

Scientific Journal of Review (2014) 3(7) 756-765

ISSN 2322-2433

doi: 10.14196/sjr.v3i7.1505

Contents lists available at Sjournals



Journal homepage: www.Sjournals.com



Review article

Scaffolding in Sociocultural Theory: Definition, Steps, Features, Conditions, Tools, and Effective Considerations

M. Amerian^a, E. Mehri^{b,*}

^aAssistant Professor, Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University Arak 38156-8-8349, PO. Box: 879, IRAN.

^bM.A. in TEFL, Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University Arak 38156-8-8349, IRAN.

*Corresponding author; M.A. in TEFL, Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University Arak 38156-8-8349, IRAN.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history,
Received 23 June 2014
Accepted 19 July 2014
Available online 25 July 2014

Keywords,
Sociocultural theory
Scaffolding
Steps
Conditions
Features
Tools

ABSTRACT

Scaffolding as a practical concept within sociocultural theory (SCT) has been used as a teaching tool in the development of the learners recently. However, scaffolding has been interpreted, modeled, and featured differently by scholars and researchers investigating in the realm of SCT. In this review article, it is intended to provide different views of scaffolding. First, the definition of scaffolding is provided. Then, the aims of scaffolding are listed followed by steps to implement scaffolding as a dialogic practice. After that, the expanding features and conditions of scaffolding are discussed through the understanding of different theoreticians. Finally, critical points regarding the effective scaffolding are sketched out. The whole article aims to make different aspects of scaffolding as much clear as possible for both researchers and teachers.

© 2014 Sjournals. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

The most practical aspect of the zone of proximal development is the realization of the metaphor of the zone of proximal development through the technique of scaffolding. Although this practical concept was an inspiration

of the outcome of Vygotsky's work, it was Bruner (1983) who technically defined scaffolding as a key factor in the development of child's language as

...a process of setting up the situation to make the child's entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he becomes skilled enough to manage it (p.60).

The reflection on the dictionary meaning of the term scaffolding brings about rich understanding to digest the concept easier. Pressly (2002) exemplifies artfully that when a building is to be constructed, it cannot stand on its own without supports around it. However, when the construction stage is completed, the support is removed to let it stand freely. This is similar to what happens in the teacher-student/adult-child interaction in the course of mental development. The teacher/adult provides student/child assistance to the extent that the scaffolded individual can do the task in hand by himself.

Scaffolding usually comes with terms such as help, assistance, and guidance. However, one needs to be cautious about the use of such terms in discussing theoretical and practical aspects of scaffolding. Scaffolding is not synonymous with help, though it is rightly a kind of help. Despite all these, the help/scaffolding should happen within the understanding of the theory. Scaffolding happens in the zone of proximal development. The zone is defined as an opportunity or space between the actual level and the potential level of development for learners, and it merely brings about a dynamic concept. The help/scaffolding is to continuously move the learner toward next steps of development; therefore, this continuous, dynamic, and gradual move toward higher levels of mental functioning requires another jointed mind to move the learner to higher levels for independent functioning of the task in hand. Scaffolding might appear at the beginning strongly, disappears on some occasions, and reappear when necessary. But the appearance and disappearance has to be digested in a gradual manner with regard to theoretical understanding of the theory.

Goos (2004) provides a different definition for scaffolding. He considers scaffolding as a transmissive style in which the teacher plans a pre-determined step to move the flow of the conversation ahead. The teacher actually reduces his Teacher Status to that of the teacher and tries to play the role of a dialogic partner in order to let learner achieve his goals and actions.

In his study conducted on the problem based language teaching, Schwieter (2010) views scaffolding as a technique of problem-based learning. When learners are given tasks as a problem to solve, they have to cooperate, in a dialogic manner, in order to solve it. Therefore, scaffolding comes out as a way to solve a problem. What has been repetitively mentioned in the literature is that scaffolding which facilitates second language learning has to occur in the zone of proximal development. Actually Cook (2008) finds the technique similar to the concept of teachability, maintaining that the mere teaching of contents which are outside the actual level of the learner is possible, if not probable. However, the idea of scaffolding as an assistant technique could cure this situation.

