-to-student talk. Several of these studies involved research on widely available educational approaches such as Philosophy for Children, Collaborative Reasoning and Paideia Seminar. The selected studies reported constructs of interest focussed on individual student outcomes, presented measures of text explicit and implicit comprehension levels, and contained data pertaining to critical thinking and reasoning. Murphy et al. (2009) extrapolated a number of key findings from this review. First and foremost, discursive classrooms provided for a measurable increase in student talk and an associated decrease in teacher talk. It was also discovered that an increase in student talk did not necessarily lead to an increase in student comprehension. Scaffolded teaching and discourse framing by the teacher played an intrinsic and invaluable role in enhancing the quality of dialogue in the classroom and in ensuring that student engagement translated into significant learning. Further, it was discovered that the use of dialogic approaches were most
effective for students with limited literacy abilities, indicating that the effects of dialogue on thinking and learning benefits students who need it most, particularly those with diverse ethnicities and abilities. Murphy et al. (2009) concluded that most efferent teaching approaches were highly effective in promoting learners’ literal and inferential comprehension of texts, while dialogic approaches emulating the epistemological underpinnings of Philosophy for Children or the Paideia Seminars were more likely correlated with increased critical thinking and reasoning. Research data suggests that promoting talking and listening skills through dialogic processes are beneficial in raising literacy outcomes. A more recent mixed method study of the Philosophy for Children program conducted by Lam (2012) came to a similar conclusion. His findings also revealed positive results in utilizing dialogic discourse in classroom, even for a short period, of time as the implementation of dialogic approaches led to increased critical thinking skills that were observable over the long term.

The above research underscores the relevance and the importance of dialogic teaching and learning in our 21st century classrooms. If educators are to effectively implement the three competencies outlined in the Ministry document, *Transforming Curriculum and Assessment* (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2013), and if students are to graduate with these necessary competencies, it behooves all educators to adopt a dialogic teaching stance. In the following section, I explore the context of FI classrooms and the implications of adopting a dialogic teacher stance for L2 acquisition.

**The Context of Canadian French Immersion Classrooms**

Implemented in Canada in 1965, one-way French immersion (FI) programs were initially conceived for a language majority (English-speaking) student audience, but now
welcome a culturally diverse population from a variety of linguistics backgrounds. The FL model adheres to the curricular expectation of integrating language and content in the belief that language can be used as the vehicle through which subject matter content can be learned. The program advocates the sole use of French in class for all social and instructional purposes and is designed according to the following four characteristics:

1. access to fully proficient French language teachers,
2. maintenance of a clear separation of teacher use of L2 and the first language (L1),
3. reliance on support for the L1 in the home and in the community at large in the first two years of immersive education, and
4. instructional use of the French language for subject matter in all curricular content-based courses (Johnson & Swain, 1997; Roy, 2008, 2010)

Additionally, content-based learning provides a rich environment that allows for engagement, for the co-construction of language and for the development of deeper understanding. Students are immersed in L2 learning, which is both contextualized and purposeful. From a Hallidayan (1993) perspective, L2 students learn language as they master French, learn about language when they study French as content, and learn through language when they use French to solve problems, understand concepts and create knowledge in other subject areas.

This approach to language learning, referred to as additive bilingualism, occurs when both languages are supported and develop in parallel. Second language acquisition (SLA) is typically mediated by the presence of additional metacognitive and metalinguistic psychological tools already present in L1 (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007). L2 learners are expected to achieve high levels of functional French language proficiency.
while maintaining or exceeding academic standards in English. Over 40 years of both qualitative and quantitative research have documented levels of academic success in FI programs. Large scale studies indicate that immersion students attain similar or better results than their English-only peers on standardized tests of achievement administered in English (Bournot-Trites & Reeder, 2001; Bournot-Trites & Tallowitz, 2002; Genessee, 1987; Serra, 2007; Lapkin, Hart & Turnbull, 2003). In a cross-sectional analysis of the test scores on provincial foundational skills assessments of Grades 3 and 6 FI students in Ontario, Lapkin et al. (2003) concluded that by Grade 6, FI students outperformed non-immersion students in reading, in writing and in mathematics. A more recent longitudinal study (Serra, 2007), assessing Grades 1 to 6 in three Swiss primary schools, yielded similar results. In another longitudinal case study conducted by Bournot-Trites and Reeder (2001), FI students from two cohorts of Grades 4 to 7 students in the Vancouver area were followed to alleviate parental concerns over their children’s ability to learn mathematics in a L2. The research examined the effects that teaching mathematics in French (L2) had on the evaluation of mathematics achievement administered in English (L1). The treatment group received 80% of the core academic curriculum (including mathematics) in French and 20% in English. The control group received 50% of the core curriculum in French and 50% (including mathematics) in English. Achievement for both groups was measured at the end of Grade 6. The treatment group performed significantly better on a standardized mathematics test than did the control group. Bournot-Trites and Reeder (2001) concluded that the students who acquired their mathematical knowledge in French were able to retrieve it in English.

Finally, Canadian FI programs are recognized worldwide as one of the most
effective L2 learning environments offered in schools providing the potential for enhanced academic advantages (Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Lazaruk, 2007). Research has suggested that FI learners typically demonstrate greater cognitive flexibility, metalinguistic awareness and problem-solving abilities than their English stream counterparts (Cummins, 1998; Fortune & Tedick, 2008; Lazaruk, 2007; Roy & Galiev, 2011; Swain, 2005).

The Ministry document, *Transforming Curriculum & Assessment* (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2013) clearly identifies that learning in FI is accomplished in an experiential and contextual setting conducive to acquiring the competencies, the strategies and the knowledge necessary to communicate and interact with others in the French language and culture. Based upon a conceptual framework, the FI program seeks to enable the learner to acquire inquiry skills as well as observational and critical thinking skills while using the French language to mediate growing understanding and knowledge of the world. More specifically, teaching takes a communicative approach that focuses on the purposeful use of language to perform real-life tasks, share ideas and acquire information. British Columbia’s Ministry of Education, French Immersion Program website (2015) states in its FI program policy that the end goal of French Immersion is for students to be able to function bilingually in society, that is to be able to work and study in either a bilingual or a uniquely francophone milieu. Functional bilingualism is defined as oral fluency and literacy in both English and French.

**Research on Second Language Acquisition**

Many researchers (Cummins, 1998, 2007; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Fortune,
Tedick, & Walker, 2008; Lyster, 2007; Roy, 2010; Swain, 2000; Wei, 2007) have found that the level of French spoken by graduates of the FI program does not qualify them as bilingual. Swain (2000) found that in spite of six to seven years of “acquisition-rich input” (p. 99), Canadian FI students from Grades 3 and 6 used very little extended discourse in class, and that teacher-centered interactions constrained their level of language proficiency. More recent research carried out by Cammarata and Tedick (2012) also indicated that FI students’ language was fragmented, and that there existed a significant discrepancy between their receptive and productive language skills. The L2 learners who were participants in their study had a consistent linguistic profile and similar language skills which lacked “grammatical accuracy, lexical specificity and variety, and is less complex and sociolinguistically less appropriate” (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012, p. 253). Their oral communication was more likely to adhere to linguistic conventions if they had practiced their speech beforehand and scripted their talk, similarly to what Barnes would qualify as presentational talk. During exploratory talk, where students converse in authentic settings among peers, they typically revert to their L1. These circumstances often occur during periods when a teacher-centered approach does not control their language output (Cummins, 1998, 2007; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Fortune, Tedick, & Walker, 2008; Lyster, 2007; Swain, 2000, 2013).

Communicative competence in L2 is a highly complex process subject to a myriad of influences, therefore these challenges in SLA may be due to a variety of intrinsic or extrinsic factors. Fortune, Tedick, and Walker (2008) posited that SLA and proficiency were hindered by the need to teach content and a lack of explicit attention to language development while Lyster (2007) underlined the inherent difficulties in content-based
learning and the immersion approach. Toth (2011) emphasized how SLA is contingent upon repeated and numerous daily opportunities for communicative events within the L2 learners’ environment. He underlined the importance of internalizing the language “by providing ample models for emulation, making challenging linguistic concepts accessible to the learners, and modulating other forms of linguistic mediation” (Toth, 2011, p. 1). Cummins (2009) further extended the importance of dialogue by advocating for a de-centering of teacher authority and power in L2 classrooms, arguing that, “how students are positioned either expands or constricts their opportunities for identity investment and cognitive engagement” (p.265). He presumed that rather than etically situating L2 students from the language and culture they are attempting to learn, they should be welcomed into the L2 community as intelligent, imaginative and linguistically talented L2 learners. As Cummins (2009) points out, L2 students should not be “defined by what they lack rather than by what they have” or by what they are attempting to acquire (p. 265).

