Student Thought and Classroom Language: Examining the Mechanisms of Change in Dialogic Teaching

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Dialogue, as a communication form characterized by its commitment to inclusiveness and rationality, has long been advocated by educators as a mechanism for helping students become better thinkers. Unfortunately, numerous claims about the educational potential of participating in dialogue have not resulted in substantial changes in classroom practices. Studies have consistently shown that in today’s schools the dominant discourse remains largely monologic. In this article, we present a testable theory of change that suggests how sociocultural processes in a dialogic classroom influence students’ development. We identify and discuss three learning outcomes of dialogic teaching, including epistemological understanding, argument skills, and disciplinary knowledge. We then critically review empirical research related to the proposed theory, highlighting unsolved questions, inconsistencies, and directions for future studies. Finally, we focus on the implications of the proposed integrated theory and reviewed research for teachers and their language use in a classroom.

For decades, educators have been captivated by the role classroom language plays in shaping students’ thinking (Caizen, 2001; Halliday, 1993; Vygotsky, 1981; Wells, 1999). Although language is increasingly seen as the primary mechanism for learning, not all communication patterns are considered to be equally effective, especially for promoting student behaviors at the higher levels of cognitive complexity. Theorists and researchers have suggested that the true pedagogical value of a verbal exchange between teachers and students lies in its dialogic organization (R. J. Alexander, 2005; Bakhtin, 1984; Freire, 1993; Mead, 1962; Nystrand, Wu, Gamoran, Zeiser, & Long, 2003). When explaining the meaning of genuine dialogue, Bakhtin (1984) distinguished it from “monologism, which pretends to possess a ready-made truth” (p. 110). In monologic teaching, “someone who knows and possesses the truth instructs someone who is ignorant of it and in error” (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 81). In contrast, in a dialogic classroom “truth … is born between people collectively searching for truth, in the process of their dialogic interaction” (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 110). In a similar way, though in more political terms, Freire (1993) diagnosed monologic education as “suffering from narration sickness,” typified by the teacher whose “task is to ‘fill’ the students with the contents of his narration” (p. 52). He famously referred to this kind of pedagogy as “the ‘baking’ concept of education, in which the scope of action allowed to the students extends only as far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits” (p. 53). Freire proposed an alternative model of “problem-posing education [that] regards dialogue as indispensable to the act of cognition” (p. 64).

Broadly defined, dialogic teaching is a pedagogical approach that involves students in the collaborative construction of meaning and is characterized by shared control over the key aspects of classroom discourse (R. J. Alexander, 2008; Burbules, 1993; Freire, 1993; Webb et al., 2007). Many educational theorists have advocated for a more widespread use of dialogic teaching (Burbules, 1993; Gregory, 2004; Lipman, 1988; Paul, 1986; Wells, 2000). There is also emerging empirical evidence to indicate its potential to help students develop higher order thinking and deeper understanding of subject-matter knowledge (Murphy, Soter, Wilkinson, Hennessey, & Alexander, 2009; Reznitskaya et al., 2009; Schwarz, Neuman, & Biezuner, 2000; Wegerif, Mercer, & Dawes, 1999). Nevertheless, the predominant mode of classroom communication today remains monologic rather than dialogic (R. J. Alexander, 2005; Mehan, 1998; Nystrand et al.,...
Definition and Assumptions

Inquiry Dialogue

dialogic practices in the classroom...

only make it clear for professional teachers...

rs. and teachers in the classroom...
the evaluativist epistemology. However, arguing for our commitment to the evaluativist position is beyond the scope of this article. For an insightful discussion of this topic, please refer to Terry Eagleton’s (2003) chapter “Truth, Virtue and Objectivity.”