2. Aims of scaffolding

But what aims does scaffolding try to achieve? Wells (1999) believes that the outcome of successful scaffolding constructs for learners the ability to do the task they have done, or similar types of task, on their own. Hartman (2002) emphasizes these and mentions that the unique property of scaffolding as a teaching strategy is to make learners self regulated and independent. To look at the aims differently, one needs to reflect on the writings of Dewey (2004), in which he fundamentally takes the aim of education in general as learning to learn. Learners should not be considered as storehouse of knowledge, but have to be able to deal with their world on their own, to experience their surrounding, and to discover things independently. The next type of Well's (1999) list of aims achieved by scaffolding refers indirectly to this idea that the independent individuals at the end of the task have gained experience of learning to learn.

3. Steps of scaffolding

On theoretical grounds, the process of scaffolding, according to van Lier (1996), happens in six steps. First of all, it is the contextual support step. Here, a safe but challenging setting is provided for the learner where he can commit errors as part of the process of learning. In the second step, there comes the continuity where a series of

actions and interactions are shuttled in order to balance the routine of the scaffolding procedure. In intersubjectivity, the next step, two thinking individuals vow to their engagement of interaction. Then, in flow, the interaction that has been initiated previously goes naturally without any pushing force. After that, in contingency step, which constitutes the heart of scaffolding, the assistance to the learner is on the show in reaction to the learner's response. The assistance could be repeated, changed, and even deleted. Finally, the task is handover to the learner. This is the last station where the learner is ready to do the similar task on other occasions without the help of another person. Walqui (2006) in similar vein regards scaffolding in three pedagogical phases. First of all, an environment of support is established for the learner to let activities take place smoothly. Then, there is actual doing of the activity with the collaboration of others, and finally, this moment to moment help is gradually omitted as the person gains more capability of doing the task without assistance

I mentioned that the heart of scaffolding is the contingency step in the principles provided by van Lier (1996). The model of contingent teaching emphasizes the diagnostic strategies for effective scaffolding (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988). One of the mostly used strategies to discover the current level of the learners is the question and answer in the course of interaction. Based on the learners' response, the teacher can find out where, how, and what to scaffold. The question and answer stage sets the board for the teacher to take off for the actual support as intervention in the process of completing the tasks by the learners. Wood et al. (1978) believe that one of the assumptions of scaffolding is that the teacher knows what the current level of learners is. The comprehension of solution, according to these researchers, must precede production. That is, the understanding of where learners are in their developmental stage has to be identified before remedy, scaffolding, is to be implemented.

Lange (2002) constructs an instructional plan for scaffolding in which he considers five steps for the technique. Modeling the task is the first input for the learner. If the learner is not able to reach the expected behavior, the more expert person, then, relies on explanation. The expert tries to break down the task into several stages and explains the procedure for carrying them out through simple words. Following that, he invites the learner to embark acting on the task itself. In their course of completing task, the learners are provided with feedback on critical aspect of their work or their difficulties. Finally, the learners are expected to restate the ideas and procedure for the others in order to establish their knowledge of the task explicitly, and deepen their understanding of the content of the activity.

4. Features of scaffolding

Wells (1999) basically considers three major features for scaffolding, out of which other features are born and gain importance. The three features he provides are actually inherently included in other features to be mentioned further. Wells (ibid) asserts that firstly all of the scaffolding features and techniques are of dialogic discourse, out of which knowledge is born. Secondly, the perspective of scaffolding in any activity is the way that any forms of knowing are significantly embedded. In other words, there is always the potentiality of knowing in the jointed dialogic activity. Finally, to know is to emphasize on the role of artifacts (mostly language) to mediate the process of knowing.

Van de Pol et al. (2010) in their comprehensive review on scaffolding teacher-student interaction regard six intentions for scaffolding. They believe that the teacher as the most regarded person who scaffolds intends to motivate the learner to pursue the objective of the task in scaffolding. Here, the teacher informs the learner of what he has to do, where he is, and what he needs to do. Then, the teacher is to reduce the amount of direction he is giving, which is similar to van Lier (1996) reduction of assistance. In this reduction, the teacher has to be aware and careful in that whenever the learner shows a sign of incapability, the teacher reemerges and takes hold of those parts that the learner is not able to perform. Fifth, scaffolding intends to keep the task interesting and motivating for the learner. And finally, there should appear some sort of rewards and punishment for the outcome of the task via the previous steps.