A Chomskyian perspective, which views linguistic competence as an innate and primarily cognitive endeavour, continues to pervade the field of SLA theory (Halliday, 1978; Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007; Hymes, 1979; Swain, 2000; Van Lier, 2004). Yet, theories of language in which language is seen as an abstract system removed from contexts of use are not adequate in supporting bilingualism in the FL classroom. Contrary to traditional thought in SLA, the language knowledge that individuals develop through these processes is not rule-based. As Batstone and Ellis (2009) posited, “there are no mechanisms for such top-down governance” (p. 199). Van Lier (2004) also argued that Chomsky’s input theory of SLA is a “computational metaphor that places an emphasis on
fixed pieces of language that are processed and stored in the brain” (p. 139), a theory which virtually ignores the socially active learner, and the fact that language itself is recreated every time it is negotiated. Van Lier proposed that L2 learning is a collaboratively constructed and contingent process dependent upon expert teacher scaffolding. He surmised that, by supporting students in their ZPD, educators enabled a move away from I-R-E exchanges toward more meaningful dialogic interchanges where students were able to co-construct knowledge through socially mediated learning. As such, Van Lier brings concepts from Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory into contact with principles of an ecological understanding of L2 learners as active agents and full language users. He maintains that L2 learners should be regarded as, “whole persons comprised of minds, bodies, emotions embedded and active in their environments rather than as grammar production units” (Van Lier, 2004, p. 223). His dialogic approach supports language learning and language use as components of a unified process whereby meaningful learning occurs in meaningful contexts supported through a purposeful objective.

Halliday (1978) is also recognized as a strong critic of Chomsky’s cognitivist view of language. As evidenced in Halliday’s (1973, 1993) framework of systemic functional linguistics and in his language-based theory of learning, he stressed the centrality of socially-mediated communicative competence. From its inception, researchers have used this framework to develop an understanding of how language and learning are related (Halliday, 1993). To summarize, systemic functional linguistics is a meaning-based theory of language, in which all choices that speakers or writers make from the lexical or grammatical systems of a language are shaped by the social. Halliday affirmed that
vocabulary is built through social interactions, that grammar mirrors function and that both are mastered through experiences with others. By extension, SLA is also a socially-mediated process and Halliday’s theoretical framework addresses both the context and the complexity of building L2 oral proficiency. Bakhtin (2004) supported this ontology adding that

> teaching syntax without providing stylistic elucidation and without attempting to enrich the students’ own speech lacks any creative significance and does not help them improve the creativity of their own speech production, merely teaching them to identify the parts of ready-made language produced by others. (p. 15)

It is evident that L2 mastery in the FI context requires dialogue with students in classroom interactions, thus enabling SLA to proceed along three dimensions (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010). Each of these dimensions, which are central to the concept of register in Halliday’s theory of language, sees L2 learners develop the language needed to express their understanding of key content ideas while acquiring the linguistic resources to express interpersonal meanings. Simultaneously, their ability to translate speech into comprehensive written forms unfolds.

In essence, there are two conflicting SLA theories whose official instructional purposes and methodologies differ. The Chomskyian view aims to build the skills and knowledge needed for the accurate production of forms whereas the Hallidayian perspective supports the communicative skills and knowledge needed to speak the target language. The following case study of academic language instruction in a L2 secondary Science class serves to underline the above dichotomy of meaning versus form.

Richardson Bruna, Vann and Perales Escudero (2007) found that a teacher’s didactic
stance toward pronunciation and vocabulary acquisition severely limited her students’ opportunities to socially mediate both their linguistic resources and their scientific learning processes. By insisting students focus on perfecting their scientific lexicon through repeated I-R-E exchanges, the teacher neglected to access students’ prior knowledge, to scaffold learning and to mediate deeper concept understanding. The study provides a striking example of the possible negative impacts to the development of conceptual understanding and to SLA that can occur when integrating language and content instruction without considering learners as active participants. In a similar discourse analysis study, Hall (2010) observed a first-year high school Spanish language class over a nine-month period. The students’ opportunities for oral production were limited to two activities, “listing and labeling of objects and concepts” and “lexical chaining” (Hall, 2010, pp. 76–77). Both activities were conducted through teacher I-R-E exchanges and involved limited cognitive engagement and linguistic skills. This methodology resulted in a disjointed one-sided conversation focused primarily on reviewing a list of unrelated sentences and vocabulary words devoid of context. The teacher’s questioning pattern neither elicited cohesive conversations nor adhered to the pragmatic conventions of conversation (Hall, 2010; Thoms, 2011). The repeated use of these two speaking activities resulted in low levels of cognitive and linguistic development, as evidenced by students’ communicative abilities at the end of the year. Hall’s study also underscores the importance of understanding the consequences of talk to language learning and development in the L2 classroom.

From a Vygotskian perspective, sense and meaning making emerge through social mediation and appropriation of the required linguistic tools within the zone of proximal
development of the language learner. In fact, the ability to communicate one’s personal thoughts, experiences and attitudes in a foreign language is fundamental to achieving understanding of complex subject matter taught through that language. Firth and Wagner (2007) have long argued for a reconceptualization of research into SLA that takes into account “how language is being used as it is being acquired through interaction, and used resourcefully, contingently and contextually” (p. 296). Yet, Swain (2013) still contends that a sociocultural perspective of SLA has been slow to emerge, stating that its impact on instructional practices has been limited due to the focus of content delivery in FI classrooms. She bemoans the predominance of I-R-E in FI classrooms, highlighting that this approach emphasizes language practices that do not mimic authentic communication. Indeed, the focus of the cognitivist input theory of language continues to parallel discussions in the broader educational field calling for more constructivist student-centered dialogue in 21st century classrooms.

**Implications of Dialogic Teaching and Learning for FI**

“As a tool, dialogue serves second language learning by mediating its own construction, and the construction of knowledge itself” (Swain, 2000, p. 112).

At the heart of all language learning is the need to be understood. Cummins (2009) describes dialogue in L2 classrooms as the collaborative creation of power, explaining that, “students in these empowering classroom contexts know that their voices will be heard and respected. Schooling amplifies rather than silences their power of self-expression” (p. 263). Adding to this tenet, Bachman and Palmer (2010) surmise that the ultimate goal of L2 learning, that of communicative competence, develops from being engaged in creating meaning and understanding with others. This linguistic objective
transcends the perception of language as a tool kit that learners can acquire. In L2 classrooms, the teacher’s stance more strongly supports or hinders the participatory structures that engage learners in fruitful L2 dialogue. Research into L2 teachers’ questioning patterns continues to indicate a prevalence of I-R-E discourse which typically yields minimal student responses and contribute little to the development of the appropriate discourse patterns suitable for L2 learners (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Kong, 2009; Kong & Hoare, 2011; Swain, 2000; Toth, 2011). Yet recent research into dialogic approaches to language learning clearly supports their potential for cognitive and linguistic benefits for FI students (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Swain, Lapkin, Knouzzi, Suzuki, & Brooks, 2009). Obviously, central to the question of SLA and proficiency is the learner. Genuine opportunities to communicate, a supportive setting, and the learner’s willingness to engage in L2 discourse are determining factors in SLA (MacIntyre, Burns, & Jessome, 2011). These pedagogical characteristics are particularly relevant in the British Columbia context where French is not widely used in the broader community. As a result, teachers and peers serve as the primary resource for linguistic development and the quality of their communicative events determine the extent to which L2 learners develop communicative competence (Hymes, 1979).

Lobman (2010) believes all classrooms require a paradigm “shift in focus from the products of those environments to the dialectical relationship between what is to be learned and the creating of the environment” within which learning and development can occur (p. 204). Believing that student utterances are both process and product and that knowledge building is language learning, Swain (2013) adds that it is even more important in the FI context that collaborative dialogue be geared toward the co-
construction of meaning and problem-solving, rather than toward emphasizing the form of each interlocutors’ message. But as Thoms (2012) points out, a paucity of research exists on the ways in which L2 teachers can be prepared to engage learners in the purposeful and productive dialogue conducive to building students’ L2 proficiency. The implications for further research include a focus on the means by which language educators can develop a growing awareness of their classroom discourse patterns and transform their classroom talk from one which performs an evaluative or behaviour management purpose to one which can sustain meaningful and purposeful teacher-to-students, teacher-to-student and peer-to-peer dialogue.

**Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, I provided the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the importance of a dialogic approach to teaching and learning and a descriptive introduction to its characteristics. The research discussed clearly underscores the paucity of discourse in classrooms and the predominance of a teacher-centered approach while numerous studies uncover the cognitive and social benefits of dialogue for student learning. I underlined the rationale for adopting a dialogic teacher stance in the 21st century classroom as well as highlighted the challenges faced by educators in implementing such an approach. I also described the SLA dichotomy evidenced in FI classroom where the cognitivist philosophy conflicts with the socio-constructivist model. As teachers ultimately determine the nature and the quality of classroom talk, it follows that convincing teachers of the benefits of dialogue to learning might trigger a paradigm shift in their practices. It is with this objective in mind that I present the next chapter outlining a professional development workshop for L2 educators.
Chapter 3

Professional Development for Intermediate French Immersion Teachers

“Beyond the dialogue of voices then, is a dialogue of minds” (Alexander, 2008, p. 130).

FI educators face the challenging task of simultaneously teaching complex subject-specific content as well as a L2. Current FI ontology dictates that French will be the sole language of instruction while expecting that students will quickly become proficient in its use (Johnson & Swain, 1997; Roy, 2008). As most available instructional resources are designed with native speakers in mind, FI teachers tend to create simplified teaching materials consisting of brief factual notes that can then be memorized for evaluative purposes (Turnbull, Cormier, & Bourque, 2011). Additionally, a belief that L2 learners do not possess sufficient oral skills to participate in academic discussions or to fully benefit from classroom dialogue seems to prevail among FI teachers (Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007; Lantolf, 2006; Van Lier, 2004). Language teachers monopolize classroom discourse, both to provide a suitable language model and to address their obligation to cover complex curricular content (Lyster, 2007). L2 educators limit the percentage of L1 occurring in the classroom when students are engaged in collaborative work with their peers (Cummins, 2007, 2009). As a result, FI methodologies are typically teacher-centered, allowing for fewer opportunities for learners to speak and write in the target language (Lyster 2007; Roy 2010; Swain 2000). Findings from research have underscored that FI students’ expressive oral and written skills are less developed and less accurate than desired (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Cummins, 1998, 2007; Lyster, 2007; Roy 2010; Swain, 2000; Wei, 2007). Teachers are in charge of the instructional
methods used in their classroom. They have the power to expand or inhibit student discourse through their use of monologic and dialogic discursive practices (Alexander, 2006; Cazden 2001; Mehan, 1979; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Nystrand et al., 1997; Nystrand et al., 2003; Wells, 2007). Therefore, educators define and moderate the teacher-pupil relationship as well as the presence or the absence of classroom dialogue. Considering the volume of research supporting the impact of classroom dialogue on deeper cognitive and language development processes, it behooves all educators to adopt a dialogic approach as a pedagogical praxis.

The required paradigm shift to a dialogic stance may be easier said than done. As discussed, the I-R-E default discourse pattern as a quick method to quickly assess students’ understanding and fact retention remains a useful tool in a teacher’s spectrum of discursive practices (Alexander, 2006; Cazden 2001; Mehan, 1979; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Nystrand et al., 1997; Nystrand et al., 2003; Wells, 2007). Findings from research clearly convey that this particular talk pattern must not be the only one used in today’s classrooms, and that educators must open up a discursive space where students feel comfortable talking and thinking, out loud and together (Alexander, 2006, 2010; Bakthin, 1984; Barnes, 1992; Shor & Freire, 1987; Wegerif, 2013; Wells, 1999). My epistemology has shifted because of my research. I would suggest that students being at a loss for French words does not equate with them having nothing to say. A L2 classroom setting has the potential to offer learners opportunities to interthink (Mercer, 2002) across a variety of curricular subject areas in truly authentic ways. I propose a Professional Development Workshop (ProD) for FI educators teaching at the Junior high school level, although many of the principles discussed relate to all grade levels in all subject areas. I
am seeking to alter the traditional teacher-learner social relationship in our classrooms while encouraging students to assume an active and productive role in collaborative group work. The workshop activities will unfold using a dialogic teaching and learning format which will be explicitly highlighted as participants and myself co-construct our learning and our discussion. The session will begin with an overview of the draft curriculum being proposed for French Immersion by the British Columbia Ministry of Education (2013).

**Professional Development - An Iterative Process**

I have followed an iterative process recommended by Dr. Jane Vella of Global Learning Partners to develop the framework for this project (Vella, 2002).

1. **Who**: Who are the participants and what questions/experiences do they bring?

   The participants are FI teachers who work at the Junior High School level in Grades 8 and 9, as I am most familiar with the secondary curriculum. I assume these
educators most likely have varying degrees of experiences in teaching across subjects and grade levels, and that they are attending this workshop because they have an interest in enabling productive academic talk in their classrooms. I will verify both of these assumptions in the introductory activity. According to Alexander (2008), dialogic teaching is an approach resulting from the teacher’s stance rather than a method which can be taught. He joins others (Swain, 2013; Thoms, 2012) in calling for a greater emphasis on teacher education programs and professional development that are specifically focused on the field of dialogic teaching and learning.

2. Why: What is the current situation and why is the learning relevant?

As I discussed in Chapter 2, current empirical research (Cummins, 1998, 2007; Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Fortune, Tedick, & Walker, 2008; Lyster, 2007; Roy, 2010; Swain, 2000; Wei, 2007) suggests that FI students’ expressive skills are not developed enough to be considered as bilinguals when they graduate from FI programs in British Columbia. Given this situation and the potential cognitive and linguistic benefits resulting from a dialogic approach to language teaching, the professional development workshop is relevant in shifting FI teachers’ stances toward adopting a broader spectrum of discursive practices in their classrooms.

3. So that: What will be different as a result of this experience?

I hope that teachers will develop a reflective lens through which they can view and self-assess their individual teacher talk as a result of participating in the workshop. I posit that the first step in altering the teacher stance, and in adopting a dialogic approach, is self-reflection about the nature and the quality of our daily classroom discourse. Secondly, I hope to convey that a shift to a dialogic approach need not seem an
insurmountable task. Most teachers already use many of the recommended discourse patterns, but perhaps without realizing they do, or without realizing the importance of explicitly assigning a purpose to their choices of using a particular discourse pattern.

4. When: How much time is available and how does this influence the content?

Typically, ProD workshops are allocated from 90 to 120 minutes at the annual conferences hosted by l’Association canadienne des professeurs d’immersion (ACPI) or by l’Association provinciale des professeurs d’immersion et du programme francophone de la Colombie-Britannique (APPIPC). These workshop sessions are delivered in French. I would request the maximum of 120 minutes for this workshop. This time frame will confine the presentation, so that a round table discussion of shared dialogic practices may have to be conducted by those teachers who are interested in pursuing the discussion further and in developing a platform where our professional practices can be shared.

5. Where: Where is the event and what are the implications/opportunities for the event?

These conferences are typically held at hotels in small convention rooms with wifi accessibility and technology hook-ups. This setting will allow for multimedia presentations and for a teacher co-constructed collaborative platform to be established for future exchanges and sharing. Additional resources such as whiteboards and copying facilities will be required. I would request a small room enabling a more casual and collegial atmosphere.

6. What: What content (skills, information, perspective) will you focus on?

The workshop will begin with a review of the draft curriculum on the BC Ministry of Education (2013) website after which I will use a mixture of interactive
activities and a slide presentation. The instructional delivery will adhere to a dialogic teaching approach where participants will be asked to discuss and respond to prompts according to the following slide show (Appendix 1).

Slide 1

Slide 2

Slide 1 contains a welcome statement followed by an oral summary of the purpose of the workshop and an outline of the session which will also be written on the whiteboard. The objective is to move from a theoretical discussion of dialogic teaching and learning and the benefits of a dialogic praxis to a discussion of the practical implications of adopting a dialogic teacher stance.

Slide 2 features an introductory activity that begins with a brief introduction of myself, followed by a quick round table discussion with a focus on answering these three questions: where do you teach? Which experience do you bring to the table? What do you hope to gain from today’s workshop? The purpose of this discussion is to provide some insight into who the participants are, to create a sense of cohesiveness among the group members, and to highlight a sense of shared purpose in the ensuing discussions and activities.
Slide 3 consists of a brief overview of the epistemology of dialogic teaching, including an introduction to Vygotsky, Bakhtin and Freire. I will highlight that dialogic teaching is not a methodology, but rather results from the teacher’s stance and the decisions that he/she makes everyday in his/her instructional practices and content delivery (Alexander, 2008; Gee, 2015; Nystrand et al., 2003; Vygotsky, 1987). I will also discuss the importance of using a variety of classroom groupings and teacher talk within which dialogue can occur (Alexander, 2010). I stress that we will also be using a variety of these groupings and teacher talk during the workshop.