Multiplist and absolutist epistemologies are incompatible with dialogic teaching. In the words of Bakhtin (1984), “both relativism and dogmatism equally exclude all argumentation, all authentic dialogue, by making it either unnecessary . . . or impossible” (p. 69). Despite their differences, both multiplicists and absolutists rely on fundamentally monologic assumptions about knowledge: They either discount a possibility of shared understanding or insist on an absolute truth (Sidorkin, 1999). Multiplist would fail to appreciate the value of inquiry dialogue in a classroom because they see knowledge as entirely relative and idiosyncratic. Likewise, absolutists would see no need for engaging in collective knowledge construction and critique because they believe that only authority figures have legitimate knowledge. Thus, it is evaluativist epistemology that provides for a suitable context for using inquiry dialogue in teaching. In an evaluativist classroom, teachers and, gradually, their students come to see knowledge as “the product of a continuous process of examination, comparison, evaluation, and judgment of different, sometimes competing, explanations and perspectives” (Kuhn, 1991, p. 202).

Notably, evaluativist views depart significantly from the core assumptions about knowledge and learning that have shaped Western schooling (Windschitl, 2002). Instead, traditional instruction reflects behaviorist and absolutist conceptions. Knowledge is transmitted to learners by authority figures through the unambiguous use of language. Learning involves passively and unselectively receiving and reproducing knowledge known by experts in its original, objective form. According to Freire (1993), this tradition assumes that “knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing. Projecting an absolute ignorance onto others . . . negates education and knowledge as a process of inquiry” (p. 53). These assumptions are manifested in contemporary schools through a familiar recitation sequence, which has been well documented and criticized as the prevalent mode of classroom communication (e.g., R. J. Alexander, 2008; Alvermann, O’Brien, & Dillon, 1996; Henning & Lockhart, 2003; Mehan, 1998; Nystrand et al., 2003; Onosko, 1990). During recitation, teachers initiate and control all communication. Students speak only to respond to “test” questions, recalling basic, often disconnected bits of information. Student responses are then evaluated by the teacher, whose authority cannot be questioned and who serves as the only source of right answers.

In contrast, dialogic teaching embodies sociocultural and constructivist theories of learning and reflects evaluativist epistemology (e.g., Anderson, 1977; Mead, 1962; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969; Vygotsky, 1962; Wertsch & Bivens, 1992).

According to these perspectives, students are viewed as active meaning makers who learn through constructing and negotiating new understandings in interaction-rich communities of practice. In addition to the development of subject-matter knowledge, the goals of schooling include the appropriation of intellectual dispositions that underlie the construction of disciplinary expertise.

Social and Interactional Practices in a Dialogic Classroom

What should be happening in a dialogic classroom? Although various programs and practices have evolved, some of which describe dialogic teaching somewhat differently, there are key distinguishing characteristics that consistently appear across multiple accounts (e.g., Burbules, 1993; Lipman, 1988; Mercer & Littetal, 2007; Nystrand et al., 2003; Paul, 1986; Scott, Mortimer, & Aguilar, 2006; Wells, 2000; Wilkinson, Reninger, & Soter, 2010). First, in dialogic teaching power relations are flexible, and responsibilities for the form and content of talk are shared among group members. Classrooms are transformed into learning communities, where participants meet on terms of equality and take on key roles in navigating class communication: They ask questions, participate in turn management, and evaluate one another’s answers (Sharp & Splinter, 1995). “The . . . teacher loses the position of external boss or dictator, but takes on that of leader of group activities” (Dewey, 1967, p. 59). As teachers in a dialogic discussion strategically support disciplined inquiry into contestable questions, they “treat students as potential sources of knowledge and opinion, and in so doing complicate expert-novice hierarchies” (Nystrand et al., 2003, p. 140). It is important to note that such a view of teacher-student relations does not dismiss the authority of a teacher as a more knowledgeable partner in a discussion. Burbules (1993) argued that acknowledging authority based on one’s expertise or experience does not necessarily threaten the egalitarian nature of interactions and, instead, helps to enhance the intellectual rigor of inquiry. He explained,

authority in the context of dialogical relation can have legitimacy, based neither on institutionalized roles and privileges nor on unexamined assumptions about expertise. Nor need it be seen as a static possession of one partner . . . Rather, authority should be viewed as growing out of on-going communicative interchange that acknowledges differences in knowledge, experience, or ability without reifying them. (p. 34)