Bruner (1986) also provides different characteristics for the definition of scaffolding he puts forth. In his study, he analyzes the talk between the mother and the child and concludes that the behavior of the mother while talking to her child actually a) simplifies the difficulty of the task; b) leads to attracting and keeping the attention of her child; c) offers the child a model of interaction; d) extends the horizon of the situation the child is interacting with an adult; e) observes the frustration point of the child; and f) provides a model for solving the tasks the child is facing. The zone of proximal development, along with its practical tool, scaffolding, seems to resonate the idea that in the developmental process of learning a second language, the presence of the teacher is necessary. Mercer

(1994) believes that the metaphor of the zone of proximal development and its accompanying means of scaffolding regards teachers as the basis of the language teaching.

To some extent, and in the same manner, Lantolf and Appel (1994) after quoting Bruner's definition as well as their own and others' studies provide six basic features for scaffolding. They believe that scaffolding can be implemented in different contexts of learning, that is, not only in the first language acquisition as it was firstly raised by Bruner, but also in the second language acquisition in general and other learning situations in particular. Lantolf and Appel (ibid) maintain that the first thing an instructor needs to do is to attract the interest of the learner. When the learner is motivated or attracted to the task he is to deal with, the instructor has to keep this charged interest through simplifying the task. The learner should not be left alone through the completion of the task. Actually, it is the responsibility of the instructor of the task to do whatever he can in order to push the learner pursues the aim of the task. In addition, in different simplified steps that the instructor has provided, he needs to make to-the-point comparison with what has been done so far by the learner (with the assistance of the instructor) and what has to be done as a final outcome of the task. During this, the frustration of the learner has to be particularly controlled since it might cause him to abort the task. Finally, the instructor could assist the learner by demonstrating a model of the task. What Lantolf and Appel make a consistent reference to is the governing position of interaction during the course of completing the task. By considering this and the features they note, the concept of scaffolding could be realized in the practical form.

Meyer (1993, cited in Kong 2002) lists some different features for the scaffolding instruction. He believes that the mere support of the teacher in interaction helps learners to relate their own prior knowledge to the knowledge that is being constructed in the course of interaction. Then, he mentions the idea that the interaction leads to the transfer of the responsibility gradually from the collaborative jointed work to the individually internalized work. Also, the common talk in the classroom which is mostly teacher led is changed to the learner initiation when scaffolding is implemented in the classroom environment. Fourthly, since the scaffolding technique is not to rely so much on the current ability of the learner but on the potential one, the learner feels insecure when he is about to make mistakes. In addition, the support also plays as a safe guard against any possible unexpected barrier and as a result the learner would not feel frustrated since he knows that through active participation in the task with the assistance of a more knowledgeable person, he can do what he could not have done previously alone.

McKenzie (1999) provides similar, but with different hierarchy of importance, set of features of scaffolding. He first considers the clear direction of what has to be done as the first feature of scaffolding which needs attention of the educators. The educator has to be well aware of the possible problems and barriers the leaner might encounter, and as a result, has to set on the spot reaction for them. The task also needs a specific purpose. Learners need to understand why they are doing the task. Explaining these two primary features to the learners preceding the initiation of the task, leads to the ease of conducting the task. This is similar to the simplification of the task Lantolf and Appel (1994) provide. Then, it comes to keeping learners on the task. However, contrasted to what Lantolf and Appel (ibid) theorize, McKenzie believes that the learners have to be left when it comes to making decision. Although the basic part of scaffolding and interaction should not be ignored, the learners need to explore different paths in order to achieve their objective of the task by their own realization. Furthermore, McKenzie (1999) maintains that in addition to the interaction with the more knowledgeable person, learners can benefit from other sources too, thus, the education has to introduce them other sources. Similar to Lantolf and Appel's list, McKenzie sees the expected outcome as a necessary feature of the scaffolding procedure. Finally, the disappointment, vagueness, and surprise have to be eliminated in the course of completing the task.