Slide 4 features a diagram depicting Vygotsky’s (1987) zone of proximal development. I will discuss its importance to student learning and provide an overview of the significance of language as the tool of tools for mediating this learning.
Slide 5 describes a dialogic encounter, which is also one of the activity I use in my own classroom to promote dialogue. I will explain that this particular teaching method can be used across subject areas (Socials, French Language Arts, Planning, Sciences, and Mathematics) as long as the quotes are open enough to lead to many different interpretations and that students are able to uncover the meaning behind the quotes. This activity unfolds as follows: a number of quotes (Appendix 2) will be posted on the walls around the room. Participants will be asked to gather around the quote that most speaks to them. A 10 minute discussion in their quote groups will ensue, according to the following prompts: How/Why does this quote speak to you? Is there any connection with the quote and your beliefs as a teacher? In which way? This small group discussion will then become a round table discussion where groups will report out their answers to the three prompts. The big ideas generated through this process will be written on the whiteboard, and later copied into a document that will be sent to participants. It is anticipated that much of the theoretical underpinnings of dialogic teaching and learning will be uncovered through this process.

Slide 6 continues the overview of dialogic teaching and learning, by reiterating that learning through, from, and about language (Halliday, 1993) is vital in today’s
classroom and that such learning should occur within the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). I will also underline that I am now using a monologic teacher-centred stance for the purpose of transmitting information (Bakhtin 1986; Wells, 2007), as opposed to the dialogic stance which occurred during our Quote Activity. I will convey that this teaching technique is one of a spectrum of tools available to a dialogic teacher, but should never stand alone as a methodology (Alexander, 2010).

Slide 7

Slide 7 includes the quote, “When recitation starts, remembering and guessing supplant thinking” (Nystrand et al., 1997, p. 6). This quote will be used to engage in a discussion of the various challenges to real dialogue in classroom, for instance the use of I-R-E for recall and testing purposes. I will summarize these difficulties in the following slide. This whole group dialogue will also highlight the active listening and speaking skills that need to be implemented as a classroom practice if dialogue is to take place. A reproducible (Appendix 3) will be made available for participants to use as a guideline for their classrooms, with the additional caution that classroom criteria are best developed by the students themselves with teacher guidance. Learners will better understand the
guideline’s purpose and its significance to their own learning and to their learning community if they have played an active part in creating the criteria.

Slide 8 lists some of the reasons teachers may adhere to a monologic versus a dialogic stance (Bakhtin, 2004). I will review the necessity of overcoming our own experiences as learners instead of falling back on the ways we have been taught. I discuss the predominance of I-R-E in classrooms, the difference between closed and open questioning, the short rote and recitation-based questions and the all too often prevalent insistence on asking students to report on the thoughts of others rather than on their own (Bakhtin, 1984; Freire, 1970; Wells, 2006, 2007). I will underscore that educators hold the power in the classroom to control who speaks as well as when, how and to whom they speak.

Slide 9 introduces some of the negative consequences of a solely monologic approach to teaching. The following is a translation of my notes for Slide 9. As educators, we know that 21st century learners experience significant difficulty when asked to be inactive all day long. As well, competencies in being able to collaborate and communicate effectively, to think critically, and to resolve problems are critical to their
success in life (BC Ministry of Education, 2013). A monologic teaching stance results in a lack of cognitively stimulating instructional practices which can engender several consequences. Students are likely to not learn as quickly or as deeply as they would from a dialogic teaching approach which lends itself to students assuming a more active and more definitive role in their own learning (Alexander, 2006, 2010; Bakthin, 1984; Barnes, 1992; Shor & Freire, 1987; Wegerif, 2013; Wells, 2006). A monologic approach also equates with a paucity of opportunities for students to develop important communication skills such as the ability to narrate, explain, support their opinions, argue and question (Alexander, 2006, 2010; Nystrand et al. 2003). Additionally, classroom dialogue offers students a holistic way to show what they know or do not know, what they have learned or what they still need to understand. From the teacher’s perspective, a dialogic approach creates an authentic setting to assess students’ prior knowledge, current understanding and learning (Alexander 2006, 2010; Barnes, 1992). It follows that the creation of an appropriate instructional setting and the adoption of a dialogic teaching stance becomes imperative in supporting student learning.

Slide 10 introduces another classroom strategy. Its product is a student-filmed sequence of an explanation and a solution to a complex polynomial problem. The mathematical question asks students to write a magic polynome, a trick polynomial expression, where no matter which rational number replaces the variable, the answer will always be predictable. It is an open-ended question, one which could have a multitude of different answers, so there are no right or wrong answers to this question. Working in pairs, students create an expression, then tape themselves explaining their reasoning and their solution. These videos are not high quality productions, but serve as a dialogic
product and an assessment tool where students explain and justify their reasoning and learning to others.

Slide 11 is the student generated video.

Slide 12 Slide 13 Slide 14

Slides 12, 13 and 14 will be used to initiate a learner-centered dialogue where participants are asked to choose a bullet on each slide according to the following questions. Which statement most resonates with them? Which statement is most congruent with their practice? Which is most puzzling? This discussion is meant to actively engage the participants in a thoughtful reflection of their pedagogical beliefs while reviewing the empirical research on the benefits to student learning derived from a dialogic teaching approach (Alexander, 2006, 2008; Applebee et al., 2003; Aukerman, 2012; Dull & Morrow, 2008; Lam, 2012; Lee & Johnston-Wilder, 2013; Murphy et al., 2009; Nystrand et al., 2003; Polman, 2004; Soter et al., 2008; Wells, 2007). The slide statements cover those benefits discussed in Chapter 2 under the heading: Empirical Research - The Implications of Dialogic Teaching and Learning.

Slide 15 is a persuasive essay self-evaluation rubric that was co-created in my Grade 9 Français Langue class. Students use it during their Editors Circle. Students pair up to review their writing with a classmate, typically three times over the process of writing while going from draft to final copy, which is then ready for marking. They confer on
text structure, content and conventions. This peer conference provides another occasion where I ask students to film one of their editorial sessions.

Slide 16 is one such videoed session where two students are discussing the word choices in their texts. Again it is not a high quality video. It is evident in the video that students are engaged in dialogue and are able to think metacognitively about their writing, their text structure, their vocabulary and the conventions. After initiating this practice in my classroom, not only has students’ writing improved significantly, but students are more likely to revise, edit and correct other written work without prompting.

After viewing this video, I will discuss another classroom practice used to improve my students’ writing. This activity is typically conducted in triads. For example, students are asked to respond to a Human Geography question such as, “To what extent are Canadiens prepared to respond to climate change: economically, socially and environmentally?” (Dans quelle mesure les Canadiens sont-ils capable de répondre aux enjeux économiques, sociaux et environnementaux causés par le changement climatique?). In this exercise, the class deconstructs the meaning of the question, and then students are grouped into triads. After further dialogue, the triad divides the task of answering the question through its three separate lenses, viewed economically, socially and environmentally. Each student is responsible for researching a particular aspect of the question while taking into account the remainder of the question: within the context of Canadians and of climate change. Students must also respond according to the command term, to what extent, which requires a discussion of Canadians as being prepared and as being unprepared. The following session, students report back to their triad and provide a sheet of research notes to the group, and to me. Their peers ask questions, adding any relevant notes as required.
When they have shared out, questioned, and discussed, each learner writes their own essay, answering the original question. The quality of student writing and the critical thinking evidenced in their essay writing has improved significantly by using this process. It is an excellent example of the benefits of purposeful dialogue to student learning and personal achievement.

Slide 17 asks workshop participants to discuss which characteristics might define a dialogic teaching approach. A group dialogue will ensue.

Slide 18 presents Robin Alexander’s (2006) five comprehensive talk descriptors evidenced in a dialogic teaching approach and explain the meaning behind each one.

Slide 19 asks participants to consider the affective dimension when implementing instructional methods. I will remind participants to plan learning strategies that awaken the students’ interest and curiosity as well as their motivation and willingness to discuss, elaborate, and investigate (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2013). Any instructional strategy should access prior learning and should unfold within the students’ zone of proximal development while scaffolding teaching and learning (Vygotsky, 1978). Students should be made aware of the learning intentions involved prior to beginning
their work. Multiple ways of learning should be taken into account in order to better include all students in the classroom dialogue (BC Ministry of Education, 2013).