One aspect of this communicative interchange is that students come to understand their teacher’s mastery of a subject as resulting from her own participation in another, professional community (i.e., of mathematicians, historians, or biologists). This understanding grounds but also qualifies the teacher’s content expertise. Students see her, on one hand, as a professional who can guide, inform, and at times correct their own inquiries but also, on the other hand, as someone
Thermodynamics and thermodynamics are essential processes that allow all the chemical and physical processes to occur. In a closed system, where no mass or heat is exchanged, these processes are driven by the second law of thermodynamics. The entropy of the system increases as the process proceeds, and this increase is quantified by the change in the entropy of the universe.

In a cyclic process, where the initial and final states are the same, the entropy change is zero. This is a fundamental principle in chemical engineering, where cyclic processes are often used to maximize efficiency.

The concept of entropy is crucial in understanding the behavior of mixtures. In a mixture, the entropy of the system is greater than the sum of the entropies of the pure components. This is because mixing the components increases the disorder or randomness of the system. If the mixture is heated, the entropy increases due to the increased disorder.

In a solution, the entropy of the system is increased due to the increased disorder caused by the mixing of solvent and solute molecules. This is because the solvent molecules are able to move around more freely in the presence of the solute molecules.

In a condensation reaction, the entropy of the system decreases due to the increased order caused by the formation of a solid product. This is because the liquid molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid molecules.

In a combustion reaction, the entropy of the system decreases due to the increased order caused by the formation of a solid product. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid molecules.

In a decomposition reaction, the entropy of the system increases due to the increased disorder caused by the formation of two or more products. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid or liquid molecules.

In a dissociation reaction, the entropy of the system increases due to the increased disorder caused by the formation of two or more products. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid or liquid molecules.

In a disproportionation reaction, the entropy of the system increases due to the increased disorder caused by the formation of two or more products. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid or liquid molecules.

In a precipitation reaction, the entropy of the system decreases due to the increased order caused by the formation of a solid product. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid molecules.

In a redox reaction, the entropy of the system increases due to the increased disorder caused by the formation of two or more products. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid or liquid molecules.

In a neutralization reaction, the entropy of the system decreases due to the increased order caused by the formation of a solid product. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid molecules.

In a synthesis reaction, the entropy of the system decreases due to the increased order caused by the formation of a solid product. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid molecules.

In a retrograde reaction, the entropy of the system decreases due to the increased order caused by the formation of a solid product. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid molecules.

In a substitution reaction, the entropy of the system increases due to the increased disorder caused by the formation of two or more products. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid or liquid molecules.

In a transmutation reaction, the entropy of the system increases due to the increased disorder caused by the formation of two or more products. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid or liquid molecules.

In a dehydration reaction, the entropy of the system increases due to the increased disorder caused by the formation of two or more products. This is because the gaseous molecules are able to move around more freely than the solid or liquid molecules.
Educational and Career Development is a complex process involving the integration and development of an individual's knowledge and skills. This process is shaped by a wide range of factors, including the individual's background, experiences, and social context. As such, educational and career development is a dynamic and multifaceted process that requires continuous learning and adaptation.

Learning Processes and Outcomes

The proposed framework for career development is based on the idea that career development is a lifelong process that involves a series of stages, each characterized by specific learning outcomes and developmental goals. The framework emphasizes the importance of continuous learning and adaptation, as well as the role of social and cultural context in shaping career development.

Theoretical Model of Career Development

In this model, career development is viewed as a complex process that involves the interaction of multiple factors, including individual differences, social and cultural context, and environmental influences. The model suggests that career development is a dynamic process that involves a series of stages, each characterized by specific learning outcomes and developmental goals. The framework emphasizes the importance of continuous learning and adaptation, as well as the role of social and cultural context in shaping career development.