Walqui (2006) provides four sources for teachers as scaffolders and learners as being scaffolded to benefit from. So far as teachers are concerned, they can play the role of the experts as individuals who provide guidance, advice, and models through the course of acting upon tasks. However, Walqui believes that learners on some particular occasions can play the role of an expert. In relation to learners who benefit from scaffolding, the collaboration among learners can lead to the construction of the final outcome of the task. Also, the mere assistance of the lower learner might cause the more expert person to reconstruct his own understanding of the procedures with a clearer picture. The last source for learners could be their own internal devices, such as inner speech. These sources are purpose specific. Sam (2011) asserts that since scaffolding happens within the zone of proximal development, which is a dynamic concept, therefore, the scaffoldings projected from different sources has to be purpose specific, not randomly chosen.

Scaffolding in sociocultural theory in general, and the zone of proximal development in particular happens in the interaction. This is based on the fundamental consideration of the theory that the development also happens

in the interaction, or more specifically in the discourse of the theory, that is the dialogue. Kumar et al. (2007) conducted a study in order to evaluate the importance of the dialogue, as realized within the zone of proximal development through scaffolding. They concluded that first of all scaffolding, as it happens, is a dynamic process. The process is tuned in a tutorial dialogue where the support that is fed to the learner leads to significantly more learning. This is contrasted in their study to the static support that teachers provide for the learners, one of the most common forms of which is the direct guidance and assistance the teacher provides for the learner. So far as direct scaffolding is concerned, Stone (1998) warns that too much adherence to scaffolding as a direct guideline might leave the students imposed, while the dynamic support as Kumar et al. (2007) discuss happens through the topic of conversation. Each time the learner shows some signs of development the support is gradually omitted and this leads to the continuity of the conversation until there is a barrier again, in the tutorial dialogue, where learners need more support.

5. Conditions of scaffolding

Scaffolding requires some conditions to be effective and productive. Baleghizadeh et al. (2011) believe that scaffolding is mistakenly interwoven with the status of the teacher. However, this idea is in contrast with Mercer (1994). There are other individuals in the educational setting, learners mostly, to provide scaffolding other learners who are in the need of help. Also, scaffolding needs mediation. This is related to the indirect relationship the mental functioning has with the external world. Thus, scaffolding needs to be indirect for the most parts. Nassaji and Swain (2000) point to their study on contingent stage of scaffolding. They believe that scaffolding should be graduated. In other words, the process has to be negotiated and the scaffolding technique has to be implemented structurally. Through the writing activities Nassaji and Swain introduced to the learners as means to challenge them, the researchers found that the opportunities for scaffolding were not so much successful when learners received highly structured scaffolding. Lantolf and Thorne (2006), on other grounds, mention that the cognitive functions of the learners should not rely too much on external mediation if the internalization of the task is to be successful. Baleghizadeh et al. (2011) who studied the difference between high structured scaffolding and low structured scaffolding concluded that the guidance should be tuned to the minimum level for effective scaffolding. This is similar to what Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) analyzed in their study that even the learners initiate their scaffolding ability in the most indirect fashion. If the scaffolded person is not able to benefit from the assistance, the scaffolder, step by step, tries to enlighten the lower learner to more direct form of scaffolding. They regarded 12 levels from the most implicit form of scaffolding to the most explicit form. Van Lier (1988) emphasizes the current ability of the learners which according to him should not be ignored since it might let learner self-repair. Therefore, too much guidance might hinder or slow down the process of learning.

In contrast to the above mentioned research on the structured scaffolding, Mariani (1997) argues that the support for the learners have to be high and at the same time challenging. He discusses that those classes that have highly challenging environment but lack the adequate support suffer from the learner's frustration condition. Even if the challenge put forth for the learner is low but the support is high, this causes learners to have a good feeling superficially, thus, no significant learning occurs. Also, low challenging and low support classes result boring classes. Therefore, he concludes that the high challenging and high support is the most appropriate form of structured scaffolding.

When the opportunity is right for scaffolding to be implemented, Vedder (1985) believes that the following conditions have to be met. Scaffolding should not be directed nonstop through the course of interaction but has to be particular to any misunderstanding or lack of understanding in the content of the lesson. Each person might benefit differently from scaffolding, that is, the technique has to be finely tuned to his level. Also, scaffolding has to be in the right time and the right place. The learner has to receive it when he is encountered with a question or error. Furthermore, the scaffolding needs to be clear and effective for him to let him solve the problem properly.