Slide 20 addresses the conceptual dimension of instructional design. I will ask participants to consider the cognitive levels and needs of their students when designing their open-ended questions (Vygotsky, 1978). The following is a translation of the notes for the slide. The conceptual dimension considers the cognitive level of the students, therefore planned activities are neither too easy, too simple too difficult or too complex. Teaching should be structured so that the sequence of learning proceeds step by step, scaffolded from discussing the familiar to the uncovering of new ideas and finally to the co-construction of new understandings (Vygotsky, 1978). In addition, dialogue is organized around well-formulated questions that require an elaborated response, not a simple yes or no answer (Alexander, 2006, 2010; Bakhtin, 1984; Shor & Freire, 1987; Wells, 2006). These are not I-R-E type questions, or questions designed to test, recall information or ask for recitation (Cazden, 2001; Mehan, 1979, Wells, 2006). They are not closed questions. These open-ended questions encourage further discussion and new questions, as described by Alexander (Appendix 4). This contrast in questioning patterns does not imply that all questions need to be open-ended or that all teaching needs to be dialogic. There is a place for monologic discourse. The main idea is that questioning is used purposefully, whether used to assess student understanding, or to enable learners to reach their own conclusions, or yet again, to build consensus or co-create a common understanding of the content being discussed (Alexander 2006, 2010). For example, questions may consist of impossible situations in mathematics or science requiring students to discuss the likelihood of the problem and some possible solutions.
Humanities-based questions often offer several ways to solve a problem, several biases to uncover or several viewpoints to consider. It is also important, especially in the second language classroom, that relevant vocabulary, terminology, symbols and conventions are highlighted before, throughout or after the discussion, while ensuring to not affect the flow of dialogue, and without creating a learning situation that would make students uncomfortable (Fortune et al., 2008; Lyster, 2007; Roy, 2010; Swain, 2000; Toth, 2011). It is essential that the discourse topic stimulates students to describe, to justify, to explain, to argue, and to create (Alexander, 2006, 2010). From the outset, it is understood that learners are convinced that this dialogue contributes to their understanding and to their learning. It goes without saying that they all participate. Finally, since we are teaching in the 21st century, we must make an effort to integrate the use of ICTs in the classroom (British Columbia Ministry of Education, 2013).

Slide 21

Slide 23

Slide 21 is an example of a Gallery Walk Passport which I give to visitors attending a gallery walk of students’ work and research projects. This particular sample is used during my students Independent Directed Studies project where learners present to visiting students from Grades 6 to 12, to members of the community, to other teachers, to
their parents and to the administrative staff. The passport asks visitors to respond to what they have seen with questions, with a focus on using open-ended questions. The document also requests that they identify what they have learned through their visit and why it is significant. This passport can be used for many different purposes, but I find that within this setting, it keeps attendees and presenters focused on a common goal and purpose. Attendees remember why they are participating in this walk and the passport asks them to play a more active role in its process. Additionally, the students explaining their learning are asked authentic questions in a spontaneous way, a teaching and learning opportunity which more closely resembles real life situations.

Slide 22 is a photo-montage of a recent Independent Directed Study Gallery Walk.

Slide 23, shown above, also relates to a classroom activity. The use of current events, chosen, read and summarized by students themselves, is a powerful method for enabling classroom dialogue to unfold. My students are asked to individually lead the day’s news three times during the semester. They are to choose a news item and post it on the board, minimally a day ahead of the discussion. This way, other students can read it, reflect upon it and be ready to engage in a deeper discussion the following day. The lead student directs the entire discussion, responding to questions and asking for others to elaborate on their thoughts and ideas.

Slide 24 is a short video clip of a current events session.
Slide 25 bids farewell to the past and asks participants to form a round table and share some of the strategies they use in their classrooms to open the floor to their students. I will record these so that I can send participants a copy after the workshop. I will also ask participants to fill out a short Ticket out the Door providing feedback on the workshop as well as their contact information with the goal of co-constructing a community of inquiry interested in pursuing the discussion and the discovery of the importance of dialogue in the classroom.

Below is a brief summary of the professional development workshop:

- an interactive Keynote presentation (French) of slides uncovering the research on the benefits of dialogic teaching and learning, dialogic teaching essentials by Alexander (2008), and setting the stage in the classroom (active listening and participation expectations as well as planning the physical environment (French reproducibles will be provided),
- a presentation of five classroom activities conducive in promoting dialogue (French),
- a round table discussion of other classroom practices helpful in promoting dialogue,
- a “what now” discussion of the next steps for sharing and exchange of dialogic teaching and learning ideas.
7. What for: What will participants do with the content to show that they got it?

This workshop is not designed to teach an approach, as I do not think that is achievable or desirable. It is designed to inform and to promote a professional discussion. I hope participants take away some ideas to implement in their classrooms, which may help them adopt a dialogic teacher stance, and that they reflect upon the discussions of the day. I also intend to create a dialogic learning community where teachers can communicate and share ideas for promoting dialogue in their classrooms.

8. How: What is the process we are going to use to get this done?

As mentioned above, the workshop will be presentational as well as discussion-based, creating a discursive environment where participants are willing to engage and dialogue.

Reflection on my Learning

When I reflect about the different stages of my Master’s of Education journey, I recall that my original enquiry questions revolved around deepening and widening critical thinking opportunities for my students. I wondered why their critical thinking abilities seemed poor and why their willingness to engage in dialogue seemed lacking. I assumed it was linked to their French language skills. I debated whether learning in a FI setting was actually hindering their development as learners. Through my Master’s coursework, I have gained an increasing understanding of the impact of the teacher’s stance on constraining or enabling dialogue and, by extension, on the level and the quality of critical thinking occurring in her classroom. I now realize that a dialogic approach is the single most important facet of teaching for 21st century learners. This approach essentially integrates all of the foundational elements necessary in teaching with
the needs of our learners in mind. And I have come to believe I can effectively share this knowledge with others.

While planning this professional development workshop, it became increasingly obvious to me that I did not want to solely use a presentational mode of content delivery. Rather, I preferred to purposefully use a variety of discursive techniques that would model a dialogic approach to teaching and learning. I therefore plan to explicitly underline which type of teacher talk I am using and for which specific purpose it is being used throughout the workshop. However, I am also keenly aware that a group of teachers can be a pretty tough audience, particularly if they are hearing or seeing information with which they do not agree. This fact has caused me the most concern. I recognize that I need to create an engaging and inclusive setting which assumes that educators are in attendance because they have an interest in learning about dialogue in the classroom, and perhaps even in adopting a dialogic stance themselves. At the same time, I need to control how the workshops unfolds in order that I may best convey the information and my convictions in the benefits involved in using this approach. I have attempted to design such a workshop, one that supports whole and small groups academic discussions, one that conveys information in both visual and written form, and one that invites and supports dialogue while still achieving my teaching goal, similar to how I might design an instructional sequence with a learning intention in mind for my own students. But here, in this instance, the stakes are higher. I get only one chance to achieve my learning objective for this group. I must admit that I will likely be terrified the first time I present!
Implications for Further Research

My research has uncovered that the traditional cognitively-based method of teaching and learning a second language still prevails and dominates in L2 classrooms. As L2 educators, we also tend to believe that language acquisition and literacy generally proceed from listening to speaking, from reading to writing, and from viewing to representing. This ontology is a somewhat linear and restrictive definition that remains unsatisfactory in explaining the complex interplay between language and learning. A deeper understanding which holistically considers learners interacting with and responding to the teacher’s stance and her discursive practices is necessary in both defining and creating a learning environment conducive to a language mediated learner-learner and learner-teacher co-construction of knowledge. I suggest further research in the use of dialogic approaches in teaching and learning in L2 classrooms is warranted. From my personal experience, there appears to be a severe paucity of this type of research which increases my belief that the use of dialogue in L2 classrooms is limited. This research could focus in several areas: to what extent do L2 educators use a dialogic approach, and do the benefits of such a use mimic those found in L1 classrooms? Additionally, are there any special considerations which need to be taken into account when implementing a dialogic approach in a L2 classroom? Cummins (2008) has recently concluded that allowing the use of L1 to mediate learning in L2 classrooms has a beneficial impact. This idea would suggest that code-switching in French Immersion may need to be promoted as opposed to discouraged in order to maximize student learning. The ability to use their L1 for words they have yet to learn in their L2 may increase
students’ motivation to participate in dialogue. Therefore, research into the limited use of a L1 in order to mediate dialogue in FI classrooms is required.

Finally, teachers control the instructional methodologies used in their classrooms. Theoretically, they decide whose voices are heard and whether or not they are acknowledged. It follows that research into appropriate methods for teacher education, both in understanding and in adopting a dialogic approach is an essential step going forward. Although I agree with Alexander’s premise that a dialogic approach is not a methodology that can be taught, I surmise that it can be experienced. Perhaps if teachers witness dialogic processes first hand through mentoring programs, if teachers are encouraged through scaffolded learning to adopt a reflective dialogic practice, and if teachers are provided with more opportunities to expand their discursive practices, these initiatives would enable a deeper understanding of the dialogic approach and its significance to student learning. Piloting teacher education programs, courses in Oracy, and professional development opportunities that support dialogic teaching and learning, and then following up with narrative or case study research in those teachers’ classrooms seems plausible and worthwhile. This proposal is particularly relevant within the Canadian French immersion context where dialogic teaching and learning practices have yet to emerge. Perhaps I can look forward to being a part of such programs and research.
References


Appendix 1
Les diapositives de la journée pédagogique - À ton tour de parler!