Teaching and Learning

In this section, we present a proposed model that explains the process of teaching and learning in educational and career development. The model emphasizes the importance of active participation and engagement in the learning process, as well as the role of feedback and assessment in promoting learning and development.

References and Notes

1. The proposed framework for career development is based on the work of... (1966), who argued that career development is a complex process that involves a series of stages, each characterized by specific learning outcomes and developmental goals. The framework emphasizes the importance of continuous learning and adaptation, as well as the role of social and cultural context in shaping career development.

2. The model of career development is based on the work of... (1994), who proposed a framework for understanding the process of career development that emphasizes the role of social and cultural context in shaping career outcomes.

3. The framework of career development is based on the work of... (1980), who argued that career development is a complex process that involves a series of stages, each characterized by specific learning outcomes and developmental goals. The framework emphasizes the importance of continuous learning and adaptation, as well as the role of social and cultural context in shaping career development.

4. The proposed model for teaching and learning is based on the work of... (1979), who argued that teaching and learning are complex processes that involve a range of factors, including individual differences, social and cultural context, and environmental influences.
important commonalities in their experiences and, as a result, develop an internal abstract knowledge structure. We call this the cognitive structure of knowledge development. The concept of an argument (Anderson et al., 1983) has been employed previously in the study of argument and reasoning (Becker & Scarabino, 1985). For example, Walton (1996) used the term "argument" to describe the process of reasoning, whereas Walton & Howat (1987) used the term "diagram." Walton's (1996) study of argument and reasoning was based on the belief that understanding the process of argumentation requires understanding the process of reasoning. To specify the nature of arguments, Walton & Howat (1987) suggested a model of rational argument, which is shown in Table 1. The model is based on the idea that arguments consist of propositions, which are statements about the world that can be true or false. The model also includes the notion of argumentation, which is the process of constructing and evaluating arguments. The concept of argumentation is further developed in the context of everyday argumentative discourse, including arguments in expert opinion, example, analogy, and so on. Other recent research on arguments, including the notion of pragma-dialectical reasoning (e.g., Walton, 1996), has led to the development of a more nuanced view of argumentation.
functions of argument schemes

...
thinking about a given topic may be different from that of "some people." We suggest that this stratagem prompts students to come up with opposing perspectives that may not have been voiced otherwise. It also provides students with an effective means by which to incorporate counterarguments in their essays.

To summarize, our theoretical model, shown in Figure 1, accounts for learning processes and outcomes in a dialogic classroom for both individual students and a classroom community. Teachers with evaluativist epistemology create the necessary context for inquiry dialogue, supporting the use of normative participatory and discursive practices by classroom members. These practices include shared control over group communication, focus on collective inquiry into open-ended questions, and the use of metacognitive tools that help to regulate both processes and products of inquiry dialogue.

In a dialogic classroom, the capacities of the teacher and more advanced students become distributed among other members of the group, who observe, practice, and gradually internalize new ways of speaking and thinking. In other words, students transform interpersonal, external relations into intrapersonal mental functions, thus building their intellectual capacities. We have identified three transferrable learning outcomes in a dialogic classroom. First, participation in inquiry dialogue helps students develop beliefs about knowledge and knowing that are consistent with evaluativist epistemology. Evaluativist epistemology supports the activation and use of an argument schema, another outcome of dialogic teaching. A developed argument schema includes the knowledge of logical structures, standards of evidence, and stratagems useful in argumentation. Because schemas are abstract, they can be generalized across multiple contexts. Thus, students in dialogic classrooms should perform better on argument-related tasks that they encounter outside the dialogic circle. Third, by engaging in a collaborative inquiry in a variety of academic disciplines, such as reading, science, and math, students acquire more complex, nuanced, and personally meaningful disciplinary knowledge. Notably, in a dialogic classroom, not only are the three learning outcomes—evaluativist epistemology, argument schemas, and disciplinary knowledge—developed parallel to one another but each contributes to, and reinforces, the development of the others. Finally, in a cyclical process of individual and group transformations, students with more developed epistemologies, argument schemas, and substantive knowledge act to enhance the quality of inquiry dialogue in the collective. In other words, as members of a classroom community become more advanced in their intellectual capacities, they contribute new thought and language practices to group discussions, thus stimulating new rounds of development.
The way to do high school, so that you can be a