The conditions of scaffolding are set on through the interactional processes as an experienced opportunity. The individual who scaffolds others actually puts himself between the resources of the person and the task or external world (Lidz, 1991). This mediation selects and shapes the environmental experiences, and at the same time provides him feedback. The complex system of this mediation makes Lidz (1991) assume the interaction during the scaffolding process as an artistic dance. Medonca and Johnson (1994) focused on the feedback part of the mediation in their study. They concluded that the feedback learners provide during their interaction include a)

question which is the request for clarification and explanation; b) explanation which is the expanding of the ideas; c) restatement which is the repetition of the idea in other words; d) suggestion; and e) grammatical correction.

McCosker and Diezmann (2009) emphasize that despite so many conditions outlined for effective scaffolding, one needs to be reminded that not all the conversation between the teacher and the student could be considered scaffolding. What happens in the process of interaction which makes scaffolding to be activated is the awareness of the student's thinking as well as his responsiveness to the give and take during the course of interaction. The learners have to realize that they have to try to achieve more, that is, their established assumption about the teacher or more expert person as the store house of knowledge from which they can gain information should be altered.

So far as teacher's responsibility in relation to scaffolding is concerned, the teacher should not reveal the solution to the problem about which they are discussing abruptly. He needs to realize that the learner's question is a sign of wanting more and discovering new things, and this is exactly where progress toward changing potential development to actual development happens (Anghileri, 2006). The desire of the learner for development signals the idea that the learner has to be centered in the course of interaction. As a result, the holding back and assistance that the more expert person provides paves the way for active participation of the learner, which is actually the result of his centeredness.

6. Tools of scaffolding

To make scaffolding more practical, researchers have provided different kinds of means for the implementation of scaffolding. Wood et al. (1976) believe that explaining the process of the task for better elaboration and justification of the learner can assist him. Also, modeling is not without advantage since it ignites the imitation of the behavior. Van de Pol et al. (2010) emphasize mostly on questioning as a constant means available to teachers in the classroom in order to set the scene for scaffolding. It can cover areas of linguistic as well as metalinguistic knowledge. Questioning not only directs the learner, but also allows the teacher to find the level of the learner before and after scaffolding (ibid). Gibbons (2003) considers teacher's question as the most powerful tool in cognitive development of English as a second language learning environment. The purpose of question, according to Edwards (2005) and Edwards and Mercer (1987), is to keep the flow of interaction constant, since it requires an answer, and this, implicitly or explicitly, leads learners to achieve their instructional goal. Also, learners can make their frustration clear through the question and answer process. Palincsar (1982, cited in Kim 2012) believes that the question can make the learners draw on their background knowledge and relate what they already know to what they do not know. Wong-Fillmore (1985) even goes a step further and considers question as a device to reconceptualize the thinking style of the students as well as their knowledge about English.

Kim (2010) focuses on the process of questioning and divides it into three types: coaching, facilitating, and collaborating. By coaching questions, he means those types which

help students monitor their own thinking and utterance, give commands, add more information, remind students of what they need to do in class, help them think about the focus of a class activity, summarize, and model a class activity (p. 118).

The coaching questions are necessary for the successful accomplishment of the task. In addition, it leaves some degrees of freedom for the learner to conjecture. The teacher can also benefit from the facilitating question to

deepen student understanding about English language, text comprehension, and communicating while maintaining a supportive classroom learning environment...[it also] invite[s] students input, help students deepen their understanding of vocabulary... help them articulate or elaborate on what they said, encourage student interaction, seek students' opinion, or validate students' creative language use (p.118).

Finally the collaborative question is to share experience which is a kind of supportive questioning type for a better affective relationship.

McDevitt and Ormrod (2002, cited in Verenikina 2004) take some of the features of scaffolding outlined above as techniques for the realization of scaffolding. Dividing the task into manageable pieces, guiding learners

throughout the performance of the task, and attracting concentration hints are some of the examples of the scaffolding techniques they provide. Berk (2002) goes beyond that and states that breaking the task into manageable pieces is actually the most common technique, especially in the task of reading. This is opposed to what Kim (2010) demonstrates on his model of questioning that the analysis of interactions between the teacher and students shows that question and answer is the basis of any instructional setting, and actually an old one. Hartman (2002) provides a list of techniques for scaffolding: models, cues, prompts, hints, partial solution, think aloud modeling, and direct instruction.