Diapositive # 1

Bonjour tout le monde! J'ai le plaisir aujourd'hui de vous accueillir à cet atelier promouvant le dialogue en immersion afin de répondre aux attentes du 21ième siècle en matière de communication et d'apprentissage. Notre survol a pour but de passer de la théorie à la pratique et vise, premièrement à dépister des éléments conceptuels et pratiques pour encourager et soutenir la communication en salle de classe. Deuxièmement, nous mettrons nos mains à la pâte pour déterminer une série d'objectifs ainsi qu'une liste de stratégies d'enseignement favorisant cette communication, et dernièrement pour concevoir d'outils concrets facilitant les démarches discursives auprès des professeurs ainsi qu’auprès des élèves.

Diapositive # 2

En tant que professeur de langue, vous comprenez déjà que la parole est un outil de pensée fondamental dans toutes les étapes du processus d'apprentissage. Raconter, décrire, résumer, discuter, reformuler, évaluer, justifier, argumenter, convaincre et débattre sont des compétences, non seulement soulignées par le curriculum du Ministère d’Éducation de la Colombie Britannique, mais aussi qui constituent selon la recherche, des compétences essentielles pour tous nos élèves, pour toute leur vie. Nous sommes ici aujourd’hui pour discuter des meilleures façons d'intégrer la parole dans nos méthodes d'enseignement. Alors commençons par un tour de table pour nous introduire. Cette activité mimique l’importance d’établir en salle de classe un environnement sécuritaire et propice afin de soutenir les activités discursives. C’est en encourageant nos élèves à s’exprimer avec confiance et à prendre des risques au sein de ce genre d’environnement qu’ils développeront ces compétences communicatives. Alors, s’il vous plaît, trouvez quelqu’un que vous ne connaissez pas, introduisez-vous en répondant à ces trois questions: où enseignez-vous, un peu de votre expérience et vos espoirs pour cet atelier aujourd’hui. (10 minutes) Alors maintenant qu’on se connaît un peu plus, on peut commencer.
Comme nous le savons déjà, notre pédagogie ne peut pas se réduire à une simple technique d’enseignement. Selon Vygotsky, Bakhtin et Freire, la parole représente une médiation essentielle entre les espaces cognitifs et socioculturels du professeur, et de ses élèves, entre élèves en salle de classe et au-delà, entre l’individu et la communauté dans laquelle il vit. Cela va de soi, qu’une de nos taches primordiales en tant qu’enseignant serait de créer des occasions de rencontres interactives générant une telle médiation qui est en même temps directe et appropriée. Les conditions d’enseignement qui favorisent de telles formes de communication, comprennent diverses situations organisationnelles que sont la classe entière, les petits groupes, le travail en pair (comme nous venons de le faire et le travail individuel. Mais, il ne s’agit pas seulement de tenir compte du regroupement des apprenants, il faut aussi réfléchir aux divers éléments du cadre conceptuel tels que l’espace, le temps, la structure des leçons, l’évaluation, etc. (Alexander 2005).

Lev Vygotsky, non reconnu de son vivant, nous enseigne qu’il faut distinguer le niveau actuel de développement de l’apprenant et son niveau de développement potentiel. Entre les deux niveaux se situe la zone proximale de développement que Vygotky définit comme ce que l’élève sait faire avec l’aide d’autrui, soit ses pairs, son enseignant ou un autre expert, et ce qu’il ne sait pas faire tout seul. Autrement dit, selon la théorie vygotskienne, l’élève apprend des autres qui l’entourent. De lui-même, l’élève ne peut résoudre qu’un certain nombre de problèmes : c’est ce que l’on appelle la zone de développement conceptuel (DC). Par contre, il peut, par le biais des interactions, cheminer vers une compréhension plus approfondie et complexe. Par conséquent, il pourra résoudre de nouveaux problèmes avec l’aide des autres dans sa zone proximale de développement (ZPD). Au-delà de cette zone, il serait quasi impossible pour l’apprenant, étant donné son développement actuel, d’acquérir quoi que ce soit – avec ou sans aide. Vygotsky entend que cette collaboration pédagogique a lieu à l’intérieur d’une activité structurée, souvent décomposée en étapes. L’activité est caractérisée par un but global, soit le contenu et l’objectif d’apprentissage, qui est atteint au moyen d’outils culturels comme les symboles et les objets,
mais où la parole est préconisée comme étant l’outil de préférence. Ces outils médiatisent l’activité, c’est-à-dire qu’ils servent de soutien pour l’apprenant et permettent à l’enseignant de mener à terme l’activité elle-même. Dans ce cas, la parole est aussi bien l’outil utilisé pour l’apprentissage que l’apprentissage lui-même.

**Diapositive # 5**

Donc, maintenant nous allons participer à une activité d’interaction discursive, que j’appelle *Activité Citation*. Vous pouvez facilement adapter cette activité pour vos élèves et faire en sorte qu’elle soit appropriée pour plusieurs situations d’apprentissage, soit les sciences, les sciences humaines, la planification, le Français langue et même les mathématiques. Selon mes propres expériences, cette activité en petits groupes convient le mieux à des triades. Avant de commencer chaque activité d’apprentissage, je partage toujours le but d’apprentissage avec mes élèves. La situation dans laquelle nous travaillons aujourd’hui vous demande de dénouer, en tant que groupe, les théories conceptuelles auxquelles nous portons attention aujourd’hui. Nous avons déjà discuter un peu de Vygotsky, mais nous pouvons retrouver plusieurs philosophes qui prônent la parole comme étant l’outil médiatique le plus important et influent pour notre apprentissage et pour notre compréhension.

**Diapositive # 6**

Comme vous l’avez constaté, les théories contemporaines en éducation convergent sur le point que la communication est une forme d’apprentissage. Les approches socioconstructivistes et interactionistes de Vygotsky, de Bakhtin et de Freire nous demandent de considérer l’apprentissage comme étant le résultat d’une action conjointe entre les apprenants et les enseignants. Pour en faire un sommaire, cette action se déroule au sein de la zone proximale de développement de l’élève, stimulée par l’aide de ses pairs et de son enseignant.
Diapositive # 7

Que pensez-vous de cette citation? Élaborez à son sujet avec votre collègue qui est assis à votre droite.

Diapositive # 8

Pourant la prise en compte de la communication en salle de classe se heurte à plusieurs difficultés. Ce sont nous, les enseignants qui contrôlent la parole en salle de classe: ce qui est dit, qui le dit et à qui on le dit. C’est la nature humaine de se fier sur nos expériences préalables pour informer nos pensées actuelles. Alors il va de soi que nous aurions tendance à enseigner tel que nous avons été enseigné, même si nos croyances pédagogiques ne se situent pas là. La recherche nous confirme que, bien plus que les apprenants, ce sont les enseignants qui parlent et qu’une forme de parole prédomine : le soi-disant « script récité » de questions fermées provenant de l’enseignant, les brèves réponses de rappel et d’informations en retour minimales. Ces questions exigent des enfants qu’ils rapportent la pensée de quelqu’un d’autre plutôt que de penser par et pour eux-mêmes, des enfants qui, de plus, sont jugés sur la précision et la docilité dont ils font preuve à cette occasion. Comme vous avez discuté, Martin Nystrand a entièrement raison et il est évident que « lorsque la récitation commence, la capacité à se souvenir et à deviner supplante la pensée. » (Nystrand et al. 1997, p. 6).
Nous savons bien que les apprenants du XXIe siècle ne peuvent pas supporter d’être inactifs à la journée longue. De plus, ils doivent savoir comment collaborer et communiquer efficacement, comment faire preuve d’esprit critique et comment résoudre les problèmes auxquels ils feront face pendant leur vie. Une forme discursive unilatérale ainsi que l’absence de stimulations cognitives de cette approche pédagogique, si répandue dans les salles de classe, ont une triple conséquence. Premièrement les enfants n’apprennent sans doute pas aussi rapidement, ni aussi profondément qu’ils le pourraient, étant donnée une approche qui leur permettrait de prendre part active et définitive à leur propre apprentissage. Ensuite, les apprenants manquent d’occasion pour développer au mieux leurs capacités de narration, d’explication, d’argumentation et de questionnement nécessaires dans leur futur. De plus, les dialogues de classe leur permettent de faire preuve auprès de leurs enseignants de ce qu’ils ont appris et compris ou de ce qu’ils ne parviennent pas à apprendre ou à comprendre, ce qui permet en revanche aux enseignants d’évaluer en temps réel la compréhension de leurs élèves. Il paraîtrait que la recherche de situations idéales pour favoriser ce développement continue à nous poser des problèmes.