Research on Dialogic Teaching

Features of Dialogic Classrooms

AND LEARNING

RECENTS AND REPORTS
Learning Process and Outcomes

One of the more direct uses of the interactive process of

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Student Epistemologies
Teacher's lead to accept seat. (2)

Which is important in one child and which is not.

Education is important in each child, and their development.

The need for understanding models for teacher preparation.

Classroom teachers.

The need for understanding models for teacher preparation.

Characteristics of a good teacher's education.

Teacher's knowledge.

Research on teacher development.
improvised her, leaving her with very limited functions to
voice. She was unable to communicate effectively,
agreeable, she was referred to an aphasia specialist.
A speech-language pathology evaluation was
completed, and she was diagnosed with nonfluent
aphasia. With the help of a speech-language
pathologist, her communication skills improved,
allowing her to participate in classroom activities.

In the classroom, the teacher and the students
worked together to create a supportive
environment. The teacher used various strategies
to help Sweetie understand and communicate,
such as visual aids, repetition, and simple
commands. The students were encouraged to
wait for Sweetie's response before speaking, and
they were taught to use gestures and
comprehension checks to help her understand their
instructions.

As Sweetie's language skills improved, she began
to participate more actively in classroom activities.
She was able to follow simple instructions and
respond to questions. The students and the teacher
were proud of her progress and continued to
support her in her communication development.

In conclusion, Sweetie's case highlights the
importance of early intervention and support in
the development of language skills. With the help
of a speech-language pathologist and the
collaboration of her classmates, Sweetie was able
to make significant progress and participate more
actively in classroom activities.
is a teaching point that might further understanding of the
process of observation with an example from the video
you showed in your lecture. The contrast of the two cases
I mentioned earlier is striking. The first case... (0102)
(91, 875)

The key to effective observation is knowing and understand-
ing the purpose of the observation. You mentioned
how difficult this can be, especially with your English
classroom observation, which did not go as planned.

Let’s explore ways of overcoming the challenges and

- Developing your ability to observe
- Observational measures of intention alignment

As you observed in your classroom, you may notice
students engaging in disruptive behaviors, such as

(0385, 1190)

teacher feedback and professional development.

You mentioned that this was a challenging experience
for your students and yourself. The key to effective
observation is understanding the purpose and
context of the observation.

The key to effective observation is knowing and under-
standing the purpose of the observation. You mentioned
how difficult this can be, especially with your English
classroom observation, which did not go as planned.

Let’s explore ways of overcoming the challenges and

- Developing your ability to observe
- Observational measures of intention alignment

As you observed in your classroom, you may notice
students engaging in disruptive behaviors, such as

(0385, 1190)
REFERENCES

Impact of technology on classroom.

As technology becomes increasingly integrated into our daily lives, it is important to consider how it can be effectively used in the classroom. We can achieve this by exploring ways in which technology can support teaching and learning. In classrooms, technology can be used to enhance student engagement, improve access to information, and provide opportunities for interactive learning experiences.

We have noted that technology can be a powerful tool in enhancing the classroom experience. As technology continues to evolve, it will be important to stay informed about the latest developments and how they can be applied in the classroom. This will require ongoing professional development opportunities for teachers, as well as collaboration with educational technology experts.

In conclusion, the pedagogical promise of digital technology in the classroom is significant, and educators should continue to explore how they can effectively integrate these tools into their teaching practices. By doing so, they can help prepare students for a world that is increasingly technology-driven.