Sam (2011) provides a model for different realizations of scaffolding. In his model, three types of scaffolding play major roles, namely: content scaffolding, strategic scaffolding, and procedural scaffolding. Figure 1 illustrates the model

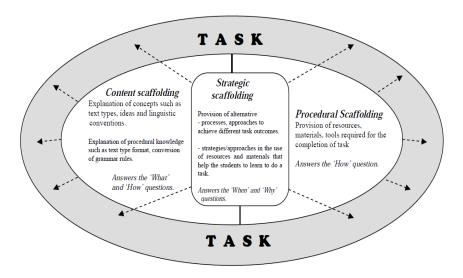


Fig. 1. Purposeful Scaffolding (Taken from Sam, 2011).

Sam (ibid) turns to other researchers to provide a specific definition for the three types of scaffolding. According to Luke et al. (2005, cited in Sam 2011) content scaffolding refers to "the guidance provided to the students in terms of concept maps and definitions to help them learn to do a given task" (p.3). As illustrated in Figure 1, the interactional form of this type of scaffolding is the answer to "What" and "How" questions the teacher might ask. The same authors define procedural scaffolding as "the guidance on how to utilize available resources, materials, and tools to help a student learn to do a given task" (p. 3). The interactional basis of this type of scaffolding is answers learners provide to the "How" questions. Finally, Luke et al. (2005) define strategic scaffolding as "the guidance on alternative strategies or approaches that help the students learn to do a task" (Sam, 2011, p.3). This type refers to the answer to the "When" and "Why" questions.

Mercer (1996) analyzed the talk among children in a collaborative activity in the classroom instruction. He divided children's talks into three types. Disputational talk is the first form of talk. According to Mercer (ibid), this form of talk resonates disagreement in decision making, lack of offering resources, and constructive suggestion by learners. As a result, the utterances of learners are short and opposing for most of the time. Cumulative talk, the second form of talk, seems to be more positive and constructive; however, learners do not try to reflect critically on the comments of their fellow partners in the course of interaction. They usually affirm each other, thus, they have cumulate knowledge rather than constructing knowledge. Repetition is the most common feature of this kind of talk. The last form of talk, which is considered by the author as the most effective and constructive form, is exploratory talk. Here, the learners are not only positive and constructive, but also reflect on the comments of others critically. They try to challenge each other, and in a friendly environment offer their reasons and

justification for their own and others' ideas. The explanation and encouragement of cooperation rather than competition as well as shared understanding are the three most dominant features of exploratory talk. Mercer believes that the exploratory talk motivates learners to be accountable for their roles in the social talk; therefore, everyone tries to contribute to the talk. The outcome of such talks is a jointed agreement on the topic of discussion.

7. Considerations on effective scaffolding

As previously mentioned, it is not only the teacher who can hold the status of the scaffolder, but also a peer learner can replace this position. Sociocultural theory, as we know it today, has expanded the concept of scaffolding to other forms of collaborative work. Although Vygotsky, in his discussion in relation to the effective instruction, focused on interaction within the higher level of learner's development by the teacher, Donato (1994) believes that the mutual scaffolding among learners of second language can be effective. This is what current researchers in the field know it as peer-scaffolding. Van Lier (2000) introduces another categorization of scaffolding. He maintains that there are majorly two forms of scaffolding namely asymmetrical scaffolding in which there is the presence of an expert and novice in the process (similar to teacher-student scaffolding), and that of symmetrical scaffolding in which the individuals have equal ability (similar to peer scaffolding). However, the peer scaffolding process, in contrast to what van Lier (ibid) mentions, could function in an unequal way. It means that the peers could also take hold of the more expert person in some areas, while playing the role of being scaffolded in others.

Amerian et al. (2014) believe that the researchers and teachers have to be cautious about the delicacies of scaffolding. The presence of a more expert person (teacher for example) is not the only factor in successful scaffolding, but the more expert person should have the knowledge about the features, conditions, and tools of scaffolding. Also, Amerian et al. (ibid) concluded that the learners need to be familiar with the process of scaffolding in their class and peer scaffolding sessions in order to construct the knowledge from the perspective of SCT. Even if peer scaffolding, in the form of collaborative dialogue, could be used within the classroom environment, the learners' perception, which is a culturally bound phenomenon, should not be ignored in assessing the success of the SCT's technique (Khodamoradi et al., 2013). In other words, learners might need the teacher status as a reliable source for their success in educational setting.