Diapositive # 10

Pourant les avantages d’une approche dialogique sont bien soulignés par la rechercher. Nous allons rapidement effectuer un survol de ces avantages. Nous allons commencer avec une petite vidéo réalisée en classe de mathématique. Je demande souvent à mes élèves d’expliquer leur raisonnement mathématique en utilisant les TICs. Cette question leur a demandé de créer un polynôme magique où il serait possible de choisir n’importe quel nombre rationnel, le substituer pour la variable dans l’expression et pouvoir prédire la solution. C’est un exemple d’une question ouverte, qui n’a pas vraiment de bonnes ou mauvaises réponses en autant que le polynôme est créé selon les critères.
Cette diapositive est une vidéo créée par deux élèves de ma classe de mathématiques.

Une approche dialogique réussit à créer un environnement égalitaire où la parole appartient à tous les membres de la classe. L'autorité et le pouvoir est remis en question alors que la parole soutient le développement des compétences de partage, de négociation du sens, de l'habilité de soutenir son point de vue personnel tout en tenant compte de celui d'autrui et finalement, la capacité de réussir à construire une nouvelle compréhension de la matière et même arriver à un consensus de la définition de celle-ci. La résolution de problème devient plus coopérative et chaque élève démontre des compétences de raisonnement améliorées.

De plus, la recherche nous indique que cette approche engendre des niveaux de réussite académique individuelle plus élevés ainsi que des niveaux de compréhension de la matière plus approfondie. Les apprenants qui bénéficient de cette approche cultivent aussi des habilités supérieures de la pensée, des compétences plus matures en communication et en collaboration. Il est aussi certain que ces résultats ont été relevés tant au primaire qu'à l'intermédiaire tout aussi bien qu'au secondaire.
Finalement, en décentralisant le pouvoir en salle de classe, cette approche réussit à réduire les instances de questions fermées, de questions tests et de rappel et de questions stimulus-réponse-évaluation (S-R-E), les questions qui en fin de compte constituent la majorité des questions posées par les professeurs. Ceci a pour effet d’accroître la participation, la curiosité, l’intérêt et la motivation des élèves. On a surtout remarqué que ces effets positifs, lesquels les apprenants retiennent à long terme, se retrouvent d’autant plus prononcés chez les élèves en difficulté et chez les élèves qui étudient en langue seconde.

Donc, avant de parler des caractéristiques d’un enseignement qui utilise le dialogue, j’aimerais partager une autre des méthodes que j’utilise en salle de classe pour promouvoir le dialogue. Lorsque mes élèves écrivent, je leur demande d’assister à plusieurs sessions de révision, d’édition et de correction pour chacun de leurs écrits, surtout ceux qu’ils devront remettre comme bonnes copies prêtes à être évaluées et notées. En pairs, les apprenants revoient et corrigent leur brouillon à plusieurs reprises en utilisant la grille que nous avons développée auparavant ensemble en classe. Puisqu’ils ont des critères assez explicites et qu’ils les comprennent, la discussion se déroule toujours en français. Comme vous allez remarquer, il est très évident que les élèves réfléchissent à leur écriture, en parlent avec leur pair en français et utilisent ce que Barnes appellerait une parole exploratoire, c’est-à-dire qu’elle n’est pas pratiquée ni préparée. Le résultat de cette stratégie est que l’écriture de mes élèves s’améliore et qu’ils deviennent méta-cognitifs au sujet de leur propre écriture, de leur vocabulaire et oui, même de la grammaire!
Diapositive # 16

Cette diapositive est la vidéo de deux élèves en Français Langue 9 qui discutent de leur choix de mots pour leur texte persuasif.

Diapositives # 17

D’après vous, quelles seraient quelqu’un des caractéristiques d’une salle de classe qui utilise le dialogue comment modèle d’enseignement? Discutez et élaboriez avec la personne assise à votre gauche.

Diapositive # 18

Comme vous l’avez constaté, il y a plusieurs caractéristiques qu’on puisse relever. J’ajouterais aussi que les caractéristiques de l’enseignement axé envers le meilleur apprentissage de la parole, tout en offrant aux apprenants des occasions réelles pour développer leurs formes d’expression, d’interaction et de modes de pensée variés se qualifient selon ces cinq critères. **Il est collectif** : les enseignants et les élèves gèrent l’apprentissage ensemble en petits groupes, en pairs ou en classe entière.

**Il est réciproque** : les enseignants et les étudiants partagent la parole, s’écoutent les uns les autres, échangent des idées et envisagent des points de vue alternatifs. **Il est encourageant** : les apprenants développent leurs idées aisément et librement, sans crainte de mauvaise réponse. La classe entière s’entraide pour qu’elle parvienne à une compréhension collective véritable. **Il est cumulatif** : les enseignants et les élèves co-construisent cette compréhension à partir de leurs idées individuelles et communes et les amalgament pour créer des lignes de pensée et de réflexion cohérentes. **Il a une finalité** : les enseignants ont préalablement planifié
le dialogue en salle de classe selon leurs objectifs d’apprentissage définis. Ils dirigent la parole selon ces résultats d’apprentissage prévus à l’avance.

Diapositive # 19

En plus de répondre aux exigences définies par les critères de l’enseignement tels que définis par Alexander, l’enseignant considère surtout le développement conceptuel des élèves. Donc, les activités prévues doivent présenter des problèmes qui non seulement éveillent la curiosité des élèves, mais qui peuvent aussi stimuler leur besoin de décrire, de justifier, d’expliquer et de créer. De plus, si nous considérons la dimension affective de nos activités en salle de classe, elles devraient être précédées d’une bonne mise en situation et partir de ce que l’élève connaît.

L’enseignement est donc planifié en fonction des connaissances préalables des élèves en tenant compte de leur zone proximale de développement. Les apprenants doivent aussi prendre connaissance de l’objectif d’apprentissage de cette session d’enseignement. L’activité doit également susciter l’intérêt des élèves ainsi qu’elle doit faire appel à des idées concrètes et symboliques, à du matériel concret et à des outils culturels (artifacts, symboles, objets). Il va de soi qu’on considère les intelligences multiples en salle de classe et qu’on n’oublie pas l’importance de favoriser la kinesthésie (actions, gestes, mouvements) surtout en classe de langue seconde.

Diapositive # 20

La dimension conceptuelle prend en considération le niveau cognitif de l’élève, donc les activités planifiées ne seront ni trop faciles ou simples, ni trop difficiles et complexes. L’enseignement devrait être structuré de telle façon que le déroulement de l’apprentissage procède d’étape en étape et plus particulièrement se déroule du familier à la construction de nouvelles idées. C’est-à-dire que l’élève passera du simple au plus complexe avec l’idée qu’il pourra généraliser les concepts accrus pendant l’activité. De plus, le dialogue est organisé autour de questions bien formulées, cela voulant dire...
qu’elles demandent une réponse plus étendue qu’un simple oui ou non, qu’elle ne sont pas des questions de S-R-E, des questions de tests, de rappel d’information ou de récitation et qu’elles ne sont pas des questions fermées. Ceci ne veut pas dire que ce genre de questionnement est toujours défendu en salle de classe. Autrement dit, il faut que le questionnement ne soit pas uniquement composé de ce genre de questions, mais devrait aussi inclure des questions ouvertes qui incitent une discussion plus approfondie et des questions, telles que décrites par Alexander comme étant des questions de dialogue échafaudé. L’idée principale est que le questionnement sert à un but précis, soit de prendre connaissance de la compréhension des élèves, soit d’utiliser le dialogue pour que les apprenants arrivent à leurs propres conclusions ce qui les amènent à construire une connaissance commune du sujet discuté.

Par exemple, les questions peuvent comporter des situations impossibles en mathématiques ou en science pour que les élèves discutent de la vraisemblance du problème et de résolutions possibles ou impossibles. Ou encore en sciences humaines où il existe souvent plusieurs manières de résoudre un problème, plusieurs partis pris, ou plusieurs points de vue à considérer. C’est aussi important, surtout en classe de langue seconde, que les concepts visés, le vocabulaire, la terminologie, les symboles et les conventions soient respectés et soulignés tout au long de la discussion, mais sans nuire à la fluidité du dialogue, et sans créer une situation d’apprentissage qui mettrait les élèves mal à l’aise. Il est primordial que l’activité stimule la motivation de l’élève de décrire, de justifier, d’expliquer, d’argumenter, et de créer tout en ouvrant la porte à la possibilité qu’il puisse changer d’avis. Dès le départ, il est sous-entendu que les apprenants sont convaincus que ce dialogue contribue à leur compréhension, à leur apprentissage et que ça va de soi qu’ils doivent tous y participer à part entière. Finalement, puisque nous enseignons au 21ème siècle, nous devons faire un effort d’intégrer l’utilisation des TIC en salle de classe.