There are other related factors which might help the process of scaffolding be effective. In Guskey and Sparks (1996, cited in van de Pol et al. 2012) so far as teachers' behavior in class is concerned, the content of the lesson, the process the teacher has gone through when he first learned the content, and the strategies that he has used and was introduced to are considered important. The teacher's prior knowledge of the lesson could affect the content of his own turn in the interaction with the learners. The ability of the more expert person in order to assess the place of the learner before scaffolding begins and after it is implemented changes the result of the process. Also, the community of practice or the group that the teacher or the learner is working with appears to characterize the outcome of scaffolding. The extent to which the learners are ready to devote themselves in the task is mentioned to be significant too (cf. Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005).

8. Conclusion

Scaffolding is not only practical in research on second language acquisition from the perspective of sociocultural theory, but it is also of outmost use and practical consequence in language teaching. Researchers and teachers have benefited the concept differently. However, it seems that both groups have to be cautious regarding the features of scaffolding in their instructional and investigational concern. They have to regard what goals they will achieve through implementing scaffolding as a motivating factor in the development of mental functioning of the learners. After that, the conditions for scaffolding have to be realized on the one hand, and its effective outcome has to be considered meticulously on the other. The practical tools that have been introduced and interpreted by scholars in the field need the moment by moment attention of implementers of the concept since it is through the dialogue that users of scaffolding could benefit from the technique. This relates the concern to the effective consideration that has to be born in mind when conducting research or using the concept as a teaching tool.

References

- Aljaafreh, A., Lantolf, J.P., 1994. Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. Modern Language J., 78, 465-483.
- Amerian, M., Ahmadian, M., Mehri, E., 2014. Sociocultural theory in practice: The effect of teacher, class, and peer scaffolding on the writing development of EFL learners. Int. J. Appl. Linguist. English Literat., 3(5), 1-12.
- Anghileri, J., 2006. Scaffolding practices that enhance mathematics learning. J. Mathemat. Teacher Educat., 9, 33-52
- Baleghizadeh, S., Timcheh Memar, A., Timcheh Memar, H., 2011. A sociocultural perspective on second language acquisition: The effect of high-structured scaffolding versus low-structured scaffolding on the writing ability of EFL learners. Reflection on English Language Teach., 10 (1), 43-54.
- Berk, L., 2002. Child development (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bruner, J., 1983. Child's talk. New York: Norton.
- Bruner, J., 1986. Actual minds, possible worlds. USA: Harvard University Press.
- Cook, V., 2008. Second language learning and language teaching (4th ed.). London: Holder Education.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Bransford, J., (Eds.)., 2005. Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do. San Francisco: Wiley.
- Dewey, J., 2004. Democracy and Education: An introduction to the philosophy of education. Delhi: AAKAR BOOKS.
- Donato, R., 1994. Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf and G. Apple (Eds.). Vygotsk. appr. sec. language res., 33-56. Norwood, NJ: Albex.
- Edwards, D. and Mercer, M. (1987). Common knowledge: The development of understanding in the classroom. London: Methuen and Co. Lts.
- Gibbons, P., 2003. Mediating language learning: teacher interaction with ESL students in a content-based classroom. TESOL Quarterly., 37(2), 247-273.
- Goos, M., 2004. Learning mathematics in a classroom community of inquiry. J. Res. Mathemat. Educat., 35(4), 258-291.
- Hartman, H., 2002. Scaffolding and cooperative learning. Human Learning and Instruction, (pp. 23-69). New York: City College of City University of New York.
- Khodamoradi, A., Iravani, H., Jafarigohar, M., Amerian, M., 2013. Teacher's Scaffolding Vs. Peers' Collaborative Dialogue: Implementing an Innovation in the Sociocultural Context of Iranian Universities. Middle-East J. Sci. Res., 14(9), 1212-1220.
- Kim, Y., 2010. Scaffolding through questions in upper elementary ELL learning. Literacy teach. learn., 15 (1 & 2), 109-137.
- Kong, A., 2002. Scaffolding in a learning community of practice: A case study of a gradual release of responsibility from the teacher to students. Paper pres. Annu. Meet. Int. Read. Assoc., San Francisco, April 28, May 2.
- Kumar, R., Rosé, C., Wang, Y., Joshi, M., Robinson, A., 2007. Tutorial Dialogue as Adaptive Collaborative Learning Support. Artific. Intell. Educat., 158, 383-390.
- Lange, V.L., 2002. Instructional scaffolding: A teaching strategy. Retrieved from. http://condor.admin.ccny.cuny.edu/~group4/Cano/Cano%20Paper.doc
- Lantolf, J.P., Appel, G., 1994. Theoretical framework: an introduction to Vygotskian perspectives on second language research. In J. Lantolf and G. Appel (ed.), Vygotskian approaches to second language research. pp 1-31, Westport, CA: Albex Publish.
- Lidz, C.S., 1991. Practitioner's guide to dynamic assessment. New York: Guilford Press.
- Lukem A., Freebody, P., Cazden, C., Lin, A., 2005. Singapore pedagogy coding manual. Singapore. Centre Res. Pedago. Pract.
- Mariani, L., 1997. Teacher support and teacher challenge in promoting learner autonomy. Perspectives, 23(2). Retrieved from www.learningpaths.org/papers/papersupport.html.
- McCosker, N., Diezmann, C., 2009. Scaffolding students' thinking in mathematical investigations. Australian Primary Mathematics Classroom., 14(3), 27-33.
- McKenzie, J., 2000. Scaffolding for success. Beyond technology, questioning, research and the information literate school community. Retrieved from http://fno.org/dec99/scaffold.html.
- Medonca, C.O., Johnson K.E., 1994. Peer review negotiations: Revision activities in ESL writing instruction. TESOL Quarterly., 28, 745-769.

- Mercer, N., 1994. Neo-Vygotskian theory and classroom education. In B. Steirer and J. Maybin (Eds.), Language, literacy and learning in educational practice (pp. 92-110). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Mercer, N., 1996. The quality of talk in children's collaborative activity in the classroom. Learn. instruct., 6 (4), 359-377
- Nassaji, H., Swain, M., 2000. A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback in L2: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English article. Language Awareness., 9, 34.41.
- Pressly, M., 2002. Comprehension strategies instruction: A turn-of-the-century status report. In M. Pressley and C.C. Block (Eds.), Comprehension instruction: Research-based best practices. New York: Guillford.
- Sam, C., 2011. Purposeful scaffolding: Beyond modeling and thinking aloud. Retrieved from conference.nie.edu. sg/paper/Converted%20Pdf/ab00655.pdf
- Schwieter, J. 2010. Developing second language writing through scaffolding in the ZPD: A magazine project for an authentic audience. J. College Teach. Learn., 7 (10), 31-46.
- Stone, A.,1998. The metaphor of scaffolding: Its utility for the field of learning disabilities. J. Learn. Disabilit., 40 (3), 344-364.
- Tharp, R.G., Gillmore, R., 1988. Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling social context. Cambridge: University Press.
- Van de Pol, J., Volman, M., Beishuizen, J., 2012. Promoting teacher scaffolding in small group work: A contingency perspective. Teach. Teacher Educat., 28, 193-205.
- Van Lier, L., 1988. The classroom and the language learner. London: Longman.
- Van Lier, L., 1996. Interaction in the language classroom. Essex: Longman Group.
- Van Lier, L., 2000. From input to affordance: Socio-interactive learning from an ecological perspective. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), Soc. theory sec. language learn., (pp. 245-259). Oxford: OUP.
- Vedder, P., 1985. Cooperative learning: A study on processes and effects of cooperation between primary school children. Westerhaven Groningen, Netherlands: Rijkuniversiteit Groningen.
- Verenikina, I., 2004. From theory to practice: What does the metaphor of scaffolding mean to educators today. Outlines., 2, 5-15.
- Walqui, A., 2006. Scaffolding instruction for English language learners: A conceptual framework. Int. J. Bilingual Educat., Bilingual., 9 (2), 159-180.
- Wells, G., 1999. Dialogic inquiry: Toward sociocultural practice and theory of education. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wong-Fillmore, L., 1985. Language minority students and school participation: What kind of English is needed. J. Educat., 164(2), 143-156.
- Wood, D., Bruner, J.S., Ross, G., 1976. The role of tutoring in problem solving. J. Child Psychol. Psych. All. Discipl., 17, 69-100.