**Diapositive # 21**

Pour terminer aujourd’hui, j’aimerais vous donner quelques autres exemples d’activité que j’utilise en salle de classe. À la suite, j’aimerais bien que nous participions à une table ronde pour discuter de vos idées ou de vos stratégies. Alors voici un autre exemple. Lorsque mes élèves complètent un projet d’études autonomes (PEA), j’organise des promenades pour leurs pairs. C’est-à-dire que nous invitons d’autres classes, les parents et des membres de la communauté. Ou si nous manquons de temps, nous divisons les apprenants de notre classe actuelle en deux groupes, ceux qui présentent et ceux qui assistent à la présentation. Les élèves circulent en petits groupes, alors ceux qui expliquent leur projet doivent le faire à plusieurs reprises et répondre aux questions spontanées et imprévues, de leurs pairs. C’est une occasion de dialogue authentique dirigée par les élèves eux-mêmes. Pour la plupart, ils sont motivés, intéressés et encourageants.
Diapositive # 22
Cette diapositive est un photo-montage d’une promenade au PEA où il y a plusieurs invités: des apprenants de la 6e à la 12e année, des parents, des membres de la communauté, des professeurs et la direction de l’école.

Diapositive # 23
Une autre activité qui s’avère très utile pour promouvoir le dialogue est celle des actualités. Ceci, je le fais dès la 9ième année, soit en Français langue, soit en sciences humaines, et même parfois en planification ou en mathématiques. Nous devons offrir à nos apprenants maintes occasions pour qu’ils puissent pratiquer les habiletés d’écoute, de questionnement et de dialogue. Les actualités sont une occasion par laquelle ils peuvent se pratiquer au sein d’une communauté d’apprentissage sécuritaire et encourageante.

Diapositive #24
Cette diapositive est une vidéo des élèves qui discutent d’une actualité. On s’aperçoit qu’ils utilisent des structures de phrases similaires à celles de Appendix # 5. On entend souvent des phrases telles que: je pense que, à mon avis, je ne crois pas etc, je suis d’accord, mais…etc.
Alors, je vous suggère maintenant une table ronde où nous pouvons partager nos stratégies d’enseignement en ce qui a trait au dialogue. J’aimerais aussi faire circuler une fiche où vous pouvez écrire vos coordonnées pour que nous puissions continuer ce partage et cette discussion dans un forum que j’organiserai lors de mon retour à la maison. Merci de votre chaleureux accueil, de votre attention, de votre curiosité, et aussi de toutes vos questions. J’en suis sincèrement reconnaissante.
Appendix 2

List of Quotes that can be used for Quotes Group Activity

1) “Education with inert ideas is not only useless, it is above all things, harmful” (Whitehead, 1929, p. 38).

2) Teachers must treat “students as potential sources of knowledge and opinions, and in doing so complicate expert-novice hierarchies” (Nystrand et al., 2003, p. 140).

3) “Monologic discourse assumes no expectation of a rejoinder; all that is required is comprehension and acceptance” (Wells, 2007, p. 256).

4) “Through dialogue the teacher-of-the students and the students-of-the-teacher cease to exist and a new term emerges: teacher-student with student-teachers...The teacher is no longer merely the one who teaches, but the one who is...taught in dialogue with the students, who in their turn while being taught also teach” (Freire, 1970, p. 53).

5) “Dialogic interactions harness the power of talk to engage children, stimulate and extend their thinking, and advance their learning and understanding” (Alexander, 2008, p. 37).

6) In second language learning settings “how students are positioned either expands or constricts their opportunities for identity investment and cognitive engagement” (Cummins, 2009, p. 265).

7) Second language learners should be viewed as “whole persons comprised of minds, bodies, emotions embedded and active in their environments rather than as grammar production units” (van Lier, 2004, p. 223).

8) “Teaching syntax without providing stylistic elucidation and without attempting to enrich the students’ own speech lacks any creative significance and does not help them improve the creativity of their own speech production, merely teaching them to identify the parts of ready-made language produced by others” (Bakhtin, 2004, p. 15).

9) Second language educators should focus on “how language is being used as it is being acquired through interaction, and used resourcefully, contingently and contextually” (Firth & Wagner, 207, p. 296).

10) “As a tool, dialogue serves second language learning by mediating its own construction, and the construction of knowledge itself” (Swain, 2000, p. 112).

11) “Thought is not merely expressed in words: it comes into existence through
them...thought finds its reality and form in language” (Vygotsky, 1987, p.219).

12) “Without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication there can be no true education” (Freire, 2000, p. 69).

13) “Truth is not born nor is it found inside the head of an individual person, it is born between people collectively searching for truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction” (Bakhtin, 2004, p. 110).

14) “Language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experience becomes knowledge” (Halliday, 1993, p. 94).

15) When “children learn language, they are not simply engaging in one type of learning among many: rather they are learning the foundations of learning itself” (Halliday, 1993, p. 93).

16) “Educators cannot start with knowledge already organized and proceed to ladle it out in doses” (Dewey, 1938, p. 82).
Appendix 3

Liste de vérification pour une communication efficace

Lorsque je prends la parole, je devrais:
• ajuster mon discours en fonction de mon intention et de mon auditoire,
• contrôler mon intonation et le volume de ma voix,
• élaborer sur mon sujet et répondre aux questions de mes pairs,
• soutenir mon opinion avec des faits ou des exemples,
• me concentrer sur le sujet de la discussion.

Lorsque j’écoute, je devrais:
• porter attention à la personne qui a la parole,
• ne pas interrompre la personne qui parle,
• attendre mon tour pour exprimer mon opinion, ma pensée,
• respecter les opinions de mes pairs,
• écouter attentivement,
• être prêt/prête à évaluer le raisonnement de mes pairs,
• être prêt/prête à changer d’avis,
• poser des questions avisées et réfléchies.

Le dialogue en salle de classe favorise la participation de tous les membres de la classe. Le but du dialogue est d’analyser un problème, une situation, une lecture tous ensemble et d’arriver à un consensus. La parole est accordée à tous et tous doivent participer à la discussion et à l’élaboration d’une solution.

Voici des débuts de phrases pour t’aider à discuter avec tes pairs.
• Je suis d’accord et je veux ajouter que
• Je ne suis pas d’accord et je propose que
• Je pense que
• À mon avis
• Il y a un autre point de vue ici
• Une autre idée serait
• Je comprends ce que tu dis et j’aimerais ajouter que
• Je ne comprends pas tout à fait. Pourrais-tu élaborer, expliquer, me donner un exemple…?

En tout temps, il faut interagir avec respect et bienveillance. C’est essentiel à notre apprentissage que notre classe soit accueillante et que nous participions tous à créer cet environnement d’interaction positive et discursive.
Appendix 4

Des bonnes questions pour entamer un dialogue de classe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Catégorie de question</th>
<th>Exemples de question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Des questions pour clarifier| • Peux-tu donner un exemple de....?  
  • Peux-tu expliquer....?  
  • Comment dirais-tu cela dans tes propres mots?  
  • Comment définirais-tu cela? |
| Des questions qui examinent les hypothèses | • Pourquoi penses-tu cela à propos de...?  
  • Quelles sont tes hypothèses?  
  • Qu’est-ce qui est vrai, à ton avis?  
  • Que pourrions-nous croire d’autre à ce sujet? |
| Des questions qui cherchent des preuves ou un raisonnement | • Qu’est-ce qui te fait croire cela?  
  • Comment savons-nous que c’est vrai?  
  • Que devons nous savoir d’autre à propos de...?  
  • Qu’est-ce qui te ferait changer d’idée à propos de...? |
| Des questions à propos des perspectives ou des points de vue | • Qui a le point de vue suivant?  
  • Quel parti pris y a-t-il dans cette affirmation?  
  • Peux-tu me donner un autre point de vue sur...?  
  • Combien d’autres perspectives pourrait-on avoir à ce sujet? |
| Des questions qui cherchent à connaître les conséquences | • En quoi cela a-t-il un impact sur...?  
  • Pourquoi est-ce important?  
  • Quel effet cela pourra-t-il avoir sur...?  
  • Si c’est vrai, qu’est-ce qui pourrait également être vrai? |
| Des questions à propos de la question | • Est-ce que c’est une bonne question?  
  • Que signifie cette question?  
  • Pourquoi a-t-on posé cette question?  
  • Quel lien peut-on faire entre cela et notre vie quotidienne? |